UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE SANTA CATARINA

PROGRAMA DE PÓS-GRADUAÇÃO EM LETRAS

EFFECTS OF CONTEXTUAL REDUNDANCY ON VERB TENSE

PREDICTABILITY

DISSERTAÇÃO APRESENTADA À UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE SANTA CATA-
RINA PARA OBTER O GRAU DE MESTRE EM LETRAS – OPÇÃO INGLÊS   E
LITERATURA CORRESPONDENTE.

GONÇALINA ALVES SIMÕES

FLORIANÓPOLIS
1986

Esta dissertação foi julgada adequada para a obtenção

de

GRAU DE MESTRE EM LETRAS

Opção Inglês e Literatura Correspondente.

_____
Carmen Rosa Caldas
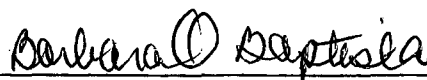ORIENTADORA

_____
Suzana Bornéo Funck
Coordenadora do Curso de   Pós-
Graduação em Letras - Opção In-
glês e Literatura Corresponden-
te.

BANCA EXAMINADORA:

_____
Profª Carmen Rosa Caldas

_____
Profª Barbara Baptista

_____
Dr. José Luiz Meurer   -

Ao meu filho Eduardo   e
à minha mãe pelo   apoio
que me deram e pelo amor
que lhes dedico.

AGRADECIMENTOS

ABSTRACT

This study is designed to investigate university students' ability to use appropriate verb forms/tenses in Longacre's four different discourse types (1983): - narrative, hortatory, expository and procedural. Four specific questions were investigated: 1) the use of verb forms/tenses in each discourse type, 2) the influence of lexical and contextual cues on the choice of appropriate forms, 3) performance in simple and complex verb forms and 4) the tendency to use or to avoid certain forms in certain contexts.

Tests were applied to postgraduate students and advanced undergraduate students of the Curso de Letras at UFSC. The results show that the students performed better in narrative then in procedural, hortatory and expository discourse in this order. It is also shown that there is a tendency to avoid passive voice, complex verb forms and modals, and to use the verb forms which mark the main line of each discourse type even when the discourse embeds a differing surface or notional structure in the supportive material.

The main conclusions are that the use of appropriate verb forms is related to discourse genre and to the contextual redundancy characterizing each discourse type.

RESUMO

Este estudo propõe a investigação da habilidade que possuem os estudantes universitários para usar formas/tempos verbais adequadamente em quatro tipos de discurso, conforme Longacre 1983: narrative, hortatory, expository e procedural. Foram propostas quatro perguntas: 1) O uso de formas verbais em cada tipo de discurso, 2) a influência de referências lexicais e contextuais no uso adequado dos verbos, 3) a tendência dos alunos em usar formas simples ou compostas e 4) a tendência de usar ou evitar formas verbais em determinados contextos.

Foram testados alunos da pós-graduação e das últimas fases da graduação do Curso de Letras da UFSC. Os resultados mostram que os alunos apresentam melhor performance com textos narrativos, e depois procedural, hortatory e expository nesta ordem. Ficou também demonstrada a tendência de evitar o uso da voz passiva, de formas compostas e de modais, e de usar as formas verbais que marcam a estrutura superficial e profunda do discurso, mesmo quando esse apresenta estruturas diferentes daquelas que marcam o tipo de discurso.

As principais conclusões são que o uso adequado das formas verbais está relacionado com o gênero literário e com a redundância contextual que marcam cada tipo de discurso.

CONTENTS

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the present study is to investigate
how contextual redundancy affects students' choice of verb
forms/tenses in different types of discourse. This study is
based on a test applied to advanced students of Universidade
Federal de Santa Catarina (UFSC).

My teaching experience has shown me that most of the
students' difficulties in learning verb tense use are due to
the methodology applied in our schools. The focus of attention
is generally on the grammatical usage; in most EFL text-books
the verb forms are presented in isolated sentences and in
artificial contexts. By artificial contexts, I mean those
contexts easily found in most of the text-books available which
intend to introduce the use of verb tense in a real situation,
but fail to do so because each lesson concentrates on specific
grammatical points.

According to Darian (1979:47) there is about 50% of
redundancy in most of the world's languages. George (1972)
points out that redundancy is present in language when we

repeat something to be understood or to be emphasized, when we use words which are originally redundant or which become redundant in certain contexts and when we predict or anticipate what we are going to hear or read based on our language knowledge and/or on the situation. Redundancy is manifested through different factors which contribute to a higher or a lower percentage of redundancy in context.

Palmer (1974:01) says that

> For almost any language the part that concerns the verb is the most difficult. Learning a language is to a very large degree learning how to operate the verb forms of that language.

In addition as Nilsen (1975:87) points out: "it is usually the verb which is basic and which holds the sentence together both syntactically and semantically". Darian (1979:52) emphasizing the importance of the verb in a sentence says that "by knowing the verb, we know what other elements to expect in the sentence". He says that if we know the verb 'put', for instance, we will be able to predict that the sentence will be compounded of agent-object-locative: 'Someone puts something somewhere', I intend to show in the present study, however, that the contrary is also true by knowing other elements of a sentence specially the context, we are able to predict the appropriate verb form/tense in different discourse types.

The author's (writer/speaker) purpose to tell, to persuade, to explain, to suggest something is directly related to the discourse type used. In this study I define and test four discourse types: Narrative, Hortatory(Behavioral), Expository of Procedural discourse based on Longacre's typology (1983). Different readers may perceive different degrees of contextual

redundancy in a particupar text. They may process the same text in different manners.

The purpose of this study is to test a hypothesis that students' choice of verb tense is contextually determined by discourse genre and that the use of appropriate verb forms is related to their ability to perceive contextual redundancy covertly present in the surface structure and overtly presented in the surface structure.

In oder to investigate this hypothesis two blocks of cloze tests which omit finite and imperative forms were applied to two groups of students: 15 undergraduate students (last 'fases') and 15 postgraduate students of the Curso de Letras. The main objectives of this research is to show 1) in which discourse type the students are most likely to predict the appropriate verb tense; 2) the influence of lexical and contextual cues on verb tense selection; 3) the students' tendency to use simple and complex verb forms and if this tendency is related to contextual and lexical redundancy; 4) the students' tendency to use or to avoid certain verb forms/tenses in certain discourse types. The analysis of these results is expected to provide evidence for the suggestion of methodological steps to the teaching of verb tense in context.

This study is divided into five chapters:

Chapter 1 provides a brief review of the literature defining redundancy and its presence in the English language, describing Longacre's typology of discourse, stressing the importance of time adverbials and the concept of time on verb tense use;

Chapter 2 systematizes the use of verb tenses relating

them to each discourse type;

Chapter 3 presents the methodological procedures and the criteria used for the data anlysis;

Chapter 4 describes and discusses the results, illustrated with examples from the data regarding each aspect analysed;

Chapter 5 presents the final conclusions and includes methodological implications of the findings, and an evaluation of the work done with suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER 1.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter discusses theoretical issues related to
the importance of contextual redundancy on verb tense choice.
It concentrates on: the presence of redundancy affecting all
language levels and the importance of contextual redundancy in
verb tense prediction; Longacre's typology of discourse and the
use of verb tense in each of his discourse type: time adverbials
and the concept of time.

1.1 The Role of Redundancy in Language

In order to analyze contextual redundancy and its
effects it is necessary, first of all, to understand what
redundancy means to what extent it is present in language and
what benefits we take from it as foreign language speakers.

According to Darian (1979:47), redundancy may be
defined as "information whose meaning may be predicted or
limited by other information in the discourse". It is that set
of information which makes the listener/reader anticipate what

s/he is going to hear/read. It includes many aspects like knowledge of the subject, previous experience, the way the information is given (theme and rheme), the social contexts (formal or informal) and the relationship between listener/reader and speaker/writer.

Darian (1979:47) says that "we can assume that redundancy, as a universal feature, does not exist in language simply by chance, specially considering that the redundant factor in most of the world's languages hovers around 50%". Almost half of what we say or hear is not new information, but it is already stated or inferred somehow in the discourse.

According to George (1972), redundancy has the general role of protecting communication, and three types of redundancy are manifested in the language. It is not easy, however, to set the bondaries among the three types, since they may overlap:

Redundancy One is the redundancy found when we repeat a statement or an order, for the purpose of emphasis or clarification.

Redundancy Two is the redundancy present in the code itself. It can be noticed in lexical or semantic items (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs) and in grammatical or function items (articles, prepositions, auxiliary verbs, conjunctions...). It is present in verb inflections (grammatical item) plus adverbs (lexical item); for example, in the sentence 'They worked hard yesterday' the verb inflection is redundant because past time is already indicated by the adverb, but if we take the adverb out, the tense marker will be necessary to decode the sentence. We have words which are always redundant like 'stem + s' and others which become redundant or not according to context. At the

discourse level we can notice the redundancy of items in narrative, for example, in a sequence of simple past where just the first verb used would be enough to set time. According to George (1972:11) "the learner will be inclined to reduce the grammatical code elements (of secondary importance) and use only nonredundant lexical items".

Redundancy Three is the redundancy present in the context, the knowledge we have about language which makes us predict or anticipate what we are going to hear or read. It is the knowledge of the code beyond what is required for the decoding of a particular message. Contextual redundancy is realized through: syntactic organization, in the way the information is given; rhetorical predicates, in words which link sentences or groups of sentences, when a piece of general information is explained in a more specific way; signalling, in specifiers, prior enumeration, summary statements. We can also notice contextual redundancy in the amount of information each context gives us. "It is the information already at the destination" (George 1972:10) making most of what we say unnecessary to decode the message.

1.1.1 Sources of Redundancy

If we took a high percentage of redundancy out of the language it would be difficult to communicate, we would need much more time to transmit what we wanted to say. We are not only referring here to the redundancy of the code (Redundancy Two) but to many other factors that involve communication and make the language redundant, (Redundancy Three). These factors

are:

a) Knowledge of the subject: When the persons involved
in a conversation have a common knowledge of the subject, it is
possible for the listeners to predict what they are going to
hear. This is what Darian (1979) calls 'situation' which generally
happens with people who belong to the same profession and share
the same technical vocabulary or in a family context where
husband and wife need few words to communicate. The knowledge
of the subject increases the degree of redundancy because there
is high contextual communication where most of the information
given is in the physical situation or is internalized in the
persons.

b) The way the information is given (theme and rheme):
Given and new information is largely indicated by word order;
new information generally comes at the end of a sentence and
given information comes at the beginning, thus anticipating the
message. The English sentence is highly limited by left-to-right
progression. The person who receives a message is probably aware of thi
distribution and takes advantage of this to anticipate the
message and to decode it. The initial part of the sentence, which
carries old information, consequently has a high level of
redundancy. The information each word carries in itself (semantic
value) is also important, as well as its collocational
restriction. According to Darian (1979) there are three kinds
of collocational restrictions: 1) based on meaning, e.g. in the
sentence 'They drink a sandwich' the verb meaning restricts its
object to something "liquid'; 2) based on range, e.g. the
relation between words based on certain covert semantic features
like (-human) (+animate) noun which restricts verb selection;
3) based on convention, e.g. words that have no logical relation

but are found together like 'underline', 'take a ride', etc...
The unconscious knowledge of collocational restrictions helps
us to limit the word selection by association. Interaction
between syntactic and semantic elements are also helpful as in
'I am going to your house but...' where the presence of the
conjunction 'but' leads us to expect a negative sentence.

c) The social context: also contributes to the
understanding of a mesage: In a formal context we expect to
receive a more elaborate form of language with a high degree of
redundancy in the code; in an informal context we expect to
receive a less elaborate form of language with a high degree of
redundancy beyond the code.

Based on Darian's and on George's definitions of
redundancy, we can say that redundancy is a set of information
that has the role of protecting the message and whose meaning
may be predicted and/or limited by other information in the
discourse, e.g. the 'stem + s' form can easily be predicted
after a third person subject, the adverb 'Yesterday' limits the
verb form to 'stem + ed'.

1.1.2 The Presence of Redundancy at All Language
Levels

What are the purposes of redundancy? According to
Darian (1979:48) redundancy reduces error, ambiguity and
misunderstanding. He claims that "without redundancy, mistakes
would be much greater for both, the first and the second
language learner" and suggests that by being aware of redundant
features, the students will be able to understand their target

language easily. Each language level has its percentage of redundancy in specific features:

In the phonological and writing systems we can also find redundancy. The frequency of sounds may help the students to predict irregular verb forms. The students might be able to identify, for example, a new participle form of a verb that they have never heard before by analogy with the known verbs. If they know for instance that, /nəvŋ/ /fləʊn/ and /sɪvn/ are past participle they will be able to identify /blɪvn/ as a participle form. Redundancy can also be found in the distribution of letter combinations and in their semantic connotations: "the beginning and ending of words carries (sic) the . . most information while the middle letters are the most redundant" (Darian 1979:49). This promotes the students' awareness of word meaning as in 'know, knowing, knew, unknown' where the students will be able to recognize what the tense mark is and what the negation mark is. Students may also predict sentences if we take out the redundant part of their words as in George's example (1972:30): "Gt a gd jb & mo pa".

In morphology, redundancy appears in items like affixes and form-class prediction. In many cases morphemes are redundant and do not add any semantic value to the word as the "s" in third person singular (simple present), which only marks person. Inflections for tense are often redundant when a time word is present like in the sentence: 'They worked hard yesterday'. The tense marker has less information than the adverb, in that the adverb specifies time while the tense marker does not.

In syntax,

given and new information is indicated largely
by word order. New information is usually found

> in the latter part of the sentence, often
> in sentence-final position, which is thus
> considered the position of highest communicative
> dynamism... The receiver of a message is
> presumably aware of this distribution and
> understands the subject and other sentence-
> initial material from its context-dependent
> meaning. In effect, we can say that apart from
> sentence-openers and initial subject reference,
> sentence-initial material - with its low degree
> of communicative dynamism - is in a position of
> high redundancy and consequently less subject
> to semantic ambiguity.
> (Darian 1979:52)

In semantics, concord restriction and collocational rules, e.g. (-human) (+animate) noun, restrict the verb selection.

Since the context provides various elements to help prediction, students' problems related to ambiguity of context and uncertainties in decoding the message will probably disappear at discourse level where their predictions will be partially based on the way they have organized the information already received.

Redundancy helps the receiver, first because it gives supporting information and second because the information given reduces the range of possible final elements in the sentence, increasing predictability.

As to the use of verb forms, we can say that there is high contextual redundancy when verb form selection is restricted by the context used. In the sentence "Before wrapping, prepare the meat for final use by..." (text 4b - appendix A) the context restricts the use of verb form to imperative. Other forms will be considered wrong. There is low contextual redundancy when more than one verb form/tense is possible because the context is not very well marked: In the sentence "Verbal communication cannot take place without involving some degree

of nonverbal communication also." (text 3a - Appendix A) other verb forms like 'does not take' 'will not take' can be used.

As seen above, redundancy is present at different levels of language. Each word contributes, according to its location or function in the sentence, to a portion of redundancy in the whole.

1.2 Types of Discourse

Widdowson (1979:90) says that:

> Once we accept the need to teach language as communication, we can obviously no longer think of language in terms only of sentences. We must consider the nature of discourse; and how to teach it.

According to Longacre (1983) the analysis of discourse consists mainly of the analysis of its typology, which is overtly or covertly marked by the notional structure and the surface structure. "The notional structures of discourse relate to the overall purpose of the discourse" (Longacre 1983:03) i.e. to explain, to suggest, to tell something, etc. while "the surface structures have to do more with a discourse's formal characteristics". (ibid) i.e. how the discourse purpose is put into words. The surface structure is marked by grammatical and lexical items such as a certain kind of verb form, personal pronouns, etc.

Longacre divides the notional structure into four main types:

Narrative: going from prophecy to story;

Procedural: how to do it or how it was done;

Behavioral: hortatory, promissory, eulogy;

Expository: budget proposal, futuristic essays,

scientific papers.

These four types of discourse are marked by a higher or a lower degree of contingent temporal succession, agent orientation, projection and tension.

"Contingent temporal succession refers to a framework of temporal succession in which some events or doings are contingent on previous events or doings" (Longacre 1983:03). Contingent succession can be noticed in narrative and procedural discourse types where an action or a procedure depends on the previous one. In the case of verb forms, it can be expressed through a sequence of past tense when the first verb used determines the use of the other forms. It can also be manifested in a chronological sequence of events:

> It was on the 28th of July which I believe was
> a Wednesday, that I visited my father for the
> first time during his illness and for the last
> time in his life.
> (text 1a - appendix A)

Agent orientation is related to the agent reference running through the discourse. It is mainly marked in narrative and behavioral discourse types:

> You only get one vacation a year, so it is
> natural for you to expect to get the most of
> it. You want a vacation you can rely on, one
> with no unpleasant surprises... the best
> possible vacation.
> (text 2a - appendix A)

Projection refers to a situation or action which can be contemplated, enjoined or anticipated but not realized:

> It is a matter of record that the businessman
> goes out of his way to go our way. He likes

> our business-like way of getting to his
> business. He relishes the gourmet cuisine
> on YX and the way it is served.
> (text 2b - appendix A)

Degrees of projection varies in the different types of discourse, as for example, in procedural discourse, a how-to-do-it text has high projection, but a how-it-was-done text has low projection, as we can see in Figure 1.1.

Tension reflects a struggle or polarization of some kind. In narrative discourse, for example, episodic (minus tension) texts can be distinguished from climatic (plus tension) texts. Such as the following:

> I had told my mother that I did not want to
> see him because I hated him. But this was not
> true. It was only that I had hated him and I
> wanted to hold on this hatred.
> (text 1a - appendix A)

Tension varies according to the discourse purpose. Since it is difficult to set its limits, it is not represented in Longacre's diagram.

In the surface structure the abstract notional parameters are expressed through more concrete features: 'Contingent temporal succession' is manifested through 'chronological linkage' in narrative and procedural discourses. In narrative texts the focus is mainly on the 'agent reference' while in procedural texts the focus is on 'activity. Behavioral and expository discourse are marked by 'logical linkage'. The focus is on 'agent reference' in behavioral discourse and on 'themes' in expository discourse.

Figura 1.1 displays Longacre's (1983:05) representation of Notional Structure to which I have added Surface Structure marks according to his definition:

FIGURE 1.1 - Notional Parameters and Surface Features:

	+ Ag. reference	+ activity
	+ Ag. orientation	- Ag. orientation
	NARRATIVE	PROCEDURAL
	prophecy	how-to-do-it
	....	....
	story	how-it-was-done
	+ Ag. reference	+ themes
	+ Ag. orientation	- Ag. orientation
	BEHAVIORAL	EXPOSITORY
	hortatory	budget proposal
	promissory	futuristic essay
	....	....
	eulogy	scientific paper

chronological linkage { contingencies presentation + }

+ proj -

logical linkage { contingencies presentation - }

+ proj -

——— = Notional Structure

– – – = Surface Structure

Each surface structure has particular characteristics regarding tense, aspect, participants, etc., as we can see in Figure 1.2.

FIGURE 1.2 - Main Characteristics of Surface and Notional Structures

SURFACE STRUCTURE				
	NARRATIVE	PROCEDURAL	EXPOSITORY	BEHAVIORAL
tense aspect voice	Story non durative preterite historic present Prophecy future tense	how-to-do present imperative how-was-done past tense	nominal-ization	hortatory imperative eulogy past tense
partici-pants theme refer-ence	1st - 3rd persons drama 1st - 2nd persons	all persons	3rd-deitics 1st expositor	hortatory 2nd person 3rd model
linkage	head-head tail-head	head-head tail-head	through sen-tences topic & parallelism of content	hortatory through con-ditional, cause, pur-pose
genre	fairle tale, with, short story, nov-els, 1st person ac-counts, news, paper report-ing, history-ography	food recipe how-to-do it book instruc-tions	essay scientific papers	hortatory zermons peptalks addresses from X to Y
NOTIONAL STRUCTURE				
Perform-ative verbs	I recount	I prescribe	I explain	command I suggest propose

Figure 1.2 is based on Longacre's concepts (1983:07-10). Since the table seems to be self-explanatory, I will just explain what he means by 'head-head' linkage and 'head-tail' linkage. The first term is used when "the first sentence of one paragraph cross-references to the first sentence of the following paragraph", and the second term is used when "the last sentence of one paragraph cross-references to the first sentence of the following paragraph" (Longacre 1983:09).

According to Longacre (1983:10) "a given structure type may encode in the form of a differing surface structure type." An example of this is found in narrative and Drama, both of which are used to tell a story. The difference between the two is the degree of vividness each one presents. Longacre says that drama is more vivid than narrative. Since the degree of vividness will influence the reader, the author may select a notional structure to say what s/he wants, but s/he can use another form to make it more vivid. So, hortatory material can be presented in narrative form. In a sermon, for example, the composer can use narrative as a device to make what he wants to say clearer, or to present it in an indirect less agressive form. Longacre establishes a hierarchy of degrees of vividness saying that drama is the most vivid kind of discourse followed by narrative, procedural, expository and hortatory in that order (see Figure 1.3).

FIGURE 1.3 - Degrees of Vividness

(Drama)

Narrative

Procedural

Expository

Hortatory
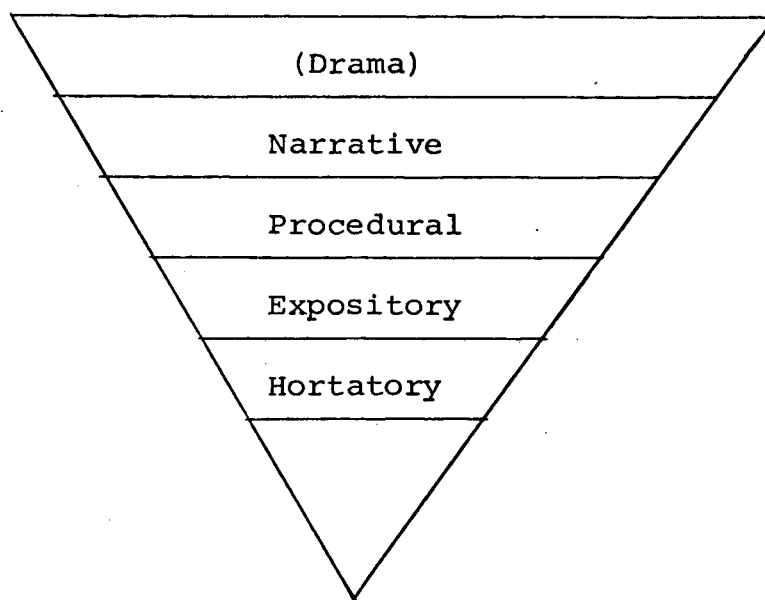
"A discourse of a given surface structure type may embed within a discourse of the same or different type"(Longacre 1983:13) There is an embedded discourse when the author changes from one discourse notional or surface structure, to another, for example, when a narrative discourse becomes a drama, or a procedural discourse tells a story. There is a 'compound discourse' when different discourse types are put together. A narrative discourse may be introduced by an expository discourse to describe the characters, or to set the scene/environment. An expository notional structure may embed a narrative surface structure to explain what happened in a certain situation, as for example in text 3b (appendix A) and then we have narrative as 'supportive material'. Whenever we make structural distinctions, we need to keep in mind that every discourse has its main line which is marked by a certain structural type and a certain amount of 'supportive material', which may or may not have a differing structural type; i.e. hortatory and expository discourse may present the same Surface structure, but the notional structure differs, as we can see in text 2a (appendix A).

Whenever we analyze the notional and surface structure at any discourse, we should according to Longacre, keep in mind the following components:

a) The composer is the person who makes up the discourse. S/he is called 'the narrator' in narrative and 'the composer' in other discourse types. S/he can appear directly in the first person, indirectly in the third by means of one character, or be 'neutral'. The narrator has a 'vantage point', which is morphologically marked in the structure through one person or a set of persons. S/he has options on many stylistic factors, like genre, word order and the selection of main line and supportive events.

b) The exposition often corresponds to a small opening which is called 'stage' in the surface structure. It informs about time, place and participants. The stage is generally presented in an expository paragraph. It may also appear in a subsidiary narrative to get the main narrative going.

c) The peak is essentially a 'zone of turbulence' in the discourse. "Routine features of the event-line may be distorted or phased out at peak" (Longacre 1983:25). So there could be a change in the use of tense/aspect, i.e. there could be an absence of main line characteristics. According to Longacre (1983:25) "the absence of certain features or even analytical difficulties can be a clue that we are at the peak of a discourse". Peak can be marked by the following:

1) Rhetorical underlining is used when the narrator wants to emphasize an important point in the story to be sure the reader is aware of it. S/he generally employs, then, parallelisms, paraphrases or tautologies.

2) Concentration of participants is a device more restricted to narratives and drama. It is used when the story is at its 'climax'. The author makes a change in the discourse structure by moving from few to many participants, marking the peak.

3) Heightened vividness can be obtained by a shift in the use of tenses (use of many to fewer verb forms) or persons (from third to second or first person), a change from plural to singular; a change of genre in the introduction of dialogues, or a change from narrative to expository discourse.

4) Change of pace can mark the peak, according to Longacre (1983), through a variation in the size of construction - short to long paragraphs; a variation in the amount of connective material - long embedded discourse; or a stylistic change - the action of one character against the action of others.

5) Change of vantage point and/or orientation can be obtained by a shift from neutral point to a specific vantage point since we follow a story by the action of a character. Shift of orientation occurs when the agent changes to patient or vice-versa. It frequently involves not only animate participants, but impersonal forces surrounding the main characters.

6) Incidence of particles and onomatopoeia. Onomatopoeia (in words such as Zap!, Wham!) is more frequent at the peak, along with the loss, introduction, or increase on characteristic event-line particles, such as Kanu (so they say) in Ga'dang and Jana (finally) in Guanano (Longacre 1983:38).

Longacre has suggested, then, according to what has been presented above, the criteria for the analysis of different discourse types. As we have seen, there are some characteristics

which can easily be recognized in the discourse surface structure. We must be aware however, that these characteristics may be common to more than one kind of discourse. The main distinction between the discourse types, is found in the notional structure which sets the discourse intention (to suggest, to explain, etc.). We should not forget that the analysis of discourse types should take into acount both the notional and . the surface structure.

1.3 Time Adverbials and Verb Tense Use

The main objective of this study is to test verb form choice based on context. Types of discourse to be used in this analysis have already been defined and we will next see how contextual redundancy overtly marked by lexical items can help with verb form choice. According to Crystal (1966), lexical items, specifically time adverbials, are closely related to the use of certain tenses, and time realization is only possible when we have both time adverbials plus verb tense reference. A verb tense alone does not set the time.

Crystal (1966) investigated how much information we can get from the co-occurrence of verb tenses and adverbials. He built up a list of English adverbials (adverbs, adverb phrases, adverb clauses) and compared their uses with six tenses (simple present, simple past, present perfect, past perfect, conditional and future). First, he considered 'temporal adverbials' those which answer the question 'when'. He distributed all temporal adverbials into seven categories. He then compared the use of temporal adverbials with the six selected tenses. This comparison was made according to two different criteria: by

taking the adverbials as a base of comparison and by taking the verb tenses as a base of comparison. He had applied a test to forty native speakers who were asked to use adverbials in sentences (from a list of 176 adverbials). This gave him the native speakers' preference for using certain adverbials with certain verb tenses.

Crystal's main conclusions from his research are the following:

a) Most adverbials colligate with all tenses, but what is important is the type and number of distinct meanings produced by the co-occurrence of each adverbial class with each of the six tense forms. This is influenced by:

- the number of tense-forms which colligate with an adverbial;

- the number and type of meanings resulting from each individual colligation.

One adverbial can combine with one tense-form to express only one time-relationship, or adverbials can co-occur with all tense-forms, but each co-occurrence allows for a different meaning, which depends on the verb form and/or the situational context. Clearly, not all the co-occurrences are of equal status. Many adverbials have a tendency to be used with one tense-form, co-occurrence with others being relatively infrequent.

b) "Predictability of co-occurrence can vary substancially, but ... there is very clear evidence for unmarked co-occurrence" (Crystal 1966:18). For example, 'ago' which in text-books is generally suggested to co-occur with simple past may also co-occur with other forms, as Crystal has

reported (1966:17): Past descriptive narrative: 'Three weeks ago, I'm walking along this road when...'; pluperfect: 'Three weeks ago there had seemed no chance...'; past frequency of occurrence, or habitual: 'Three weeks ago, they would let themselves be seen at the Casino. Now...'; past activity seen as removed from the present 'removed past': 'Three weeks ago, I arrived in Wales'. The evidence for unmarked co-occurrence we can clearly see in the native speakers' choice of, for example, 'before, at the time, ago, last week, on that day, the other day, yesterday...' with simple past.

c) Adverbials should be a relevant part of any description of time-relationships in English.

d) There are different potentialities in the co-occurrence of adverbials, so ascriptions of certain meanings to tense-forms alone is misleading. Crystal claims that we do not speak one tense at a time, we speak in groups of phrases, clauses and sentences, and the sequential relationship of one structure to another, their temporal coherence, is obtained by a balance between adverbial specification and tense-form. It is common to introduce a temporal adverbial when we switch from one situation to another, and we should not rely on tense alone. What leads us to say, for example, that we have a 'present being used to refer to future time' in Crystal's example 'I live in London as from next week' is not the present tense alone, but the colligation with a temporal adverbial. Both together produce a definable time-relationship which may then be referred to with a new label. Crystal claims that labels like 'future present', 'habitual', etc. should not be given to the verb form alone, but to the combination of verb plus adverbial. He refers to Ivic (1962) who said that "to obtain a meaning of future using

present tense form there must be a non-omissable determiner present", which in this case is a temporal adverbial with future reference. Crystal also makes reference to a study of the use of Brazilian Portuguese tenses carried out by Kahane & Hutter in 1953. In which they gave great emphasis to the role of temporal adverbials in determining the semantic reference of tense forms.

From Crystal's work we can conclude that adverbials are important references of time-relationships and that their use implies different meanings according to the selected verb forms. Co-occurrence of adverbials and tense forms gives the contextual meaning of a situation. Since each adverbial can express different meaning when used in isolated sentences, and the use of verb forms without the presence of temporal adverbial will be marked somewhere by a previous adverbial in a sequence of sentences, we should not trust verb forms alone or isolated sentences to give us reliable reference of time. In Kahane's and Hutter's words this dependency will be seen:

> by the type of relation of the verb and the adverbial modifier which could be immediate or non-immediate; by the degree of their grammatical autonomy of a time base, i.e. another (expressed-unexpressed) element belonging to the linguistic environment and establishing the temporal frame.
> (in Crystal 1966:02)

1.4 The Concept of Time

I want to clarify what 'time' means and how it is related to verb form tenses and aspects. First, I will describe, in general lines, Bull's definition of "time as a point of

orientation" and then I will present Kaluza's (1979) diagram.

According to Bull (1971), when someone makes reference to time s/he is not really thinking about 'clock time', i.e. the exact time shown by the number of minutes, hours, etc., but about his/her 'personal time' which generally reflects the person's perception of real events taking place in time. When we say "I will be ready in five minutes" it means that we will need a certain amount of time to be ready, and the person who listens to this is not going to measure the time we take on a clock. We can measure time by "time" and and then time will be bidirectional, i.e. it can go from 1 to 5 or vice-versa, or we can measure time by "events" and then it will be unidirectional going toward future.

According to Bull, time has a lexical level:

a) Public time, which is objective and is the same for everybody;

b) Personal time, which can be:

- and imprecise substitute of public time: "I will be ready in five minutes".

- personal judgement about time: "She took a lot of time to give me an answer".

- personal judgement about the passage of objective time: "A century will not be enough to forget everything he made me suffer".

When time vocabulary is used to express "personal time", the words used reflect the speaker's personal judgement, so "personal time" words are "symbols" for what we want them to be.

Since personal time is measured by events, let us see how an event is perceived. Whenever a phenomenon happens, the phenomenon itself, the observation of it and the verbalization of that observation are three sequential events, but we can assume that they are simultaneous, whenever there is sufficient duration to permit the verbalization of an action, before if is finished. There are also definite limitations: neither the initiation nor the termination of an event is considered to be simultaneous with the verbalization of the fact.

According to Bull (1979:09), there are only three possible orders of relationship between events and any axis of orientation (perception): the events perceived may be anterior, simultaneous or posterior to the event used as an axis of orientation. We can recall them, perceive them or anticipate them.

The order of events depends on personal observation, so it cannot be the same for all observers. For example, a phenomenon which is being reported by a speaker will only be perceived by the listener at the moment s/he decodes the message.

The fact that a person can recall and antecipate something puts him/her between two events.

$$A \underline{\hspace{2cm} x \hspace{2cm}} B$$

'X' being the axis of orientation, 'A' represents 'recall' and 'B' represents 'anticipation'. This permits the person to place him/herself in 'time' and produces two referents for 'present': point present and extended present. A person cannot experience a point or a time interval, s/he can only infer the existence of them because "all events take place in time and

take time to take place" (Bull 1971:12). Both point present and
extended present are abstractions, the most important thing is
to discover whether language is structured in terms of objective
reality of in terms of abstractions derived from the observation
of objective reality.

To observe takes time, and time theoretically and
abstractly observed can be divided into past, present and future.
As a person cannot experience a point in time, present, past and
future are labels for what is going on, has happened or is going
to happen. Time is something conceived through the observation
of events. According to Bull (1971:13), when an event is
simultaneous with the act of speaking, it is said to be
"imperfect" and when it is anterior to the act of speaking it is
referred to as "perfect".

Let us now analyze Kaluza's time-line diagram (1979)
contrasting it with Tregidgo's time-line diagram (1974).
Tregidgo has adapted Bull's diagram (1971:31) to the eight
English tenses.

Kaluza (1979) points out that his diagram (see Figure
1.5) provides the definition for each tense by illustrating each
either in the present or in the past. This is done by the
introduction of a line linking NOW (present) with THEN (past).
His diagram presents tenses as having one or two points, as
being definite or indefinite and chronological or achronological.
In his definition of the tenses Kaluza interprets tense as a
subjective concept: linear, segmental and chronological. The
diagram locates the tenses without redundancy.

The Kaluza diagram presents four tenses in their simple
forms as one-point, definite and chronological, and their

FIGURE 1.4 - Tregidgo's Time-Line Diagram:
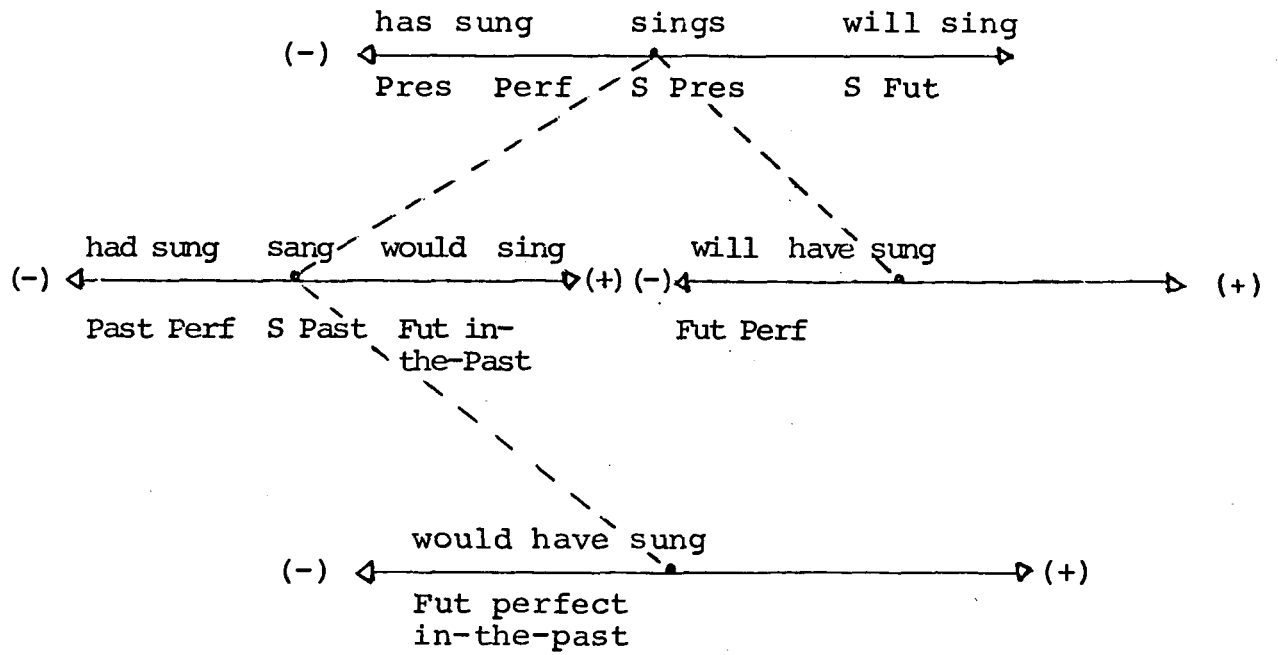
FIGURE 1.5 - Kaluza's time-line diagram:
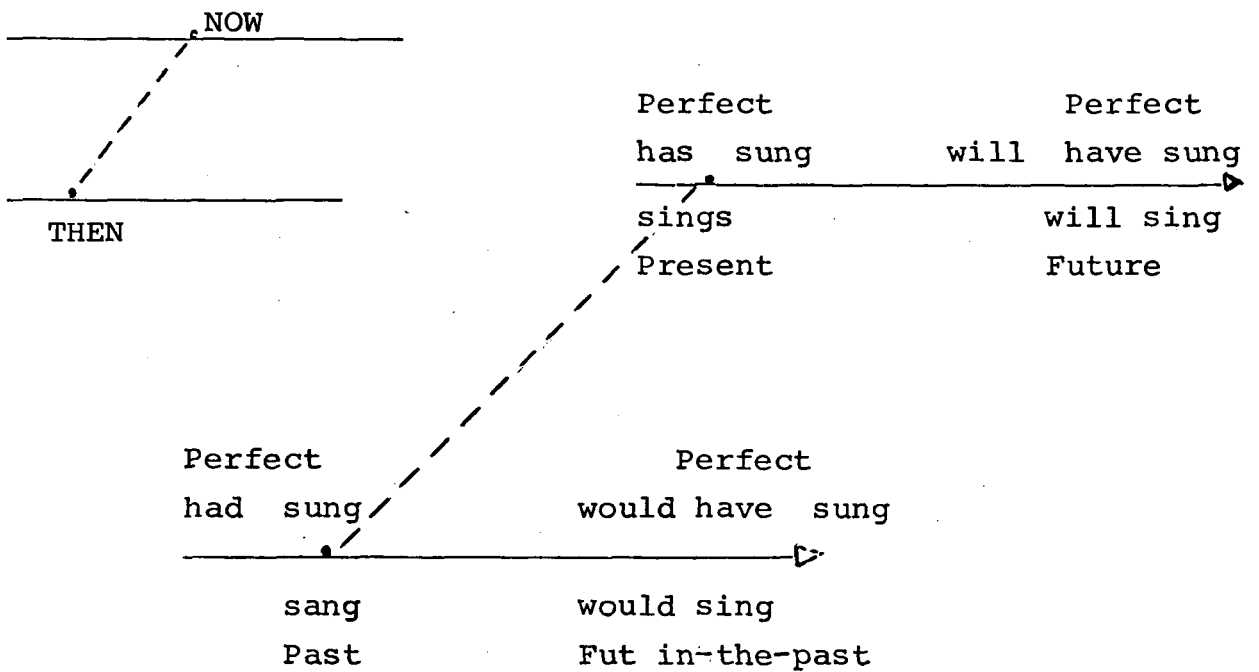
perfect forms as two-point, indefinite and achronological. The
perfect forms refer "to two temporal points: (a) the present
moment of speaking... and (b) a moment before(a)" (Kaluza 1979:
141). The perfect tenses are achronological because they come
from (b) to (a) and go from (a) to (b) whereas in a
chronological order they would go only from (b) to (a). They
are also indefinite, as shown by the dotted arrow, which does
not cut the time-line at any definite point; it only signals
its existence before NOW. The dotted line linking NOW to THEN
"also illustrates a linguistic 'universal' according to which
all verbal tense forms have developed from the form standing
for present time, or more exactly, for the present moment of
speaking" (Kaluza 1979:143).

Tregidgo's diagram is not linear since future in-the-
past is placed almost at the same level as simple present and
after present perfect. It is also achronological because future
and future in-the-past have their perfect forms on different
lines. It is redundant since it presents eight verb forms (four
simple and four perfect forms) while Kaluza puts the perfect on
the same line with the simple forms.

Wilkings (1979) points out that:

> Grammatically, points of time are usually
> expressed through adverbials:
> e.g. now, then
> on Monday the 23rd of April 1957
> at twenty-five past eight
> yesterday, today, tomorrow
> this/yesterday/to-morrow morning
> this/last/next month
> It is interesting to note how many time
> expressions are deitic. That is to say, it is
> not possible to know the exact time referred
> to without knowing either the linguistic or the
> situational (temporal) context.
> (p.25)

As we have seen, choice of verb forms involves several

criteria such as contextual redundancy, which may be marked by grammatical, lexical and contextual reference; and discourse typology, which is marked by the use of certain verb forms which are overtly marked by temporal adverbials. All these aspects together give us the contextual situation which marks the use of certain verb forms in certain contexts, even though a certain verb tense can have different functions in different contexts.

In chapter 2, I summarize the concept of time relating it to tense, aspect and mood. Then, I try to present a general view of the contextual realization of verb tenses (present, past and future) in the different kinds of discourse (narrative, procedural, expository and behavioral).

CHAPTER 2

VERB TENSES FUNCTION IN DISCOURSE TYPES

As we have seen before "all events take place in time
and take time to take place" (Bull 1971:12). 'Personal time'
is measured by events and from the observation of a phenomenon
to the verbalization of it there is a span of time: firstly
something happens, secondly someone observes something
happening, thirdly someone reports on what is happening/happened
and finally someone else receives and decodes the message. This
is what normally happens whenever we report on something which
we assume to be simultaneous to our act of reporting it. In
order to understand verb tense realization we need to have an
axis of orientation which will place us in time. The Time
concept will have then three divisions: past, present and future.

A .... X .... B
_____

'X' being our axis of orientation (point present) we
are going to say that 'A' represents recall (past) and 'B'
represents anticipation (future). The correspondence between our
concept of time and the form of the verb is called 'Tense'. We

will have at 'X', for example, the Present Tense whose action could be completed or in progress. The completeness or incompleteness of an action gives us the verb 'Aspect' which "concerns the manner in which the verbal action is experienced or regarded" (Quirk-Greenbaun 1979:40).

'Mood' expresses the semantic value of a verbal action like certainty, obligation, possibility, etc., Quirk and Greenbaum say that

> to a great extent these three categories
> impinge on each other: in particular the
> expression of time present and past cannot
> be considered separately from 'aspect',
> and the expression of the future is
> closely bound up with 'Mood'.
> (Quirk-Greenbaum 1979:40)

In the first chapter I have presented each discourse type with its main characteristics. In this chapter I concentrate on the use of verb tenses (present, past and future) according to Leech (1974) and the function each verb tense may have in each discourse type (narrative, procedural, expository and hortatory). I try to exemplify that although each discourse type tends to take a certain tense in its main line, other tenses can also appear, depending on the function they perform in different contextual situation.

2.1 Present Tense

According to Leech (1974) the Present Tense is generally used to express the present moment of time (the moment of the utterance): "The state or event has psychological being at the present moment" (Leech 1974:01). This does not exclude the possibility of using Present Tense to convey past or future time.

Longacre (1983) says that the present tenses is generally used in the following discourse surface structures: narrative in the historic present, and procedural in how-to-do-it context. Here Longacre is making reference to the use of the present tense marking the main line of discourse. But the present tense can also appear in other discourse types as supportive material or even in the main line as we can see below.

NARRATIVE

In narrative the present tense can be used as historic present or as fictional present. Leech (1974) says that the historic present is a device used mainly in oral narrative to portray past events. The writer generally sets the time in the past but uses the tresent tense to make the narrative more vivid. Lexical items like 'at that moment' will appear to set 'personal time'. The fictional present, on the other hand, is used to portray past events without reference to personal or objective time, but to 'imaginary present' time. The difference between Historic Present and fictional present is that the first is generally used to narrate real events, and the second is generally used to narrate fictional events.

The historic present is used when "past happenings are portrayed or imagined as if they were going on at the present time" (Leech 1974:06). The historic present is generally marked by lexical items like temporal adverbials, which set the time in co-occurrence with the verb tense:

> At that moment in comes a messenger from the
> Head Office telling me the boss wants to see
> me in a hurry.
> (Leech 1974:07)

Verbs of Communication are used in the present tense
when the effects of what has been communicated are still in
the persons who have received the message. The text is generally
marked by verbs such as 'tell', 'say' and 'write' which refer
to the initiation of a message in the past and which are
transfered from the initiating end to the receiving end of a
message. An example is a news-paper report:

> The ZH correspondent in his last article
> writes that...
>
> The 8 o'clock news says that the unemployment
> in our country is increasing each day.
> (hyphotetical)

The fictional present is a device of dramatic
heightening; it puts the reader in the place of someone
actually witnessing the events as they are described" (Leech
1974:12).

> Mr. Tulkinghorn takes out his papers, asks
> permission to place them on a golden talisman
> of a table at my Lady's elbow, puts on his
> spectacles, and begins to read by the light
> of a shaded lamp.
> (Leech 1974:12)

The present tense is also used in narrative when there
is an author's interference, when the author wants to give his/
her point of view or to recall something:

> He knew the magic monotony of existence
> between sky and water: he had to bear the
> criticism of men, the exactions of the sea,
> and the prosaic severity of the daily task
> that gives bread - but whose reward is in
> the perfect love of work.
> (in text 1b)

PROCEDURAL

The present tense is the most commonly used tense in

the procedural discourse type how-to-do-it:

> You <u>record</u> the temperature read from the
> lower scale of the meter by turning the
> Function switch to TEMP.
> (in an instruction manual for an Oxygen Meter)

instructions:

> To go to the library you <u>cross</u> the street
> and <u>walk</u> straight ahead to the Reitoria
> building then you <u>turn</u> left.
> (hyphotetical)

stage directions:

> After HAMLET <u>leaves</u>, the QUEEEN <u>is left</u> alone
> for a moment. She <u>moves</u> about distractedly,
> sighing. Then the KING <u>enters</u>.
> (Shakespeare - Hamlet, act IV, scene I)

While the surface structure in procedural discourse
is expository, the notional structure is to show how things
should be done (give instructions).

EXPOSITORY

In expository discourse the present tense is used in
reports of scientific works, essays, etc.

The historic present - is used, according to Leech
(1974) when someone discusses an artist and his/her surviving
work. It makes the exposition more vivid and brings old events
to present time, "one feels justified in using the present,
because the work, and through it (in a sense) the artist, are
still 'alive'" (Leech 1974:08).

> John Donne lyricist, satirist and preacher
> <u>is</u> the most surprising of the later
> Elizabethan poets.
> (Stowell 1966:32)

In the literature of scientific books/papers: the present tense is used to report on subjects and their effects.

> While we <u>think</u> of communication as being
> verbal in nature, nonverbal communication <u>is</u>
> perhaps as important as verbal communication
> in the total communication process.
> (in text 3a)

BEHAVIORAL

The present tense is the most frequent tense in the behavioral discourse type (hortatory) in sermons, peptalks, etc. behavioral discourse generally embed expository and narrative surface structures, at least in the first paragraphs which usually present a 'model' to be followed.

> Sermons:

> You <u>do</u> good things everyday because you
> <u>believe</u> in God and you <u>think</u> that His love
> <u>is guiding</u> you to behave well!
> (hyphotetical)

The surface structure describes someone's character and the notional structure suggests that this type of behavior is correct.

> Peptalks:

> You only <u>get</u> one vacation a year, so it <u>is</u>
> natural for you to expect to get the most
> out of it. You <u>want</u> a vacation you can rely
> on...
> (in text 2a)

The surface structure describes what happens whenever we have a vacation and the notional structure suggests that we should take profit from it.

TIMELESS USES OF THE PRESENT TENSE

The Present Tense is used to express habitual or universal statements. It generally appears in conversation, but can also appear in narrative (author's interference) or in expository discourses.

Eternal truths:

> The sun <u>sets</u> in the west.
> (Quirk et al. 1979:41)

Proverbs:

> Necessity <u>is</u> the mother of invention.
> (Leech 1974:02)

Geographical statements:

> Rome <u>stands</u> on River Tiber.
> (Leech 1974:02)

2.2 <u>Past Tense</u>

According to Longacre (1983) the past tense is used in narrative, procedural (how-it-was-done) and behavioral (eulogy) discourse types.

NARRATIVE

It is the past tense which carries the main line of most narrative

> The past tense is the natural form of the
> verb to employ in narrative, whether the
> events narrated are true historical events
> or the fictional events of a novel. There
> has grown up a convention of using the past

for narrative even when the events portrayed
are supposed to take place in the future, as
in science fiction.
(Leech 1974:10)

The past tense is used to report on historical events
i.e. something which really happened, generally appearing as
supportive material to expository discourse (nonfiction).

Mixing a brown powder (Nestea) and an orange
one (Tang) in order to prepare a drink called
Russian Tea, Geoffrey Bate of the Verbatin
Corporation in Sunnyvale, Calif, noticed
something strange.
(in text 3b)

The past tense is used to portray fictional events in
novels, short-stories, etc.

It was on the 28th of July which I believe
was a Wednesday, that I visited my father
for the first time during his illness...
(in text 1a)

The past tense is used in science fiction to portray
future events. The narrator axis of orientation is further in
the future.

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 1974:10)

PROCEDURAL

The past tense is used to report on how things used
to be done in how-it-was-done discourse.

It is not easy to set the limits between a narrative
paragraph and a procedural 'how-it-was-done'. It depends on
the notional structure whether to narrate or to describe

someone's experience. According to Longacre (1983) although

the surface structure of how-it-was-done discourse is narrative,

its notional structure is to inform us how something was done.

> The possibility of enconding narrative as
> procedural or procedural as narrative raises
> the possibility that they are not too
> different in degrees of vividness but differ
> as to relative specificity (narrative) or
> generality (procedural).
> (Longacre 1983:12)

Those limits are clearer in how-it-is-done (general)

discourse but when we have a report on how things were done,

the level of specificity and generality is not so clear. The

distinction between narrative and procedural discourse type will

depend more on the notional discourse structure than on whether

the text is specific or not.

> I read in the morning papers what the thieves
> used to do to sell stolen cars. According to
> reporters the thieves who stole the cars,
> generally took them to the nearest city,
> changed their colours and sold them to
> Paraguayans.
> (hyphotetical)
> /

This example, for instance, may suggest that someone

is narrating the last events but the presence of the words

'used to do' and 'generally' eliminate the possibility of this

paragraph being narrative.

EXPOSITORY

The past tense is sometimes used in the literature of

scientific papers in the following situation:

In bibliographical works to tell about someone's life

and work.

> George Bernard Shaw <u>became</u> a legend in his own lifetime, and his <u>death</u> on November 2, 1950, <u>marked</u> the end of the last of the early pioneers in modern literature.
> (Adventures in English Literature - vol 4)

In scientific works when the author comments on the work of someone who is already dead.

> When the theater <u>began</u> to produce realistic prose plays, Yeats <u>proved</u> that he could write effectively in either medium.
> (Adventures in English Literature - vol 4)

When making reference to a specific period in time - generally marked by adverbials.

> Lawrence <u>was</u> clearly writing about his own feelings <u>at</u> that time.
> (Alastair 1976:01)

BEHAVIORAL

The past tense is used in behavioral discourses in sermons and eulogies generally embedded in a different surface structure:

Sermons:

> They <u>worked</u> hard day and night but God <u>gave</u> them a reward. The next day <u>was</u> a fair <u>sun-</u>shining day and they <u>found out</u> that God <u>was</u> beside them.
> (hyphotetical)

The composer uses narrative 'supportive material' to suggest (behavioral) what people should do.

eulogy - to praise someone or something.

> Look at this man! He <u>was</u> the first one to believe in this <u>project</u> and to give us his contribution and days of hard work.
> (hyphotetical)

The composer uses expository 'supportive material' to suggest (behavioral) a model to be followed.

TIMELESS USES OF THE PAST TENSE

The following uses of the past tense do not refer to time (past).

The attitudinal past is related to the attitudes of the speaker rather than to past time. It is used in conversation. Since I am not analysing oral production, I am going to examplify it briefly.

> I <u>wondered</u> if you could tell me the truth.

> I thought it would be better if you could go with me.
> (hyphotetical)

Both sentences show the speaker's intention of testing the listener's reaction, and mark politeness.

In the hypothetical past the past tense is used in some subordinate clauses.

> If I <u>were</u> you I would talk to him.
> (hyphotetical)

2.3 <u>Future</u>

According to Longacre (1983) the future tense is used in the main line of narrative discourse types in prophecies. The future tense is also used to make predictions in other types of discourse. In hortatory, expository and procedural discourse the future is used to allow the reader to anticipate or to visualize a certain situation. This makes the discourse more vivid.

NARRATIVE

The future tense may be used to portray historic
events, i.e. something which is going to happen based on
someone's past experience:

> The moment he arrives he <u>will say</u> that he is
> tired and that we <u>will not</u> go to Mary's house
> tonight.
> (hyphotetical)

The future tense is used with verbs of communication
to anticipate reports of recent happenings based on the present/
past situation:

> The ten o'clock news <u>will give</u> us a complete
> view of the real situation of our State after
> so many raining days.
> (hyphotetical)

In fictional events the future tense is used to place
the reader in a position of participant, taking part in the
events.

> <u>Will</u> our hero <u>fall</u> into this terrible trap?
> (hyphotetical)

The future tense is also used when the author interferes
in the discourse, giving his/her point of view about future
consequences of some events, or placing him/herself forward in
time:

> I imagine that one of the reasons people cling
> to their hates so stubbornly is because they
> sense, once hate is gone, that they <u>will be</u>
> <u>forced</u> to deal with pain.
> (in text 1b)

Prophecy:

> I tell you that those who today ask for war,

tomorrow <u>will cry</u> for peace.
(hyphotetical)

PROCEDURAL

The future tense can be used in how-to-do-it books to make the instructions clearer.

Use in lighting that <u>will not tire</u> the eyes
when reading or doing office work for extended
periods of time.
(in an instruction booklet for eletronic
calculator)

Keep in mind that the condition of the meat
at defrosting <u>will be</u> the same it was at
freezing.
(in text 4b)

EXPOSITORY

In the literature of scientific papers The future tense may be used to make conjectures about future time.

In twenty years' time, the average employee
<u>will work</u> a twenty-five hour week.
(Leech 1974:53)

BEHAVIORAL

The use of future tense is a common device in behavioral discourse to place the reader in a position of observing the situation or anticipating it.

- Sermons:

The earth <u>shall be filled</u> with God's glory; The
time <u>shall come</u> when the poor and the oppressed
<u>shall rise</u> against the oppressor.
(Leech 1974:53)

In this example, the future tense (narrative surface) has the function of anticipating the contextual situation. This anticipation suggests how the reader should behave in the present.

- Hortatory discourse:

> X. The taste you will feel good about.
> (Newsweek 1980, Dec: 08)

> All this assure that your next vacation <u>will</u> <u>be</u> just what you deserve.
> (in text 2a)

In the examples given above the authors anticipate the final results to convince the reader to follow their suggestions.

The examples in this chapter show the various functions a verb tense can have in different kinds of discourse. A change in verb tense may occur at two levels: in the 'main line' or in the 'supportive material'. The use of a particular verb tense in the 'main line' will depend either on the author's intention to recount, to prescribe, to explain or to suggest, or on the author's point of orientation, i.e. if the events perceived are anterior, simultaneous or posterior to point 'X'. The use of a verb tense in the 'supportive material' will depend on the degree of vividness the author wants to give to the discourse.

The fact that several different verb tenses can be used in most types of discourse does not mean that we do not have a tendency to use certain tenses with certain discourse types as Longacre (1983) has pointed out. This tendency does exist (see Figure 1.2 - Chapter 1), but for the reasons given above, other tenses can appear in the main line or in the supportive material as we can see in Figure 2.1 below:

FIGURE 2.1 - The Verb Tense Functions in Different Discourse
Types

	NARRATIVE	PROCEDURAL	EXPOSITORY	BEHAVIORAL
PRESENT	.Hist. Pres. (verb of com- munication) .Fictional Pres. (Author's inter- ference)	.How-to-do-it .Instructions .Stage direc- tions	.Hist.Pres. .Scientific papers	.Sermons .Hortatory
PAST	.Hist. events .Fictional events .Science Fiction	.How-it-was- done	.Scientific paper	.Sermons .Eulogy
FUTURE	.Hist. events (verbs of com- munication. .Fictional events (Author's inter- ference) .Prophecy	.How-to-do-it .Instructions	.Scientific papers	.Sermons .Hortatory

The main objective of this chapter has been to show
that different discourse types can use the same verb tenses
with different functions, and therefore with different
meanings, and also to show that the verb tense selection is
closely related to the author's intention of telling,
prescribing, explaining or suggesting something. This intention
is marked in the discourse somehow by the use of verb tenses
and by the choice of vocabulary items (lexical or grammatical)
etc., which set the time and theme. So in some discourse types,

the use of verb tenses can be covertly marked by the discourse type itself, as we can see mainly in procedural contexts (texts 4a, 4b - Appendix A) or it can be marked by the discourse type plus other items, as Crystal (1966) suggests, as in narrative contexts (text la - Appendix A).

The next chapter presents the methodology used to test the use of verb tenses in different contexts and the criteria used for the analysis of the data.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN

As we have seen before, verb forms alone do not set time. Time and tense are mainly expressed by the use of a certain verb form plus time adverbials which together give us the contextual meaning of the situation. We have also seen that each kind of discourse has its own surface structure characteristics regarding tense, aspect, participants, etc. In this chapter, the methodological procedures for testing how advanced students cope with verb forms in different types of discourse is described.

3.1 Methodological Procedures

In this section, the students' performance is investigated in a single-factor design, with discourse type as the main factor or independent variable. This variable consists of four levels namely, narrative, hortatory, expository and procedural discourse. Differences between the levels are checked with chi-squared test. The dependent variable is the

students' scored on the use of appropriate verb forms/tenses in the different discourse types. Their scores are analyzed regarding the following aspects: 1) the use of verb forms/ tenses in each discourse type, 2) the influence of lexical and contextual cues on the students' choice of appropriate verb forms/tenses, 3) their performance in simple and complex verb forms and their tendency to use one or the other, and 4) their tendency to use or to avoid certain verb forms in certain contexts. The investigation is limited because of an intervening variable, namely, the impossibility of measuring the students' lack of grammatical knowledge of the use of verb forms/tenses. Due to this intervening variable the analysis is based on 'possible causes' for correct and incorrect answers.

3.1.1 The Subjects

The test was applied to two groups of fifteen students at Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina. One group of fifteen undergraduate students from 6th, 7th and 8th 'fases' of the 'Curso de Letras' and one group of fifteen postgraduate students.

When the tests were planned it was decided that they should be applied to postgraduate students whose ability to work well with different contexts was expected to give results which could indicate the relative difficulty of verb tense selection for each type of discourse. It was established that the scores of thirty students would be enough to measure their tendency to use certain verb forms/tenses since the tests had 120 blanks altogether. As there were not thirty students in the Post- graduate Course at that time, it was decided that the last

'fases' of undergraduate students should be tested, since they could probably give the answers needed. For this reason the tests were divided into two groups which were assumed to be similar in level. As soon as I began to work with the results, I noticed that there were differences between the two groups. As these differences were greater than expected, I decided to consider not only the performance of the group as a whole (postgraduate + undergraduate scores) but the performance of each group as well.

3.1.2 The Texts

Four different genres were selected: narrative, hortatory, expository and procedural. The reason for selecting different types of discourse was to investigate whether different discourse type affects foreign students' ability to deal with verb forms.

Two texts of each discourse genre were chosen. This was to avoid biased results, since the text chosen could be already known by the students, or could present more or less lexical/contextual cues. As will be seen in the final results shown in Appendix B, the students' scores in narrative texts, for example, are different from their scores in the other types of discurse. The reasons for different scores in the same type of discourse are analyzed in chapter 4.

Authentic texts of each discourse type were taken from the following sources (see Appendix A): the narrative texts from literary pieces, the hortatory texts from advertisements, the expository texts from scientific papers and the procedural

texts from a manual of instructions and a recipe book. The
texts present the following characteristics: Both narrative
texts present 'author interference', but text 1a marks time and
text 1b does not. Both hortatory texts are advertisements and
both embed expository surface structure in the 'stage'. The
expository texts are mainly written in the present tense; text
3a is not compound and does not present supportive material but
text 3b embeds narrative surface structure in the 'stage'. The
procedural texts are mainly written in the imperative form; text
4a neither is compound nor presents supportive material, but
text 4b is compound with expository and hortatory genres in the
'stage'.

The results of the students' performance are expected
to show varying degrees of difficulty among the different
discourse types due to the different characteristics of these
genres.

3.1.3 The Tests

Two blocks of tests were prepared, each block having
four original texts which the students were supposed to read,
completing the blanks with the appropriate verb form. All verbs
were in the infinitive forms. Only finite and imperative forms
could be used (see Appendix A: 97 for the test instructions).

I decided to use Taylor's (1953) 'cloze test', which
is constructed by deleting words from a text or piece of
discourse; it differs from a sentence completion task in that
it involves sentences related sequentially. The cloze test also
involves the internalized system of language which every speaker

possesses and the redundancy of discourse:

>It appears to be a good technique to measure
>the redundancy of discourse to particular
>audiences. It seems that cloze tests are
>sensitive to constraints that range across
>sentences though some items are more sensitive
>than others.
>(Oller 1979:347)

These factors help the students to predict the missing words. Oller quotes Taylor (1953:117) who says:

>Cloze procedure deals with contextually
>interrelated series of blanks not isolated
>ones. It does not deal directly with specific
>meaning. Instead it repeatedly samples the
>likeness between the language patterns used
>by the writer to express what he meant and
>those possibly different patterns which
>represent reader's guesses at what they think
>he meant.
>(Oller 1979:347)

The standard cloze tests technique, known as the 'fixed ratio method' involves deleting every nth word (where n usually varies from 5 to 10). Another procedure is to delete words on some 'variable ratio' usually decided by a rational selection procedure, for example, we can delete only content words. Oller (1979) suggests that it is important to have a sufficient length of the text between each blank and the one that follows.

Whenever we test, we want to be able to make inferences about our students' performance. i.e. we want to know how the students would behave in other situations which demand the same skills. For this reason, tests must be reliable, they should measure what they are supposed to measure. In order to have a reliable test we should avoid lack of stability and lack of equivalence. "A measuring device is stable if it gives the same result when used twice on the same

object" (Davies 1977:16), and it is equivalent if two devices give the same result. In order to have a reliable test I prepared two blocks of tests involving the same difficulties and the same characteristics. Each block had four texts: a narrative, a hortatory, an expository and a procedural text, which were distributed in different orders to avoid the influence of one genre on the subsequent. The texts were done in two sections to avoid some contaminating variables like tiredness which could mask the results.

I made two blocks of tests because just one text of each genre would not be enough to measure how well the students work with each kind of discourse type or even to see if discourse genres really influence verb tense selection. Each text had approximately seventeen verb forms. I analyzed thirty verb forms of each genre leaving out the surplus. This provided 120 verbs, which were worked through by 30 students resulting on 3,600 answers.

The texts were applied at an interval of one week. Each group (postgraduate and undergraduate) was divided into four subgroups, and each subgroup received the texts in a different order. The students of each group were numbered from 1 to 15 and the texts were distributed in the following order:

FIGURE 3.1 - The Text Distribution.

Subgroups / Students					Block 1 texts				Block 2 texts			
A	1	5	9	13	1	2	3	4	4	3	2	1
B	2	6	10	14	2	3	4	1	1	4	3	2
C	3	7	11	15	3	4	1	2	2	1	4	3
D	4	8	12		4	1	2	3	3	2	1	4

Texts = 1. Narrative, 2. Hortatory, 3. Expository. 4.Porcedural

The students who were numbered 1, 5, 9, 13 in both the undergraduate and postgraduate courses received in their first test a block of texts having the following order: 1. Narrative, 2. Hortatory, 3. Expository, 4. Porcedural and in their second test: 4. Procedural, 3. Expository, 2. Hortatory, 1. Narrative. So the students who received as their first text a narrative genre in the first block, filled in the narrative genre as their last text in the second block.

This distribution was made in order to compensate for the effect of tiredness and to avoid one genre influencing another in the students' responses, as happened in Freedle and Hale's experiment 1979:124:

> When expository is presented first (to kindergartners), the average percent of present-past usage (appropriate to a story schema) is 23%, but this average percentage jumps to 59% (p 025) when the expository passage follows the narrative passage. Thus this significant tense structure shift is one piece of evidence for the hypothesis of narrative schema transfer.

The time the students took to do the tests was also

controlled. The average time the students took to do both tests was 20 minutes. The undergraduate students took 24 minutes average to do the first block of tests and 18 minutes to do the second test. The postgraduate students took 19 minutes average to do the first block of tests and 20 minutes to do the second block.

Before the application of the test, predictions were made as to the kinds of verb forms the students might use in addition to those appearing in the original texts. These predictions were made through of each text, to establish what in the context was marking verb tense, i.e. could have influenced the author's choice, or could influence the students' responses, and what influence each discourse type had on verb tense selection. Although an exaustive list of all possible cues was done, there were answers given which were not accounted for by these cues. These answers will be analyzed in section 4.4.

3.2 The Data

The test corrections obeyed the following criteria: Each response could be correct (if it was the same used in the original text), acceptable (if it was not the same used in the original text, but kept the textual cohesion and coherence),or incorrect. Correct and acceptable responses were grouped together and chi-squared test was applied to check for statistical difference in: 1) the students' performance in verb forms/tenses in the four different discourse types, 2) their performance on verb forms/tenses marked by contextual and lexical cues, 3) their performance with simple and complex verb

forms.

To analize the students' tendency to use or to avoid certain verb forms in certain contexts, percentages of responses relative to each incorrect or acceptable responses were calculated. To check for acceptability three native speakers who are university teachers of English were consulted, where there were differences the decision was based on the opinion of two out of three. In some cases a particular verb form was considered acceptable for one students but incorrect for another depending on the previous perform used by each student. Acceptable and incorrect responses occurring in similar contexts were grouped and analyzed together using the following criteria (see Appendix B): Incorrect responses were divided into two groups: random errors and frequent errors. Random errors are those which, given an horizontal look at each blank, do not constitute 20% of the responses. Frequent errors are those which constitute 20% or more of the responses for each blank. Random errors were grouped and explained vertically, showing the students' tendency to use certain incorrect forms in certain discourse, types, for example, to use simple present in narrative contexts. Frequent errors were explained horizontally showing the students' tendency to use a certain incorrect form in a specific context, for example, when the students do not notice a lexical cue marking the verb tense use.

The acceptable responses analyzed were those which constitute 20% or more of the response for each blank. They show the students' tendency to use certain verb forms in certain discourse types or in certain specific contexts. Acceptable responses were analyzed horizontally when they showed the students' tendency to use certain verb forms in certain specific

contexts, for example, to use simple forms in redundant contexts. They were analyzed vertically when they showed the students' tendency to use certain verb forms in certain discourse types, for example, to use simple past instead of past perfect when narrative contexts are redundant.

Chapter four presents the results of the chi-squared test, the data analysis and the students' tendency to use or to avoid certain verb forms in certain contexts.

CHAPTER 4.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the results of the investigation
into 1) the students' performance using verb forms/tenses in
different discourse types, 2) the influence of lexical and
contextual cues on the students' choice of appropriate verb
forms/tenses, 3) the students' performance in simple and complex
verb forms, and their tendency to use one or the other, 4) their
tendency to use or avoid certain verb forms/tenses in certain
contexts.

4.1 Discourse Types

The investigation was begun with the application of a
preliminary chi-squared test to the students' scores, comparing
all discourse types to verify whether there was statistical
difference in the use of verb forms/tenses in the different
discourse types. The results showed that discourse type was a
statistically significant factor influencing the students'
performance in the use of verb forms. Subsequent chi-squared

tests were then applied comparing the students' scores in each discourse type with the scores of the other three types, giving six comparisons in all. The first three tables, presented in this section, show the results relative to the correct and incorrect use of verbs in narrative, hortatory, expository and procedural discourse types: Table 4.1 shows the scores of the group as a whole; Table 4.2 shows the scores of the postgraduate group; Table 4.3 shows the scores of the undergraduate group.

The three tables below show that there was a tendency to use verb forms most appropriately in narrative (92.4%) and procedural (91.9%) discourse. The postgraduate students performed best in procedural discourse (98.4%) and the undergraduate students in narrative discourse (90.2%). The lowest performance was with expository discourse in both groups (90.4% - 85.3%), although not all the relevant results show statistical difference.

If we take all the results together, it can be seen that the students' performance in narrative and procedural discourse is generally better than in hortatory and expository discourse. This happened probably because narrative and procedural discourse have some common surface structure characteristics which may have influenced the students' choice.

Both narrative and procedural discourse present contingent temporal succession, e.g. the use of the first verb tense, which is generally determined by the context, determines the use of the other verb forms. In the following text for example:

It was on the 28th of July which I believe was a Wednesday, that I visited my father for the first time during his illness and for the last

TABLE 4.1 - Comparison of correct and incorrect use of verb forms in discourse types. Both groups.

Discourse types	Percentage Frequency		Obtained Frequency		Expected Frequency		Chi-square	$X^2 \alpha_{1;0.05} = 3.84$ BOTH GROUPS
	Cor.	Inc.	Cor.	Inc.	Cor.	Inc.		
NARRATIVE	92.4	07.6	832	68	811.0	89.0	11.00*	NARRATIVE > HORTATORY
HORTATORY	87.8	12.2	790	110	811.0	89.0		
NARRATIVE	92.4	07.6	832	68	800.0	100.0	23.04*	NARRATIVE > EXPOSITORY
EXPOSITORY	85.3	14.7	768	132	800.0	100.0		
NARRATIVE	92.4	07.6	832	68	829.5	70.5	0.20	NARRATIVE ~ PROCEDURAL
PROCEDURAL	91.9	8.1	827	73	829.5	70.5		
HORTATORY	87.8	12.2	790	110	779.0	121.0	2.32	HORTATORY ~ EXPOSITORY
EXPOSITORY	85.3	14.7	768	132	779.0	121.0		
HORTATORY	87.8	12.2	790	110	808.5	91.5	8.32*	HORTATORY < PROCEDURAL
PROCEDURAL	91.9	8.1	827	73	808.5	91.5		
EXPOSITORY	85.3	14.7	768	132	797.5	102.5	19.16*	EXPOSITORY < PROCEDURAL
PROCEDURAL	91.9	8.1	827	73	797.5	102.5		

*Significant at Alpha = 0.05.

TABLE 4.2 - Comparison of correct and incorrect use of verb forms in discourse types. Postgraduate group.

Discourse types	Percentage Frequency		Obtained Frequency		Expect Frequency		Chi-square	x^2 α $_{1;0.05}$ = 3.84 POSTGRADUATE GROUP
	Cor.	Inc.	Cor.	Inc.	Cor.	Inc.		
NARRATIVE	94.6	5.4	426	24	421.5	28.5	1.52	NARRATIVE ~ HORTATOTY
HORTATORY	92.7	7.3	417	33	421.5	28.5		
NARRATIVE	94.6	5.4	426	24	416.5	33.5	5.82*	NARRATIVE > EXPOSITORY
EXPOSITORY	90.4	9.6	407	43	416.5	33.5		
NARRATIVE	94.6	5.4	426	24	434.5	15.5	9.66*	NARRATIVE < PROCEDURAL
PROCEDURAL	98.4	1.6	443	07	434.5	15.5		
HORTATORY	92.7	7.3	417	33	412.0	38.0	1.44	HORTATORY ~ EXPOSITORY
EXPOSITORY	90.4	9.6	407	43	412.0	38.0		
HORTATORY	92.7	7.3	417	33	430.0	20.0	17.68*	HORTATORY < PROCEDURAL
PROCEDURAL	98.4	1.6	443	07	430.0	20.0		
EXPOSITORY	90.4	9.6	407	43	425.0	25.0	27.44*	EXPOSITORY < PROCEDURAL
PROCEDURAL	98.4	1.6	443	07	425.0	25.0		

*Significant at Alpha = 0.05.

TABLE 4.3 - Comparison of correct and incorrect use of verb forms in discourse types. Undergraduate group.

Discourse types	Percentage Frequency Cor.	Inc.	Obtained Frequency Cor.	Inc.	Expected Frequency Cor.	Inc.	Chi-square	UNDERGRADUATE GROUP $\chi^2 \alpha_{1;0.05} = 3.84$
NARRATIVE	90.2	9.8	406	44	389.5	60.5	10.40*	NARRATIVE > HORTATORY
HORTATORY	82.8	17.2	373	77	389.5	60.5		
NARRATIVE	90.2	9.8	406	44	383.5	66.5	17.86*	NARRATIVE > EXPOSITORY
EXPOSITORY	80.2	19.8	361	89	383.5	66.5		
NARRATIVE	90.2	9.8	406	44	395.0	55.0	5.02*	NARRATIVE > PROCEDURAL
PROCEDURAL	85.3	14.7	384	66	395.0	55.0		
HORTATORY	82.8	17.2	373	77	367.0	83.0	1.06	HORTATORY ~ EXPOSITORY
EXPOSITORY	80.2	19.8	361	89	367.0	83.0		
HORTATORY	82.8	17.2	373	77	378.5	71.5	1.00	HORTATORY ~ PROCEDURAL
PROCEDURAL	85.3	14.7	384	66	378.5	71.5		
EXPOSITORY	80.2	19.8	361	89	372.5	77.5	4.14	EXPOSITOY < PROCEDURAL
PROCEDURAL	85.3	14.7	384	66	372.5	77.5		

*Significant at Alpha = 0.05.

in his life.
(Narrative, text 1a - Appendix A:98)

The use of the first verb <u>was</u> determines the use of
of the second <u>was</u>, and the third <u>visited</u>.

The temporal succession is marked by chronological
linkage in the surface structure. This prepares the students
for what they are going to read. The linkage in these discourse
types can be both head-head and tail-head. In narrative
discourse it is marked by the 'agent reference' and in
procedural by 'activity' (see Chapter 1:14-17).

Wrap the meat tightly, then label and date
before placing in freezer.
(Procedural, text 4b - Appendix A:108)

Hortatory and expository discourse, the two types in
which the students made more errors, also have common
characteristics: The texts presented to the students are
basically written in the present tense (see Appendix A -
Figura A.1). Some students did not perceive the notional
structure of the discourse and used both present and past
tenses alternatively. The surface structures also pose problems
since they are marked by logical linkage, which is more
difficult to perceive than the chronological linkage of
narrative and procedural discourse:

It is a matter of record that the businessman
goes out of his way to go our way. He likes
our businesslike way of getting to his
business. He relishes the gourmet cuisine on
YX...
(Hortatory, text 2b - Appendix A:105)

In hortatory discourse the linkage is marked by 'agent
reference' and in expository discourse it is marked by 'themes'.
Expository discourse presents low projection, i.e. the action

is contemplated but not realized. These complex characteristics probably had something to do with the students' errors in these discourse types:

> While we generally think of communication as being verbal in nature, nonverbal communication is perhaps as important as verbal communication in the total communication process.
> (Expository, text 3a - Appendix A:101)

If we look at the results of each group, we notice that the postgraduate students had a better performance in procedural discourses (98.4%) than undergraduate students (85.3%). although narrative and procedural discourse have common characteristics, Procedural discourse is more complex and probably poses problems to students who, for example, have learned how to use Imperative forms in specific contexts (isolated sentences) but do not notice its function in procedural contexts. Procedural discourse does not present, at least clearly, 'agent reference' and the chronological linkage is based on 'activity'. This probably influenced the undergraduate students' performance which was better on hortatory contexts than in procedural contexts, although the difference was not significant, less than 2%.

The expository contexts yielded the lowest percentage of correct responses in both groups. The students' main difficulties probably lie in the discourse surface structure, which is not marked by agent orientation or by chronological linkage. The linkage is marked by 'themes', and the discourse presents low projection. Reedle and Hale (1979), noticing kindergarteners and first grade students' difficulty to recover expository surface structure, have suggested that the narrative schema should be adapted to expository discourse, since:

> The narrative requires the assumption of a
> real time frame, whereas expository (of the
> way we consider) does not assume that the
> propositions advance along some time frame.
> (Reedle-Hale 1979:130)

They have suggested a schema where expository discourse
would assume some characteristics of narrative schema, which in
Longacre's (1983) surface structure types would be: chronological
linkage, with head-head and tail-head linkage and agent
reference (see Reedle-Hale 1979:122).

The data reveal that the students' performance with the
different discourse types obeys this order: narrative,
procedural, hortatory and expository. These results offer
support to Longacre's hierarchy of degrees of vividness (Chapter
1:17-18). However, Longacre (1983:11) considers hortatory
discourse less vivid than expository discourse. An explanation
for the difference between this order and the one proposed by
Longacre is that he refers to 'sermons', while I tested peptalks
(advertisements). Peptalks are more vivid and present high
projection and, thus, seem to be more vivid than academic papers.
Explanation of the students' specific errors will be given in
section 4.4.

4.2 Contextual and Lexical Cues

In this section, a comparison was made of the influence
of lexical and contextual cues in the correct and incorrect use
of verb forms. For the purpose of this study, a lexical cue is
any adverbial or other lexical item which marks the use of a
particular verb form/tense. A contextual cue is a situational
context which determines the use of the verb form/tense:

> It was on the 28th of July which I believe
> was a Wednesday that I visited my father for
> the first time during his illness and for
> the last in his life.
> (text 1a - Appendix A:98)

In the example above, the first verb used (<u>was</u>) is marked by a lexical item - the date, but the second verb (<u>believe</u>) is marked by a contextual cue - the author's point of orientation (<u>which I believe</u> [now]). The use of simple present (<u>believe</u>) is marked by the subject plus the semantic value of the verb. It is also marked by the contextual meaning of the situation; simple past would only be possible if the author had expanded the sentence e.g. which I believed was... but...

Table 4.4 shows the effects of lexical and contextual cues on the use of appropriate verb forms: first the use of verb forms by the group as a whole, then postgraduate and undergraduate students' scores, and finally a comparison of both groups performance.

The percentages of correct and incorrect answers show that verb forms were more frequently used correctly when they were marked by lexical cues. For the postgraduate students, where verb forms were marked by lexical cues, 96.1% of the responses were correct; where verb forms were marked by contextual cues 93.5% were correct. As for the undergraduate students where verb forms were marked by lexical cues, 89.4% of the responses were correct, while only 83.5% were correct where the verb forms were marked by contextual cues. The difference in the results for lexical and contextual cues was shown to be statistically significant for the group as a whole and for the undergraduate group. For the postgraduate group the

TABLE 4.4 - Comparison of correct and incorrect use of verb forms signaled by contextual and lexical cues.

$X^2_{\alpha 1; 0.05} = 3.84$

	Percentage Frequency		Obtained Frequency		Expected Frequency		Chi-square	
	Cor.	Inc.	Cor.	Inc.	Cor.	Inc.		BOTH GROUPS
LEXICAL	92.7	7.3	612	48	589	71	10.23*	LEXICAL > CONTEXTUAL
CONTEXTUAL	88.5	11.5	2633	307	2626	314		
								POSTGRADUATE GROUP
LEXICAL	96.1	3.9	317	13	310	20	3.21	LEXICAL ~ CONTEXTUAL
CONTEXTUAL	93.5	6.5	1375	95	1382	88		
								UNDERGRADUATE GROUP
LEXICAL	89.4	10.6	295	35	279	51	7.28*	LEXICAL > CONTEXTUAL
CONTEXTUAL	83.5	16.5	1228	242	1244	226		
								LEXICAL CUES
POSTGRAD.	96.1	3.9	317	13	306	24	10.88*	POSTGRAD. > UNDERGRAD.
UNDERGRAD.	89.4	10.6	295	35	306	24		
								CONTEXTUAL CUES
POSTGRAD.	93.5	6.5	1375	95	1302	169	73.22*	POSTGRAD. > UNDERGRAD.
UNDERGRAD.	83.5	16.5	1220	242	1302	169		

*Significant at Alpha = 0.05.

difference was not significant.

The fact that the postgraduate students were able to use contextual cues almost as efficiently as lexical cues may be due to their greater exposure to written texts of all discourse types.

4.3 Simple and Complex Verb Forms

In this section, the correct and incorrect use of simple and complex verb forms was compared.

In order to check the students' tendency and ability to use simple and complex verb forms, first all responses were classified as being in a simple verb form (simple present, past, future) or a complex verb form (perfects, progressives, passives, modals). Then each response was categorized as correct (or acceptable) or incorrect.

Table 4.5 shows the percentage of responses in which the students used simple tenses and the percentage in which they used complex tenses or modals. It shows also the percentage of simple and complex verb forms used by the students which were correct (or acceptable) and the percentage which were incorrect.

The table shows that there is statistically significant difference in the use of simple and complex verb forms, the difference appearing in all test applied. Calculating the two groups together, students used simple verb forms in 92% of the responses and complex forms in only 8% of the responses. There was little difference between the two groups in this respect. This shows that the students had greater tendency to use simple

TABLE 4.5 - Comparison of correct and incorrect use of simple and complex verb forms.

$x^2 \alpha_{1;0.05} = 3.84$

Tendency	Percentage Frequency		Obtained Frequency		Expected Frequency		Chi-square	Tendency
	Simp.	Comp.	Simp.	Comp.	Simp.	Comp.		
POSTGRAD.	90.7	9.3	1633	167	1651.5	148.5	5.02*	POSTGRAD. < UNDERGRAD.
UNDERGRAD.	92.8	7.2	1670	130	1651.5	148.5		
AUTHORS	85	15	102	18	110	10	7.21*	AUTHORS < STUDENTS
STUDENTS	92	8	3303	297	3295	305		
	Cor.	Inc.	Cor.	Inc.	Cor.	Inc.		BOTH GROUPS
SIMPLE	90.6	9.4	2993	310	2952	351	64.23*	SIMPLE > COMPLEX
COMPLEX	75.4	24.6	224	73	265	32		
								POSTGRADUATE GROUP
SIMPLE	95.2	4.8	1555	78	1536	97	42.36*	SIMPLE > COMPLEX
COMPLEX	82.6	17.4	138	29	157	10		
								UNDERGRADUATE GROUP
SIMPLE	86.1	13.9	1438	232	1414	256	36.70*	SIMPLE > COMPLEX
COMPLEX	66.1	33.9	86	44	110	20		
								SIMPLE VERB FORMS
POSTGRAD.	95.2	4.8	1555	78	1480	153	80.11*	POSTGRAD. > UNDERGRAD.
UNDERGRAD.	86.1	13.9	1438	232	1513	157		
								COMPLEX VERB FORMS
POSTGRAD.	82.6	17.4	138	29	126	41	10.62*	POSTGRAD. > UNDERGRAD.
UNDERGRAD.	66.1	33.9	86	44	98	32		

*Significant at Alpha = 0.05.

forms than the authors of the original texts, who used simple forms in only 85% of the verbs and complex forms in 15%.

Taking correct and incorrect responses into account postgraduate students coped better with both simple and complex verb forms. In both groups the use of simple verb forms was much better than the use of complex verb forms, the difference being greater than 15%.

In section 4.4, the students use of simple or complex verb forms will be related to the level of contextual redundancy and the students' interpretation of the contextual situation.

4.4   Use of Certain Verb Forms in Certain Contexts

As has been shown, the students cope well with the four discourse types. The main objective of this section is not to make a systematic error analysis, but to present random errors and the students' tendency to use certain verb forms/ tenses in each discourse type. The discussion is based on the data findings computed in Appendix B which presents the percentage of correct (CO), incorrect (INC) and acceptable (AC) responses, (see Chapter 3:55). Incorrect and acceptable verb forms are divided into three columns each (simple, complex, modals).

NARRATIVE - Text 1a (Appendix B - Table B1)

Text 1a is a narrative discourse type where the 'narrator' is telling at the present moment something which happened to him some time ago. The use of simple present sets the narrator point of orientation, and past tense marks recall

(Appendix A: 98).

The random errors which occurred in this text were made by students who possibly failed to notice the discourse notional structure and used both past and present tenses indiscriminately or they might have assumed that the emotions felt by the author still existed at the moment of telling the story. The narrator interference in the discourse could also have been misleading.

There were just two blanks with frequent errors in this text for the verbs believe and was; in the first the percentage of errors was 47%, and in the second 23%. The narrator's point of orientation was contextually set, but these errors probably occurred either because the students did not notice that there was a change in the narrator's point of orientation, or because I misled them by putting two blanks together when I prepared the test (see Chapter 3:51).

> It was on the 28th of July which I believe
> (*believed) was (*to be, had been, to have
> been) a Wednesday, that I visited my father
> for the first time...
> (Appendix A: 98 lines 01-03)

Looking at the acceptable answers column, we notice that 66% of the students used the simple past in the three blanks where the past perfect was used in the original text. This seems to show a tendency to use simple verb forms in two situations: when the context is redundant (the redundancy is in the adverbial so long):

> The moment I saw him I knew why I (had) put
> off this visit so long.
> (Appendix A: 98   lines 03-04)

and when the context is unmarked and ambiguous:

                    I (had) told my mother that I did not want
                    to see him because I hated him.
                    (Appendix A: 98   lines 04-05)

the students who used past perfect here, which was the original

form used by the author, assumed that the narrator had talked

to his mother before July 28th. The students who used simple

past interpred this to mean that the narrator talked to his

mother on July 28th.

               NARRATIVE - Text 1b (Appendix B - Table B2)

          Text 1b is a narrative discourse type. It is marked

in the notional structure by the author's purpose of telling a

story about someone else. Its surface structure is marked by

the use of simple past. Whenever we have the author's point of

view, there is a change in the surface structure to the use

of expository discourse (I explain). From line 09 to line 11

the author 'describes' his character, but he does not change

the surface structure (Appendix A:104).

          If we look at the incorrect answers column, it can be

seen that most of the random errors occurred because of

indiscriminate use of present and past tenses. These answers

were probably influenced by the discourse surface structue which

is unmarked and does not set the narrator's point of orientation.

However, we can not say that this type of text poses problems

for verb tense use, since only one blank presents 20% of errors.

It should be noted here, that where present tense was used

consistently it was considered an acceptable use of the

fictional present.

                    After two years of training he went to sea,
                    and entering the regions so well known to

> his imagination, found them strangely barren of
> adventure. He <u>made</u> (*makes, had made, used to
> make) many voy<u>ages</u>.
> (Appendix A:.98   lines 01-03)

In this example 3% of the students used simple present

incorrectly, i.e. inconsistently and 17% used past perfect or

<u>used to</u> which are not possible in this context marked by the

first two lines.

The acceptable responses column shows that there is a

tendency to use past tense with narrative contexts since 65% of

the students used past tense where the author uses simple

present. The use of simple present in the original text shows

the narrator interference giving his own opinion about what he

was recalling. It seems that the use of past tense in this

context means both that there is a tendency to use past tense

in narrative contexts and also that the students have a tendency

not to notice the author's interference in narrative discourse.

HORTATORY - Text 2a (Appendix B - Table B3)

Text 2a begins by using simple present 'actual' saying

what happens in the reader's life whenever he has free time to

enjoy. The first paragraph embeds an expository surface structure,

but the notional structure is hortatory since the author wants

to convince the reader. In the second paragraph, the author

gives 'suggestions' (hortatory discourse). In the third, he

explains his reasons using expository discourse in the surface

structure. In the last two paragraphs turns back to hortatory

discourse trying to convince the reader and closes the discourse

using imperative forms in the surface structure and hortatory

notional structure which is covertly marked by 'I suggest that

you take...' (Appendix A: 100).

The random errors found in this text show that few students used different verb forms when present, future or imperative should be used. Those students probably did not notice the discourse notional and surface structures.

There were two blanks with errors in more than 20% of the responses both of them occuring in the following sentence:

> That is (* was, will be) why you should ask
> (* ask, asked) for PZ mark in your next
> vacation.
> (Appendix A: 100 lines 05-06)

In the first blank 13% of the students used simple past, probably because they did not notice contextual cues, mainly cohesive links which tie this sentence, which is in the second paragraph to the previous and the following paragraphs both in the notional and surface structures. The 7% who used future in this blank were possibly influenced by the usage of 'next-future' in isolated sentences. The second blank of this sentence presented two errors in 40% of the responses. The use of simple past here can be explained - as in the first blank. The 30% of the students who used simple present here probably did not notice the lexical item next vacation which is also marking this blank.

If we look at the Acceptable Responses, we notice a tendency to avoid modals by using present or future:

> That is why you should (will) ask for Pz
> mark in your next vacation.
> (Appendix A: 100 lines 05-06)

However, there were 6 verbs for which an average of 6% of the responses used modals where they were not used in the

original text, or a different modal from the one in the original. This probably indicates a slight different interpretation of the contextual situation by the students.

HORTATORY - Text 2b (Appendix B - Table B4)

The first paragraph of this hortatory text describes the businessman's preferences, using mostly third person singular and simple present in the surface structure (expository discourse). The notional structure is hortatory since the author is describing a model of the bussinessman to convince the reader to do what he is suggesting. In the second paragraph, he introduces hortatory suface structure by calling the reader's attention and making suggestions, both in the second person. In the last paragraph, he retutns to expository surface structure this time in the first person plural, trying to convince the reader to trust them. (Appendix A:106)

In this text all the random errors consisted of the use of past tense instead of present. The students who made these errors possibly did not notice the notional surface of this discourse.

There were two blanks with frequent errors in this text. In the first blank the errors constituted 20% of the responses: 13% of the students used simple past and 7% used present perfect.

> It is (*was, has been) a matter of record that
> the businessman goes out of his way to go our
> way.
> (Appendix A:105 lines 01-02)

The students who used simple past and present perfect did not notice the notional structure, i.e. to explain what

always happens in a businessman's life.

In the second blank, the errors constituted 80% of the responses, where 70% of the students used simple present active voice instead of passive and 10% of the students used past tense in the passive voice:

> He relishes the gourmet cuisine on YX and the way it is served (* serves, was served). (Appendix A:105 lines 03-04)

The mainly tendency here was to use simple present (simple form) instead of present continuous (complex form). This occurred in 80% of the responses for the following:

> YX makes it so easy for him to get where he is going (goes). (Appendix A: 105 lines 06-07)

However, there were five verbs used in the simple present by the author which were used in the present perfect and average of 5% of the students responses, probably because the context is not marked. This changes a little the notional structure since the author intends to describe a businessman's life in the surface structure, but uses hortatory notional structure to convince the readers. The use of simple present by the author implies an action which is supposed to be done regularly and the use of present perfect by the students gives another connotation, past action leading up to the present, which seems less active.

EXPOSITORY - Text 3a (Appendix B - Table B5)

This expository discourse is marked in the notional structure by the expositor's purpose of explaining something. The surface structure is marked by the use of simple present

and third person singular plus first person plural (Appendix A: 101).

The random errors for this text were commited by students who demonstrated a tendency to use past tense instead of present tense and to avoid modals by using present.

There were three blanks with frequent errors in this text. In the first of these blanks all but one of the students (97%) used incorrect responses. It appears that they failed to notice contextual cues using active voice instead of passive voice and simple present instead of present perfect:

> It has been suggested (* suggests, is suggested, had been suggested) that the information derived from non-verbal behaviour is an accurate reflection of the personality and emotions of others.
> (Appendix A: 101 lines 12-14)

The other two blanks with frequent errors (60% and 40%) respectively occurred in the following sentence:

> One reason for this could be (is) that non-verbal behaviors existed (*exist) before man learned (*learns) any verbal behaviour.
> (Appendix A: 102 lines 20-21)

The students who used simple present failed to notice the contextual situation, i.e. the development of language among human beings, something which happened long ago.

Looking at the Acceptable Responses we notice two tendencies. The first one is to use past tense with verb of communication (33% of the responses) when quoting from a text written in the past.

> Birdwhistell (1970) states (ed) that communication is a system which makes use of the channels of all of the sensory modalities.
> (Appendix A: 101 lines 06-08)

This tendency may have been specially strong because of the influence of the date.

The second tendency which appeared in the Acceptable Responses is to avoid modals by using simple present where both would make sense. This occurred in 73% of the responses for the verb form <u>could be</u> in line 20 of the text above, and 87% of the responses in the following sentence:

> Verbal communication <u>cannot</u> (does not) <u>take</u> place without involving some degree of nonverbal communication also.
> (Appendix A: [106] lines 17-18)

There were, however, five verbs which were not modals in the original, for which modals were used, an average of 5% of the responses.

EXPOSITORY - Text 3b (Appendix B - Table B6)

This discourse embeds a narrative surface structure in the 'stage' by the use of simple past from line 01 to line 05 where the author tells us what happened in California when Geoffrey Bate prepared a drink. The notional structure is actually expository though the author uses narrative surface structure to report on real events (see 2.2 p.37). From line 05 to line 10 the author uses expository discourse in both the notional structure and in the surface structure which is marked by the use of present tense (Appendix A:106).

Present tense was accepted here as fictional present for three students who used it consistently in the first five lines which embeds narrative surface structure. This embedded narrative surface structure was probably responsible for the random errors which occurred, in which the students did not

notice the discourse notional structure (to explain) using past or present tenses indiscriminately.

Among the frequent errors found in this text, the first was the use of active voice when only passive voice is possible:

> The grains of powder acquire a charge when they
> <u>are shaken</u> (* shake, shook).
> (Appendix A:106   lines 07-08)

The students who used active voice here (57%) possibly did not notice the contextual and lexical cues which marked the voice (the fact that only one person was carrying out the experiment and therefore <u>they</u> can only refer to the <u>grains of powder</u>.

This error as the random errors mentioned above, was probably caused by the embedded narrative structure which prevented the students from noticing the expository notional structure. There was a strong tendency to use past tense in the text as a whole, with exception of the two verbs on line 06: "One answer that <u>comes</u> to mind <u>is</u>..." which in almost all the responses were in the present. The most likely explanation for this exception is that the question <u>Why so?</u> prepared the students for an expository response. However, immediately following these two verbs, many students returned to the used of the past tense, although the surface and notional structures were still expository:

> One answer that comes to mind is an electrostatic
> separation <u>arises</u> (arose) because the grains
> of powder <u>acquire</u> (acquired) a charge when they
> <u>are</u> (were) <u>shaken</u>.
> (Appendix A: 106 lines 04-05)

The responses using past tense above were considered

acceptable as the past tense does not change the expository surface structure, although it changes the meaning slightly making the explanation refer to this particular experiment and not necessarily to other similar occurrences. (Appendix A:106)

As in the text 3a mentioned above, the acceptable responses in this text also showed an avoidance of modals in 70% of the blanks where modals were used in the original as in the following example:

> Although he shook (had shaken, shakes) the
> powders vigorously they would not (did not,
> do not) mix uniformly.
> (Appendix A: 106 lines 04-05)

Looking vertically at the Acceptable column, we notice a slight tendency to use the perfect aspect as we can see in the example above. Contrary to the usual student tendency to prefer simple tenses, there were four verbs in this text for which the students used acceptably (in 11% of the responses) the perfect aspect instead of the simple present and past used in the original.

PROCEDURAL - Text 4a (Appendix B - Table B7)

This is a procedural discourse type and, as such, it is marked in the notional structure by the author's intention of prescribing 'how to do something'. In the surface structure it is marked by the use of imperatives and second person singular. The use of past continuous in line 03 intends to explain something rather than give instructions. The verb refers to the first sentence and the whole clause could be omited if the words right hand and left hand were used from the beginning. (Appendix A:103)

It is probable that the random errors which occurred in this text were caused by the students' lack of ability to notice contextual cues indicating the discourse notional structure. The students used simple present, simple past or even isolated present participle where contextual redundancy markes imperative as the only option.

There was only one blank with frequent errors (20%) in this text. The responses using future tense (7%) probably occurred because of the students failure to notice contextual cues and head-tail linkage. Those using past perfect (13%) showed an awareness of the contextual cues but a lack of ability to choose the appropriate past tense

> Pull the victim's chin up with hand that was
> lifting (* will lift, had lifted) the neck.
> (Appendix A: 103 line 03)

Eighty per cent of the students used simple present or present continuous which for grammatical reasons were considered acceptable in spite of the implication that this step in the procedure would then be simultaneous with the first step, a rather difficult performance.

The Acceptable Responses column shows that the students substituted modals have to for the imperative in 8% of the responses if we consider that in the compound sentence have to refers to both verbs.

PROCEDURAL - Text 4b (Appendix B - Table B8)

This text is of the procedural discourse type in its main line. In the 'stage' the author uses expository discourse up to line 03, reflected in the use of simple present; and

hortatory discourse from line 03 to 07 with imperative, future,
past and present. Procedural discourse is introduced in the last
three paragraphs where the surface structure is marked by the
use of imperative forms, with exception of three modals.

The random errors occuring in this text were caused
by the students tendency to use simple present or simple past
when imperative should be used.

The frequent errors were caused by two different
motives. The errors in the first two blanks occurring in 27% and
23% of the responses respectively were probably due to the
fact that the students did not notice contextual cues indicating
the expository discourse type:

> Just about all meats freeze (*froze, frozen,
> to freeze, are frozen) well and maintain
> (*maintained, maintaining, to maintain) their
> quality if wrapped properly.
> (Appendix A:108 lines 01-02)

The second type of frequent error found in this text
was a result of the students' tendency to avoid modals and
passive voice by using simple present or simple past:

> Most frozen meats should be used (*use, used)
> within 3 months.
> (Appendix A:108 lines 13-14)

Incorrect responses of this type were given by 40% and
37% of the srudents respectively in the two blanks where this
verb form was used in the original texts.

The Acceptable Responses column shows a preference
among 23% of the students for the present continuous in the
example below:

> Therefore if you (are) plan(ing) to freeze
> meat do so as soon as possible after

marketing.
(Appendix A: 108 lines 06-07)

This is possibly because of the verb itself which the students have probably noticed is commonly used in the present continuous in spoken English.

The other preference noticed in the Acceptable Responses was for the use of modals of stronger obligation than those used in the original text (must/have to in place of should in the 25% of the responses).

Summarizing the main points expressed above, it can be said that: In the above analysis of random and frequent errors, and of the acceptable responses, three student tendencies have been noted. First it was noted that the students have general tendency to avoid passive, complex verb forms and modals in all discourse types.

The tendency to avoid passive voice is strong even when there is high contextual redundancy marking the situational context; the tendency to avoid complex verb forms was specially strong where the context is unmarked or ambiguous and also where there is high contextual redundancy; the tendency to avoid modals was specially strong where there is low contextual redundancy and even when there is high contextual redundancy and other forms are not possible.

This avoidance of passive, complex verb forms and modals together with the difficulty of using complex verb forms appropriately shown in 4.3 can be partly responsible for the difference in performance in the four discourse types. The expository texts which were shown in 4.1 to have the lowest student performance have the highest incidence of passives, complex verb forms and modals in the originals (23%). The

procedural, hortatory and narrative texts differed little in the author's total use of passives, complex verb forms and modals (17%, 13% and 13% respectively). However, for all examplex forms used in the originals of the narrative texts, simple tenses were also acceptable, a fact which can partially account for the better student performance in this discourse type.

The   second   student tendency noted was to use the verb forms which mark the main line discourse type throughout the text, i.e. past tense in narrative, present tense in hortatory and expository discourse and imperative in procedural discourse, even when an embedded discourse type should cause a verb form to change.

A third opposing tendency was also noted in which the student maintains the verb form marking the 'stage' even after entering the main line of the text (texts 3b and 4b).

Although the above mentioned student tendencies frequently interfered with the students' appropriate verb form/ tense use, the second one shows that the students do have knowledge of the most commonly used verb forms in each discourse type. Furthermore where the students were able to perceive contextual redundancy, the negative effect of these tendencies was diminished.

4.5 Conclusions

In this chapter, it has been seen that the students performed better in narrative and procedural discourse than in hortatory and expository discourse types. Both groups together

and the undergraduate group performed better in verb forms marked by lexical cues than in those marked by contextual cues. It has also been shown that the students preferred to use simple forms rather than complex verb forms. Both groups having used significantly more simple verb forms than the authors of the original texts.

The analysis of acceptable and incorrect responses showed that there was a tendency to use those verb forms which mark the main line of each discourse type even where the discourse embeds a differing notional or surface structure in the supportive material; but that the use of embedded discourse in the 'stage' influenced the students' performance and their ability to notice the main line discourse type of the texts. The analysis also showed that there was a tendency to avoid passive voice even when it is marked by high contextual redundancy, and that the use of complex verb forms and modals were related to the students' interpretation of the contextual situation and also to the degree of redundancy in the different contexts.

The next chapter presents the final conclusions, pedagogical implications and an evaluation of the work done with suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the students' ability to use verb forms/tenses in authentic discourse types. My main objective was to find out how both redundancy and the characteristics of different discourse types can help students to use appropriate verb forms/tenses in different contexts. In order to obtain these answers I prepared two blocks of cloze tests which present four different discourse types each. The tests were applied to advanced students of Curso de Letras at Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina. The students' performance was investigated in a single factor design with discourse types as the main factor or independent variable consisting of four levels: narrative, hortatory, expository and procedural discourse types. The students' scores were analyzed regarding: 1) the use of verb forms/tenses in four discourse types, 2) the influence of lexical and contextual cues on the students' choice of appropriate verb forms/tenses, 3) their performance in simple and complex verb forms and 4) their tendency to use or to avoid

certain verb forms in certain contexts.

After restating the major findings of this research project, the present chapter discusses some methodological implications of such findings and the limitations of this research. It also suggests areas for further study.

5.1 <u>General Conclusions</u>

1) In relation to the students' performance in each discourse type, it was observed that the students perform more efficiently with narrative and procedural discourse types, which present contingent temporal succession, chronological linkage and high projection. The students' performance in narrative discourse was better than in procedural discourse probably because, although both discourse types present head-head and tail-head linkage, in narrative discourse the chronological linkage is marked by agent orientation, whereas in procedural discourse it is marked by activity. The students had more difficulty with hortatory and expository discourse, which present logical linkage and low contingent temporal succession. The students' performance with hortatory contexts was better than with expository contexts probably because hortatory contexts present high projection and agent orientation while expository context present low projection and themes reference.

2) In relation to the influence of lexical and contextual cues on verb form/tense use, both groups presented a better performance when verb forms were marked by lexical cues, the difference for the undergraduate group being statistically significant but not different for the postgraduate

group.

3) Concerning the tendency to use simple and complex verb forms, the test results showed that there was a preference for simple verb forms, especially when the discourse was marked by adverbials, because the use of complex verb forms here would be redundant.

4) As to the students' tendency to use ot to avoid certain verb forms, it was noticed that in general the students perceived the discourse characteristics and tended to use the verb tense which generally marks the main line of each discourse type. There was a great tendency to use past tense in narrative discourse, present tense in hortatory and expository discourse and imperative in procedural discourse. This tendency was especially noteceable where the texts included embedded discourse because the students frequently fail to change the verb forms accordingly. It was also shown that the students tended to avoid passives, complex verb forms and modals in all discourse types.

The findings above lead us to conclude that the appropriate use of verb forms/tenses is related to the students' interpretation of the discourse purpose, to the degree of redundancy present in each discourse type, and to the students' ability to perceive this redundancy and, to their knowledge of the discourse characteristics.

5.2 Pedagogical Implications

The test results revealed that random errors occurred probably because some students were not able to notice the discourse notional and surface structure purpose and used either present or past tenses indiscriminately. Frequent errors

occurred because some students have difficulty in noticing the author's interference in narrative discourse, in observing a change in the notional or in the surface structure, and in perceiving lexical and contextual cues and the discourse linkage. The traditional way of teaching a verb tense by relating it to certain adverbials has also misled some students. These students, therefore, tended to use certain tenses influenced by explicit adverbials not noticing, thus, the function each tense can take in different contexts.

The students' answers in the different discourse types and the conclusions mentioned above, encourage the following suggestions as to methodological procedures:

1) Verb tense use should be taught through authentic context since the adapted contexts available in most of the text-books used here in Brazil focus on specific uses of certain tenses which do not prompt the students to notice the different functions a verb tense can take in different contexts (See chapter 2).

2) Verb tense use should be introduced through narrative contexts since the test results show that the students perform better in narrative. Such contexts also present high contextual redundancy since they generally mark time explicitly and present chronological linkage, agent reference and high projection. Narrative contexts are also those with which the students are more familiar through childhood stories and fairy tales, in their daily lives. Furthermore, the use of past tense, which carries the main line of most narrative discourse, is most of the time redundant since it is generally marked by a time adverbial (See chapter 1:07). As we have seen in chapter 1: , redundancy can help the listener/reader to predict what s/he

is going to hear/read; students, however, tend to eliminate the redundancy present in the code (Redundancy Two) whenever they are speaking/writing. This is what we have observed when, for example, present tense is introduced before past tense. The students tend to keep using present tense instead of past tense to convey past time. It seems that it is easier for the students to accept the use of redundant forms if they do not know the non-redundant forms yet.

3) An awareness of the characteristics of the different types of discourse will give the students more confidence in dealing with appropriate verb forms.

4) Reading strategies should be appropriate to each kind of discourse. It was noticed through the test results that many of the students' errors were caused by their lack of ability to read and make inferences.

5.3 Limitations of the Study

1) It was impossible to take into account the way in which the sample students were taught verb tense: one group was formed of postgraduate students who came from different parts of Brazil; the second group consisted of undergraduate students of UFSC, who were exposed to different methods. Besides, an analysis of the methodology employed with these students would imply an exhaustive work, which could be the subject of another research project.

2) Another limitation of this research is the lack of a control group, specifically trained to perceive the characteristics of each discourse type. Such group could then

have been compared to untrained students, a comparison which would give greater validity to the finding of this experiment.

3) A third factor which limits this study is that the tests were in written form and it was impossible to know the real reasons which led the students to use certain verb forms. If had been possible to interview the students after correcting the tests and ask them why they used certain verb forms, the explanations for their answers would be more certain.

5.4 Suggestions for Further Research

This research was an attempt to evaluate the students' ability to use appropriate verb forms in different discourse types. Since the results indicate the performance can be improved by adequate teaching methods and choice of text, I could suggest as a follow-up to this study the development of a programme introducing the use of verb forms through narrative, procedural, hortatory and expository contexts in this order.

5.5 Final Conclusions

The use of discourse types to introduce verb forms should be developed through a very well planned syllabus including authentic texts. Such texts should follow an order of increasing difficulty - from simple to compound and embedded discourses (see. chapter 1: 18). The students should be aware of the contextual redundancy present in any discourse type and of the benefits they can derive from it.

Students should learn to work with verb tense

appropriately if the teachers give priority to verb tense use in authentic contexts. Verb tense usage should not be the teachers' first step but the students' last step. If the students learn to hand verb tenses by using them in specific contexts, they should later be able to cope with them more efficiently.

It seems that the results presented in chapter 4 and 5, confirm the hypothesis that the students' choice of verb tense is contextually determined by discourse genre, and that their use of appropriate verb forms is related to their ability to perceive redundancy covertly present in the notional structure and overtly signaled in the surface structure.

BIBLIOGRAPHY EFFECTIVELY CONSULTED AND QUOTED

ABORN M.H., RUBESNSTEIN and T. D. STERLING. "Sources of Contextual Constraint upon Words in Sentences", _Journal of Experimental Psychology_, vol 57, nº 3, 1959. p.171-179.

ALLEN J.P.B. and A. DAVIES. _Testing and Experimental Methods_, London: Oxford University Press, 1977.

BULL, W.E. _Time, Tense and the Verb_, Berkely and Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1971.

CARRELL, P.L. "Facilitating ESL Reading by Teaching Text Structure", _TESOL Quartely_, vol. 19, nº 4, 1985. p.727-742.

CRYSTAL, D. "Specifications and English Tenses", _Journal of Linguistics_, vol 2, nº 1, 1966. p.01-34.

DARIAN, S. "The Role of Redundancy in Language and Language Teaching", _System_, vol. 7, 1979. p.47-59.

DAVIES, N.F. "Receptive Versus Productive Skills in Foreign Language Learning", _The Modern Language Journal_, nº 60, 1976. p.440-443.

FILLENBAUM et al. "The Predictability of Words and their Grammatical Classes as a Function of Rate of Delection from a Speech Transcript", Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior, vol 2, 1963. p.186-194.

FREEDLE, R.O. New Directions in Discourse Processing, New Jersey: Ablex Publishing Corp., 1979.

GEORGE, H.V. Common Errors in Language Learning, Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers, Inc., 1972.

KALUZA, H. "Time and Tense in English", International Review of Applied Linguistics, vol. XVII, 2, 1979, p.139-143.

LEECH, G.N. Meaning and the English Verb, London: Longman Group Limited, 1979.

LEECH, G.N.; J. STARTVIK. A Communicative Grammar of English, London: Longman Group Limited, 1980.

LONGACRE, R.E. The Grammar of Discourse, New York: Plenum Press, 1983.

MCKAY, S. "Teaching the Syntactic, Semantic and Pragmatic Dimensions of Verbs", TESOL Quartely, vol 14 - 01, 1980. p.17-26.

NILSEN, D. and A. NILSEN, Semantic Theory, Rowley, Massachusetts: Newbury House Publishers Inc., 1975.

OLLER, J.W. Jr. Language Tests at School, London: Longman Group Limited, 1979.

PALMER, F.R. The English Verb, London: Longman Group Limited, 1974.

QUIRK et al.   A Grammar of Contemporary English, London:

   Longman Group Limited, 1974.

QUIRK R. and S. GREENBAUM.   A University Grammar of English,

   London: Longman Group Limited, 1979.

SWAM, M.   Practical English Usage, Oxford: Oxford University

   Press, 1980.

TANNENBAUM et al.   "Effects of Grammatical Information on Word

   Predictability", The Journal of Communication, vol 19, 1969.

   p.41-48.

THOMSON A. J. and A.V. MARTINET.   A Practical English Grammar,

   Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1972.

TREGIDGO, P.S.   "English Tense Usage: a Bull's Eye View",

   English Language Teaching Journal,   vol. 28, nº 2, 1974.

   p.97-107.

TUCKMAN, B.W.   Conducting Educational Research, New York:

   Harcourt Brace Jovanovich Inc., 1978.

WIDDOWSON, H.G.   Explorations in Applied Linguistics, Oxford:

   Oxford University Press, 1979.

_____ .   Teaching Language as Communication, Oxford: Oxford

   University Press, 1978.

WILKINS, D.A.   Notional Syllabuses, Oxford: Oxford University

   Press, 1979.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

List of verb forms which were used by the authors and tested in the four discourse types:

FIRST BLOCK

	Text 1a	Text 2a	Text 3a	Text 4a	TOTAL
Simple Pres.	01	10	12	01	24
Pres Cont	-	-	-	-	-
Pres Perfect	-	-	01	-	01
Simple Past	11	-	02	-	13
Past Cont	-	-	-	01	01
Past Perfect	03	-	-	-	03
Future	-	01	-	-	01
Imperative	-	02	-	07	09
Modals	-	02	03	-	05
TOTAL	15	15	18	09	57

SECOND BLOCK

	Text 1b	Text 2b	Text 3b	Text 4b	TOTAL
Simple Pres	05	12	07	02	26
Pres Cont	-	01	-	-	01
Pres Perfect	-	-	-	-	-
Simple Past	09	-	03	01	13
Past Cont	-	-	-	-	-
Past Perfect	-	-	-	-	-
Future	-	-	-	01	01
Imperative	-	02	-	14	16
Modals	01	-	02	03	06
TOTAL	15	15	12	21	63

<u>Instructions</u>:

This test consists of contexts taken from original English written texts.

Finite verb forms and Imperatives were taken out of the passages. You are supposed to fill in the blanks with the adequate verb form.

The lines indicate the place where you should insert the adequate verb form. All of them are of the same length.

Verb forms missing could be either in active or passive voice and could be of one or more words.

Negative forms are indicated in the parenthesis.

Be sure to complete every blank. Your answers are a very important piece of a whole work.

You should complete each text in the same order you received them. Do not jump pages or begin by the last ones. Do the first page first and so on.

Name: _____ Test _____

Postgraduate student   (   )

Letras Course student   (   )   fase ( )

Time you begin (   )

Time you finish(   )   total( )

FIRST BLOCK

Text la

01   It <u>was</u> on the 28th of July which I <u>believe</u> <u>was</u> a Wednes-

02 day, that I <u>visited</u> my father for the first time during his illness

03 and for the last time in his life. The moment I <u>saw</u> him I <u>knew</u> why

04 I <u>had put</u> off this visit so long. I <u>had told</u> my mother that I <u>did</u>

05 <u>not want</u> to see him because I <u>hated</u> him. But this <u>was not</u> true. It

06 <u>was</u> only that I <u>had hated</u> him and I <u>wanted</u> to hold on this hatred.

07 I <u>did not want</u> to look on him as a ruin: it was not a ruin that I

08 had hated. I imagine that one of the reasons people cling to their

09 hates so stubbornly is because they sense, once hate is gone, that

10 they will be forced to deal with pain.

<div align="right">

BALDWIN, J. <u>Notes of a Native Son</u>, in The

American Tradition in Literature, p.683.

</div>

was (01) marked by the date (lexical item);

believe (01) marks the author's point of orientation 'which I believe (now)' the use of simple present is marked by the subject plus verb semantic value. It is also marked by the contextual meaning of the situation. Past tense is not possible in this context: "which I believed was... but..." (contextual reference);

was (01) marked by the previous sentence and the lexical item 'Wednesday' (contextual reference);

visited (02) limited by the use of temporal adverbials 'for the first... for the last' (lexical reference);

saw (03) marked by the previous adverbial reference 'the moment' (lexical item);

knew (03) marked by the previous sentence (contextual reference);

had put (04) marked by the previous sentences and the verb semantic value. Simple past can be used since the sentence is marked by 'the moment' (lexical reference);

had told (04) unmarked, we can accept simple past here, the author does not say when he talked to his mother, if it was before or on the 28th of July;

did not want (05) marked by the previous sentence (contextual reference);

hated (05) marked by the previous sentence (contextual reference);

was not (05) marked by the previous sentence (contextual reference);

was (06) marked by the previous sentence (contextual reference);

had hated (06) marked by the previous sentences which began on the middle of line 04 'I had told... this was not true' simple past can also be used here since 'time' is not marked (contextual reference);

wanted (06) limited by the following words 'to hold on this hatred' (contextual reference);

did not want (07) marked by the previous sentences (contextual reference);

was not (07) marked by the previous sentence and the lexical item 'ruin' (contextual reference);

had hated (08) marked by sentence on line 06. Simple past can also be used here (contextual reference);

the verbs on line 08 and 09 that follow are marked by a

change in the narrative surface structure simple present is used to express the author's feelings and it is marked by two verbs I believe (01) and I imagine (08);

will be forced (10) marked by the previous sentences (contextual reference).

Text 2a

01   You only <u>get</u> one vacation a year, so it <u>is</u> natural for
02 you to expect to get the most out of it. You <u>want</u> a vacation you
03 <u>can rely</u> on, one with no unpleasant surprises... the best possi-
04 ble vacation.
05   That <u>is</u> why you <u>should ask</u> for PZ mark in your next va-
06 cation.
07   Because a PZ guaranteed vacation <u>means</u> flying to your
08 destination while you <u>enjoy</u> the hospitality and service of reg-
09 ular PZ flights. With transportation to and from the hotel. Guar-
10 anteed hotel reservations. Plus all additional side-trips you <u>wish</u>
11 to take, sightseeing tours, meals... even a rented car waiting
12 for you if that <u>is</u> what you <u>want</u>.
13   All this to assure that your next vacation <u>will be</u> just what
14 you <u>deserve</u>.
15   <u>Take</u> advice from the experts. <u>Consult</u> your Travel Agency.

Life, June 11, 1979 pp 06

get (01) marked by 'a year' (lexical item);

is (01) marked by the previous sentence overly marked by 'so' (contextual reference);

want/can rely (02-03) marked by the previous sentences (contextual reference);

is/should ask (05) marked by expository discourse 'I explain' (contextual reference);

means/enjoy/wish/is/want (paragraph 3) marked by expository discourse (contextual reference);

will be (13) marked by the previous adverbial 'next vacation' (lexical item);

deserve (14) marked by the verb meaning (lexical item);

take/consult (15) marked by hortatory discourse 'I suggest'.

Text 3a

01   While we generally think of communication as being verbal

02 in nature, nonverbal communication is perhaps as important as verbal

03 communication in the total communication process.

04   Nonverbal communication is so intricately interwoven into

05 the overall fabric of verbal communication that they often appear

06 inseparable. Birdwhistell (1970) states that communication is a

07 system which makes use of the channels of all of the sensory modal-

08 ities. "In other words, in the communication process we communicate

09 not only with spoken words, we employ gestures, postures, facial

10 expressions, and different levels of voice volume and intonation to

11 reveal our thoughts, feelings, intentions and personalities."

12 (Spiegel and Machotka, 1974) It has been sugested that the infor-

13 mation derived from non-verbal behaviour is an accurate reflection

14 of the personality and emotions of other (Swensen, 1973). A basic

15 definition of nonverbal communication is "all communicative forms

16 other than the spoken or written word" (Baker and Collins, 1970).

17   Verbal communication cannot take place without involv-

18 ing some degree of nonverbal communication also. However, non-

19 verbal communication <u>can</u> and does <u>take</u> place without verbal com-

20 munication. One reason for this <u>could be</u> that nonverbal behaviors <u>existed</u>

21 before man <u>learned</u> any verbal behaviors.

CHINN et al., <u>Two-way Talking with Parents of Special</u>
<u>Children</u>, Saint Louis, The C.U. Mosby Company,
1978 pp 51

think (01) marked by 'generally' (lexical item) and the notional structure (contextual reference);

is (02) marked by the previous context (contextual reference);

is (04) marked by contextual content and expository discourse type;

appear (05) marked by 'often' (lexical item);

states (06) marked by the subject (lexical item) we can also accept 'has states' or 'stated';

is (06) general truth, marked by the word 'communication' (lexical item);

makes (07) marked by the previous sentence (contextual reference);

communicate (08) covertly marked by 'we generally...' (lexical item);

employ (09) marked by the previous sentence (contextual reference);

has been suggested (12) unmarked, we can accept 'it was suggested;

is (13) marked by the previous verb plus contextual content (contextual reference);

is (15) marked by contextual content (contextual reference);

cannot take (17) marked by the contextual situation (contextual reference);

can and does take (19) marked by the previous sentence (contextual reference);

could be (20) change in surface structure marked by the introduction of past time. We can also accept 'can be' or 'is';

existed (20) contextual reference;

learned (21) same explanation given before.

Text 4a

```
00    ARTIFICIAL RESPIRATION BY MOUTH-TO-MOUTH METHOD
01        Lift victim's neck with one hand and tilt head back by
02    holding top of the head with other hand.
03        Pull victim's chin up with hand that was lifting the neck.
04        Make a leakproof seal and breathe into victim's lungs until
05    you see the chest rise.
06        Remove your mouth and let the victim exhale.
```

BAVER & SCHALLER, Your Health Today, New York, Harper & Row Publishers, 1955

All the verbs used in this text are in the imperative form (surface structure) marked by the notional structure how-to-do-it. The use of past continuous on line 03 is marked by expository notional structure (I explain).

BLOCK TWO

Text 1b

01   After two years of training he <u>went</u> to sea, and entering

02   the regions so well known to his imagination, <u>found</u> them strangely

03   barren of adventure. He <u>made</u> many voyages. He <u>knew</u> the magic monotony

04   of existence between sky and water: he <u>had</u> to bear the criticism of

05   men, the exactions of the sea, and the prosaic severity of the daily

06   task that <u>gives</u> bread - but whose reward <u>is</u> in the perfect love of

07   the work. This reward <u>eluded</u> him. Yet he <u>could not go</u> back because

08   <u>there is</u> nothing more enticing, disenchanting and eslaving than the

09   life at sea. Besides, his prospects <u>were</u> good. He <u>was</u> gentlemanly,

10   steady tractable, with a thorough knowledge of his duties; and in

11   time, when yet very young, he <u>became</u> chief mate of a fine ship,

12   without ever having been tested by those events of the sea that <u>show</u>

13   in the light of day the inner worth of a man, the edge of his temper

14   and the fibre of his stuff; that <u>reveal</u> the quality of his resistance

15   and the secret truth of his pretences, not only to others but also to

16   himself.

CONRAD, Joseph. <u>Lord Jim</u>, New York, New American

Library of World Literature, 1961 pp 14

went (01) marked by the temporal adverbial 'after two years'
(lexical item);

found/made/knew/had/ (02-04) are marked by the first temporal
adverbial (lexical item);

gives/is (06) author's interference (contextual reference)

eluded (07) unmarked;

could not go (07) marked by the previous sentences
(contextual reference);

there is (08) author's interference 'I explain' (contextual reference);

were (09) covertly marked by 'at that time' (lexical item);

was/became (09/11) the author is describing his character;
He uses simple past because he is saying how his character was before and not at the time he is speaking or telling the story. 'became' is also marked by 'when very young' (lexical reference);

show/reveal (12/14) marked by author's interference.

Text 2b

01   It _is_ a matter of record that the businessman _goes_ out of
02 his way to go out way. He _likes_ our business-like way of getting to
03 his business. He _relishes_ the gourmet cuisine on YX and the way it
04 _is served_. He _enjoys_ the relaxed atmosphere on board, so YX in mood.
05 Above all, be _appreciates_ our convinient schedules. Each trip _is_ a
06 pleasant pause in the harrassments of the executive's life. YX _makes_
07 it so easy for him to get where he _is going_.
08   So, wherever your business _takes_ you in Europe _let_ YX _take_
09 you!
10   Why _are_ we so Good in the air? It _is_ because we _are_ so Good
11 on the Ground.

                              Life, June 11, 1979 pp 55

is/goes (01) the use of simple present is marked by contextual reference and by the author's statement; he is making an affirmative proposition. Its illocutionary act is 'I affirm' or 'I declare;

likes/relishes/is served/enjoys/appreciates/is/makes/is going are marked by context and by descriptive discourse that requires simple present to make the discourse more vivid;

takes (08) marked by 'wherever...' contextual content

convertly marked by 'always' (contextual reference);

let/take/marked by hortatory discourse (contextual reference);

are/is/are (10) hortatory discourse overtly marked by the
use of simple present and 1st person plural and 3rd person singular
in the surface structure, and marked by 'we suggest' in the notional
structure 'Let YX take you because we are Good'.

Text 3b

01   Mixing a brown powder (Nestea) and an orange one (Tang)

02 in order to prepare a drink called Russian Tea, Geoffrey Bate of the

03 Verbatin Corporation in Sunnyvale, Calif., <u>noticed</u> something strange.

04 Although he <u>shook</u> the powders vigorously, they

05 <u>would not mix</u> uniformly. Island of oranges <u>persisted</u> in the pool of

06 brown. Why so? One answer that <u>comes</u> to mind <u>is</u> an electrostatic

07 separation <u>arises</u> because the grains of powder <u>acquire</u> a charge when

08 they <u>are shaken</u>. Another answer <u>is</u> that the grains of one powder

09 <u>may be</u> slightly smaller than the grains of the other so that they

10 <u>tend</u> to settle differently.

WALKER, J. <u>The Amateur Scientist</u>, in Scientific

American 1982   pp 206

noticed (03) simple past is used because of the subject and
because narrative surface structure. If we take out line 2 and line 3
up to Calif. and add another subject like 'we' or 'you', we could
have 'we/can/notice' or 'you/can/notice' by doing this we would be
changing the surface structure and then the whole passage could have
verbs used in the simple present;

shook (04) it is marked by the previous verb. George (1972) would classify this verb form and the followings up to line 5 as redundant forms since they are overtly marked by the first verb used, which was in the simple past and had already set the time (lexical reference);

would not mix (05) it is marked by 'although' (grammatical item) and the previous verb (lexical item). In this sentence we can also accept 'did not mix';

persisted (05) marked by the previous verb forms (lexical items);

comes (06) marks a change from 'supportive material' to 'main line'. The surface structure is marked by the use of simple present and 1st person singular in the voice of the expositor. The notional structure is marked by the covert performative verb 'I explain' which is marked by the question 'Why so?';

is (06) marked by the previous verb (lexical item);

arises (07) unmarked, we can accept simple past;

acquire (07) unmarked, we can accept simple past;

are shaken (08) unmarked, we can accept simple past;

is (08) marked by the previous question 'Why so' and signalled by 'another answer';

may be (09) unmarked, we can accept simple present or simple past marking, then, that the expositor has certainty;

tend (10) unamarked we can accept simple past;

Text 4b

How to Freeze Meat

01   Just about all meats _freeze_ well and _maintain_ their

02 quality if wrapped properly, frozen quickly and kept at a temperature

03 of 0° or below (_Do not use_ the ice cube compartment of your refri-

04 gerator as a substitute for a freezer for more than a week) And _keep_

05 in mind that the condition of the meat at defrosting _will be_ the

06 same it _was_ at freezing. Therefore, if you _plan_ to freeze meat, do

07 so as soon as possible after marketing.

08   Before wrapping, _prepare_ the meat for final use by trimming

09 off excess fat and, to conserve freezer space, _remove_ bones where you

10 can. _Do not salt._ _Choose_ freezer wrapping carefully and _follow_ direc-

11 tions for its use: _follow_ freezer directions for freezing. _Wrap_ the

12 meat tightly, then _label_ and _date_ before placing in freezer.

13   For top quality, most frozen meats _should be used_ within 3

14 months: corned beef, whole smoked hans and fresh pork sausage

15 _should be used_ within 2 weeks. _Do not freeze_ picnic hans, canned

16 hans other canned meats.

17   For defrosting, _place_ wrapped meat in refrigerator or let

18 stand at room temperature just until defrosted and then place in

19 refrigerator.

From a recipe book

In the first paragraph the author uses simple present when

the surface structure reflects expository notional structure and

imperative and simple present when the surface structure reflects

hortatory notional structure. In lines 05 and 06 the author uses

future and simple past which are marked by the use of 'defrosting' and

'freezing' (lexical items). The verbs used in the second and in the

fourth paragraphs are marked by the notional structure and the contextual situation (procedural - how-to-do-it). The verb forms used in the fourth paragraph are marked by the use of procedural discourse using hortatory supportive material 'this is what I suggest you to do'.

APPENDIX   B

        This Appendix present the data findings including the

percentage of correct (CO), incorrect (INC) and acceptable (AC)

responses. The percentage of the Total results at the botton of

the tables is calculated based on the number of occurrences.For

example, in Appendix B.1 the totals of the first three columns

represent the percentages of all verb forms used in the

discourse, but the columns of incorrect and acceptable responses

present the total percentage based on the number of answers given

in each column. For example, in the incorrect responses column,

the tendency to use complex verb forms is 09%. This number

corresponds to the percentage of responses using complex forms in

these four blanks.

TABLE B.1 - NARRATIVE Text 1a

L.	VERB FORMS	CO %	INC %	AC %	% OF INCORRECT RESPONSES			% OF ACCEPTABLE RESPONSES		
					% SIMPLE	% COMPLEX	% MODALS	% SIMPLE	% COMPLEX	% MODALS
01	WAS	97	03	–	03 Would be					
01	BELIEVE	53	47	–	47 Believed					
01	WAS	77	23	–	07 To be	13 Had been 03 To have been				
02	VISITED	87	10	03		07 Had... ed 03 Have...ed				03 Could visit
03	SAW	100	–	–						
03	KNEW	97	03	–		03 Had known				
04	HAD PUT	53	07	40		07 Have put		40 Put		
04	HAD TOLD	23	–	77				77 Told		
04	DIDN'T WANT	97	03	–	03 Left blank					
05	HATED	90	10	–	07 Hate 03 Would hate					
05	WAS NOT	97	03	–	03 Is					
06	WAS	97	03	–	03 Would be					
06	HAD HATED	13	07	80	07 Hate			80 Hated		
06	WANTED	97	03	–	03 Want					
07	DIDN'T WANT	93	07	–	07 Don't want					
	TOTAL	78	09	13	09	09	–	66	–	03

TABLE B.2 - NARRATIVE Text 1b

L.	VERB FORMS	CO %	INC %	AC %	% OF INCORRECT RESPONSES			% OF ACCEPTABLE RESPONSES		
					% SIMPLE	% COMPLEX	% MODALS	% SIMPLE	% COMPLEX	% MODALS
01	WENT	87	10	03	03 Goes	03 Has gone 03 Was going		03 Goes		
02	FOUND	90	07	03	03 Finds 03 Finding			03 Finds		
03	MADE	77	20	03	03 Makes	13 Had made 03 Used to...		03 Makes		
03	KNEW	93	03	03	03 Knows			03 Knows		
04	HAD	93	03	03	03 Has			03 Has		
05	GIVES	27	03	70		03 Was given		70 Gave		
06	IS	27	03	70		03 Was being		67 Was	03 Had been	
07	ELUDED	83	07	10	07 Eludes			03 Eludes	07 Had...ed	
07	COULDN'T GO	-	13	87	07 Doesn't...	03 Hadn't gone 03 Hasn't gone		80 Didn't go 03 Wouldn't... 03 Doesn't go		
08	THERE IS	17	-	83				83 There was		
09	WERE	87	10	03	03 Are			03 Is		
09	WAS	100	-	-						
11	BECAME	73	07	20	07 Becomes			03 Becomes	17 Had become	
12	SHOW	37	10	53		10 Are shown		50 Showed		03 Could show
14	REVEAL	33	-	67				53 Revealed	07 Had...ed	07 Could rev.
	TOTAL	57	06	37	06	08	-	32	08	05

TABLE B.3 - HORTATORY   Text 2a

L.	VERB FORMS	CO %	INC %	AC %	% OF INCORRECT RESPONSES			% OF ACCEPTABLE RESPONSES		
					% SIMPLE	% COMPLEX	% MODALS	% SIMPLE	% COMPLEX	% MODALS
01	GET	93	07	–	07 Got					
01	IS	87	13	–	07 Was 03 Will be 03 Would be					
02	WANT	77	07	17	07 Wanted			10 will want		03 Should... 03 May want
03	CAN RELY	30	10	60	07 Relied		03 should...	60 rely		
05	IS	80	20	–	13 Was 07 Will be					
05	SHOULD ASK	17	43	40	30 Ask 13 Asked			30 Will ask	03 Are going to...	03 Must ask 03 Have to...
07	MEANS	97	03	–	03 Meant					
08	ENJOY	67	07	26	03 Will enjoy	03 Will be enjoying			23 Are...ing	03 Can enjoy
10	WISH	67	07	26	07 Wished			13 Will wish 03 Would wish		07 May wish 03 Could wish
12	IS	90	10	–	07 Will be 03 Be					
12	WANT	90	10	–	07 Will want 03 Would want					
13	WILL BE	73	07	20	03 Would be 03 Be			20 Is		
14	DESERVE	90	10	–	07 Deserved 03 Will...					
15	TAKE	90	03	07	03 Will take					07 (You) can...
16	CONSULT	93	03	03	03 Will...					03 (You) can...
	TOTAL	78	08	14	10	03	03	27	13	06

TABLE B.4 - HORTATORY   Text 2b

L.	VERB FORMS	CO %	INC %	AC %	% OF INCORRECT RESPONSES			% OF ACCEPTABLE RESPONSES		
					% SIMPLE	% COMPLEX	% MODALS	% SIMPLE	% COMPLEX	% MODALS
01	IS	80	20	-	13 Was	07 Has been				
01	GOES	90	10	-	10 Went					
02	LIKES	87	13	-	13 Liked					
03	RELISHES	83	13	03	13 Relished				03 Has...ed	
04	IS SERVED	20	80	-	70 Serves	10 Was served				
04	ENJOY	87	10	03	10 Enjoyed				03 Has...ed	
05	APPRECIATES	83	10	07	10 ...ed				07 Has...ed	
05	IS	80	10	10	10 Was			03 Will be	07 Has been	
06	MAKES	87	10	03	07 Made	03 Was making			03 Has made	
07	IS GOING	07	07	87	03 Went	03 Was going		80 Goes	07 Has gone	
08	TAKES	97	03	-	03 Took					
08	LET TAKE	100	-	-						
10	ARE	90	10	-	10 Were					
10	IS	93	07	-	07 Was					
10	ARE	90	10	-	10 Were					
	TOTAL	83	14	03	14	06	-	42	05	-

TABLE B.5 - EXPOSITORY Text 3a

L.	VERB FORMS	CO %	INC %	AC %	% OF INCORRECT RESPONSES			% OF ACCEPTABLE RESPONSES		
					% SIMPLE	% COMPLEX	% MODALS	% SIMPLE	% COMPLEX	% MODALS
01	THINK	90	10	–	03 Thinking	07 Are...ing				
02	IS	87	03	10	03 Was			10 Will be		
04	IS	80	07	14	07 Was					
05	APPEAR	93	03	03	03 Appeared				10 Has been	03 Can be
06	STATES	67	–	33				33 Stated		03 Can appear
06	IS	87	13	–	03 Was / 03 Would be		03 Should be			
07	MAKES	97	03	–	03 Made					
08	COMMUNICATE	87	03	10			03 Could...			03 Have to... / 03 Should... / 03 Can...
09	EMPLOY	87	07	07			03 Could... / 03 Should...			03 Have to... / 03 Can...
12	HAS BEEN SUGGESTED	03	97	–	87 Suggests	07 is...ed / 03 Had been suggested				
13	IS	93	03	03		03 Had been / 03 Could be / 03 Can be				
15	IS	90	10	–	03 Was					03 May be
17	CANNOT TAKE	03	07	90	03 Takes	03 Is not taking		87 Doesn't... / 03 Will not...		
19	CAN TAKE	83	17	–	13 Takes	03 Could take				
19	TAKES	93	07	–	03 Took	03 Has been taking				
20	COULD BE	13	07	80	03 Was	03 Has been		73 Is		07 Can be
20	EXISTED	27	60	13	47 Exists	13 Has...ed				
21	LEARNED	57	40	–	23 Learns	17 Has...ed			13 Had...ed	
	TOTAL	69	16	15	15	07	04	52	12	06

TABLE B.6 - EXPOSITORY   Text 3b

L.	VERB FORMS	CO %	INC %	AC %	% OF INCORRECT RESPONSES			% OF ACCEPTABLE RESPONSES		
					% SIMPLE	% COMPLEX	% MODALS	% SIMPLE	% COMPLEX	% MODALS
03	NOTICED	83	03	13	03 Notices			10 Notices	03 Has...ed	
04	SHOOK	57	10	33	10 Shakes			10 Shakes	23 Had shaken	
05	WOULD NOT MIX	30	10	60	07 Don't mix	03 Hadn't...ed		50 Didn't mix 10 Don't mix		
05	PERSISTED	77	07	17	07 Persist			10 Persists	07 Had..ed	
06	COMES	100	-	-						
06	IS	97	03	-	03 Was					
07	ARISES	57	10	33	07 Arisen 03 Arising			33 Arose		
07	ACQUIRE	60	-	40				30 Acquired	10 Had..ed	
08	ARE SHAKEN	27	57	17	30 Shake 27 Shook				17 Were shaken	
08	IS	63	37	-	33 Was	03 Had been				
09	MAY BE	13	03	83		03 Had been		53 Are 27 Were		03 Could be
10	TEND	53	03	43			03 Could...	43 Tended		
	TOTAL	60	12	28	16	03	03	35	12	03

TABLE B.7 - PROCEDURAL   Text 4a

L.	VERB FORMS	CO %	INC %	AC %	% OF INCORRECT RESPONSES			% OF ACCEPTABLE RESPONSES		
					% SIMPLE	% COMPLEX	% MODALS	% SIMPLE	% COMPLEX	% MODALS
01	LIFT	87	07	07	03 Lifting 03 Lifts					07 (You) have to lift
01	TILT	93	07	-	07 Tilts					
03	PULL	87	07	07	03 Pulling 03 Pulls					07 (You) have to pull
03	WAS LIFTING	-	20	80	07 Will lift	13 Had lift		73 Lifts	07 Is lifting	
04	MAKE	87	07	07	03 Making 03 Makes					07 (You) have to make
04	BREATHE	93	07	-	07 Breathes					
05	SEE	83	10	07	07 Saw	03 Have seen				07 Could see
06	REMOVE	87	03	10	03 Removing					10 (You) have to remove
06	LET	100	-	-						
	TOTAL	80	07	13	06	08	-	73	07	07

TABLE B.8 – PROCEDURAL Text 4b

L.	VERB FORMS	CO %	INC %	AC %	% OF INCORRECT RESPONSES % SIMPLE	% COMPLEX	% MODALS	% OF ACCEPTABLE RESPONSES % SIMPLE	% COMPLEX	% MODALS
01	FREEZE	70	27	03	10 Froze 07 Frozen 03 To freeze	07 Are frozen				03 Can be frozen
01	MAINTAIN	77	23	–	17 Maintained 03 ...ing 03 To maintain					
03	DO NOT USE	97	03	–	03 Did not use					
04	KEEP	93	07	–	03 Keeps 03 Kept					
05	WILL BE	13	07	80	03 Was 03 Be			77 Is		03 Must be
06	WAS	23	03	73		03 Has been		73 Is		
06	PLAN	77	–	23					23 Are...ing	
08	PREPARE	97	03	–	03 Prepared					
09	REMOVE	97	03	–	03 Removed					
10	CAN REMOVE	100	–	–						
10	DO NOT SALT	100	–	–						
10	CHOOSE	100	–	–						
10	FOLLOW	93	07	–	03 Following 03 Follows					
11	FOLLOW	97	03	–	03 Follows					
11	WRAP	97	03	–	03 Wraps					
12	LABEL	100	–	–						
12	DATE	97	03	–	03 Dates					
13	SHOULD BE USED	33	40	27	37 Use 03 Used					23 Must be used 03 Have to be...
15	SHOULD BE	40	37	23	33 Use 03 Used					17 Must be used 07 Have to be
15	DO NOT FREEZE	100	–	–						
17	PLACE	93	07	–	07 Placed					
	TOTAL	81	08	11	12	05	–	75	23	14