【研究論文】

A comparative discussion of simple past tense and simple present perfect tense with Japanese EFL learners in mind

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Contents

［Abstract］

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Second language (L2) English learners encounter many challenges with English grammar for several reasons, including extreme grammatical differences from their first language. Another difficulty these learners encounter is the differences in usage between the simple past tense (PT) and simple present perfect tense (PPT). Explanations in textbooks on these two tenses are provided with rules mentioning definite time or finished actions but without adequate examples or clear discussions of the differences. In this comparative discussion of "standard" English grammar, we explore the usages of the PT and PPT to clarify some possible essential structures. The progressive aspect shows an internal view and marks a circumstance as ongoing. The nonprogressive aspect refers to an external view that has no direct connection to a phase or movement in time. Changing the present tense to the past tense alters the time from the present to the past. Changing the perfect tense does not alter the time, only the speaker's perspective on the situation. We also discuss perfective aspectuality and the PPT and then present a consciousness-raising teaching unit proposal.

1．Introduction of simple past and present perfect verb use in English

Second language (L2) learners of English face many challenges with English grammar for several reasons, including extreme grammatical differences from their first language (L1). The Japanese language is very different grammatically from English, and this causes various issues for learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) (Swan and Smith, 2001, p. 296). One area of difficulty these learners encounter is the difference in usage between the simple past tense (PT) and simple present perfect tense (PPT). Explanations in textbooks on these two tenses are given with rules mentioning definite time or finished actions but do not provide adequate examples or clear discussion of differences. In this comparative discussion of "standard" English grammar, we explore the usages of the PT and PPT to clarify some possible essential structures. We first describe the English PT and PPT, explore similarities and differences in usage, and examine

teaching implications for Japanese learners. A consciousness-raising and awareness-teaching unit will follow this.

2. Examination of the PT and PPT

Eastwood (1994), Huddleston (1984), and Swan (2016) have offered descriptive perspectives on current usages of English grammar. Both Huddleston and Swan have focused on international "standard" English grammar, while Eastwood emphasizes "standard" British English grammar. These descriptive grammar texts offer various definitions and examples of the PT and PPT, providing teachers and learners with a deep overall understanding of the complexities of the grammar forms. It is important to remember that there are usage differences in the PT and PPT between "standards" of English, such as American English and British English, but that does not make them incorrect (Huddleston, 1984, p. 4-5). In the following subsections, we discuss the PT and PPT first by exploring the terms "tense" and "aspect," followed by descriptions of the two tenses.

2.1 Distinction between "tense" and "aspect"

Exploring the difference between "tense" and "aspect" is necessary to understand the PT and PPT. Swan (2016) [1] defined "tense" as a verb form that shows the time of an action, event, or state through a change in the verb's form and/or the use of an auxiliary verb such as *be, have,* or *do* (p. xxix). Therefore, tense specifies whether an event is connected to the present or past.

[1]   *i.*   *Past tense*   He went to the movies.
      ii. *Present tense*   He goes to the movies.

The verb form in Example 1i refers to a time in the past; in Example 1ii, the verb form refers to the present.

While "tense" refers to time, "aspect" is connected to perspective. Huddleston (1984) explained that "aspect" is connected to how the speaker views a situation, for example, as completed, ongoing, and/or planned (p. 117-125). The progressive aspect shows an internal view and marks a circumstance as ongoing, whereas the nonprogressive aspect refers to an external view that has no direct connection to a phase or movement in time (p. 117).

[2] | | *Present* | *Past* |
| --- | --- | --- |
| *Nonprogressive* | He goes to the movies. | He went to the movies. |
| *Progressive* | He is going to the movies. | He was going to the movies. |

Changing the present tense, nonprogressive *He goes to the movies* to the past tense,

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[1] The 4th edition of Swan's Practical English Usage (2016) uses Roman numerals for the front matter and the terminology "sections" and "entries" for the body. I will cite page numbers in the following manner: citations found in the front matter will use "p." followed by the Roman numeral and those for the body will use section numbers, e.g. "5.47.3." The first number refers to the main section, the middle number to the entry, and the final number for details within entries.

nonprogressive *He went to the movies* alters the time from the present to the past. However, changing *He goes to the movies* to the progressive *He is going to the movies* does not alter the time, only the perspective on how the speaker views the situation, from a habitual occurrence to an ongoing situation.

It is important to distinguish between the perfect tense and the perfective aspectuality. Simply, the perfect tense reflects the time of occurrence, and perfective aspectuality reflects the totality or completeness of an occurrence irrespective of time (Huddleston, 1984, p. 124). The states described using the perfect tense are not always finished; therefore, perfect tense usage does not always exhibit perfective aspectuality. Perfective aspectuality and the PPT are discussed further in Section 2.3.

2.2 Simple past tense

The *simple past tense*, or "simple preterite" (Huddleston, 1984, p. 116), is the grammatical term used for describing statements and questions that refer to a finished event that occurred in or is related to the past (Swan, 2016, 5.44). Generally, statements or questions that use the PT have no connection to the present. The PT is most commonly used for expressing past events (i.e., short, quickly finished actions and occurrences, long situations, and repeated events), in narratives and past-event descriptions, and in sentences with words referring to finished times (Swan, 2016, 5.44; also see Appendix 3 *Figure A*). The PT can be formed as follows:

[3] Regular verbs

	Affirmative	*Question*	*Negative*
i.	I cooked.	Did I cook?	I did not cook.
ii.	You cooked.	Did you cook?	You did not cook.
iii.	He/She/It cooked.	Did he/she/it cook?	He/She/It did not cook.

PT questions and negatives of irregular verbs, such as *make*, *eat*, and *write*, are constructed in the same way as those of regular verbs, but affirmative sentences using irregular verbs require the learner to conjugate that particular verb. The regular affirmative PT forms of verbs are characterized by the "-ed" ending, while irregular affirmative PT forms have various spellings (see Appendices 1 and 2).

2.3 Simple present perfect tense

The PPT is used in statements and questions that discuss a past finished action or event that is somehow connected to the present (Swan, 2016, 5.47; also see Appendix 3 *Figure B*). We use the auxiliary verb *have* plus the past participle (see Appendix 2) to form the PPT. Huddleston (1984) noted that the perfect auxiliary verb *have* combined with the past participle marks the knowledge of the occurrence of a past event; therefore, Huddleston identified the PPT as the "secondary past tense" (1984, p. 116). The PPT can be formed as follows:

[4]　　*Affirmative*　　　　　*Question*　　　　　*Negative*

i.　　I have finished.　　　Have you read?　　　I have not finished.

ii.　　You have read.　　　Have you read?　　　You have not read.

iii.　　He/She/It has eaten.　　Has he/she/it eaten?　　He/She/It has not eaten.

Four classifications of the PPT were outlined by (Huddleston, 1984): "the continuative, the experiential (or 'existential') perfect, the resultative perfect, and the perfect of recent past" (p. 143). The continuative perfect expresses that a state began in the past and extends to now, and usually includes a time adjunct such as *for*, *since*, or *ever since* (p. 141). The two states of the continuative perfect are ordinary (e.g., *I have lived here since 2005*) and serial (e.g., *I have gone there weekly ever since it opened*). The continuative perfect differs from the other classifications because it indicates imperfective aspectuality, while the other three classifications are considered noncontinuative with perfective aspectuality. Without time adjuncts, PPT usage is considered noncontinuative unless the continuative meaning is understood from context (p. 141-142). However, Eastwood (1994), for example, categorized continuative perfect usage with the other perfective aspectualities (p. 87-88). Swan (2016) mentioned that "a present perfect sentence often corresponds to a present tense sentence expressing the same fact" (5.47.3). We conjecture that because the PPT focuses on a connection to *now*, the current state may hold more importance than the extension of that state from a past time. Since aspect is a matter of perspective, we could argue that statements such as *He's taught here for years* could be either imperfective (i.e., the prior and current state will continue) or perfective (i.e., the prior state still exists now).

In continuing with Huddleston's (1984) explanation, the experiential perfect is used for describing situations that occurred within a span of time until now, meaning that the situation occurred singularly or reoccurred at times in the past until this current point (p. 143-144). The experiential perfect may use superlatives (e.g., *It's the best ice cream I've ever had*) or ordinal numbers (e.g., *It's the second time she's left the room*) (p. 144).

The resultative perfect expresses a situation that occurs with some kind of change in state, where there is a result in the present, but the change may not have occurred recently (Huddleston, 1984, p. 145). An example of this is in the statement *she has been to the doctor's office*. It is understood that the person went to and is no longer at that place (i.e., the doctor's office) and there is an implied result of going there, such as receiving treatment for a medical concern.

Finally, the perfect of recent past is used when there is specifically a close connection to the present (Huddleston, 1984, p. 145-146). This is the PPT form used for news reports or for discussing even more recent events or changes, with an adjunct such as *just* or *recently*. Compare the following:

[5]　　*i.*　　She has been to New York.

　　　ii.　　She has just been to New York.

In Example 5i, the usage of the PPT is experiential because it expresses an occurrence between the past and present, but has no time adjuncts for marking the recency of this event. Adding *just* to the statement in Example 5ii clarifies that this event occurred at a time in the past that is close to now.

3. A discussion of the PT and PPT through three areas of usage

The PT and PPT may sometimes be used interchangeably without much difference in connotation (Swan, 2016, 5.49.11). Still, there are some areas where it is important to distinguish how each tense usage affects meaning. For conciseness, we discuss only some areas where tense usage changes the nuance or the appropriate tense may be ambiguous. The *relationship with time*, *repeated actions*, and *reporting information* are such areas where both the PT and PPT may be used. The following subsections explore the appropriate usage of each tense more deeply in these capacities.

3.1 Relationship with time

The main difference between the PT and PPT involves the relationship with time expressed in the involved statement or question. We must consider when an event happened and whether there is a connection to the present when choosing the PT or PPT (see Appendix 3 *Figure C*). An example of this is the difference between the following questions:

[6]   i.   Have you seen *Beauty and the Beast*?
　　 ii.   Did you see *Beauty and the Beast*?

In Example 6i, we consider a period until now whereas Example 6ii references a particular finished time. Although these questions include no time-specific word such as *yesterday* or *last week*, we can understand from the time-specific PT "did" of Example 6ii that the inquiry refers to an implied finished time, and the PPT language of Example 6i shows that the inquiry implies the inclusion of the present. Certain time-related expressions affect which tense can be used in English grammar. Terms such as "yesterday, last week, then, when, three years ago, [and] in 1970" (Swan, 2016, 5.48.2) refer to a finished time and therefore cannot be used with the PPT, which focuses on the present *now*. However, there are definite time expressions, such as *today*, *this week*, and *this month*, that include the time until now (and can be considered unfinished) and therefore are usable with both the PT and PPT (5.49.3). Compare the following:

[7]   i.   I haven't studied English this month.
　　 ii.   I studied English this month.

Example 7i refers to the action of not studying from the beginning of the month until now, while Example 7ii refers to the action that was completed at a finished time earlier in the month.

3.2 Repeated actions

Expressions of the repetition of actions may also use both the PT and PPT. The understanding of a completely finished occurrence or implied connection to the present changes with the tense choice (Section 3.1). Consider the following:

[8]   i.   I have gone to Greece three times.
　　 ii.   I went to Greece three times.

In Example 8i, the speaker experienced going to Greece at three points in the past until now

(current state) and implies the possibility the speaker will go there again in the future. In Example 8ii, the speaker discusses the repeated past event of going to Greece, but the usage of the PT implies the finished state. Serial occurrence, another aspect of repetition, may also use either tense. In the discussion of the continuative perfect (Section 2.3), we understand that *I have gone there weekly ever since it opened* infers that this action has repeated serially over a period until the present and will likely continue to occur. In the example *I went there every week when I was a child*, the PT *went* denotes that this event no longer serially repeats, even if the finished time clause *when I was a child* were removed.

3.3 Reporting information

One area where the appropriate usage of the PT and PPT is particularly ambiguous is reporting information. The PPT is more traditionally used for an initial report, but the PT may be used in similar instances (Swan, 2016, 5.48.4, 5.49.6-7). The reported information likely has some connection to the present (through a change in or continuation of state); therefore, the resultative perfect may be the best choice for conveying the initial report, while the details of the occurrence are often expressed in the PT due to the likely finished state or usage of finished time expressions (Swan, 2016, 5.48.4; also see Appendix 3 *Figure D*). We can understand that in some cases the choice of tense does not substantially affect the meaning of the reported information:

[9] i. Jack has just left.
     ii. Jack just left.

In Examples 9i and 9ii, the meaning of *just* links the occurrence in both sentences as being close to the present, regardless of tense (Swan, 2016, 31.503.2). The reduction in distinction between these tenses is no longer only within casual speech, but also appears in news media (5.49.6). Consider:

[10] i. The Toronto Raptors have won their first NBA championship. The final score of Game 6 was 114-110.
      ii. The Toronto Raptors won their first NBA championship. The final score of Game 6 was 114-110.

The first sentence of Example 10i reports the news that the team won the championship for the first time and gives the impression that this state is most likely recent and connected to the present (i.e., by the team continuing to be the champions at the current time), while the second sentence of Example 10i reports more detailed information that marks a finished point in the past and carries no connection to now. The first sentence in Example 10ii uses the PT and this can also be considered reporting information. The meaning of both examples does not change deeply with the shift in tense in the first sentence; however, Example 10ii has no time adjunct for marking a connection to a recent time and could also be reporting information from a time further in the past. Expressions of finished time are unusual with the PPT (Section 3.1), but sometimes news reports or advertising utilize the PPT with finished time adjuncts despite the conflict in time perspective (Swan, 2016, 5.49.5). PPT usages with finished time adjuncts seem to be most often used when it is important to impart as many details as quickly as possible, as in a breaking news report.

4. Addressing the PT and PPT for Japanese EFL learners

The analysis in Section 3 confirms some key differences between the English PT and PPT that are essential for L2 speakers to know but also shows there is a significant overlap in usage between the two tenses. It has been suggested that L2 learners avoid using tense structures that are unfamiliar and instead choose structures that are present in the L1; this is the case for Japanese EFL learners because the PPT does not occur in Japanese grammar (Pounds, 2011, p. 7). Uno (2014) found that Japanese EFL learners have difficulty deciding between PT and PPT usage and are likelier to choose PT when explicit time expressions are absent (p. 49). Additionally, some errors with tense-aspect may occur due to L1 interference (p. 48). Shirai (2000, as noted in Uno, 2014) observed that "the notion of the present perfect is encoded in the simple past tense form in Japanese" (p. 48), which may cause learners to struggle with perfective and imperfective aspectuality in the English PPT. In fact, the English PPT may be translated into the Japanese present perfect progressive due to the imperfective aspectuality of the continuative perfect (Section 2.3), leading to further misunderstandings (Pounds, 2011, p. 8).

The Communicative Approach is still common in Japanese EFL classrooms and some EFL textbooks only offer brief comparisons of the PT and PPT before introducing communicative exercises (Martin 2003, p. 34; Milner, 2015, p. 141). Pounds' (2011) thesis contained a comparison of textbooks used in Japan and English-speaking countries. Her analysis of textbooks commonly used in Japanese secondary schools found they offer an insufficient explanation of PPT grammatical rules and limited comparison with the PT and other tenses (p. 26-27). These textbooks inadequately explain the PPT's connection with now and lack the necessary emphasis of which tense uses finished and unfinished time adverbials (p. 39-43). These simplified descriptions may lead to gaps in knowledge of the complex tenses and lower learners' confidence in their ability to choose the appropriate tense choice, especially if they hear L1 speakers producing grammatically incorrect language (Section 3.3).

Teaching the difference between the PT and PPT to Japanese learners can take several approaches. Japanese learners are used to the deductive approach. They may respond well to an explicit description of grammar rules, which has the added benefit of reducing time on teacher-led activities and increasing time for practice and production (Thornbury, 1999, p. 47). Timelines (like those in Appendix 3) assist learners to visualize the relationship between the past and now. Thornbury also suggests the inductive approach, allowing students to benefit from discovering the grammar rules themselves, e.g., by examining minimal sentence pairs to notice and discuss differences in usage (p. 65). Japanese EFL learners may have limited access to real language compared to learners in English-speaking countries. Using authentic materials such as magazine articles or blogs can facilitate learning grammatical knowledge and how the language is naturally used (Tomlinson, 2003, p. 5). Following guided practice with tense correction or gap-fill activities, students should be allowed to produce their authentic language for real-life situations, such as a

free-write or conversation with a partner regarding past experiences. Echevarria, Vogt, and Short (Echevarria et al., 2010) maintain that by making connections between "what they know and what they are learning" (p. 42), learners will be more successful and retain more knowledge through new links to already established knowledge.

4.1　Consciousness-raising

In this part, we shall explore consciousness-raising or the C-R approach. Consciousness-raising refers to an approach to teaching grammar in which instructions in grammar through drills, grammar explanation, and other form-focused activities are viewed as a way of drawing the learner's awareness of the grammatical features of the language. It can indirectly facilitate L2 acquisition. Consciousness-raising differs from traditional approaches to teaching grammar in that it accommodates itself to the learner's place on the interlanguage continuum and is practice-oriented (learner-centered) and not presentation-oriented (teacher-centered).

In "The Role of Practice in Classroom Learning," Ellis (1988) states that there are two kinds of practice, controlled and accessible. Controlled practice takes the form of various drills, which require the mechanical production of specific language forms. The free practice involves the students engaging in simulated communication which has been set up to provide opportunities for using those forms (Ellis, 1988, p. 21). For this paper, controlled practice will be the focus.

Controlled practice can have a delayed effect, especially in light of language's developmental and variational features (Ellis, 1988, p. 36). As it is commonly known and used by itself, it does not cause acquisition: the practice-causes acquisition model is simplistic and not tenable. Student attitudes and motivational and social factors can explain this shortcoming of practice. One factor which may explain why controlled practice appears to work is that the learner has already acquired the structure and the learner, therefore, feels confident and free to practice. This is not the kind of practice that leads to acquisition. Rather, controlled practice confirms acquisition and the teacher's perception of the learner's place on the interlanguage continuum. When controlled practice is credited with causing learning, it is often a developmental artifact; and input. And if it is input, it can facilitate consciousness-raising on the part of the learner. But there are more effective ways of doing this.

In "Interpretation Tasks for Grammar Teaching," Ellis examines an alternative approach to grammar teaching based on interpreting input. This approach has three goals which emphasize helping learners to 1) enable learners to identify the meaning(s) realized by a specific grammatical feature, otherwise known as form-function mapping; 2) notice grammatical features in the input and comprehend their meanings; and 3) compare the forms present in the input with those occurring in learner output, or "noticing the gap" (Ellis, 1995, p. 94). A pedagogical application of this approach can be realized in a threefold application. In step one, the learners would be required to comprehend input that has been specifically contrived to induce

learners to attend to the meaning of a specific grammatical feature. In step two, the learners would be greeted by a task to induce them to pay careful attention to the critical properties of the target features. And step three would have them perform a cognitive comparison task in which their output would be evaluated (Ellis, 1995, p. 94).

From a theoretical standpoint, two types of knowledge are at any learner's disposal. Those two types of learning are explicit and implicit. There are two basic ways in which a learner draws upon their knowledge, either in a controlled manner or in an automatic manner. In his chapter, "A Theory of Instructed Second Language Acquisition," Ellis assembles a theory of language acquisition that takes place in a classroom, that is input based on the overall goal of automatizing L2 knowledge that had been explicit indirectly into implicit L2 knowledge (1995, p. 99).

In short, input has to become intake for the linguistic information to interact with the learner's interlanguage and facilitate output. The learner's interlanguage constitutes all the implicit knowledge of the L2 the learner has at his or her disposal. The role of explicit knowledge indirectly affects the transformation of input to intake and the probability of the learner generating comprehensible output. Explicit knowledge is consciously analyzed and exists independently of actual instances of use. Explicit knowledge is knowledge about language. For the output to be made from a learner, Ellis argues in favor of a weak interface position. Under some conditions, explicit knowledge can become implicit, albeit developmentally. A learner is only capable of features compatible with the current or next development phase. Therefore, when learning implicit knowledge, the learner is involved in conscious attention to forms in the input (noticing and then comparing) to change that input into the intake. Learners must also integrate what they noticed and compared into their interlanguage systems (integrating); this is likely to occur unconsciously. In short, the automatization of L2 knowledge, both implicit and explicit, can happen through controlled practice.

4.2　Learner-Centered Rule Creation

When the learner practices, they need a chance to produce language. Output has a role to play in this theory. Swain suggests output aids acquisition in that it promotes noticing the gap, promotes hypothesis testing, and learners may reflect on their output and thereby develop a meta-lingual understanding (Swain, 2000). To elicit learners to produce output, the following can be used: 1) consciousness-raising for explicit knowledge; 2) feature focus exercises, such as interpretive tasks; and 3) focused communication activities such as an information gap activity.

As for the particular task or treatment, the structure-based comprehension tasks found in Loschky and Bley-Vroman's "Grammar and Task-Based Methodology" (Loschky and Bley-Vroman 1993 as cited Crookes and Gass, 1993, p. 152) are useful as a task-utility. A grammatical structure will be useful if it has a function in the learner's grammar. While this may not be new, they claim that the learner has to be in control of the task, both for comprehension and

production. The learner develops a contextual awareness from the surrounding words, phrases, and paragraphs. The learner formulates a new grammar where once it was lacking. Therefore, they develop the scheme for structure-based comprehension tasks when setting this into action. Input comes, and the learner has to notice the target and other distractors. Then the learner has to contextualize the features which distinguish its referents. Finally, there needs to be negotiated interaction and feedback in the feature context (p. 152).

The learners are invited to draw upon their general background knowledge through comprehension. They must indicate all examples; this helps them to become aware of them. In the Attenuation section, participants learn how to distinguish referents based on their contextual features. In the Synthesis section, learners negotiate using contextual features. At all levels of pedagogical design is a systematic and focused approach on consciousness-raising within a structure-based context.

4.3 Pedagogical design and proposed application

The overall design of this consciousness-raising task is experimental, with the null hypothesis being that there is no difference in students' understanding and use of the present simple and simple past system between those who received consciousness-raising treatment and those who received explicit, teacher-fronted instruction. The experimental design includes a pre-test, treatment, and post-test X_1 T_{a1} X_2. The pre-test has two components:

    1) a grammaticality judgment section - to probe how well the learner can judge correct usage of the PT and PPT; and

    2) a written section in which the learner has to produce a text designed to elicit use.

This design shows change within a person if any. The measure is a grammatical consciousness-raising task concerning simple past and simple present perfect tenses, with pre and post-testing. This basic design may be modified into a repeated measures design to measure the persistence of the effect.

$$X_1 \; T_{a1} \; X_2$$

The pre-test and the post-test are the same. This can be done on paper or within an online Learning Management System like Moodle. Briefly, Moodle is a tool that can be used to run simple experiments in cognition and applied linguistics. For this application, Moodle will be used for Pre and Post-Testing and collecting data for the Treatment.

Included below is the text of questions students will see once they have logged in and accessed the material. Within the Pre-Test, the quiz contains three questions.

Question 1 – Grammar Judgement - X_{1a}

Directions：Choose the correct words or phrases.

1. Peter [have played, *played, has played] football yesterday.

*2. They [cleaned, has cleaned, *have cleaned] the car. It looks new again.*

*3. Last year we [have gone, goed, *went] to Italy.*

*4. John and Peggy [read, just have read, *have just read] the book. Now they can watch the film.*

*5. I [*met, meeted, have met] my friend two days ago.*

*6. We [*have never visited, has never visited, visited] another country before.*

*7. She [*bought, buyed, has bought] a new car in 2011.*

*8. I'm sorry, but I [*have forgotten, has forgotten, forgot] my homework.*

*9. [Did you won, *Did you win, Have you win] the game of chess?*

*10. The girls [has not eaten, did not eat, *have not eaten] their lunch yet.*

This question set is offered in Moodle Cloze format. The distractors are shuffled, but the questions appear in order. The material is sourced from englisch-hilfen.de (Pöhland, 2022).

The following two questions are forced output questions designed to elicit learner use of the target grammar. These are offered within Moodle's self-correcting Essay Question type in that Moodle will count the words and grade accordingly. This is useful because students who do not write the minimum number of words will be informed automatically. As for evaluating the content of each entry, the researcher needs to do that. Moodle will not count how many times the simple past and the simple present perfect is used. The questions are original to the researchers and may be administered via Moodle or on paper.

Question 2 – Output - X₁ᵦ

Directions： *Write a paragraph with 80 or more words about your abilities and things you did before the COVID-19 pandemic, explaining why.*

Question 3 – Output - X₁ᵨ

Directions： *Write another paragraph with 80 or more words about things you enjoyed doing as a child but do not do anymore.*

The measure is the successful use of the simple past and the simple present perfect tense instead of its misuse. With this in mind, should the researcher utilize Moodle's auto-grading essay question format, grades will need to be overridden as the Moodle-generated score will be a score that rewards the students for their effort i.e. a satisfactory word count.

The Treatment
Part 1 – Confirmation of Usage
In part one, students are to watch a You Tube video about the Simple Past and Simple Present Perfect. When done, complete the next part, an interactive quiz found in Part 2 – Comprehension.
Part 2 – Comprehension
In this exercise, students are to listen to a verb in the present tense and then write it in the past

tense. The material is sourced from an online resource for copyright-free educational material (Clayton, 2022). Moodle's gap-fill question format was used for ease of use, and the thirty items were organized into subfolders for random selection.

In the final part of the comprehension section, students are to spot errors and then select the correct forms by dragging them into position. This material is also sourced from Clayton (2022).

As this is a learn-by-doing exercise, the quiz is set up so that students can receive hints and immediate feedback. This set of tasks is not a test but a set of learning self-paced exercises. They may take the quiz as often as they wish until they get their desired score. Upon completion, they proceed to the Post-Test, the same as the Pre-Test.

With experimental design in mind, one might consider guarding against the Hawthorne Effect by constructing two groups: one that takes both the Pre and Post-Test, whereas the other only takes the Post-Test. The Hawthorne Effect occurs when students take a Pre-Test and become sensitive to what will be researched ("Hawthorne Effect," 2018). Hence, they may be likely to put out their best performance and not actually learn. By comparing the two Post-Tests for significance, one can then see if the Hawthorne Effect was problematic. Such an approach adds strength to the learning material and helps to ensure learner value as they spend time on the various tasks.

To measure for significance, seeing as how the Pre and Post-Tests are the same, a t-test may be employed to show whether the two groups are statistically different. If not, then the null hypothesis needs to be accepted that the treatment made no impact on the subjects. If there is a difference, then the treatment did make a difference.

5. Conclusion

The English PT and PPT are sometimes interchangeable, and deciphering distinctions in usage is crucial for encouraging L2 acquisition and comprehensible production. Notable differences between the two tenses include the relationship with time, repetition, reporting information, and the usage of distinct time adjuncts. While Japanese EFL learners may produce odd phrasing due to L1 tense-aspect interference, it is possible to assist learners in noticing important differences in phrasing, which can lead to higher accuracy rates. Teachers should consider possible L1 interference and learners' educational background when planning their classroom approach to these two tenses.

While studying the challenges non-English speakers face while learning English grammar, in this case, the simple past and the simple present perfect tense, it is important to keep in mind that a systematic approach to fostering an acquisition rich environment needs to happen not just with

an awareness of a likely area of difficulty, but also have a concurrent awareness with the materials that will best assist teachers and learners. Looking at a grammar problem is one side of the coin, so to speak, and probing how an approach, such as a conscious-raising approach is the other side of the coin. This is not to say that everyone should be making and authoring CR materials, but rather that the informed teacher should be mindful in looking for textbooks that use such an approach.

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〔Appendices〕

Appendix 1: Spelling of regular affirmative past tense forms.
Reprinted from *Practical English usage* by M. Swan, (2016), 5.44.3. Copyright 2016 by "Michael Swan".

Most regular verbs: add *-ed*	work → work**ed** stay → stay**ed** show → show**ed** wonder → wonder**ed** visit → visit**ed** gallop → gallop**ed**
Verbs ending in *-e*: add *-d*	hope → hope**d** decide → decide**d**
Verbs ending in one stressed vowel + one consonant (except *w* or *y*): double the consonant and add *-ed*	shop → shop**ped** plan → plan**ned** reˈfer → refer**red** reˈgret → regret**ted**
But (last syllable not stressed):	ˈoffer → offer**ed** ˈvisit → visit**ed**
Verbs ending in consonant + *-y*: change *y* to *i* and add *-ed*	hurry → hurr**ied** cry → cr**ied** study → stud**ied**
But (vowel + *-y*):	play → play**ed**

Appendix 2: A sample of examples of irregular simple past and past participle forms.
Adapted from *Practical English usage* by M. Swan (2016), 1.1.1. Copyright 2016 by "Michael Swan".

Infinitive	*Simple past*	*Past participle*
be	was, were	been
catch	caught	caught
do	did	done
eat	ate	eaten
go	went	gone
keep	kept	kept
run	ran	run
see	saw	seen

Appendix 3: Timeline figures representing usage of the simple past tense and present perfect tense.

Figure A: Timeline representing the simple past tense
Reprinted from *Practical English usage* by M. Swan (2016), 5.44.4. Copyright 2016 by "Michael Swan".

Figure B: Timeline representing the simple present perfect tense
Reprinted from *Practical English usage* by M. Swan (2016), 5.47.3. Copyright 2016 by "Michael Swan".
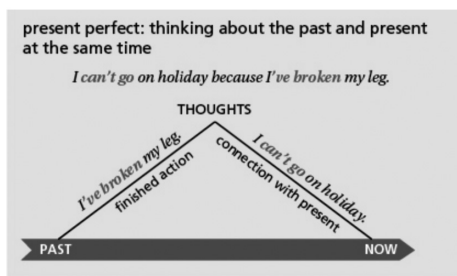

Figure C: Timelines representing the difference in thinking about time between the simple present perfect and simple past tense.
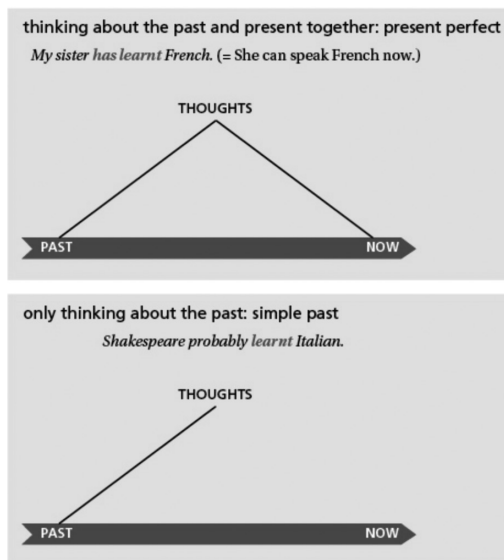Reprinted from *Practical English usage* by M. Swan (2016), 5.48.1. Copyright 2016 by "Michael Swan".

Figure D: Timelines representing the difference in thinking about time between the simple present
　　　perfect and simple past tense.

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