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Tense, aspect and time concepts in English and Bahasa Indonesia: Pedagogical implications

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Tense, Aspect and Time Concepts
in English and Bahasa Indonesia —
Pedagogical Implications

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USE OF THESIS

The Use of Thesis statement is not included in this version of the thesis.

The aim of the study has been to provide theoretical foundations on which pedagogical approaches to the teaching of English tense-aspect complexes to EFL teacher trainees in Indonesian tertiary institutions can be based. The study investigates how expression of time and related concepts in English and Bahasa Indonesia (BI) can be compared with particular regard to pedagogical implications.

Two major areas of investigation have been explored: i. questions relevant to the general linguistic theory of tense and aspect and how the two languages compared fit into such a general theory; ii. questions relevant to how the teaching of English tense-aspect complexes can be seen as consistent with contemporary views based on Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research.

Within the former area, the theory of tense as a deictic category and the related 'theory' of aspect developed by Comrie (1976, 1985) are reviewed. A model of tense-aspect complexes developed for the purposes of interlanguage comparison is presented. On the basis of the model the English tense-aspect complexes and BI 'temporal-aspectual complexes' are described.

In relation to matters pertaining to SLA theory, the following steps have been taken: (1) The specific requirements of Indonesian EFL teacher education have been considered in the light of contemporary SLA theory; (2) Textbooks currently used for the teaching of English tense-aspect complexes in Indonesian EFL teacher education at IKIP/FKIPs have been analysed; (3) Current practices and attitudes of the teacher trainers teaching English tense-aspect complexes to EFL teacher trainees at IKIP/FKIPs have been explored.

In conclusion, approaches for presenting the English tense-aspect complexes based on the major findings of the study are suggested.

Declaration

"I certify that this thesis does not incorporate
without acknowledgement any material previously
submitted for a degree or diploma in any institution of
higher education; and that to the best of my knowledge
and belief it does not contain any material previously
published or written by another person except where
due reference is made in the text."

Signature:

Date: ....18th June 1993

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SS

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Abbreviations and expressions in English and Bahasa Indonesia used in the Thesis

A: agree
AD: anno Domini
ABC: Australian Broadcasting Corporation
BI: Bahasa Indonesia 'Indonesian'
BICS: Basic Interpersonal and Communicative Skills
BBC: British Broadcasting Corporation
CA: Contrastive Analysis
CAH: Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis
CALP: Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency
COG: control oriented group
CONT: aspect of continuation
C-R: consciousness-raising
D: disagree
DUR: durative
E: event. E is generally used to refer to 'situation/s'
E^1 is used to refer to a situation with 'perfect' meaning.
E_1 refers to E with 'still' or 'no longer' tense combinations

EFL: English as a Foreign Language
ELT: English Language Teaching
ESL: English as a Second Language
ESL/FL: English as a Second Language/Foreign Language
excl.: exclusive
EYD: Ejaan Yang Disempurnakan
FKIP: Fakultas Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan
         'Faculty of Teacher Training and Pedagogy
FL: foreign Language
FSI: Foreign Language Institute
G1, G2, G3, G4: G stands for grammar
GR: a Javanese folk linguistic term which stands for *gede rasa*
[gǝde råså]
HAB: habitual
$(i = j)$: two time referents to represent *simultaneity;* $(i < j)$
priorness; $(i > j)$ *laterness*
i,j,k refer to different *t's*
IKIP: Institut Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan
         'Institute of Teacher Training and Pedagogy'
IL: interlanguage
INCH: inchoative
incl.: inclusive
INST: instantaneity aspect
ITER: iterative

J: jawab 'ANSWER'

-KAH : yes/no question marker

L1: native language or first language

L2: second language or target language

-LAH: a suffix used as a marker of request, order, etc.

LAD: Language Acquisition Device

LIG : Ligature is used to represent *YANG* which approximately means 'which, that, who' used as a relative pronoun or simply used together as a noun modifier, as in *buku YANG baru itu* 'the new book' (See Verhaar, 1988)

LIT.: literally; literal translation

LOTE: Languages Other Than English

magn: magnitude

MOG: meaning oriented instruction group

n refers to the number of *R's* or reference points

-NYA: a suffix which used as a possessive marker, a definite article, etc.

P1, P2, P3, etc.; P stands for past tense

PARA: a lexical word used in BI to refer to collective plural

PERS: aspect of persistence or permanence

PRE: aspect of presence

PROG: progressive

-PUN: a suffix used to emphasize the message

Q/A: Question/Answer

R: responses

R: reference point

RED: reduplication

ROG: rule oriented instruction group

SA: strongly agree

S: speech time

S: situation

S1: stands for sarjana/strata satu 'assumed to be equivalent to a bachelor of arts degree'

S2: stands for sarjana/strata dua 'assumed to be equivalent to a master degree

SD: strongly disagree

SIM: simulfactive aspect

simul: simultaneous

SL: Second Language

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

SLT: Second Language Teaching

SMP: Sekolah Menengah Pertama 'Junior Secondary School'

SMA: Sekolah Menengah Atas 'Senior Secondary School'

Special reduplication: *berpura-pura, berturut-turut, seumur-umur.*
SRE: speech time, reference time, event
t refers to *TR* and *TO*
T: <u>tanya</u> 'QUESTION'
T/A: tense-aspect complexes
TEFL: Teaching English as a Foreign Language
TESOL: Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
TG grammarians: transformational generative grammarians
TL: target language
TMA: tense, mood and aspect
TO: time of orientation
TR: time referred to
TS: time of situation
TU: time of utterance
TV: television
U: undecided
UNIBRAW: <u>Universitas Brawijaya</u>
V: is used to refer to the base form of the verb; *V1* is used to
refer to the past tense form of the verb and *V2* is used to refer to
the past participial form of the verb.
VOA: Voice of America

Chapter I

Introduction

1.1 Aims and Rationale

This study aims at investigating the problems Indonesian teacher trainees encounter in acquiring English tense-aspect complexes and at developing approaches which may alleviate such problems in Indonesian teacher education with particular regard to the English Departments in the Institutes/Faculties of Teacher Training and Pedagogy 'IKIP/FKIPs'[1]. In particular the study aims at enabling teacher trainers or educators in charge of the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes spelt out in Structure I and Structure II to devise approaches and materials that facilitate the development of the conceptual understanding of the English tense-aspect complexes by the teacher trainees before they are launched into service as teachers of English as a foreign language in Indonesian secondary schools (SMP/SMA)[2]. For this purpose the possible relationship between tense-aspect complexes in English and Bahasa Indonesia (BI) is explored.

The study is by no means the first to pursue such aims. Aso-fie (1979) uses transformational generative grammar as a framework to compare the English tense-aspect complexes with those of BI. His work focuses on the morphological and syntactic correspondence of the English and BI tense-aspect complexes. McCoy (1985) investigates the semantic correspondences between the English and BI tense-aspect complexes. Both of these studies make use of the principles and assumptions of contrastive analysis. Diemroh (1989) analyses the English interlanguage of Indonesian learners to investigate the tense-shifts between Present Tense, Past Tense, and Future Tense.

The present study, while seeking a solution to the same problems, differs from each of the aforementioned studies in

several aspects. It differs from that of Asofie (1979) in that the comparison is not based on the surface contrasts between English and BI tense-aspect complexes but on the semantic correspondences expressed by these tense-aspect complexes. It differs from that of McCoy (1985) in that the semantic correspondences of both English and BI tense-aspect complexes are based on Comrie's proposed unified theory of tense-aspect complexes (1976, 1985). Essentially contrasts are sought in terms of 'basic meaning' and in terms of a strict separation of the notions of tense, aspect, (present) perfect, temporal/time reference, aspectual reference and time. Once these notions are characterised, an attempt is made to identify the basic meanings and uses of tense-aspect complexes in both English and BI. Confusion in the discussion of tense-aspect complexes which plagues the field today can be attributed to the failure to make accurate distinctions or discriminations with regard to the terms 'tense', 'aspect', 'temporal/time reference', 'aspectual reference' and '(present) perfect'. More particularly, the study will show that the notions of 'temporal/time reference' and 'aspectual reference' are required for a meaningful and pedagogically useful comparison of the English and BI tense-aspect complexes. It will be shown that the terms 'time reference' and 'aspectual reference', together with other relevant terms such as 'tense', 'aspect' and '(present) perfect' are indispensable for the understanding of the meanings and uses of tense-aspect complexes.

The meanings and uses of the English tense-aspect complexes will be specified and related to some corresponding concepts expressed in BI. The textbooks currently used for the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes in the English Departments of IKIP/FKIPs will then be analysed on four proposed dimensions:

'definition', 'system presentation', 'relation to time' and 'contras-tive dimensions'. These dimensions are relevant to the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes to Indonesian English teacher trainees.

In order to explore current practices and attitudes, question-naires were sent to lecturers or teacher trainers at the English Departments of IKIP/FKIPs in charge of teaching the English tense-aspect complexes to obtain the assumptions being adopted in presenting and explaining the meanings and uses of the English tense-aspect complexes. Approaches as to how to incorporate the proposed semantic correspondences into the teaching of the En-glish tense-aspect complexes in Indonesian EFL teacher trainee education will be suggested based on conclusions drawn.

The study will first review the appropriate literature on tense-aspect complexes as a basis on which a model is developed for Indonesian EFL education. The focus of the study is on three main areas: i) to devise a model relevant for the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes in Indonesian EFL teacher edu-cation; ii) to devise means for the promotion of positive attitudes on the part of Indonesian English teacher trainees with respect to the teaching and learning of the English tense-aspect complexes; iii) to inject a metalinguistic element into the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes articulated and prescribed in Structure I and Structure II, S1 English Department at IKIP/FKIPs. Originally, the study was also going to test empirically the hypothesis that attention to form has a beneficial long term effect in an FL setting but owing to compelling unforeseen circumstances this latter plan could not be carried out. The present study can only devise the means to test the hypothesis for future research.

1.2 Current Trends in Indonesian English Teacher Education in English Departments of IKIP/FKIPs

English in Indonesia at present plays a crucial role in both academic and business life. In certain academic disciplines most of the books and scientific materials in a government university library are in English. It is estimated that about 80 to 90 per cent of the books in the university library are written in English (McCoy, 1985, p. 4; Nababan, 1991, p. 119). In business life, it is now generally assumed that a graduate with competence in English will have better job opportunities and better pay. The present political and economic climate in Indonesia has been conducive to increased international involvement in trade and commerce. More and more foreign companies are operating in Indonesia. This shows that the need to acquire English cannot be overemphasized.

The government, through the Education Department, has not been unresponsive to such needs. Improvements in the curricula of the secondary schools and the English Departments at IKIP/FKIPs have been made in the hope that the overall objectives of the teaching of English in Indonesian schools would be met. However, in spite of the great need for schools to produce competent speakers of English, the teaching and learning of English in Indonesian schools is far from successful, if not a failure (Alisjahbana, 1990; Grow, 1987, p. 81; Ramelan, 1988, p. 8). There is, therefore a continued concern on the part of the public, the educational policy makers and the classroom English teachers about the quality of the teaching of English in Indonesian schools.

English as a Foreign Language is taught throughout Indonesian secondary schools and for one or two semesters at the university level. English is one of the compulsory subjects in secondary

school (Cameron, et al., 1984, pp. 171-72). Some universities even require the students "to follow courses of English besides the obligatory faculty subjects" as a prerequisite to taking their academic examination (Alisjahbana, 1990, p. 322).

The present English syllabus for secondary education dating from the 1984 language syllabus, focuses both on form and use (Alisjahbana, 1990, p. 324; Nababan, 1991, p. 119). It differs from the 1975 Junior Secondary School English Curriculum (Kurikulum Bahasa Inggris SMP 1975) as well as the 1975 Senior Secondary School English Curriculum (Kurikulum Bahasa Inggris SMA 1975) in that it covers both 'grammatical structures' and 'pragmatic use' (Kaswanti Purwo, 1988, p. 291). The 1975 Senior Secondary School English Curriculum was mainly a structurally-based syllabus. The 1984 Senior Secondary School English Curriculum requires the Indonesian EFL teacher not to teach the language 'forms' *per se,* but to teach how these language 'forms' are used for communication (Kaswanti Purwo, 1988, p. 256).

The objective of the teaching of English in Indonesian schools is instrumental rather than integrative. Among other things, the students are expected to be able to read and acquaint themselves with books written in English (Nababan, 1991, p. 119.). Emphasis is currently on oral ability. The students are expected to use English instrumentally for material goals such as admission to and advancement in universities, jobs, business and inter-national cooperation.

To meet the need of English teachers, the Education Depart-ment has charged IKIP/FKIPs with the task of training student teachers of English in four-semester, six-semester and eight-semester courses. The four- and six- semester courses are crash-programmes which aim at coping with the immediate need for

English teachers in secondary schools. The eight-semester courses are the normal courses in which the graduates are awarded an S1 degree[3], a degree assumed to be 'similar' to a Bachelor of Arts degree in an Australian University, before they continue to complete their full master's degree, S2[3].

The medium of instruction in the English Department of IKIP/ FKIPs is both English and BI. Incoming IKIP/FKIP students are graduates of secondary schools, i.e., junior and senior secondary schools', who have studied English for six years. The 1982 Pedoman Pelaksanaan Pola Pembaharuan Sistem Pendidikan Tenaga Kependidikan '1982 Handbook for the Implementation of the Renewal Model of the System of Teacher Education' sets four different groups of subjects for the S1 teacher trainee programme: i) Mata Kuliah Dasar Umum 'General Basic Courses'; ii) Mata Kuliah Dasar Kependidikan 'Foundation Courses in Education'; iii) Mata Kuliah Bidang Studi 'Majors' iv) Mata Kuliah Proses Belajar Mengajar 'Courses in Teaching and Learning Processes'. The medium of instruction in (i) and (ii) is BI; in (iii) English and in (iv) either English or BI.

Each English Department at IKIP/FKIPs bases the four different groups of subjects and the optional and thesis courses for the S1 English teacher trainee programme on the '1982 Handbook for the Implementation of the Renewal Model of the System of Teacher Education'. In one IKIP, for example, in the S1 English Department programme, (Buku Pedoman IKIP Surabaya 1990-1991, pp. 138-140) courses in Mata Kuliah Dasar Umum (MKDU) 'General Basic Courses', in Mata Kuliah Dasar Kependidikan (MKDK) 'Courses in Foundation in Education', in Mata Kuliah Proses Belajar Mengajar (MKPBM) 'Courses in Teaching and Learning Processes', in Mata Kuliah Bidang Studi (MKBS) 'Majors' are given in addition to

courses for students opting for a thesis (JALUR SKRIPSI) which consist of Metode Penelitian Bahasa 'Language Research Methodology', Statistik 'Statistics', Seminar Skripsi 'Seminar in Research Proposal', Skripsi 'Thesis'. Optional courses, PILIHAN, which consist of Introduction to Sociolinguistics, Psycholinguistics, Semantics, Contrastive Linguistics, Discourse Analysis, English for Specific Purposes, Business English are also offered.

The teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes in the S1 English Department programme at IKIP/FKIPs are formally covered in Majors: Structure I and Structure II (Pedoman Pelaksanaan . . .; Buku Pedoman IKIP Surabaya 1990-1991), and in some IKIP/FKIPs in Structure III as in IKIP Malang. Structure I is offered in Semester I and Structure II in Semester II.

1.3   Contents of Chapters

The present Chapter has presented an overview of Indonesian English teacher education. It presents the case for improving the teaching of English, with special regard to tense-aspect complexes, which constitute one of the major obstacles for Indonesian students in acquiring English as a foreign language. Chapter II puts the matter of the teaching of tense-aspect complexes into the context of current L2 learning and teaching theories. Chapter III reviews the traditional theory of tense as a deictic category and various theories of aspect proposed by the scholars Bache, Comrie, Dahl, Declerck, Hornstein and Reichenbach. It is argued that interaction between tense, aspect, (present) perfect, 'mood/ modality', 'pragmatic issues' and time needs to go beyond Comrie's (1985) unified theory of tense. Chapter IV considers the tense-aspect complexes of English from the point of view basic and peripheral meanings. The interaction between English tense, aspect, (present) perfect, 'mood/modality', 'pragmatic issues' and

time is considered in the framework of the general model proposed in Chapter III. Chapter V analyses the linguistic forms BI employs to express time concepts by examining a body of language data in the light of the proposed model. Chapter VI presents conclusions drawn of English and BI tense-aspect complexes. The study shows that there are both common features as well as fundamental differences between the English time concepts, as reflected in tense-aspect complexes and those of BI. Chapter VII analyses the textbooks used in the S1 English Department programme at IKIP/FKIPs for the teaching of English tense-aspect complexes, and explores the current practices and attitudes of the teacher trainers teaching the English tense-aspect complexes in order to identify strengths and weaknesses. Chapter VIII suggests approaches to helping Indonesian EFL teacher trainees, to conceptualise the English tense-aspect complexes.

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[1] IKIP stands for Institut Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan 'Institute of Teacher Training and Pedagogy' (Schmidgall-Tellings and Stevens (1981, p. 120); 'Teachers' Training College' (Echols and Shadilly, 1989, p. 219); FKIP stands for Fakultas Keguruan dan Ilmu Pendidikan 'Faculty of Teacher Training and Pedagogy'.

[2] SMP stands for Sekolah Menengah Pertama 'Junior Secondary School'; SMA stands for Sekolah Menengah Atas 'Senior Secondary School'

[3] S1 stands for sarjana/strata satu assumed to be equivalent to a bachelor of arts degree'; S2 stands for sarjana/strata dua assumed to be equivalent to a master degree.

Chapter II

Theories of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and their Relevance in this Study

2.1   A Second/Foreign Language Teacher Trainer and the Teacher Trainee

A second/foreign language teacher trainee needs to be equipped adequately to become an effective language teacher. Richards (1987) writes that

> . . . the intent of TESOL teacher education must be to provide opportunities for the novice to acquire the skills and competencies of effective teachers and to discover the working rules that effective teachers use (p. 223; Also see Richards, 1990, p. 15).

To meet this need, among other things, the teacher trainer is bound to turn to the burgeoning literature available on SLA (Second Language Acquisition) and SLT (Second Language Teaching). New and important insights that have emerged from SLA research can be used to complement the available 'theories' of language pedagogy already possessed by the language teacher trainer to be 'passed on' to the language teacher trainee during pre-service training. The trainee, upon graduation and when launched into a career as a language teacher, is expected to be armed with all available resources of language pedagogy from which he will select those that suit his particular classroom needs best. At present, there exist multiple SLA 'theories' (See Beretta, 1991, p. 495), and there is not yet available an SLA theory which is able to explain the process of language acquisition fully (Klein, W., 1990, pp. 230-1; Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991; Long, 1986; Spolsky, 1985).

Language teacher trainers or educators have the onus to play the mediating role between the research findings both in the SLA studies and in other areas of enquiry as well as between the

theory on the one hand and classroom practice on the other. The findings need to be interpreted for teacher trainees at the level of classroom decisions (Bolitho, 1991, pp. 27-30). The teacher trainers need to guide the teacher trainees "in the process of generating and testing hypotheses and in using the knowledge so acquired as a basis for further development" (Richards, 1987, pp. 222-23, 1990, p. 15). The teacher trainers provide opportunities for the teacher trainees to become effective teachers. This is not simply a top-down process from the teacher trainer to the teacher trainee. The role of the teacher trainer or educator "is no longer simply that of trainer" (Richards, 1987, p. 222, 1990, p. 15). The aim of teacher education is "to turn out 'principled practitioners': teachers capable of asking the right questions and keeping the answers they may get from theory in a robust perspective of their own" (Bolitho, 1991, p. 25). There must be a 'true' dialogue between the teacher trainer and the teacher trainee (Brown, 1990, p. 92). The processes in language teacher education are thus both top-down and bottom-up as shown in Fig. 1.

Language teacher trainers

SLA 'theories' and
other related fields

Language teacher trainees
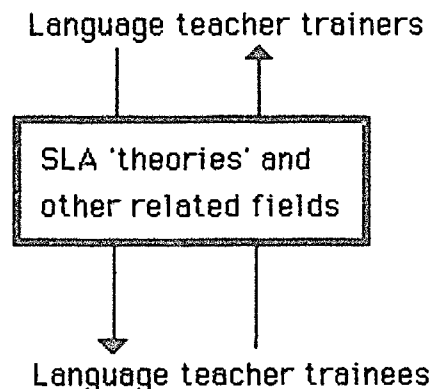
Fig. 1: A proposed model of processes in language teacher
education

These top-down/bottom-up processes may be described as activities in 'Language Teaching' defined as "the activities which are intended to bring about language learning" (Stern, 1983, p. 12).

'Language Teaching' in Stern's terms, should be interpreted more widely than 'instructing a language class', 'formal instruction or methods of training', 'individualized instruction', 'self study', 'computer assisted instruction', 'the use of media', 'the preparation of teaching materials' including 'teaching grammars, or dictionaries', 'the training of teachers', 'as well as making the necessary administrative provision inside and outside an educational system' . . . (p. 21), and so on. Broadly speaking, the language teacher trainer is to guide the teacher trainees taking part fully in the pre-service teacher training course that will enable the teacher trainees to conceptualise, articulate and gain a firm grounding in each of these different activities.

The relationship between SLA 'theories' and other related fields and language teaching 'methodology', i.e., ". . . everything that teachers do which relates to learners, as well as the reasons for doing it" (Edge, 1988, p. 12) seems to be best described in Fig. 2 adapted from Bolitho (1991). In this figure the language teacher trainer obviously relates SLA Theory, Theoretical SLA Research, Applied SLA Research, 'SLT Theory', Other areas of theory, practice and enquiry on the one hand to Language Teaching Methodology on the other in an attempt to turn out 'principled' teacher trainees.

There is a common problem faced by second/foreign language teacher educators. The time for the second/foreign language teacher education to cover the amount of linguistic theory is limited ". . . and application can be made only to a limited number of problems" (Edge, 1988, p. 11). In the four-year TEFL education programme, Edge assumes that the first and second year is oriented to language improvement, whereas the third and fourth year is more oriented to TEFL methodology rather than to lan-

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guage improvement. In her model, in the early stages of the programme Applied Linguistics provides support for the language improvement of the EFL teacher trainee, and in the later stages Applied Linguistics provides support for applying the linguistic discoveries to the language teaching pedagogic problems (Edge, 1988, pp. 11-13).
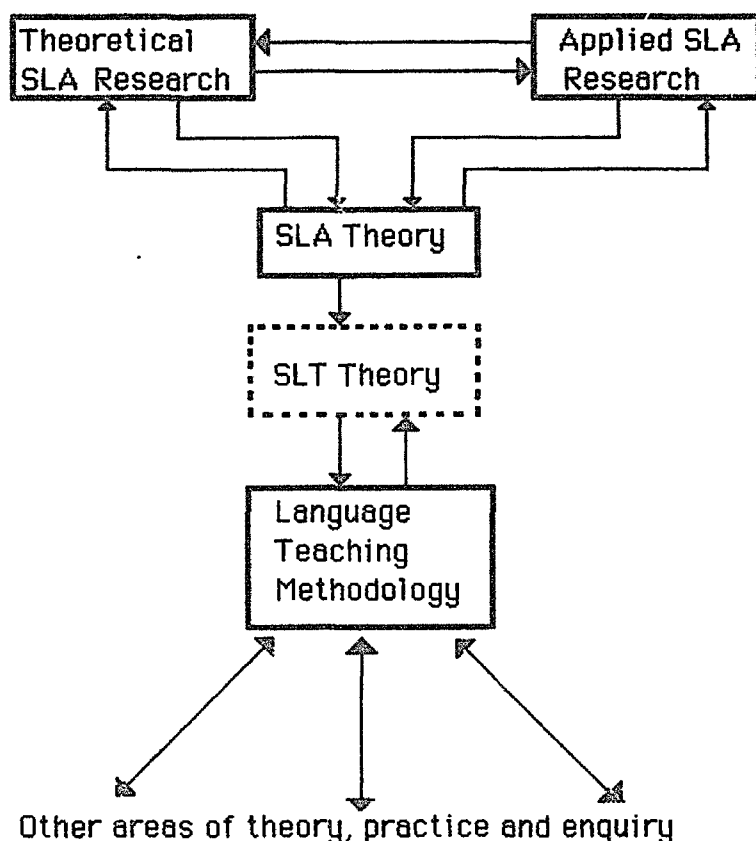
Fig. 2: Adaptation of Bolitho's model to describe the relationship between SLA, 'SLT Theory', research and practice in SL teacher education (1991, p. 32)[1]

Many factors obviously contribute to success in language learning and acquisition. In an exploratory study in the Intensive English Programme at Indiana University, Gradman, et al. (1989) found that proficient and effective teachers provided students with the 'right' amount and type of exposure to the language and fostered the student's positive attitude "towards learning the language and to continuing self-initiated exposure through exten-

sive outside reading" (p. 346).

The student's positive attitude seems to be crucial. This is particularly relevant to the teaching of English in Indonesian secondary schools. Tomlinson (1990) states that to achieve successful language learning the actual methodology used in the teaching of English in Indonesian secondary schools does not really matter provided that the methodology adopted facilitates rapport between the students and the teacher to create the needed positive attitude (Prabhu, 1990, p. 161). However, it is precisely such a positive attitude that is lacking towards learning English in Indonesian secondary schools (Kompas, 18 Desember 1990).

Several causes seem to contribute to the emergence of such a negative attitude. This study focuses on how to combat the negative attitudes relevant to a specific area of grammar, that is, the English tense-aspect complexes. Because of the common assumption that BI is a tenseless language, it is usually taken for granted that learning the English tense-aspect complexes is inherently difficult for Indonesian learners/students. The difficulty in learning the language at this point seems to be associated with a failure to understand the semantic function of the tense-aspect complexes. The belief that the learning of the English tense-aspect complexes is difficult seems to create a negative attitude in Indonesian students' minds. To solve this problem this study will argue that although BI does not have a grammatical category of tense, the meanings expressed by the English tenses can still be expressed in BI (Kridalaksana, 1978). It will seek to develop means by which an Indonesian EFL teacher trainer or teacher trainee can clarify the meanings of English tense-aspect complexes.

The right 'exposure' provided by an SL teacher seems to be

related to the right 'comprehensible input' in that 'comprehensible input' is a necessary but may not be a sufficient condition for SLA (Ellis, 1991, p. 184; Long and Crookes, 1991, p. 19). There is, then, a need for an SL classroom teacher to devise a model that may facilitate acquisition along with the 'right' comprehensible input that is necessary and sufficient for SLA.

2.2 Theories of Second Language Acquisition

The name 'second language acquisition' or SLA to parallel 'first language acquisition' enabled two groups of scholars, those with an interest in CA (Contrastive Analysis) applied to adult language teaching, and those with an interest in child language acquisition, to come together (Selinker, 1988, p. 2) in the common field of language learning. A theory of second language learning and a theory of first language learning are related in significant ways to form a unified theory of language learning (Spolsky, 1985).

Klein, W., (1990, p. 230) notes that language acquisition, whether first or second, is an extremely complex process which involves a number of interacting factors, and that no researcher in the field has characterised "the way in which these factors interact". He concludes that thus, at present there is no first nor second language acquisition theory that is able to explain this extremely complex phenomenon. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991, p. 290) even remind SLA researchers and language teachers not to adopt an omnipotent SLA theory yet. However, in the interim Long (1990) proposes that an adequate SLA theory must at least account for the major accepted findings of SLA research.

Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991, p. 227) note that there are currently more than forty SLA 'theories', 'models', 'perspectives', 'hypotheses', 'metaphors' and 'theoretical claims' if the theories

of 'first language acquisition', 'creolization' and 'historical change' are included. These different types of SLA theories can be classified as nativist, environmentalist, and interactionist. Nativist theories of SLA posit a specific innate capacity of the brain without which human beings could not acquire language. Environmentalist theories of SLA hold that external factors contribute to the acquisition of language more significantly than internal capacity. Interactionist theories of SLA draw on conclusions of both nativist and environmentalist theories to handle the complexity of SLA in terms of both innate and environmental factors.

There are several factors which an adequate SLA theory needs to take into account. Conscious attention to language form and the provision of negative evidence are two of the eight factors Long (1990, pp. 659-60) considers essential for such a theory. These will be explored briefly here especially with regard to their relevance to the teaching of English tense-aspect complexes to Indonesian English teacher trainees.

With regard to the matter of conscious attention, Krashen's non-interface theories and interface theories need to be considered. Krashen's (1982, 1985) five hypotheses in his second language acquisition theory belong with the nativist SLA theories. These five hypotheses — the acquisition-learning distinction hypothesis, the natural order hypothesis, the monitor hypothesis, the input hypothesis and the 'affective-filter' hypothesis — basically account for second language acquisition in terms of the innate capacity of human brain to acquire language. These five hypotheses were widely accepted second language learning theories (See Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991, pp. 240-49; Spolsky, 1985, p. 270) in the eighties.

The acquisition-learning distinction hypothesis accounts for the fact that learning a language (in Krashen's terms 'knowing about a language') does not in itself result in 'acquiring' the language. Many students of a foreign language 'know about' the language being studied and yet they fail to 'speak' it. Hence in foreign language learning, this hypothesis argues that the emphasis should not be on the knowledge of language but on the acquisition of language: subconscious acquired competence, that is, the learner using the language for true communication.

The natural order hypothesis assumes that there is a natural order of acquisition. This has led to the sequencing of grammatical points in teaching. Krashen, however, rejects any attempts at grammatical sequencing, arguing that the focus on grammar necessarily deprives the student of the conditions for using the foreign language as a means of true communication.

According to the monitor hypothesis there are specific practices relevant to the processes of learning and of acquisition. Acquisition enables the learner to initiate utterances in a second language and is responsible for fluency. Learning, on the other hand, can result only in servicing a Monitor or Editor, the effect of which is to alter the output. The Monitor is activated from conscious rule learning. On the whole, Krashen argues that for second language performance the Monitor is of limited value for the simple reason that performance is usually an automatic process. The Monitor can operate if the following three conditions are met: (a) there must be sufficient time; (b) the focus is on form and (c) the students know the rules. Because in performing communicative acts such as taking part in conversation, these three conditions are not satisfied, Krashen argues that strengthening the Monitor is not the aim of language teaching.

The input hypothesis claims that an acquirer understands input that contains i + 1, that is, structure that is a little beyond the current available structure. In other words, an acquirer understands language if he receives comprehensible input. This comprehensible input is said to direct attention to the meaning and not to the form of the message. The input hypothesis relates to acquisition and not to learning. Comprehensible input is not finely-tuned input of a kind that directly aims at teaching i + 1 or the teaching of one structural item on a particular day. Krashen argues that according to the input hypothesis a deliberate attempt to provide i + 1 is not necessary because when communication is successful, when the input is sufficient and understood, i + 1 will automatically be provided.

The 'affective filter' hypothesis says that success in second language acquisition is related to the learner's 'affective filter', which if raised, blocks acquisition. Characteristically, students with low motivation, lack of self-confidence and high anxiety are said to have their 'affective filter' raised. Unless the classroom teacher is effective in lowering it, no acquisition is expected to take place in his foreign language classroom.

Krashen (1985, pp. 1-4) claims that, among his five hypotheses, the input hypothesis is the central part of his second language acquisition theory. He further states that the five hypotheses can be summarised with a single claim: "people acquire second languages only if they obtain comprehensible input and if their 'affective filters' are low enough to allow the input 'in'" (1985, p. 4). These two hypothetical constructs — comprehensible input and the 'affective filter' — however, cannot be operationalized as they cannot be empirically tested (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991, p. 247; Long, 1986). The 'Affective filter' hypothesis

is also untestable because it is a metaphor. It is not yet empirically specified. The variables that raise the filter that blocks acquisition are not known (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991, p. 247).

There are, however, theories on second language acquisition which differ from that of Krashen. These include the information-processing model, the capability continuum hypothesis, analysed-unanalysed knowledge and automatic access SLA theories, which seem to belong in the interactionist group.

The information-processing model. McLaughlin (1978, 1987, pp. 134-36) argues that two processes are at work in language acquisition — controlled and automatic. Unlike Krashen, McLaughlin (1978) argues that controlled mental processes over time and with practice can be automatised while language is being acquired (Also in Horner, 1987, p. 345).

The capability continuum hypothesis. According to Tarone (1979, 1982, 1983) learners have the ability to vary performance according to the circumstance along a continuum of styles from the formal (where most attention is paid) to the casual (where least attention is paid). This means that learners over time via practice will have the ability to move along the continuum (Also in Horner, 1987, p. 345).

Analysed-unanalysed knowledge and the automatic access model. Bialystok (1979 and in Horner, 1987) makes a distinction between conscious or analysed and unconscious or unanalysed knowledge. This knowledge is available to the learner "in terms of relative degrees of automatic access". The development of this knowledge is claimed to be achieved with the practice of formal instruction allowing the development of analysed understanding and with the practice of communicative interaction allowing the

development of automatic access (Horner, 1987, pp. 345-46).

According to Horner (1987, p. 346) the analysed-unanalysed knowledge and automatic access model refines the two previous models in that it accounts for both how knowledge becomes automatic access and why attention to correctness can create variable performance.

Krashen's Second Language Acquisition theories on the one hand and the information-processing model (McLaughlin), the capability continuum hypothesis (Tarone), analysed-unanalysed knowledge and automatic access (Bialystok) SLA theories on the other constitute two different poles. Krashen firmly believes that learning does not cause acquisition (the non-interface position) whereas proponents for the interface position argue that conscious knowledge can in time be converted into unconscious knowledge.

There are two issues to be considered in equipping Indonesian EFL teacher trainees with the means to learn, acquire and teach English tense-aspect complexes. First, in the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes in Indonesian English teacher education, an integrated approach is required. The language teacher trainee needs to be equipped with the required language pedagogy either of the interface or non-interface variety. Some claim that the method used in the SL classroom does not really matter so long as a positive attitude is achieved in the students' minds to generate the necessary teacher-learner rapport (Prabhu, 1990, p. 161, Tomlinson, 1990). The interface position, however, seems to be more relevant in equipping the Indonesian English teacher trainee. An Indonesian EFL teacher needs to pay attention to the learning processes. When a particular student seeks clarification for a language problem during the course of his

learning including the problem of learning and acquiring the English tense-aspect complexes, the Indonesian EFL teacher is called upon to help get the student over the specific and individual hurdle of learning. This student searches for the most reasonably appropriate solution(s) for the problem(s). Indonesian EFL students are Second (Foreign) Language adult learners, and prospective teachers, and as such demand explicit metalinguistic explanations to satisfy their curiosity (Thomas, A. L., 1988, p. 133). The interface position will equip the EFL teacher trainee to provide explicit metalinguistic instruction on the English tense-aspect complexes, both 'focus on form', i.e., highlighted TL structure in context' (Doughty, 1991, p. 464) and 'focus on forms', i.e., 'isolated linguistic stuctures' (p. 464)[2].

The second matter to be considered is the need for both negative and positive evidence (Long, 1990, p. 657-58). Negative evidence, defined as ". . . information from which the learner could work out what is *not* possible in a given language . . ." (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991, p. 228) or as "overt feedback on error targeted at an appropriate level, and incomprehensible input" (Long and Crookes, 1991, p. 19) or as ". . . information about forms which are not possible in the target language . . ." (White, et al., 1991, p. 417) or as "information about ungrammaticality" (White, 1991, p. 134), will provide the students with the basis for logical reasoning why certain forms or constructions are wrong in the target language. Long (1990, p. 658) states that negative evidence is required because "much of a language is not learned un-consciously," and Bley-Vroman (1989) states that "among teach-ers and learners of foreign languages there is general agreement that negative evidence is at least sometimes useful, and some-times, though not always, necessary" (p. 48). Positive evidence,

defined as grammatical utterances that learners hear (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991, p. 229) or as ". . . utterances which give the learner unconscious knowledge of what the language allows" (White, et al., 1991, p. 416), alone is not sufficient in an SL or FL classroom. In providing negative evidence there is a need for the SL teacher to make a particular form salient so that the student notices it. Studies have been undertaken in SLA which show that attention to form in a discourse increases the rate of learning and the degree of SL attainment (Long, 1990, pp. 657-58; Sharwood-Smith, 1991, pp. 122-25; White, 1991; White, et al., 1991).

The need to focus on form in SL instruction is brought up by several scholars (See Section 2.4 in this Chapter, pp. 26ff.). This is not a return to the structuralist syllabus in which the forms are the central topics in the syllabus. Rather it is making an essential individual form salient to facilitate learning in the course of teaching particularly when the students have been observed to face difficulties in the relevant area.

Long and Crookes (1991) adopt an integrated approach compatible with current SLA theory in their second language pedagogy. The syllabuses are not organized in terms of grammar but relevant language forms which cause problems for the students are made salient in the course of language instruction. They use 'target and pedagogic tasks' to present the appropriate examples of target language samples to learners. 'Target and pedagogic tasks' include "the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play and in between" or "a piece of work or an activity as part of an educational activity" (p. 21). Indonesian EFL teacher trainees need to know how to present the use of the English tense-aspect complexes through 'target and pedagogic tasks'.

The findings of a recent empirical study in SLA research that provide strong support to the view that instruction positively affects short term acquisition (p. 435) were reported in Doughty (1991). The subjects were 20 international students studying ESL at an intensive English Institute in Philadelphia. They were at the middle proficiency ESL levels. The 20 subjects were grouped into MOG (meaning oriented instruction group), ROG (rule oriented instruction group) and COG (control oriented group). The three groups were taught English relativization within an overall comprehension-based approach. Both MOG and ROG received exposure to English marked relative clause data and an instructional treatment whereas COG received exposure only. The result showed that the subjects in MOG and ROG improved greatly in English relativisation, and the subjects in COG did as well though not greatly. Two findings of Doughty's experimental study were: i. the key in the success of the instructional treatment was 'perceptual saliency' of the English relativisation and not meta-linguistic rule statement; that is, 'isolated linguistic structures', i.e., "instruction that focuses only on forms" (pp. 460, 464) was ineffectual; 'highlighted TL structure in context', i.e., focus on form, was successful; ii. the meaning-oriented treatment in MOG better facilitated comprehension than in both ROG and COG conditions. Doughty admitted that her experimental study did not address the long term effect of instruction that focuses on form. She indicated that an FL setting would be a suitable experimental condition to test the hypothesis that 'focus on form' has a positive long term effect in SLA (Doughty, 1991, p. 464).

2.3 English in the Indonesian Educational System: An Overview.

The teaching of English in Indonesian educational systems takes place in a typical foreign language learning situation in

which the acquisition and learning of the target language is not mediated through direct exposure but through formal instruction, and for some students through informal or 'artificial' (extra-curricular), interaction (Alisjahbana, 1990, p. 320; Nababan, 1984, p. 184, 1991). The formal instruction takes place in a classroom either in or outside of schools, for instance, taking an after-school English private course. Informal or 'artificial' (extra-curricular) interaction takes place either in reading English books and magazines, listening to the 'English by Radio' programmes especially prepared for the world-wide listeners who are 'learning' English through the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC), Voice of America (VOA), Australian Broadcasting Corporation (ABC), following the weekly English lesson on television, or joining in an English conversation club or other related group activities where the learner interacts using English. UNIBRAW MALANG students, for example, hold a one-day English practice. In this activity, students who do not speak English are put in 'jail' (Tempo, 5 Desember, 1987, p. 40).

The result of the teaching of English as the first foreign language in Indonesian government schools in general has been described as 'unsatisfactory or even disheartening' (Ramelan, 1988, p. 8) or 'almost a total failure' (Grow, 1987, p. 81) or 'very poor' (Alisjahbana, 1990, pp. 320-22). Alisjahbana (1990) states that the unsatisfactory results of the teaching of English in Indonesian schools are caused by the lack of atmosphere and of the tradition of the English language culture and by the Indonesian total system of education. Like other developing countries, Indonesia is attempting to catch up with the advanced countries by producing school leavers or graduates in the shortest possible time. Unlike in the former English and American colonies, there is

no supportive atmosphere and tradition in Indonesia for the use of English in daily life. Because of this, an Indonesian EFL teacher is called upon to devise all the means necessary for the success of the teaching of English in Indonesian schools and universities.

Grow (1987, pp. 81-82) notes that before 1986 there was little concern with the actual use of English in the English language teaching programmes in Indonesian government schools. The focus was on reading and the study of grammatical structure.

Ramelan (1988) states that one of the causes of the failure of the education system to produce fluent speakers of English is the fact that when Indonesian English teachers in secondary schools and universities are asked about what teaching method is being used in the classroom, they will say that they are using the so-called 'eclective (sic) method'. Because of time constraints, structure-oriented syllabuses and structure oriented evaluation consider-ations, these teachers are compelled to focus more on structure/form in the classroom. They must finish the structure-oriented syllabuses in the allotted time to prepare the students for the similarly oriented evaluation. For this reason, the students cannot be expected to acquire communicative competence. They learn what they are taught: 'they will only learn structures, and not more than that' (Ramelan, 1988, p. 26).

In view of these shortcomings, should Indonesian EFL teach-ing now swing to the opposite extreme and abandon structure or grammar instruction altogether? Wilkinson (1964) noted that a large number of research studies on formal grammar teaching in first language learning had shown the same result in that the learning of formal grammar had no beneficial effect on the student's written work. That is, training in formal grammar does not improve the student's written work. If an EFL learning sit-

uation is similar to that of first language learning the rejection of formal grammar teaching is not unfounded. Leitner (1990, p. 164) observes that current language teaching practices deaccentuate metalinguistic information. Can the teaching of grammar be fully dismissed from Indonesian EFL learning situations?

If one looks at the present situation in the teaching of English in Indonesian schools, the answer to this question is 'no' (Alisjahbana, 1990; p. 324, Kaswanti Purwo, 1988, pp. 250-56). The major components of the previous English syllabuses — the 1975 Secondary School English Curricullum — were language structures (Kurikulum ... , 1975). They were exclusively structure oriented. The present syllabus — the Secondary School English Curricullum — emphasizes the meaning and the use of the language form to attain communicative competence (Kurikulum ... , 1986, 1987). The situation now calls for an integrated approach. That is, an Indonesian EFL teacher is expected to train the student in an English class to learn the form, the meaning and the appropriate use of the form in a given situation. One component in each lesson unit in the textbooks used in the teaching of English in the secondary schools concerns language structure. Specifically, each unit contains *Struktur* 'Structure', *Bacaan* 'Reading', *Kosakata* 'Vocabulary', *Percakapan* 'Conversation, *Menulis Terarah* 'Guided Composition', *Lafal* ' Pronunciation', *Selingan* 'Miscellany' for the Junior Secondary School (Kurikulum ... , 1987); *Struktur* 'Structure', *Bacaan* 'Reading', *Kosakata* 'Vocabulary', *Percakapan* 'Speaking' *Karangan* 'Composition' for the Senior Secondary School (Kurikulum ... , 1986).

Thus, the main objective of the teaching of English as a foreign language in Indonesian secondary schools according to the

present syllabus is to train the student to know the form, the meaning and its appropriate use in a given situation. This requires the teacher to focus on the form-meaning relationships when the student experiences difficulties in grasping the complexity, the systematicity and fuzziness of the inter-relationship of form, meaning and function. In assisting Indonesian EFL students facing difficulties in the English tense-aspect complexes an EFL teacher needs to provide an explanation of the basic form-meaning relationships of the English tense-aspect complexes. In designing such instruction the Indonesian EFL teacher needs to devise the means to highlight the English tense-aspect complexes so that the students notice the relevant 'form' and 'meaning' relationships. Cohen, et al. (1991, p. 140) explicitly state that

> . . . researchers have begun to take a compromise position supported by SLA theory which is that learners should be led to notice grammatical features in the input, compare what they have noticed with what they produce in their current interlanguage, and then eventually integrate the new features into their interlanguage when they are ready . . . . (p. 140).

2.4 The Place of Grammar in a Foreign Language Class-room

The place of grammar in a foreign language classroom has been the subject of much controversy. The failure of the grammar-translation method in the teaching of spoken language and conversation in the foreign language classroom has un-doubtedly played a major role leading to the present controversy. Undue emphasis on a particular kind of grammar teaching had produced much anxiety and complexity for the student. The result was the inevitable failure in acquiring the foreign language and worse still a hatred of grammar teaching or learning. Never-theless, in most foreign language programmes learning grammar

is still one of the components, and teaching grammar represents one of the most demanding tasks a foreign language teacher faces (Klein, 1990, p. 30).

Garrett (1986, p. 134) describes grammar in foreign language teaching methodology as a thorny issue. She claims classroom teachers are split into two camps: those who favour the teaching of grammar and those who believe that learners will develop all the grammatical competence automatically from exposure to the language. Garrett refers to the problem with grammar in foreign language teaching methodology as the foreign language learning paradox and argues that teaching grammar without teaching how it is used in communication may seriously undermine class morale while not to teach it altogether can encourage "me Tarzan, you Jane" language.

Krashen has argued that success in second language acquisition is not due to the success of grammar teaching but to the comprehensible input the student requires. Implicit in Krashen's language acquisition theory (See p. 15ff in this Chapter) seems to be the case that grammar with its 'deceptive' role[3] has limited value in a foreign language classroom. To play this role grammar should be taught in the target language sufficiently simplified so that it is digestible for the students. These simplified codes will provide the student with comprehensible input that results in acquisition. Krashen and Terrell (1983, p. 57) argue that certain grammar classes "should be, at the most, an optional part" of the second language programme. Similarly, according to Krashen, as a Monitor, grammar has some limited value in a foreign language teaching method. Krashen (1982, p. 89) states that neither grammar as subject matter nor as a Monitor is essential in the second language teaching programme.

Despite Krashen's vehement criticisms of the role of grammar in language acquisition theory, nowhere in his suggested plan for foreign language teaching programmes can he afford to dispense altogether with grammar study (Krashen, 1985, pp. 74ff). In ESL at university level, in the high schools and in university foreign language programmes and in elementary school foreign language teaching, grammar study or teaching is provided under the heading of general language teaching. This shows that grammar still has a role to play in overall foreign language teaching methodology in addition to other components of teaching. Also, Krashen's interpretation of the findings of the current SLA research confirms it. He characteristically states that ". . . grammar learning does have an effect, but this effect is peripheral and fragile" (Krashen, 1992, p. 409).

Most foreign language teachers would agree that knowledge of grammar does not constitute the ability to use language in communication but many would not envisage a foreign language classroom without any direct reference to the relevant grammatical points, (Klein, 1990, p. 30; Rutherford, 1987, p. 16), in particular if the goal is accuracy to a level that would permit academic achievement in the foreign language being studied. Even if the goal is less than that of academic expression, it can be argued that grammar still has a role to play. Clark (1986) has argued that learners who have broken through literacy in their native language will benefit from some deliberate focus on forms in their foreign language learning. These learners have learned or are learning to view language as having rules and conventions and "not simply as something implicit which is embedded in the fleeting context of the moment" (p. 28). All this shows that, whatever the goal(s) of foreign language teaching, it is evident

that teachers have a role to play in assisting the learner to acquire a foreign language, in particular in explicating solutions to the problems which have constantly vexed the student, and which inevitably would foster low motivation, lack of self-confidence and high anxiety. If the problems persist, the student's affective filter would be raised, which would then block the expected target language acquisition and learning. A balanced view by ESL/EFL teachers is required in order to be able to appropriately place grammar teaching/learning in the classroom within communicative teaching approaches which currently enjoy wide acceptance.

The recent communicative approaches to language teaching in their effort to emphasize the centrality of the role of communi-cation or the meaningful aspects of language use in language teaching practices have tended to ignore the role of form-focused language teaching practices. Some researchers have even "called on materials developers to abandon form-focused activities . . ." (Nunan, 1988, p. 11). There is, however, now strong evidence that SL learners can benefit from such form-focused activities (Doughty, 1991, p. 463; Ellis, 1990, p. 170; Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991, pp. 299-300; Lightbown and Spada, 1990, p. 443; Long, 1983, pp. 379-80; Long, 1988, p. 135; Long, 1990, pp. 658, 660; Long, 1991; Long and Crookes, 1991, p. 20; Nunan, 1988, p. 11; Rosenshine, 1986; Schmidt, 1990, p. 149; Sharwood-Smith, 1981, p. 167, 1991; White, 1987, pp. 107-108; White, 1991, p. 134; White, et al., 1991, p. 429).

Focus on language structure is taken to be facilitative in learning other languages. It is given a supportive function in that particular points of language structures are being taught as needed in order to enable the student to carry out communicative

tasks. The decision as to what particular points are made salient to the students is based on the selected activities and situations which require the necessary language structures (The Unit Curriculum . . ., 1987, p. 4; Long and Crookes, 1991). Here the interaction between form, meaning and function is perceived and understood within well-reasoned choices.

2.5 The Important Role of Metalinguistic aware-ness in Indonesian English Teacher Education

The theoretical basis for language teacher preparation includes the study of pedagogical grammar, discourse analysis, SLA, classroom-based research, IL (Interlanguage) syntax and phonology, curriculum and syllabus design and language testing (Richards, 1987, pp. 209-10, 1990, p. 3). To formulate a peda-gogical grammar, there is a need to bridge the gap between the theoretician, the linguist and the practitioner, the language teacher. It is the task of applied linguists to fill this gap. In order to promote 'metalinguistic awareness' in students, peda-gogical grammars are required. Odlin (1989, p. 140) uses the term 'linguistic awareness' and 'metalinguistic awareness' to refer to either conscious or unconscious awareness of knowing about lan-guage. 'Linguistic awareness' is distinct from 'metalinguistic awareness' in that the latter is frequently used to describe individuals' awareness of language.

The incoming students in the English Department at the Indonesian Teacher Training College are trained to be teachers of English as a foreign language in secondary schools. Two types of programmes are offered: non-degree and degree programmes. The non-degree programmes are crash programmes in four- or six-semesters of study to meet the immediate need for English teachers in Junior and Senior Secondary Schools. The degree programme is an eight-semester study the completion of which

qualifies a student as a Senior Secondary School English teacher with a degree.

In both the degree and non-degree programme courses in the English Department at the Indonesian Teacher Training College the teaching about the English language or 'metalinguistic awareness', is incorporated officially in the teaching of <u>Structure I</u>, <u>Structure II</u>, <u>Structure III</u> and <u>Structure IV</u>. The term 'Structure' here is used to replace the earlier terms 'Grammar' and 'Modern English Grammar'. With some variation between institutions other course components involve Listening, Speaking, Reading, Writing, Introductory Linguistics, Introductory Sociolinguistics, English Literature, Applied Linguistics, Teaching and Learning Processes, Foundations in Education, Practice Teaching, and so on (<u>Buku</u> . . ., 1990-1991; <u>Pedoman</u> . . ., 1982).

The term 'metalinguistic' has recently been used with a variety of interpretations. Birdsong (1989, p.1) uses the term 'metalinguistic performance' to refer to any objectification of language. For him proofreading, commenting on a speaker's accent, solving a crossword puzzle in a newspaper, and making puns are examples of metalinguistic performance. Jacqueline Thomas (1988, p. 236) uses the term 'metalinguistic awareness' defined as 'student's conscious knowledge of the rules and forms of language'. She further states that metalinguistic awareness of the first and second language can potentially be used as a monitor to speak or to write utterances in a third language. Grandcolas (1986, pp. 293-308) uses the terms 'metalinguistic dimension of language learning', 'linguistic awareness' and quotes the terms 'metalinguistic phenomena', 'metalinguistic conceptualization', 'metalinguistic approach', 'metalinguistic communication', 'conscious training', 'exploration and conquest of meaning' to refer

to, in its broadest sense, the language system. She even quotes the terms 'metalinguistic and epilinguistic activities' the difference being that the former is deliberate while the latter is an uncontrolled inner process. Cummins (1989, pp. 20-21) uses the terms 'metalinguistic benefit', 'metalinguistic development' to refer to explicit knowledge about the structure and functions of language. Piper (1988, pp. 21ff.) quotes the terms 'an understanding of the language system', 'learning about language' to refer to language as an object of study. Major (1988, pp. 81-100) uses the term 'form' as an integral part of function when he refers to 'linguistic structures' (p. 91).

Rutherford and Sharwood-Smith (1985, pp. 274-81) use the term 'consciousness-raising (C-R)' to refer to the deliberate attempt by the language teacher to make explicit the grammatical forms of the target language to the learner (See Rutherford, 1987, pp. 16-34). Edge (1988, p. 10) uses the term 'language awareness' to refer to a conscious awareness by the TEFL trainee of the structure and the organisation of the English language. Kaldor and Malcolm (1988, p. 82), in one of their recommendations to the Western Australian Minister of Education, propose that all LOTE (languages other than English) teacher education courses should include a component concerned with 'the linguistic study of the structure of the relevant language(s)'. One of the components of TESOL education involves pedagogical grammar which apparently concerns the teacher trainee's perception of the English language as a system (Richards, 1987, pp. 209-10; 1990, p. 3). Here evidently the term 'metalinguistic' is related to the notion of the rules and formal devices of the TL as an object of study, which is commonly known as pedagogical grammar. Odlin (1986, p. 127) observes that pedagogical grammars are utilitarian in that if they

are matched to the needs of the language learners they are more effective than otherwise.

Rea Dickins and Woods (1988, pp. 629 et passim) state that grammar is the means by which one organizes messages in any communicative act. One suggestion they make is that a language teacher should assist the learner to develop 'an awareness of grammatical choice'. Here the term 'awareness' is apparently closely associated with the term 'metalinguistic awareness' used in this study defined as conscious/unconscious knowledge of the rules and forms of language manipulated implicitly/explicitly to convey a communicative intent by the individual speaker/learner. For Halliday (1990) cited in Stubbs (1990, p. 11) grammar "is a system which permits various options". To conceptualise these options one does need metalinguistic awareness that enables him to focus on the form(s) of these options. In sum the notion 'metalinguistic awareness' is applicable, albeit implicitly, to each of the studies quoted as they view language deliberately or consciously as an object of study.

In presenting the English tense-aspect complexes to Indonesian students, the English teacher trainee obviously requires knowledge about the basic form-meaning relationship of these complexes. To avoid confusion on the student's part when confronted with actual speech/text, the Indonesian EFL teacher initially needs to maintain a basic (one-to-one) form-meaning relationship. Subsequently the 'fuzziness' of the tense-aspect complexes can be taken into account. The form-meaning isomorphy is needed initially to make more salient to the student the language items in the problem areas being studied but needs to be adjusted in the course of the student's learning experience when a more complex set of relationships replaces the form-meaning

isomorphy.

An attempt to establish a consistent form-meaning relation-
ship seems to be in accord with Selinker's idealization that the
vast majority of second language learners consciously and un-
consciously, from the beginning of their studies, seek one norm of
the TL (target language) that they attempt to understand, speak,
read and write (Selinker, 1988, p. 27). Effective use of language
for communication necessitates grammar/structure, meaning and
function to interact with each other (Celce-Murcia, 1990, p. 204).
In other words the ability to use and comprehend different
grammatical forms underlies the skillful use of effective lan-
guage. Bell (1981) states that "Indeed, the skillful use of language
demands the ability to use and comprehend grammatically mixed
forms" (p. 54). Grammar or structure, meaning and function
evidently encroach on one another giving rise to fuzziness in
language use, viz., the one form-one-meaning relationship is
violated.

2.6 Is Metalinguistic awareness necessary in language use?

The role of metalinguistic awareness in language use for
communication is elusive. It is not easy to find an answer to the
question of how precisely such awareness does play a role in an
utterance. There are divergent opinions about the exact nature of
the role of linguistic awareness and/or metalinguistic awareness
(Odlin, 1989, p. 140). One argument against the role of meta-
linguistic awareness is the fact that in conveying an actual
communicative intent a language user is not aware that he is
observing some kind of 'formula' or system which guides him to
choose particular forms to communicate effectively. However,
there is no doubt that while consciously focusing attention on the
meaning to be communicated a language user is certainly sub-

consciously observing the accepted norms known to be appropriate for communicating a particular message. If a different form from the accepted norm is used the speaker/writer may either distort the meaning intended or unintentionally convey a different message (See Major,1988, pp. 84-85). Garrett (1986, p. 138) observes that when speakers produce utterances to express their communicative intent they start with a thought to be communicated and not from the knowledge of the system of the language. She seems to imply that the speakers in question are using the system of the language subconsciously but conveying the communicative intent consciously.

In her 'model of second language learning' Bialystok (1978, pp. 71-74) proposes a hypothetical model of knowledge in language use, which can be represented as Explicit Linguistic Knowledge, Implicit Linguistic Knowledge and Other Knowledge as in Fig. 3. She defines 'Explicit Linguistic Knowledge' as the conscious knowledge of the learner about the language which may include rules of grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary items of the language in question. 'Implicit Linguistic Knowledge', on the other hand, is presumed to be related to the intuitive information operated automatically and spontaneously by the learner in order to produce responses. In this context the notion of linguistic and/ or metalinguistic awareness seems to be closely related to the 'Explicit Linguistic Knowledge'. What is interesting in Bialystok's 'model of second language learning', knowledge in language use assumed to be the interrelationship between 'Explicit Linguistic Knowledge' and 'Implicit Linguistic Knowledge'. They are inter-related in terms of processes and strategies.
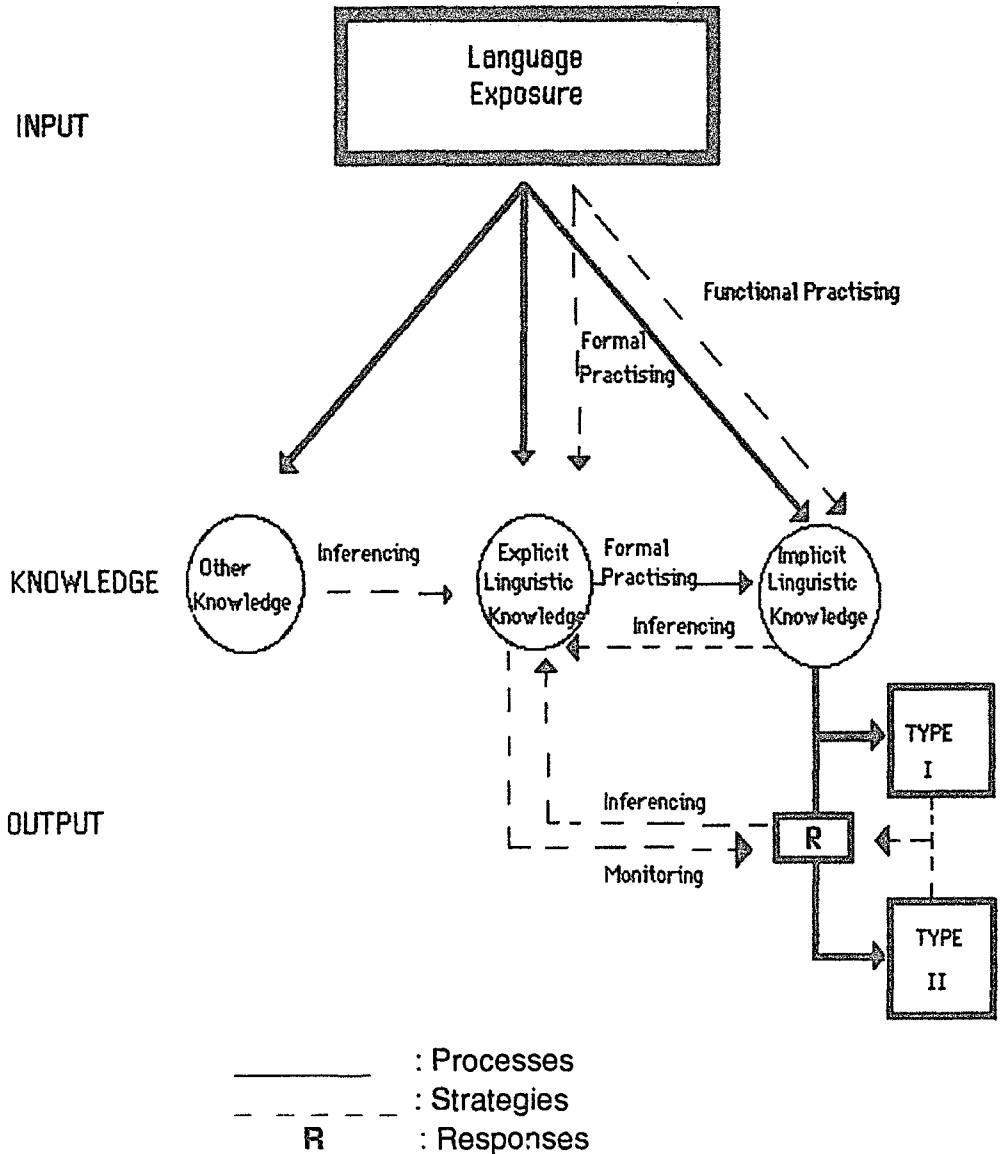
Fig. 3: Bialystok's 'model of second language learning' (1978, p 71)

The distinction between acquisition and learning in second language acquisition research also seems to relate to the notion of metalinguistic awareness (See Section 2.2 in this Chapter). Acquisition is assumed to be a subconscious process comparable to the process children utilize in their first language development while learning is a conscious process resulting in knowing about language. The analogy between acquisition and children acquiring their first language seems to underlie the adoption of the theory of the natural approach for language acquisition in classroom

settings (Krashen and Terrell, 1983, pp. 18-20). In the natural acquisition of the first language the child is not focusing on the form but on the communicative intent. It is thus argued that learning defined as the conscious or deliberate attempt to focus one's attention on the explicit phenomena is not a necessary and sufficient condition in language education. In this framework learning is only acknowledged to be useful for the Monitor.

The role of metalinguistic awareness is also relevant to the distinction between BICS (Basic Interpersonal and Communicative Skills) and CALP (Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency) postulated by J. Cummins (See Stern, 1983, p. 352) to account for the two kinds of language proficiency. BICS involves structurally 'simple' operations, with metalinguistic awareness functioning either consciously and/or subconsciously. By contrast, CALP involves structurally 'complex' operations involving meta-linguistic awareness possessed by a native speaker or a second language user. Chamot (1981, pp. 1-8) postulates that Bloom's taxonomy of six cognitive levels: Knowledge, Comprehension, Application, Analysis, Synthesis and Evaluation, can be related to the distinction between BICS and CALP. The first three levels (Knowledge, Comprehension, Application) can be matched with BICS while the last three levels (Analysis, Synthesis and Evaluation) can be matched with CALP. The last three levels and CALP seem to be closely related to academic proficiency. In this study it is argued that metalinguistic awareness, learning, explicit instruction and knowledge, conscious knowledge and pedagogical grammar have a crucial role to play in all academic language proficiency including Indonesian English teacher edu-cation. With regard to BICS, an Indonesian English teacher trainee will require metalinguistic awareness to initially build up the

student's self-confidence, to prevent high anxiety and loss of motivation. In BICS, knowledge about language is taken to operate consciously and/or subconsciously. To attain BICS proficiency, a first-stage level foreign language learner needs reasonable meta-linguistic awareness instruction conducive to real communicative tasks learning leading to the attainment of BICS. In CALP the teacher trainee needs metalinguistic awareness for tertiary study, that is, writing, reading, and for developing syllabuses, teaching methodologies and classroom practices. Even in the ESL context Celce-Murcia (1992) writes that

> . . . the spoken and the written language are different; it is easier to learn to understand and speak a second language for basic oral communication than it is to learn to read and write in this language [i.e., English as a second language, my interpretation] for academic purposes. Grammar, likewise, seems to be more crucial if advanced proficiency is desired and a high level of literacy is required (p. 407).

2.7 The needs of Indonesian EFL teachers

A language teacher such as the teacher of English as a Foreign Language in Indonesia faces a number of problems. The Indonesian EFL teacher trainee should be sufficiently equipped with different alternatives to best meet the immediate needs of his students in the classroom. A classroom teacher should be able to observe how the student responds to his way of teaching in terms of the curriculum objectives, the student's individual goals, and those of the wider community. Certainly an EFL teacher will provide 'exposure' and 'instruction' in his day-to-day classroom activities with the students (Ellis, 1985, pp. 152-53), which are expected to be conducive to the attainment of the expected goals and objectives.

Nunan (1989) observes that certain learners seem to indicate strong desire for accuracy. This points to some of the weaknesses

of currently favoured communicative theory which tends to down-play the importance of accuracy since the emphasis for communicative tasks is on the attainment of the communicative objectives. If the learner aims at accuracy, the language teacher must devise means by which the learner can reach his particular goal.

There is certainly no single method of teaching EFL which would be applicable to all classroom situations. To be able to choose which method or technique best serves the purpose, the intending teacher needs to take into account the different kinds of methods based either on his own teaching experience or on reading the SLA literature. Major (1988) states that

> summarizing the trends in foreign language teaching, there has been a tendency to go from one extreme to another: from teaching formal grammar rules to never teaching grammar rules, from always correcting to never correcting a student's errors, and from an emphasis on form to an emphasis on function. To some extent all methods work in achieving certain goals but there is a general agreement that no single method can give the student competence in all aspects of language (p. 83).

Clark (1986, pp. 28-29) observes that an over-concentration on communicative tasks in school foreign language learning deprives the learner of the deliberate focus on form which may result in attaining communicative success but not the expected target language norm. An over-concentration on formal systems and subsystems, by contrast, may lead to a painful learning experience for the learner who may subsequently feel discouraged from using the appropriate forms in performance. There is, thus, a need to integrate in a principled way approaches and strategies which suit the learner's age, level, context and individual characteristics.

Whatever methods or approaches are employed, there can be no doubt that Indonesian EFL teacher trainees need to be thoroughly equipped with competence in understanding and using the English tense-aspect complexes in an attempt:

a. to assist students in using English for communication;

b. to assist students to prepare for an English test or examination which is partly a structure-based evaluation;

c. to assist students to use English for reading and writing; and

d. to prepare communicative and authentic materials which enable students to use English in communicative situations naturally and fluently. Such materials must also be based on the appropriate subconscious rules of grammar.

2.8 Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH), Language Transfer, Indonesian-English IL (Interlanguage) and Pedagogical Applications of Contrastive Studies

2.8.1 The Strong vs. Weak Versions of CAH

Originally the comparison between two grammatical structures of the FL (Foreign Language) and the NL (Native Language) currently known as CA (Contrastive Analysis) was developed in order to account for the difficulty or ease of learning a second/foreign language. It was predicted that similarity in formal devices, meaning and distribution in the systems between the first language (L1) and the target language (TL) would cause ease of learning the TL whereas differences in form, meaning and distribution would cause difficulty in learning the TL (Lado, 1957, p. 15). This led scholars to design materials in second/foreign language learning which were structurally oriented and based on contrastive analysis. While Lado (1957, p. 70) reminded SLA researchers and second/foreign language teachers that the

problems which were postulated from the results of a comparative study of the foreign language and the native language were hypothetical in nature, and that the amount of difficulty with each problem varied from learner to learner, a strong version of CA hypothesis prevailed for one or two decades at most. An over-emphasis on the power of CA in second/foreign language learning at the expense of other considerations was increasingly seen as damaging (Noss, 1984, pp. 119-20). The strongest argument against CAH which apparently caused CAH to lose its popularity and respectability was that "the transitional error" in the acquisition of a foreign language "cannot always be predicted on the basis of a contrastive analysis" (Richards, 1979, p. 7).

There is now a need to reassess the value of CAH which has been deemphasized in the past decade. Spolsky (1985, p. 273) argues for the need to revitalize CAH since there is evidence that "there is still valuable life in the once seemingly dead horse of the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis". Selinker (1988, pp.1-2, 6-24) provides a validation of Lado's "tend to" remarks regarding the tendency of the individuals to transfer the forms, meanings and distributions of the native language to the foreign language when they attempt to use the target language.

Thus, in revitalizing the CAH, it seems clear that the weak version is more reasonable than the strong version of CAH. The formulation of the weak version is based on the use of "the best linguistic knowledge available . . . in order to account for the observed difficulties in second language learning" (Wardaugh, 1983, p. 10). To be able to do it, the linguist emphasizes the systems, "starts with the evidence provided by linguistic interference and uses such evidence to explain the similarities and differences between systems" (p.10). Wardaugh (1983) argues

that the weak version of CA "has proved to be helpful and undoubtedly will continue to be so as linguistic theory develops" (p. 13). If a second/foreign language learner seeks clarification for his difficulties relative to both the NL and TL, armed with the weak version of CA, a second language teacher may be able to ease the learner's difficulties in solving particular problems. Selinker (1988, p. 5) states that "some version of the CA idea is still reasonable . . . " in order to understand the process(es) involved in second language acquisition.

It is difficult empirically to account for the simultaneous ease and difficulty of second/foreign language learning but in 1985 the U.S. State Department FSI (Foreign Language Institute) provided some relevant evidence that the lengths of time needed to achieve a comparable level of proficiency of languages offered varied from language to language in view of the difficulty and ease of learning the languages themselves for students who were (usually) native speakers of English with no significant differences in language-learning aptitudes. Germanic and Romance languages are considered to be the least difficult in that the maximum lengths of the intensive courses are 22 - 24 weeks. A range of most difficult languages requires the maximum length of intensive courses, that is, 44 weeks. These include Arabic, Greek, Hungarian, Japanese, and Chinese which generally "share fewer structural similarities with English" (Odlin, 1989, p. 40). Indonesian (BI) and Malay are considered to be in between the least and the most difficult languages as the maximum lengths of the intensive courses required for these two languages are 32 weeks (pp. 38-41).

2.8.2 Language Transfer

Lado's "tend to" remarks, which argue that adult foreign

language learners 'tend to' transfer the forms, the meanings and their distribution when attempting to use the target language, have been investigated by a number of scholars and definite transfer effects have been found. Native Hebrew word order affects Hebrew-English word-order (Selinker, 1988, pp. 2, 6-24). There is a tendency to transfer L1 entities to L2 performance both productively when the subjects attempt to speak and act in English, and receptively when they attempt to grasp and understand English. The term 'language transfer' is used to refer to the process which operates in the mind of adult foreign language learners when they attempt to use the TL communicatively. This process is identified and tested by investigating the product, that is the performance, of foreign language learners. Selinker (1988) operationally defines language transfer as:

> a process occurring from the native to the foreign language if frequency analysis shows that a statistically significant trend in the speaker's native language appears toward these two alternatives, which is then paralleled by a significant trend toward the same alternative[14] in the speaker's interlanguage behaviour, i.e., in his attempted production of the foreign language sentences, phonetic features, phonetic sequences, etc., (p. 22).

Noss (1984, p. 119) and Spolsky (1985, p. 172) state that no one in the field would deny the fact that a second language learner's knowledge of his first language has some effect on his performance in the new language (Davies, et. al., 1984, p. xv; Flynn, 1987, p. 24). Nunan (1989, pp. 624-25) quoting Rubin and Thomson (1983) states that one of the 13 characteristics of good language learners is the use of linguistic knowledge including knowledge of their L1 in mastering L2. McLaughlin (1987, p. 79) states that L1 "does affect the course of interlanguage development ... ". This phenomenon is now known as part of the cross-linguistic influence (Odlin, 1989, p. xi; James, 1990, pp. 220-23).

There is thus a resurgence of interest in language transfer. Language transfer is not a process which involves mechanical transference of native language structures but a process which involves a number of cognitive mechanisms which underlie real second language acquisition. To understand the processes in operation in second language acquisition one needs to consider generalizations and approximations of the TL structures, and the relationship between language transfer and universal grammar (Gass, 1984, pp. 115, 117). In this study, Comrie's unified account of tense and aspect (1976, 1985), which are both taken to be related to the general semantic category of time[4], are used as the basis of tense-aspect generalizations and approximations applicable cross-linguistically to human language. The comparative study of English and Indonesian tense-aspect complexes is used to account for possible language transfer processes in Indonesian English Interlanguage.

There are commonly two types of language transfer (Odlin, 1989, p. 36): positive transfer (the L1-induced facilitation) and negative transfer (the L1-induced error) which may occur at all levels of linguistic hierarchy — phonological, syntactic and semantic (James, 1990, p. 220). In negative transfer the IL product statistically deviates from the experimentally established norm of the TL; in positive transfer the IL product statistically concurs with the TL established norm.

2.8.3 Indonesian-English IL (Interlanguage)

The concept of a transient learner's language which Selinker (1972, 1988) has identified as IL (Interlanguage) and Nemser (1974) as 'approximative system' (La) has been widely accepted by SL/FL teachers. This learner's language exhibits structures which are neither in the NL (Native Language) nor in the TL (Target

Language); it is "vulnerable or *permeable* to invasion by features of both native language and target language" (Adjemian, 1976; Liceras, 1981, cited in Rutherford, 1984, p. 128). One of the shortcomings of CA in predicting the learning problems of second/ foreign language acquisition was comparing two linguistic systems, those of the NL and TL, without direct reference to the third unnamed system (Selinker, 1988, p. 1).

Selinker (1988, pp. 6-24, 37) hypothesizes the existence of IL in the learner's meaningful attempted performance in a second language. It is present in the situation when an adult second language learner attempts to express meanings in a language which he is in the process of learning. Unfortunately the studies of Indonesian-English Interlanguage are still scarce (Diemroh, 1989; Jenson, 1984). The current tendency in the teaching of English as a Foreign Language in Indonesia is mainly towards the targeted norm known as either British English or American English. Reference to the 'failure' of the teaching of English in Indonesia from the educational administrators, the politicians, the Indonesian EFL teachers, the students and the wider community in general shows that the emphasis is only on the targeted norm. Proper recognition by the Indonesian EFL teacher of Indonesian English IL is required before the student's transient English can be improved. This study will facilitate research on such IL.

2.8.4 Pedagogical Applications of Contrastive Studies

Pessimism and disappointments have marked current views on pedagogical applications of contrastive studies to such an extent that some educators treat contrastive studies as of no pedagogical value at all. Does this imply that contrastive studies can be completely done away with in foreign language teaching methodology and procedures? Marton (1981, p. 160) argues that

the answer to this question is emphatically 'no'. The ultimate purpose of contrastive studies is the construction of pedagogical contrastive grammars which "will be an important aid in the processes of learning and teaching foreign languages, although by no means can it be regarded as a sort of pedagogical panacea" (Marton, 1981, p. 168). CA is "only one of the factors" that contributes "to the preparation of better teaching materials" (Marton, 1981, p. 158). A foreign language teacher, a foreign language learner or a translator will use a pedagogical contrastive grammar as one of their reference books: it will equip the foreign language teacher to assist the learner to get around certain problem areas in a clear and systematic way conducive to the learner's acquisition of certain language items; if a foreign language learner needs clarification of certain problems he can turn to the pedagogical contrastive grammar; a translator can go to the pedagogical contrastive grammar to look for the best solutions to the problems he faces in translation. In preparing the materials and some types of language tests, a materials writer will use the contrastive grammar as an inventory of the tasks and problems he is facing (Marton, 1981, pp. 168-69). In conclusion Marton remarks that contrastive studies "will play an important role as a contribution to a better organization and guidance in foreign language teaching and learning" although one cannot expect dramatic advancements in language teaching with the sole use of the results of contrastive studies (pp. 168-69). Thus, as a facilitator, an Indonesian EFL teacher can assist the student to make the best use of and capitalize on what is available in the learner's native language as positive transfer in his attempt to use English for communication.

In view of the current development of the unified theory of

tense and aspect (Comrie, 1976, 1985) one may question one of the arguments against contrastive analysis. Wardhaugh (1983) states that

> the case for dismissal may be stated as follows: Languages do not differ from each other without limit in unpredictable ways, statements to the contrary notwithstanding. All natural languages have a great deal in common so that anyone who has learned one language already *knows* a great deal about any other language he must learn. Not only does he know a great deal about that other language even before he begins to learn it, but the deep structures of both languages are really quite alike, so that the actual differences between the two languages are really quite superficial. However, to learn the second language — and this is the important point- one must learn the precise way in which that second language relates the deep structures to its surface structures and their phonetic representations. Since this way is unique for each language, contrastive analysis can be of little or no help at all in the learning task because the rules to be internalized are, of course, unique. Even though the form and some of the content of the rules to be acquired might be identical for both languages, the combinations of these for individual languages are quite idiosyncratic so that superficial contrastive statements can in no way help the learner in his task (p. 11).

Wardhaugh argues that the commonality in the deep structures of two languages, (that is, the common meanings shared, with the superficial differences between them) is of little help in language teaching. He states that the possibility of talking about the same things in all languages is not a very interesting claim (p. 12). In the light of Comrie's unified account of tense and of aspect in human language (1976, 1985), Wardhaugh's argument is open to criticism. One may argue that Comrie's unified account of tense and aspect can be potentially used as a uniform framework of comparison which emphasizes precisely the kind of functional-semantic equivalences regarded by some as the most difficult framework of comparison to be set up in contrastive linguistics

(Nickel, 1971, p. 5). Specifically, Nickel (1971) states that

> a further problem connected with contrastive linguistics is
> that of 'equivalence'. Whereas formal equivalence can be
> established relatively easily, it is a most difficult problem
> to set up any kind of functional-semantic equivalence. Since
> individual languages possess systems and subsystems
> peculiar to themselves, every function and construction
> within language must be regarded as a part of the whole. We
> cannot go into this problem either since it is in principle
> incapable of solution. Probably the best one can do is to take
> a pragmatic view and approach it by way of a notion of
> 'quasi-equivalence' with approximate values, as is done in
> the field of translation (p. 5).

It will be argued in this study that a framework can be provided
which will facilitate the learning of tense/aspect complexes in
Indonesian English education. Weise (1988, p. 188) shows that "a
common category or field of meaning, e.g., definiteness,
numerality, temporality, aspectuality, modality, causality, etc.,"
must have "a common semantic invariant, i.e., common reference
to extralingual reality". In the framework adopted in this thesis,
the tripartite time division of past, present and future will be
used as the common reference to describe the English and BI
tense-aspect complexes.

Phillips (1988) argues that further exploration using a
semantic dimension is necessary in addition to syntax and
morphology if one defines language in terms of syntax,
morphology and meaning (p. 64). In her L1 and L2 data, she shows
that the favoured lexico-grammatical realizations of 'tense' are
among the similar favoured lexico-grammatical realizations used
by L1 and L2 subjects. That is, both groups of subjects share the
same favoured lexico-grammatical resources to express 'tense'
irrespective of the difference in language backgrounds (pp. 58-59;
61). This seems to indicate that the semantic dimension provides

an appropriate basis for comparison.

2.9 Comparative studies of the English and BI tense-aspect complexes for Indonesian EFL education.

Asofie (1979) and McCoy (1985) have done a comparative study of the English and BI tense-aspect complexes for Indonesian EFL pedagogical purposes. In their respective work different frameworks and reasons are adopted. Diemroh (1989) has compared and analysed the English and BI tense-aspect complexes in relation to the tense-shift used by his subjects in writing an autobiography in a form of language described as the Indonesian English Interlanguage.

2.9.1 Shortcomings in the work of Asofie, McCoy and Diemroh

Asofie (1979) uses the TG framework to account for tense and related phenomena in English and BI. He does not use the term 'grammaticalisation'[5] nor 'lexicalisation'[5] of time reference and aspectual reference although his conclusion indicates that BI uses lexical items to express explicit time reference, and certain particles to express aspectual reference.

Asofie has every reason to use the TG model as a framework for his comparative study since form is taken as the point of convergence. That is, he investigates the formal characteristics of the English and BI predication systems in relation to tense-aspect complexes. The formal features of the English tense-aspect complexes are treated adequately for Indonesian EFL education but the meanings of these complexes are not adequately characterised. As Asofie does not support the argument that there is one-to-one relationship between time reference and tense form, that is, the form-meaning isomorphy, he is not in a position to elucidate the relationship. In teaching English tense, an EFL

teacher must have the knowledge how tenses are interrelated with natural time phenomena in addition to knowing the nature of tenses, the formal devices used, the relationship with other features in the predicate group, and the referential meaning.

Asofie does not make use of the one-to-one relationship between meaning and tense in his study. He emphasizes the morphological and syntactical correspondences in the English and BI predication systems. He does not emphasize the role of 'meaning potential' in the study although he has to resort to semantic characteristics of related phenomena in BI. Even in his analysis of English 'mood' he is forced to resort to the consistent relationship of tense-time in discussing particular examples. He (1979) argues that 'mood' in English does not have a special formal device to represent it but uses the device of tense. Thus, according to Asofie, learning the use of a tense form to express mood correctly "is learning how to unlearn the consistent tense-time relationship" (p. 14). For example, in a popular expression *Long live the President* the use of *live* is not consistent with the use of the third person singular present tense *lives* to refer to the the present time - present tense relationship.

Asofie shows that English has, in his term, 'the *T feature*' (1979, p. 27) of Present Tense, Past Tense and Future Tense while BI does not. In terms of verbal morphology this statement is correct but in terms of the meaning of tense as a deictic category this statement needs to be refined as BI does have the means to express deictic time relationships. Asofie only states that the feature of time reference, in Asofie's term 'the feature of TR' is present in both English and BI (p. 27).

Asofie's characterisation of tense, time and aspect is not clear in spite of his intention to clarify the confusion between

tense, time and aspect. In point of fact the confusion is not fully resolved. The interrelationship between time and tense is not clearly formulated for pedagogical purposes except for the formulation of present tense *T.0;* past tense *T,-;* future tense *T.+* .

McCoy (1985) uses meaning correspondences of the English tense-aspect complexes with those of BI. Nevertheless, her framework has different inadequacies in that she does not use the notion of deictic centre nor a tripartite time division explicitly. The definitions of tense and aspect are incomplete in Mcoy (1985) in that the distinction between grammaticalisation and lexical-isation, meaning and implicature, basic and peripheral meanings are not adopted (pp. 38 ff., 51-53). In spite of her adoption of Comrie's distinction between 'tense' and 'aspect' she does not emphasize the role of 'deixis' in characterising a particular tense form. Nor is the application of the term 'aspect' in keeping with the unified account of tense and aspect as advanced by Comrie (1976, 1985). McCoy analyses the English Past Perfect and Future Perfect as 'aspect'. Such interpretation has led McCoy to analyse the English Present Perfect, Past Perfect and Future Perfect as having common time-span characteristics; moreover these three categories referred to as 'the perfective aspect' are analysed as having several meanings: persistence of situation, indefinite or experiential situation, resultative meaning and habitual situation. Evidently these meanings are not directly characterised in terms of 'time'.

McCoy does not treat the English Future Tense. In fact, she has left the discussion of 'shall' and 'will', i.e., 'future tense', to be taken into consideration for further research (1985, p. 38). Nor does she draw a dividing line between lexicalisation and grammaticalisation of tense-aspect complexes in her framework.

Diemroh (1989) limits his study to the tense-shifts used in the Indonesian-English Interlanguage data. The English tenses referred to are Past Tense, Present Tense and Future Tense. He does not develop a model on which to base the analysis of the tense-aspect complexes found in the data. The term 'perfective' is used by him for past tense and the term 'imperfective' for the present and future. The notions of time, tense and aspect are not clearly defined.

Diemroh's proposal only concerns the teaching of the use of tenses in tense shifts. He does not discuss how the basic meanings of the English tenses can be 'graphically' conceptualised before one can develop a model for the teaching of the uses of tense in tense-shifts, and before an EFL learner can form and reform hypotheses about the use of the English tenses in a non-tensed L1 milieu.

In sum Asofie (1979), McCoy (1985) and Diemroh (1989) do not comprehensively deal with the basic meanings of the English tense-aspect complexes as the basis for a comparative study. Neither do they draw a dividing line between tense, aspect and time in terms of grammaticalisation and lexicalisation. Thus, none of the three works discussed emphasizes the relationship between tense, aspect and time from which a comparative framework between English and Indonesian 'tense-aspect complexes' can be developed for Indonesian EFL education. There is thus a need to develop such a model which takes into account the basic characterisation of tense-aspect complexes and other related phenomena in relation to time, and at the same time accommodating the interaction among these complexes. The present study will undertake the development of such a model for pedagogical purposes and potential for usefulness in Indonesian EFL classrooms.

2.10   Summary

This chapter has summarized the background and pedagogical orientation of the studies and has provided arguments outlining the need for approaches which are based on sound theoretical reasonings. In the next chapter an overview of the unified theory of tense and aspect and the interaction between tense-aspect complexes and time relevant to Indonesian EFL teacher education is provided.

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[1]Fig. 2 does not specify 'SLT Theory' explicitly but assumes the existence of 'Language Teaching Theories' that underlie language teaching 'methods' adopted and adapted by the language teacher (See Larsen-Freeman, 1990; Stern, 1983, p. 26) hence the use of dotted lines. The term 'SLA' in this figure is used to refer to instances of acquisition taking place in a second language and a foreign language environment (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991, p. 6).

[2]A clear example of the distinction between 'a focus on forms' and 'a focus on form' is provided by Long (1991, pp. 44-5). ". . . (S)tructural syllabi, ALM, and variants thereof involve a focus on forms" (p. 44). Here the content of the syllabus and of lessons is based on the linguistic items, i.e., structures, notions, lexical items, etc. This type of lesson is designed to teach ". . . 'the past continuous', 'requesting', and so on, nothing else" (p. 44). In a syllabus with 'a focus on form', by contrast, the content of lessons is not isolated linguistic items themselves but the content lesson such as ". . . biology, mathematics, workshop practice, automobile repair, the geography of a country where the foreign language is spoken, the cultures of its speakers, and so on . . ."(pp. 45-6). Linguistic elements are only overtly drawn to the students' attention incidentally as appropriate to the students' needs (p. 46).

[3]Krashen states that the teaching of grammar in a foreign language class plays a 'deceptive' role in addition to its role as Monitor use (1982, pp. 89-121). In the pedagogical programme in which grammar is taught as a subject matter, he (1982, p. 120) argues that the language teacher provides the students with comprehensible input conducive to low affective filter. The language teacher and the students are deceiving themselves

because they believe that "the study of grammar . . . is responsible for the students' progress in second language acquisition, but in reality their progress is coming from the medium ana .ot the message" (p. 120).

[4]Garret indicates that time is a universal but not cross-linguistically equivalent notion. She states that

pedadagogical research on the role of grammar in the FL classroom generally ignores the probability that the most automatic language processing in the adult learner is the syntacticization of grammatical relations, clause relationships, and universal but not cross-linguistically equivalent notions such as time and space (1991, p. 81).

[5]For the definition of 'grammaticalisation' and 'lexicalisation' as used in this thesis, see Chapter 8 Section 8.1

Chapter III

Developing a unified framework for the study of tense-aspect complexes

3.0   Introduction

This chapter presents a literature review, i.e., Sections 3.2 to 3.7, on tense as a deictic category. The work of Reichenbach (1947), Hornstein (1977), Comrie (1976, 1981, 1982, 1985, 1986a, 1986b), Dahl (1985), Bache (1982, 1985a, 1985b, 1986b) and Declerck (1986) on tense and aspect is reviewed in order to formulate a unified theory of tense and of aspect. Section 3.1 deals with time concepts of past, present and future. It is argued in Section 3.8 that the unified theory of tense proposed in Comrie (1985) can only be used to account for its prototypical uses to express basic meanings. To express peripheral meanings tense, aspect, (present) perfect interact with 'mood/modality', 'pragmatic issues' and time.

3.1   Time Concepts: Past, Present and Future

"The core of time concepts", as Miller and Johnson-Laird (1976) put it, "is relatively simple, perhaps even universal" (p. 410). Such universality can be taken to imply that time concepts may find certain expressions in languages throughout the world though evidently with varying degrees of diversity. The term 'time' itself, unfortunately, however, cannot be defined in a universally accepted characterisation. Some philosophers like McTaggart (1908, p. 457), who adopts a similar view to those held by Spinoza, Kant, Hegel and Schopenhauer, state that time is unreal. Even theologians, although with entirely different perspectives, hold the view that in the Divine Time there reigns absolute unity in which no distinction of first and last, before and after is traceable (Abdul Haq, 1987, p. 30), an implicit denial of the real-

ity of time.

McTaggart (1908, p. 468) argues that in order to account for the way in which moments are past, present and future one has to assume the existence of time. Conversely, positions in time Past, Present and Future or as he uses the term, known as the 'A series' (p. 458), have to be assumed in order to account for time. As he puts it, the A series has to be presupposed in order to account for the A series — an obvious vicious circle as time is assumed in order to account for time.

McTaggart (1908) has pointed out that events[1], i.e., situations, as we perceive them, which may be described as being in the A series, that is, in the past, present or future, can also be described as being in the B series, i.e., being earlier or later than the other. There is a major difference between the A series and the B series. The distinction in the A series is not permanent for what is now present was future and will be past; or what is now past was future and present and what is now future will be present and past. The distinction in the B series is permanent for whatever is earlier or later than some thing is always earlier or later than that thing.

In view of the fact that the B series is permanent, does this mean that the B series is more objective and essential to the nature of time than the A series? McTaggart (1908, p. 408) shows that such a view is erroneous as he argues that the A series is as essential as the B series. In point of fact his conclusion that time is unreal stems from the idea that the A series seems to be essential to time. One never observes events in time except as forming the A series as well as the B series. Events which are earlier than the present are in the past while those which are later are in the future. Thus events in time involve both the A

series as well as the B series.

It is generally assumed that time brings about change. If one says that one thing exists unchanged he usually means that the thing remains the same while other things are changing. It is only in a timeless universe that change never takes place (McTaggart, 1908, p. 459). Is it possible that change applies only to the B series and not to the A series? McTaggart argues that this is impossible as the B series is permanent. Whatever is earlier is, will always be and has always been earlier. Thus McTaggart shows that change which is imparted to the event in question concerns the A series. His argument runs as follows: Take, for example, the death of a friend. In terms of the A series this sad event does change as it soon will cease to be a present event to become a past event. Although it remains so it becomes further and further past. Therefore without the A series there would be no change. And as time gives rise to change, the B series itself is insufficient for time. It is evident thus that any change is only a change with respect to the A series (McTaggart, 1908, pp. 460- 461).

In addition to the A series and the B series, which are both temporal, there is a non-temporal series which involves an order. This, according to McTaggart, is called the C series. What is interesting about McTaggart's observation is the fact that the B series can be seen to arise from the combination of the A series and the C series. To identify a moment as earlier or later than another moment the A series alone is inadequate. The B series can arise, i.e., identifying what is earlier or later, only after the determinations of the A series, i.e., Past, Present and Future, are combined with the C series, i.e., the order. Without such an order what is earlier or later will remain unknown. Thus it is shown that the B series is derivable from the A series and the C series.

But actually the A series is also derivable from the B series as a moment earlier than the present moment is the past and another moment later than the present is the future, and a moment which is neither earlier nor later is presumably the present. This can be shown to be another vicious circle although McTaggart does not specifically mention this fact.

To support his argument that time is unreal McTaggart proves that the A series cannot exist and therefore time cannot exist. The determinations of the A series (Past, Present and Future) are incompatible in the sense that each event is in one and not in the other. That is, if one event is in the present, it cannot be in the past at the same time. Although the components of the A series is incompatible, every event has present, past and future. That is, if an event is present it will be past and has been future; if it is past it has been present and future; if it is future it will be present and past. This is an obvious contradiction. Hence, in conclusion McTaggart states that:

> we have come then to the conclusion that the application of the A series to reality involves a contradiction, and that consequently the A series cannot be true of reality. And, since time involves the A series, it follows that time cannot be true of reality. Whenever we judge anything to exist in time, we are in error. And whenever we perceive anything as existing in time — which is the only way in which we ever do perceive things — we are perceiving it more or less as it is really not (1908, p. 470).

McTaggart (1908, p. 457) found "that the same doctrine continually recurs, both among philosophers and theologians" in the East and in the West. They both deny the reality of time. For example, Ayn al-Qudat Hamdani, an 11th century young gifted Sufi (See Abdul Haq, 1987, pp. 1, 25-28), states that there are three kinds of time: material time, spiritual time and the Divine time.

The Divine Time lies beyond the material time and the spiritual time. It is believed to be everlasting time. In one comparison it is stated that six Divine Days are equivaient to six thousand human years (See 2 Peter 3:8; Psalm 90). This Divine Time, however, has no beginning nor ending; neither does it have past nor future. It is infinite and eternal; everything is said to be dead and reborn in Divine Unity. The spiritual time is the time of spiritual being; it is angelic time: whatever is longer in human time is shorter in angelic time. The material time, unlike the previous two kinds of time, constitutes a serial time which is divided by past, present and future as is exemplified by *yesterday, today* and *tomorrow*. It is stated that it represents the human phenomenal world.

The above line of argument can be taken to concur with what is suggested by McTaggart. Material time, if compared with Divine Time, is nothing. In other words it is unreal. And yet psychologically material time has always been part of man's life without which he would certainly lead an entirely different life. Rarely does a man, if ever, forget the sense of time. It is only by sheer accident that a person may entirely lose the sense of time as day and night alternate continuously to guide him to work out the sense of time. If there was only daylight and no night or vice versa perhaps it would be inconceivable for man to make out the sense of time. Even a calendar, under normal circumstances, works in accordance with the presence of daylight and nightfall too.

It is true that man may lose his sense of time specially after taking a very long sleep in the afternoon he might get up only to find himself thinking that it was early in the morning when in fact it was almost nightfall. In that moment, strictly speaking, he can be said to have lost his sense of time. A Chinese lady, who

survived torment while she was imprisoned for 6 1/2 hours, did really lose her sense of time. After being interrogated, which apparently failed to bring forth a confession, she was put in a dark room in complete isolation. Here she felt that 'time assumed different meaning or had no meaning at all' (Cheng, 1987, p. 40).

McTaggart (1908, p. 471) suggests that the past, present and future distinction of events arises from the distinction in man's experience. Everything that is perceived directly or that which is simultaneous with direct perception is in the present; an event which is simultaneous with what is remembered is in the past and everything which is anticipated is in the future. As the concepts of time arise from man's experience, i.e., his perceptions, antic- ipations and memories of perceptions (to use McTaggart's terms), a similar concept of time is likely to be reflected in his language. This conception of time seems to be in line with Comrie's dia- grammatic representation of time. He assumes "that time can be represented as a straight line, with the past represented conven- tionally to the left and the future to the right" (1985, p. 2).

3.2 'Tense', 'Time' and 'Aspect'

Theories on tense, including the tense system of English, have been formulated by numerous scholars. Some maintain that tense is independent of time while others insist on the opposite view. Among those who argue that tense is independent of time is Weinrich (1970, p. 31) who has indicated that the congruence between the meaning of tense and time found in so many lan- guages can serve only as a rough guide. He reasons that the various tense systems of many languages do not fit very well into the three time divisions of past, present and future. In his analysis Weinrich makes use of textual linguistics, viewing a text such as a dialogue, a novel, a poem or other types of text as a

whole. He then postulates a distinction between two kinds of 'speech attitude' (p. 35): discursive and narrative. Narrative is characterised by relaxation. It is not urgent in the sense that it does not need immediate action or reaction. Discursive text concerns the participant directly and must therefore have more tension than narrative. Narrative is usually expressed in the past tense or preterite whereas the most important linguistic sign in discursive text is the present tense.

Despite Weinrich's insistence on the incongruence between tense and time he acknowledges that certain tenses are related to time. In each mode, that is, the discursive and the narrative, there exist various tenses. In the discursive mode, one finds the present, the perfect, the future and other tenses; in the narrative mode, the preterite, the pluperfect, the conditional and other tenses. Speaking of the perfect, the pluperfect, the future and the conditional, Weinrich states that these tenses are related to time. Thus, despite his disagreement with the relationship between tense and the 'old companions past-present-future', Weinrich states that:

> our considerations up to this point do not yet exhaust the problem of tense. The dichotomy of narrative and discursive tense is only one dimension of the tense system. We may call it the dimension of *speech attitude*. Now, within each tense group of this dichotomy, there are various tenses. In the discursive tense group we find not only the present, but also the perfect and the future (and other tenses), and in the narrative tense group we have not only the preterite, but also the pluperfect and the conditional (and other tenses). Of course, the different tenses in each group indicate different things. First, we must point out that in each group there is a *zero tense*. This is the present in the group of discursive tenses and the preterite in the group of narrative tenses. This means that the present, in the discursive group, indicates discursive attitude — and nothing else; the preterite in the narrative group, signals narrative attitude — and nothing else. In these zero tenses, the second dimension

of the tense system we are dealing with is not actualized. It is actualized in the other tenses of the two groups. Thus, the perfect in the discursive group, and the pluperfect in the narrative group, indicate *retrospection*, and by the same process the future, in the discursive group, and the conditional, in the narrative group, indicate *prospection*. Retrospection and prospection, of course, presuppose the stream of time. In this sense, tense is related to time. But let us not greet too hastily our old companions past-present-future . . . (Weinrich, 1970, pp. 35-36).

Here, with the aim of achieving simplicity, that is, setting up a priori conditions and criteria to formulate a very simple theory of tense for theoretical considerations rather than for didactic ones, Weinrich seems to have intended to discount the second dimension of the tense system, which is basically related to time. In addition to the first and second dimensions of the tense system, that is, the dimension of speech attitude and the dimension of retrospection and prospection, a third dimension is also implied. He suggests that the expanded tenses in English, for example, can be shown to indicate the third dimension of backgrounding and foregrounding in the speech situation. Upon receiving letters of acceptance for a visit to some English universities with forms like *A letter will be awaiting you*; *I shall be preparing a programme*; *We will be meeting you* (p. 38), Weinrich is puzzled as to how to understand the function of these expanded forms because he could not find the solution from "any theory of aspect" (1970, p. 38). He, then postulates that the use of the expanded forms may be taken to convey a kind of putting the topic in the background — a kind of evasive speech. But on further scrutiny, one could argue that such interpretation is not entirely satisfactory. The writers of the letters may have intended otherwise. They may still welcome the arrival of the visitor in question, and they are not less serious.

Proponents of TG also doubt the existence of a direct relationship between tense and time. Radford (1981, p. 238), for example, argues that an English tensed clause (i.e., one that contains a verb or auxiliary inflected for tense) carries past or present tense inflections like -s /ø and -d. The term 'tensed' here is a purely formal requirement, not related to functional/ semantic criteria. Akmajian and Heny (1975, p. 118) analyse the distribution of past and present tense forms with no reference to time.

The TG grammarians base their model on Chomsky's (1965, pp. 42-43, 107) formalisation of the English Verbal Auxiliary as in the following.

(1)

Aux ⟶ Tense (Modal) (have en) (be ing)

The English Verbal Auxiliary must contain Tense (which in a purely formal sense, is <u>Past</u> or <u>Present</u>, Chomsky, 1965, p. 42), and then may or may not contain a *Modal* and either the *Perfect* or *Progressive Aspect* (or both). Chomsky's formulation of the English Verbal Auxiliary forms the basis upon which the following phrase structure rule is postulated. In (2), the first verb always bears a tense (i.e., either past or present) which is obligatory whereas those in brackets are optional in nature (Akmajian and Heny, 1975, p. 118).

(2)

a. Aux ⟶ Tense (Modal) (have en) (be ing)

b. Tense ⟶ $\left\{ \begin{array}{c} pres \\ past \end{array} \right\}$

The formula also indicates that the tense is always introduced with the <u>leftmost</u> element, whichever that may be. Finally an Affix Hopping Rule ensures that every affix that is immediately followed by a verb must become part of it. In such formulations

tense is understood not to be directly related to time reference for it is argued that "a verb in a particular tense form can have different time references" (Akmajian and Heny, 1975, p. 117). Also, it has been insisted by Chomsky and Weinrich that the grammatical structure of a language be analysed independently of its semantic structure (Allen, 1966, p. 95).

Thus, the following forms *has studied, will study, will have studied* can all be accommodated under the present tense, whereas *had studied, would study, would have studied* can all be accommodated under the past tense. As the account of the distribution of the past and present forms of the English verbs is given without considering the temporal/time reference of a particular tense form, such tense and time relationship is not taken to be the necessary-and-sufficient condition for the use of a particular tense form. It is not intended to be the focus of the study. The TG framework is essentially a formal rather than semantic representation of the English tense-aspect system (Akmajian and Heny, 1975, pp. 116 ff.).

McCawley (1971, p. 99) proposes that tenses are not features by themselves but underlying verbs. In accounting for the auxiliary *have* he postulates that all occurrences of *have* are underlying past tenses, i.e., underlying verbs. He argues that auxiliaries are really verbs. In the TG framework tense is a member of the auxiliary. It follows thus that tense can be considered as an underlying verb. According to McCawley, (3) is derived from (5).

(3) *John had been smoking pot*

(5)

*John   smoke   pat*Past Past Past
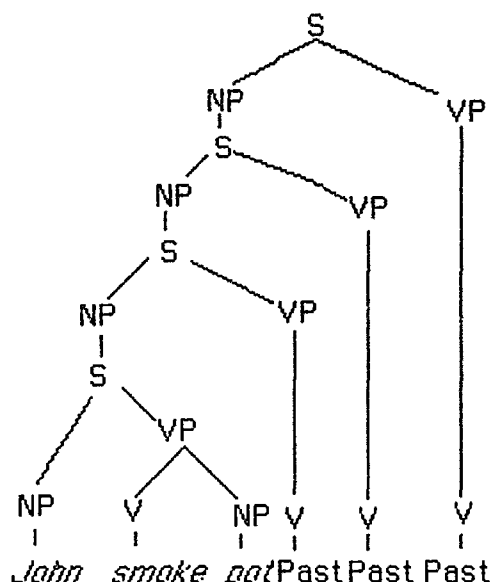
In McCawley's view, the embedded pasts are pasts relative to the context in which they are embedded: they are not absolute pasts. McCawley's argument (1971, p. 101) that *have* is an underlying past tense is based on Hoffman's observation that in certain environments the distinction between simple past, present perfect and past perfect is neutralised in favour of *have* as shown in (4).

    (4) a. *John may have arrived at 2.00 yesterday*
        b. *John may have drunk a gallon of beer by now*
        c. *John may have already met Sue when he married Cynthia*

In (4a, b, c), tense replacement does not take place as the subject-verb agreement has not applied.

The following rule shows that *past* is changed to *have* as tense replacement is not applicable.

    (6)

$$\left.\begin{array}{l} \text{Pres} \longrightarrow \mathscr{O} \\ \\ \text{Past} \longrightarrow \textit{have} \end{array}\right\} \text{if agreement has not applied}$$
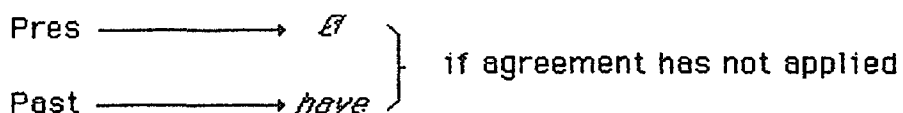
    McCawley (1971, p. 110), however, argues that the tense morpheme does not express such time relationships only. Tense also expresses the time of the situation that it is in. In account-

ing for the time of the situation McCawley seems to mean deictic relationships although the term 'deixis' is not explicitly used.

Interestingly, other scholars, writing within a TG framework in regard to the English tenses and the related phenomena, do not basically ignore the notion of time when interpretation of a certain tense form or characterisation of the deep/semantic tense is sought as shown in what follows.

Baker (1989, p. 37), for example, postulates that English has only two tenses: Present Tense and Past Tense. In relation to time (pp. 439-40) he shows that (7a, b, c) "are understood with respect to the moment when the sentences are uttered". The term 'moment' refers to 'utterance time'. The examples are from Baker (1989, p. 439).

(7) a. *Joseph was happy*
b. *Joseph is happy*
c. *Joseph will be happy*

The 'time relations' in (7a, b, c) are pictured as follows:

(8)

a. Utterance Time | b. Utterance Time | c. Utterance Time

┌── Past   Present   WILL ──┐

be happy   be happy   be happy
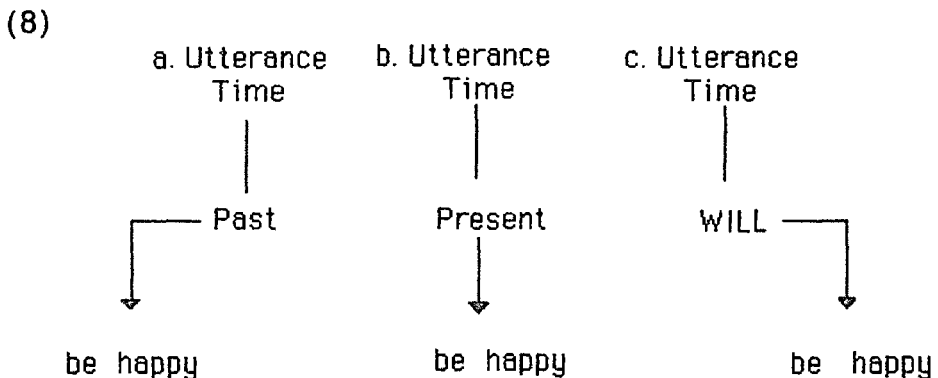
Baker (1989) analyses (7a) as in *past tense*; (7b) *present tense* and (7c) the *modal WILL*. Here the notion of 'deictic time' is employed irrespective of the non-use of the term 'future tense/ future time reference' (pp. 439-40).

Huddlestone (1969, pp. 786ff.) distinguishes between the structuralist tradition of a binary tense system: past vs. non-past and the deep grammar tense category. In the binary tense system,

a past tense form has the morpheme -*ed* (or 'Past'), whereas a present tense form lacks this marker. In the deep grammar tense category, he maintains that "for tense applied to the deep structure, . . . we need three terms: past, present and future" (p. 787). Here apparently the notion of deixis is taken into account in the analysis.

Similarly, Huddleston (1989) states that "English has a two-term system of tense marked inflectionally in the verb, with past tense *took* contrasting with present tense *take(s),* and so on" (pp. 59, 96). He reasons that since meaning provides a legitimate criterion across languages (p. 7) "meaning-based definitions do not work satisfactorily at the language particular level" (1989, p. 84) because there is normally no one-to-one relation between form, i.e., "categories of grammar" and meaning, i.e., "categories of meaning" (p. 84) at this level. He thus analyses the English tense as "a category of grammatical form" (p. 8). Even so Huddleston defines tense in terms of 'time', i.e., as "a system of the verb or VP where the contrasting terms characteristically serve to locate the situation expressed in the clause in different time spheres" (p. 96). Here the term 'tense' is defined in terms of time and form, that is, "a system of the verb" (1989, p. 96).

McNeill (1966, pp. 15-84) explored the intersection of the then available linguistic theory and studies of language acquisition in an attempt to interpret the related empirical studies in the light of linguistic theory to develop a consistent theory of language acquisition. He believed that the LAD hypothesis as outlined by Chomsky (1961, 1965, cited in McNeill) and Katz (1966, cited in McNeill) was thought to guide the child's first stages of linguistic development (McNeill, 1966, p. 38) coupled with the postulated child's generative rules (1966, pp. 40ff.). The

child's earliest speech is known to have verbs which are unmarked for tense. It is stated that "A child will say *Adam go,* regardless of whether the event referred to took place *yesterday,* or will take place *tomorrow,* or is taking place *while the child speaks*" (p. 70). Here, the deictic notion of tense is implied in reference to *yesterday, tomorrow* and *while the child speaks.*

Braroe (1974), analysing the syntax and semantics of the English tense markers, believes that the most explicit formulation of the general hypothesis of the semantic function of a tense marker in S "within the theory of transformational grammar is that of Katz, 1972" (Braroe, 1974, p. 38). In reference to the general hypothesis, Braroe writes that

> . . . the semantic function of a tense marker in any *S,* whether unembedded or embedded, is to order the time referent of that *S* with respect to the time constant given by the speech act, *So* (p. 38).

Braroe (1974, pp. 33ff.) first examines four different types of grammar, G1 (Katz, cited in Braroe), G2 (a traditional view), G3 (McCawley, a, cited in Braroe) and G4 (McCawley, b, cited in Braroe), and observes that the four types of grammars share the general idea that a tense marker has the primitive semantic function of expressing one of the three logically possible orderings between 2 time referents, (i = j) *simultaneity;* (i < j) *priorness;* (i > j) *laterness.* Such interpretation indeed cannot be accounted for without taking the present deictic centre into account.

In contrast to the foregoing theoretical viewpoints are the viewpoints of scholars who maintain that tense is characteristically related to time. In their view, tense is a deictic category. The inclusion of the notion of deixis refines the traditional conception of tense (Bache, 1985b, p. 17). The

proponents of the deictic tense theory include Reichenbach (1947), Hornstein (1977), Comrie (1976, 1981, 1985, 1986a, 1986b), Dahl (1985), Bache (1982, 1985a, 1985b, 1986b) and Declerck (1986) who can all be regarded as traditionalists. The explicit employment of the notion of deixis into the description of tense phenomena was probably initiated by Reichenbach whose work has been widely quoted in both linguistics and philosophy. Reichenbach's framework has met with both acclaim and criticisms in the literature. Several writers have suggested certain modifications to overcome some defects of his theory. Comrie's contribution is particularly notable in this respect (1981, 1985).

In accounting for the tense phenomena in language, Comrie (1985, p. viii) believes that "there is a certain systematised set of facts about tense in human language . . ."whereby a general theory of tense can be established. He argues that the basic meanings of tenses are "definable independently of particular contexts", (p. 26). Comrie (1986a) presupposes "a clear distinction between the meaning (semantics) of a linguistic item (lexical item, grammatical category and syntactic construction)" (p. 12) and the interpretation it receives in context, i.e., a given linguistic item normally shows a single meaning "independent of the context in which it occurs" (pp. 12-13). Comrie (1986a) is convinced that

> the meaning of a tense is independent of its discourse function in any particular context, while the discourse function does depend on the meaning (and also, of course, on certain features of the context) (p. 21).

Comrie (1976, 1985) unlike his predecessors, axiomatically draws a clear dividing line between tense and aspect. In characterising tense categories he (1985, pp. 1ff.) employs three major parameters: the deictic centre, i.e., the here-and-now of speech or

"some other point in time" (p. 1), the location of situations in time and the distance in time. The precise establishment of the deictic centre makes it possible for both the location of a situation in time and the distance in time to be determined. Thus situations can be located before, after or simultaneous with the deictic centre; if a language grammaticalises or lexicalises degrees of remoteness between the location of situation in time and the deictic centre, distance in time comes into play.

Locating situations in time is made possible when an arbitrary reference point is established. This can be done by assuming that time can be represented as a straight line with the past represented conventionally to the left and the future to the right as in (9).

(9)

―――――――――――――――|――――――――――――――
Past   0   Future
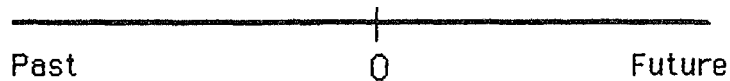
Here, the deictic centre, the here-and-now of speech is represented by 0 (See Section 3.1 in this Chapter). In this representation, a situation may be located somewhere on the time line relative to some other time point. In Comrie's framework (1976, 1985) the category of tense basically expresses this relation. By contrast, a situation may be expressed in terms of its internal temporal structure. This relation is termed 'aspect' (Comrie, 1976). This is the conceptual basis for drawing a clear dividing line between tense and aspect. Comrie (1976, 1985) defines tense as a grammaticalisation of locating situations in time and aspect as a grammaticalisation of the different ways of viewing the internal constituency or structure of a situation. Tense is externally determined whereas aspect is internally determined.

In characterising the tense-aspect complexes Comrie also

draws a distinction between basic and secondary or peripheral meanings. It is postulated that two kinds of meanings are assignable to a grammatical category, i.e., the basic meaning and a number of peripheral meanings. A basic meaning can be defined in terms of prototypical condition, that is, in terms of the most characteristic instance rather than in terms of a set of necessary and sufficient conditions. A secondary meaning or use does not invalidate the general characterisation of the basic meaning. For example, the English past tense basically indicates past time reference. But peripherally, the same form can be used to indicate a note of 'tentativeness' or 'politeness'. If the distinction between basic and secondary meanings is adopted, the apparent incongruences can be accounted for (Comrie, 1985, pp. 18-23). In addition, the term 'implicature', i.e., what is said being different from what is conveyed (Grice, 1975, 1978, 1981), is used in accounting for the meanings of certain tense-aspect complexes in a particular language (Comrie, 1976, pp. 28-30, 1985, pp. 23-26).

Despite Comrie's major contribution in support of the refinement of the traditional conception of tense towards a unified theory of tense applicable to any human language, and to the theory of aspect, there is still much confusion in the literature when it comes to considering languages such as BI which is known as a 'tenseless' but not 'aspectless' language. In the context of this problem, it is crucial to establish an explicit distinction between the concepts of grammaticalised and lexicalised conception of tense and aspect — an empirical claim propounded in Comrie (1976, 1985) — relevant and presumably applicable to BI. Chapter IV will attempt to apply the unified theory of tense and the theory of aspect (Comrie, 1976, 1985) to the description of the English tense-aspect complexes and Chapter V will explore

how tense-aspect complexes are expressed in <u>BI</u>. The results of these two chapters will be used as the base on which a peda- gogical grammar for the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes in the Indonesian English teacher education is to be developed.

3.3   Reichenbach's Notion of *SRE*

Comrie (1985) basically uses Reichenbach's *SRE* notion to formulate the unified theory of tense. Apart from the proposed modifications to Reichenbach's model, Comrie's work shares much with Reichenbach's work (Comrie, 1981, 1985). In order to clarify these matters and to fully understand the significance of Comrie's contribution, it will be necessary to consider briefly Reichen- bach's celebrated account of tense (1947, pp. 287-98). Reichenbach's formal account of tense works in terms of three points *S* (speech time), *R* (reference point), *E* (event) and two relations precedence and simultaneity. *S* refers to the time of speech, the now-of-speech; *R* refers to the time point to which event *E* is oriented; *E* refers to the event or to use a more general term 'situation' which obtains in the given time. The two relations, that is, precedence and simultaneity, define the meaning of tenses. Thus the past and the future tenses involve precedence whereas the present involves simultaneity.

On the basis of the notion of *SRE* and the two relations Reichenbach arrives at 9 fundamental tense forms out of the total of 13 possibilites. In contrast with the traditional names of English tenses he suggests his own terms using 'past', 'present' and 'future' for the position of *R* relative to *S* and the terms 'anterior', 'posterior' and 'simple' for the position of *E* relative to *R*. That is, *R (relative) S* subsumes *R - S* for past; *S,R* for present; *S - R* for future. *E (relative) R* subsumes *E - R* for

anterior; R - E for posterior and R,E for simple. The detailed structures for the 9 tenses are shown in (10).

(10)

Structure	Name according to Reichenbach	Traditional Name
$E - R - S$	Anterior Past	Past Perfect
$E,R - S$	Simple Past	Simple Past
$R - E - S$ $R - S,E$ $R - S - E$	Posterior Past	–
$E - S,R$	Anterior Present	Present Perfect
S,R,E	Simple Present	Present
$S,R - E$	Posterior Present	Simple Present
$S - E - R$ $S,E - R$ $E - S - R$	Anterior Future	Future Perfect
$S - R,E$	Simple Future	Simple Future
$S - R - E$	Posterior Future	–

Reichenbach argues that the three structures for Posterior Past and the three structures for Anterior Future represent the same fundamental forms respectively. This is a point to which Comrie (1981, 1985) addresses his modification.

In reference to English, Reichenbach's scheme (1947, pp. 290, 296) has indicated that there are 6 (six) grammatical tenses:

(11)

Past Perfect	$E - R - S$
Simple Past	$R,E - S$
Present Perfect	$E - S,R$
Present	S,R , E
Simple Future	$S,R - E$
Future Perfect	$S - E - R$

Reichenbach is among the first theoreticians who explicitly suggests that the now-of-speech be incorporated in the descrip-

tion of tense in human language. The theory dealing with the now-of-speech in accounting for the tense phenomena now better known as the deictic theory of tense has since enjoyed wide acceptance among scholars in the field.

In accounting for the progressive forms, Reichenbach uses the term 'expanded form' and states that the progressive form characterises an event which occupies some stretch of time. In Comrie's term, Reichenbach's account of aspect in English is rather perfunctory (Comrie, 1981, p. 24).

3.4 Hornstein's Quasi-Reichenbachian *SRE*

Hornstein (1977) develops a quasi-Reichenbachian framework in an attempt to give a unified account of certain tense phenomena in English. Unlike Reichenbach, Hornstein defines explicitly the *SRE* configurations in particular in relation to certain time adverbs by postulating two constraints on rules rearranging *SRE* (pp. 521-24):

a. The linear order of *SRE* must be maintained

b. The *SRE* associativity must also be maintained

While admitting that his system is not intended to be an exhaustive treatment of all tense phenomena in English, Hornstein proposes a list of basic tenses in which the expanded or progressive forms are included as in (12).

(12)

Simple Past	$E,R - S$
Past Progressive	$\overrightarrow{E,R} - S$
Past Perfect	$E - R - S$
Simple Present	S,R,E
Present Progressive	$S,R,\overrightarrow{E}$
Present Perfect	$E - S,R$
Simple Future	$S - R,E$
Future Progressive	$S - R,\overrightarrow{E}$
Future Perfect	$S - E - R$

Note: $\overrightarrow{E}$ is used to indicate the 'expanded form'

Hornstein claims that the basic tense structures in (12) can abstractly represent tenses in terms of *SRE* patterns. Using the two constraints postulated, Hornstein is able to account for certain adverb tense phenomena in English. For example, the fact that (13) is unacceptable is explained as follows (13a).

(13) *He will come yesterday*

The basic tense structure of (13) is represented in (13a).

(13a)

$$S - R,E \xrightarrow{\text{yesterday}} S - R,E \longrightarrow {}^*E,R - S$$

$$\text{yesterday} \quad \text{yesterday}$$
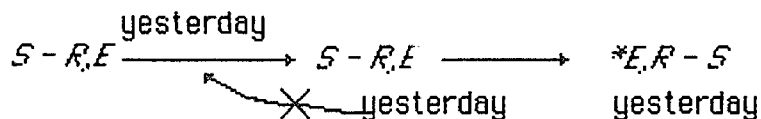
Here, the basic tense structure of (13) is destroyed as indicated by the cross on the arrow. The derived configuration is different from the basic tense structure; both the linear order and the associativity principles are disrupted (See Hornstein, 1990, pp. 15ff.).

Hornstein also extends Reichenbach's framework to include modal or, as he puts it, 'modal tenses' in which "a deviant nontemporal reading" (1977, p. 537) is conveyed by a particular

construction. Thus, to account for (14)

(14) *That will be Max at the door now*

(1977, p. 536: the sentence has the reading for modal rather than the future) and for (15)

(15) *John will have arrived home yesterday*

(1977, p. 537: 'a quasi-modal interpretation rather than a temporal one') he formulates (p. 538):

(16) *(m) S,R,E* and *(m) E,R - S*

Notice that (15) does not have temporal reading since the basic tense structure is destroyed when *yesterday* is interpreted temporally (1977, p. 537), as shown in (15a).

(15a) *John will have arrived home yesterday*

$$S - E - R \longrightarrow {}^*E - S - R$$
$$\text{yesterday} \qquad\qquad \text{yesterday}$$

But (15) still has modal reading. To account for this, Hornstein uses the formula *(m) E,R - S* where the basic tense structure is not disrupted by the interaction of *yesterday* as shown in (15b).

(15b)

$$(m) E,R - S \xrightarrow{\text{yesterday}} (m) E,R - S$$
$$\text{yesterday}$$
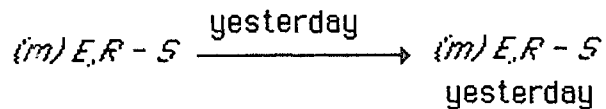
Although Hornstein's quasi-Reichenbachian account of tense does not remedy the drawbacks found in Reichenbach's original framework such as overcapacity in the structures of Posterior Past and Anterior Future (which are represented as having three structures respectively), it shows us the importance of time adverbs in relation to the formulation of tense in language. This is in keeping with what Crystal (1966, pp. 3,16) has found, that is, that time adverbs have a crucial role to play in determining tense forms in English.

3.5 Comrie's Theory of Tense and Aspect
3.5.1 Tense

Comrie (1985, pp. 9-10) defines tense as grammaticalisation of locating situations in time. Such location of situations in time is made possible by the employment of the notion of the deictic centre, the 'now' of speech or in Lyons' term (1968, p. 305) the 'now' of the time of utterance. Thus a situation in the past is located before the deictic centre S; a situation in the present is located simultaneously with S and a situation in the future is located after S. This is essentially Reichenbachian but Comrie's framework differs from that of Reichenbach's on several counts.

Comrie (1981, 1985) suggests some modifications of Reichenbachian theory of tense by dismissing the notion of R in the characterisation of absolute tenses. He argues that since R coincides with S or E in these tenses, (i.e., in Reichenbachian formulation: present tense E,R,S; past tense E,R - S; and future tense S - R,E) he suggests that the R in these formulations is not required (See Bertinetto, 1985, p. 42). Comrie (1985) proposes the formulations of past tense, present tense and future tense (i.e., absolute tenses) as follows (17).

(17)	past tense	E before S
	present tense	E simul S
	future tense	E after S

Another modification concerns the number of R's which are required for the specification of some non-absolute (relative) tenses such as the English Conditional Perfect or Past Future Perfect Tense. In so doing Comrie is able to pinpoint the structure of the conditional perfect tense not included in the original 9 basic tenses of Reichenbach.

To overcome the problem of overcapacity in the case of the structure of future perfect tense S - E - R; S,E - R and E - S - R as

advanced by Reichenbach, Comrie argues that the location of E *relative* S in this tense is undetermined. The location of E *after* S in the future perfect tense is an implicature. In the case of overcapacity in the structure of future-in-the-past tense R - E - S; R - S,E and R - S - $E,$ Comrie makes use of the terms 'after' and 'before' relations among the three points.

With better specification of 'before' and 'after' relations and by allowing more than one R as well as the establishment of S as the known or given point together with the employment of the notion 'implicature', Comrie essentially succeeds in overcoming the problem of overcapacity with the Reichenbachian structures.

To distinguish between those tenses which require R and those which do not, Comrie resorts to the use of the term 'absolute-relative' tense to be defined as a tense which locates a situation with respect to an absolute time reference and a relative time reference. An absolute tense is defined as a tense the meaning of which includes the present moment as a deictic centre; while a relative tense is defined as a tense the meaning of which is interpreted relative to some contextual reference point not excluding the present moment (See Chung and Timberlake, 1985, pp. 203, 260). Examples of absolute-relative tenses in English include pluperfect tense, future perfect tense, future-in-the-past tense and past future perfect tense. Incorporating these notions coupled with the degrees of remoteness into his framework, Comrie is able to introduce a very succinct formula which is arguably applicable to the formulation of tense in human language as in (18).

(18) E (relative $R)^n$ (relative S)
       magn   magn

where E refers to any tenseless situation
        R refers to a reference point

S   refers to the (present) moment of speech

relative   refers to any of the following relations: *simul(taneous), before, after, not-before, not-after*

n   refers to the number of *R's* or reference points, i.e., R_1, R_2, R_3, etc.

magn   (from magnitude) refers to the degrees of distance in time between the situation and the deictic centre

There is no indication as to how the (present) perfect is represented in Comrie's succinct formula except in treating it as past tense, but other tenses presumably found in the languages of the world are succinctly articulated in the following way (19).

(19)

Absolute Tenses	*E*	*relative*	*S*
present tense	*E*	*simul*	*S*
past tense	*E*	*before*	*S*
future tense	*E*	*after*	*S*
non-past tense	*E*	*not-before*	*S*
non-future tense	*E*	*not-after*	*S*

Relative Tenses	*E*	*relative*	*R*
relative present tense	*E*	*simul*	*R*
relative past tense	*E*	*before*	*R*
relative future tense	*E*	*after*	*R*
relative non-past tense	*E*	*not-before*	*R*
relative non-future tense	*E*	*not-after*	*R*

Absolute-Relative Tenses	*E relative* R^n *relative* *S*
pluperfect tense	*E before R before S*
future perfect tense	*E before R after S*
future-in-the-future tense	*E after R after S*
future-in-the-past tense	*E after R before S*
future perfect in the past/ conditional perfect tense/ past future perfect tense	*E before* R_1 *after* R_2 *before S*

Tenses with Remoteness Distinction/Temporal Distance

$$E \quad relative \quad S$$
$$magn$$

yesterday-past tense	E before S one day
today-future tense	E after S later-today

Other Tense Combinations

'still' tense	presupp. :	E_1	before	S
	assert :	E_1	simul	S
'no longer' tense	presupp. :	E_1	before	S
	assert :	not $(E_1$ simul $S)$		

3.5.2   Aspect

Comrie (1976, 1985), defines aspect as a way of viewing the internal structure of a situation which is grammaticalised in a particular language. Comrie's use of the expression 'viewing' to characterise the notion of 'aspect' is in keeping with what Thelin (1990) reminds the aspectology theoreticians by recalling "the meaning of the Latin word underlying the grammatical term 'aspect': *aspectus* (from *aspicere)*, i.e., 'view' or 'point of view' " (p. 5). Aspect, unlike tense, which is defined as grammatical-isation of locating situations in time, is non-deictic (Comrie 1985, p. 14; Lyons, 1977, p. 705; Quirk, et al., 1985, p. 188). That is, the discussion or description of the internal structure of a situation can be independent of its relation to any other time point(s). But in a sense, aspect concerns time. A situation reported through an expression which calls attention to aspectual characteristics occurred actually in time as did a situation reported through an expression which calls attention to tense characteristics.

To make a clear distinction between tense and aspect it is necessary to draw an even clearer distinction between form and

meaning than Comrie has done and to refer to the basic meaning of each of the two categories. Tense is related to 'temporal/time reference' while aspect is only indirectly related to it. Aspect is directly related to the notion of 'aspectual reference'. The distinction suggested can be seen in Fig. 4.
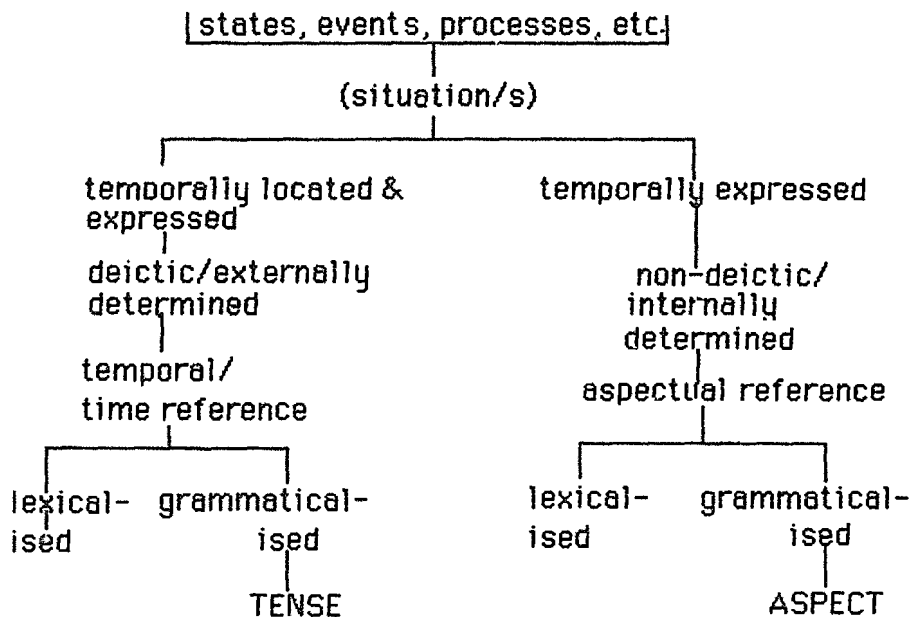
Fig. 4: A proposed model to describe the distinction between temporal/time reference, tense, aspectual reference and aspect[2]

Here the term 'aspect' is related to the notion of 'aspectual reference' which is basically related to the internal structure of a situation — hence it is internally determined. The term 'tense' is understood to be related to the deictic centre and hence it is externally determined. The terms 'tense' and 'aspect' in this scheme are restricted to grammaticalised forms.

The distinction between grammaticalisation and lexicalisation is not always clear-cut. However, it is normally assumed that grammaticalised time reference constitutes tense and grammaticalised aspect, i.e., aspectual reference, is simply called aspect. An example of grammaticalised aspectual distinction

which is well-known and pervasive in the Slavonic languages is that between perfectivity and imperfectivity. In most verbal systems of the Slavonic languages there exists a pair of forms, that is, one in perfective and the other in imperfective.

Perfectivity and imperfectivity seem to constitute a valid aspectual distinction. They differ in the way the internal structure of a situation is viewed. The different ways of viewing the same situation give rise to the possibility of expressing the same situation perfectively or imperfectively depending on one's view of the internal structure of a situation in question. If one views the internal structure of a situation as a whole one uses a perfective form to express it, if it is grammaticalised in the language. If, on the other hand, one views the internal structure of a situation as unfolding, viewing the beginning, the middle or the end of the situation one will most likely use a grammaticalised imperfective form. Thus the same situation in a certain language can be expressed either perfectively or imperfectively.

The perfective-imperfective dichotomy is useful in so far as it is applied to the Slavonic languages. However, it could be misleading to apply this dichotomous distinction rigidly to some other languages of the world. It is unfortunate that in reference to the English system of aspect, the terms 'perfective' (Quirk, et al., 1972, pp. 90ff., 1973, pp. 40ff., 1985, pp. 188ff.) and 'imperfective' are applied (Muir, 1972, p. 137; Quirk, et al., 1985, pp. 189). Dahl (1985, p. 69) has observed that the perfective-imperfective dichotomy seems to be rather idiosyncratic in many ways to the Slavonic languages. Still, these two terms can be related to other aspectual categories such as progressive/ non-progressive aspect, habitual aspect as is shown in Fig. 5.

```
                        |
        ┌───────────────┴───────────────┐
    Perfective                     Imperfective
                            ┌───────────────┴───────────────┐
                        Habitual                      Continuous
                                            ┌───────────────┴───────────────┐
                                    Nonprogressive               Progressive
```
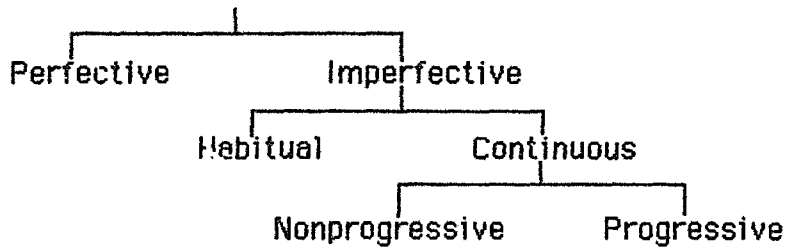
Fig. 5: Comrie's classification of aspectual oppositions
        (1976, p. 25)

In terms of Comrie's classification of aspectual oppositions,
progressive aspect is accounted for under 'continuous
imperfective'; 'habitual aspect' under 'habitual imperfective'.

3.6   Other Theories on Tense and Aspect
3.6.1   Dahl

Osten Dahl (1985) uses different kinds of typological data
from a wide range of languages drawn from questionnaires. He has
shown that a small set of cross-linguistic TMA (tense, mood and
aspect) categories can be derived from the multitude of such
categories found in the languages of the world. These categories
are characterised by morphosyntactic and semantic properties, in
particular by the prototypical contexts and typical morphological
and syntactic manifestations.

Dahl (1985) has found that out of 17 clear cases of past
tense in the languages he investigated, 15 were marked
morphologically whereas out of 19 clear cases of progressive,
only 1 was marked morphologically. Dahl also shows that among
the languages of the world that he has investigated the past and
perfective/imperfective categories tend to be obligatory. But it is
the perfective/imperfective and progressive that are among the
typical aspectual categories. In contrast to the category of past
which is mostly manifested morphologically, the progressive is
mostly expressed periphrastically and is independent of time or
temporal reference. The perfective/imperfective, however, is

typically expressed morphologically and closely related to the tense category past.

Another interesting point in Dahl's work is his finding that future is shown to be universally represented in the data but unlike past it is often expressed periphrastically and less often obligatorily than the past. Other TMA categories include perfect, pluperfect, habitual past, etc. Dahl has also found that perfect is a relatively uniform category crosslinguistically (1985, p. 129).

3.6.2 Bache

Carl Bache (1982, 1985a, 1985b, 1986b) is of the opinion that the current metalinguistic account of aspect found in the literature is inadequate because a number of scholars such as Lyons (1977) and Comrie (1976) have intentionally ignored the notion of 'Aktionsart' in their description. Carl Bache has argued that it is mandatory to make the distinction between aspect and 'Aktionsart' before one delves into the wilderness of the aspectual properties of languages (1985b, p. 2). He argues that failure to recognise the distinction between aspect and 'Aktionsart' is responsible for the confusion found in the literature (1982, p. 59). Bache (1985b, pp. 10-11) states that even though "an indefinitely large number of Aktionsarten is present in all languages" (p. 10) it does not mean that "Aktionsart is equivalent to the actual meaning of verbs" (p. 10). He shows that the term 'Aktionsart' in the literature is used to describe not the lexical differences *per se* for instance between *run* and *swim* but the differences between the type of situation which concerns either the 'manner' in which the situation is performed or takes place or the 'phasal constituency' of the situation. In terms of Aktionsart, *Alex took the book out of my hand* differs from *Alex snatched the book out of my hand* (p. 11) because the manner of

the situations performed is different. Similarly, in terms of Aktionsart, *Yesterday Alex phoned Sally on his way home* differs from *Once a week Alex phoned Sally on his way home* (p. 10) because the 'phasal constituency' of the situations differ in that the 'phoning' in the former is reported to have been performed once whereas the 'phoning' in the latter is reported to have been performed regularly or habitually (1985b, pp. 10-11).

To distinguish between aspect and Aktionsart Bache (1982, pp. 64, 70) advances the following definitions. Aspect is defined as the speaker/writer's view of the action or situation described reflecting the situational focus, whereas Aktionsart is defined as either the manner in which an action or situation develops or proceeds in a particular circumstance or the procedural charac-teristics ascribed to a situation. He also distinguishes the notions of tense, Aktionsart and aspect by introducing the terms 'temporality', 'actionality' and 'aspectuality' (1985b, 1986b). His definition of 'temporality' is essentially in consonance with Comrie's definition of tense in that it is defined as a chronological location of a situation with respect to the moment of communication. Bache (1985b, 1986b) uses "the term 'temporality' to cover the governing principle or abstract concept attached to the metalinguistic category of tense" (1985b, pp. 101-102). Evidently Bache (1985b, p. 102, 1986b, p. 90) argues that the structure of the metalinguistic category of tense concerns the deictic time, i.e., past, present and future as shown in Fig. 6.

```
                      ┌─  past/anteriority
  +TEMPORALITY   ──────┼─  present/simultaneity
        │             └─  future/posteriority
        │
        │
  −TEMPORALITY
```
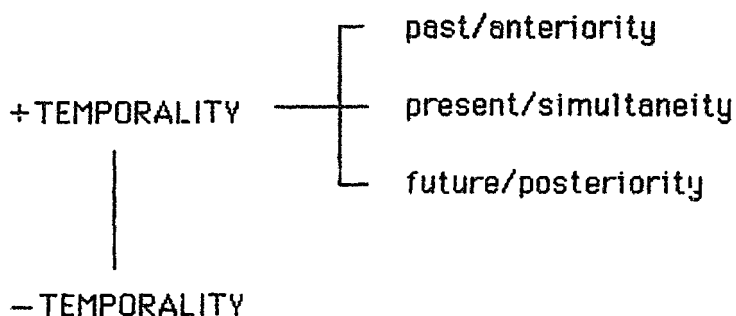
Fig. 6: Bache's proposed structure of the metalinguistic
category of tense (1985b, 1986b).

The terms 'anteriority', 'simultaneity' and posteriority' are used in accordance with the conception of 'what is before now', 'now' and 'after now'. 'Actionality' is defined as either the manner a situation develops or the procedural characteristics of a situation while 'aspectuality' seems to be defined in terms of the perfective/imperfective opposition.

In working out the meanings of aspect, Bache makes use of substitutional relations which operate with four main types of construction. The four types of constructions thought to be interrelated are postulated in Fig. 7 (1985a, pp. 64-65, 1985b, p. 42).

```
                    ┌/-opposed /
  constructions──────┤            ┌/-substitutable/
                    └/+opposed/──┤              ┌/-distinctive/
                                 └/+substitutable/──┤
                                                └/+distinctive/
```
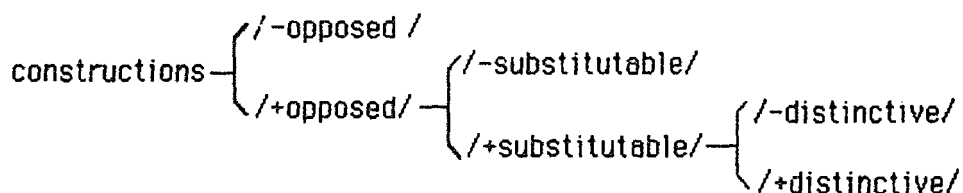
Fig. 7: Bache's model to describe the relationship between
the four types of constructions (1985a, 1985b)

A. The first type of constructions are /-opposed/ constructions. These are constructions which are not amenable to the substitutional procedure. Examples of these include some English verbs such as *contain, own, possess,* etc., which do not take progressive aspect.

B. The second type are /-substitutable/ constructions. These are /+opposed/ constructions in which the change of forms leads to ungrammaticality. An illustration for this is in (20).

(20) a. *There goes a born soldier*
b. **There is going a born soldier*

The change of *goes* to *is going* results in ungrammaticality.

C. The third type are /+distinctive/ constructions. These are /+substitutable/ constructions in which the change of aspect leads to a difference of tense or Aktionsart as shown in (21a) and (21b). (21a) does not convey progressive aspect but (21b) does.

(21)   a.*What she looks for, above all, is a picture with 'a point'*
b.*What she is looking for, above all, is a picture with 'a point'*

D. The fourth type are /-distinctive/ constructions. These are /+substitutable/ constructions in which the change of form does not really change the meaning, as in (22).

(22) a. *I had a chat with him the other day*
b. *I was having a chat with him the other day*

Bache (1985a, pp. 59, 65) argues that (22a) and (22b) refer to potentially the same situation. These examples are saying the same thing but in different ways: (22a) has external focus whereas (22b) internal focus.

One interesting finding concerning the English verbal aspect is that according to Bache (1985b, pp. 303-306) the English progressive is an aspectual category while the English (present) perfect is not shown to be a clear case of aspectual category. No direct account is given by Bache of the characterisation of tenses but implicitly he seems to be in favour of Comrie's account of tense (Bache, 1986a, p. 70). As regard to Aktionsart, from his data Bache (1985b) shows that Aktionsart in English is "far from a rigid formal category" (p. 12) but he states that there are common more or less interrelated oppositions of Aktionsart in the

literature between punctual vs. durative, dynamic vs. stative, telic vs. atelic, ingressive vs. terminative, semelfactive vs. iterative, habitual vs. non-habitual (p. 13). (See Lyons, 1977, pp. 703-18; Szemerenyi, 1987, p. 9).

3.6.3   Declerck

Renaat Declerck (1986) criticises Comrie's account of the (present) perfect which he considers to be incorrect. In particular, Declerck argues against taking current relevance as the basic meaning of the (present) perfect. To support his argument he adduces an example in which the simple past in English also conveys current relevance (Declerck, 1986, pp. 310-11), as in (23).

> (23) *I know what Tom is like. I spent my holidays with him*
> *two years ago.*

In (23), there is current relevance and yet the simple past is used. Declerck goes on to argue that if *for the last two years* were used instead of *two years ago* the (present) perfect would have to be used. This indicates that current relevance is not the primary factor determining the use of the present perfect.

To remedy the defect Declerck introduces the terms 'time referred to' *(TR)*, 'time of orientation' *(TO)*, 'time of situation' *(TS)* and 'time of utterance' *(TU)*. Essentially *TS* corresponds to Reichenbach's and Comrie's *E*, *TU* to *S* and *TR*, *TO* to *R*. Two relations are employed, i.e., precedence and simultaneity, and like Comrie, Declerck also adopts the terms *'simul'*, *'before'* and *'after'*. To distinguish the past tense form from the (present) perfect he uses the term *'wholly before'* or *'before$_1$'* for the former and *'before-and-up-to'* or *'before$_2$'* for the latter. Based on these, Declerck (1986, pp. 362-63) postulates the following English tenses.

> (24) present tense   *TS simul t simul   TU*

past tense	TS *simul* t *before*$_1$ TU
present perfect	TS *simul* t *before*$_2$ TU
past perfect	TS *simul* t_i *before* t_j *before*$_1$ TU
conditional	TS *simul* t_i *after* t_j *before*$_1$ TU
conditional perfect	TS *simul* t_i *before* t_j *after* t_k *before*$_1$ TU
future tense	TS *simul* t *after* TU
future perfect tense	TS *simul* t_i *before* t_j *after* TU

where *TS*   refers to the time of situation
       TU   refers to the time of utterance
       t   refers to *TR* and *TO*
       subscripts *i,j,k* refer to different *t*'s
       before$_1$ refers to *wholly before*
       before$_2$ refers to *before-and-up-to*
       before   subsumes *before*$_1$ and *before*$_2$

No mention is made by Declerck of aspect. In this framework Declerck evidently groups the perfect with other tenses (See Declerck, 1988, pp. 39-43).

3.7   A Unified Theory of Tense and A 'Theory' of Aspect
3.7.1   A Unified Theory of Tense

As the term implies, 'unified' here is intended to indicate a unity — a single framework which can be used to account for a tense and a number of the related phenomena in human language. Comrie's model may be taken as the foundation of such an undertaking, for crosslinguistically it succinctly represents the tense phenomena investigated (25).

(25) $E \ (relative \ R)^n \ (relative \ S)$
                   magn   *magn*

By incorporating Declerck's suggestion into Comrie's succinct formula, (Declerck, 1986, 1988), the (present) perfect or at least the English Present Perfect can be represented as in (25a).

(25a) E^1 *before-and-up-to* S

where E^1 refers to a situation with perfect meaning

before-and-up-to S means *'before-and-up-to S'* relation

In order to subsume it under Comrie's succinct formula one can perhaps include *relative* to mean *before-and-up-to* in addition to *simul, before, after, not-before, not-after.* In this way the (present) perfect is included in the formula. It is still open to question, however, whether this formula is applicable to BI for this language is claimed to be a tenseless language (Lyons, 1977, p. 678). Gonda (1954, pp. 241, 247) has rightly pointed out that scholars of repute on Indonesian linguistics have perhaps too often neglected or left undiscussed the question of whether tense exists in Indonesian languages or not.

3.7.2   A 'Theory' of Aspect

Aspect is no less controversial a term in general linguistics than is tense. It is a well known fact that scholars in the field are divided in this respect. For example, Comrie (1976, pp. 6-7) and Lyons (1977, pp. 705-6) have indicated that to establish an adequate characterisation of aspect as a general metalinguistic category it is of paramount importance from the start to discard the term 'Aktionsart'. They maintain that this term is unsatisfactory as it refers to the inherent meaning of a lexical verb which may have different realizations. That is, a particular verb may have different inherent meanings. Comrie (1976, p. 41) speaks of inherent or semantic 'aspectual properties' to refer to such phenomena whereas Lyons (1977, p. 706) speaks of the 'aspectual characters' of verbs in referring to apparently the same thing. Thus, in accounting for these aspectual properties or characters several terms have come to be used such as 'punctual', 'durative', 'telic', 'atelic', 'stative', 'dynamic', 'iterative', 'inchoative', etc., (See Bache, 1985b, p. 13; Lyons, 1977, pp. 703-718; Szemerenyi, 1987, p. 9).

Scholars who vehemently advocate that the distinction between 'Aktionsart' and aspect must be maintained if a satisfactory metalinguistic account of aspect is to be achieved are Goedsche (1940) and Bache (1982, 1985b). Because Bache (1982, p. 64) defines aspect as the speaker/writer's view of an action or situation described and 'Aktionsart' either as the manner in which the action or situation develops, or the procedural characteristics ascribed to a situation, his character- isation of aspect and 'Aktionsart' is different from that of Comrie. Comrie (1976, p. 3) defines aspect, minus 'Aktionsart' as a way of viewing the internal structure of a situation. Bache (1982, 1985b) emphasizes the internal structure of a situation *in terms of* 'Aktionsart', whereas Comrie's characterisation of aspect evidently incorporates the notion of 'Aktionsart'. Hence if one uses Comrie's definition of aspect, the term 'Aktionsart' is not required to describe the phenomena in question.

Baker (1989, p. 474) accounts for the 'aspect' of a sentence by focusing "on the way in which the event or state itself, considered in isolation, spreads out in time". Here, one does not view the relations between the time of an event or state and some other time.

Quirk, et al., (1972, p. 90, 1973, p. 40, 1985, p. 188) define aspect relevant to that of English as a grammatical category reflecting the way the verb action is regarded or experienced with respect to time in the sense that "the expression of time present and past cannot be considered separately from aspect" (1973, p. 40). Quirk, et al., (1985, p. 188) state that although aspect is related to time it is not deictic. In this characterisation the notion of time is implicitly employed. Like other writers on the topic, Quirk, et al., do not explicitly establish the distinction

between lexicalised and grammaticalised aspectual character-
istics. Fig. 8 shows how an 'action' and the 'speaker/addressee'
are interrelated as implied in Quirk, et al.,'s framework.

aspect   [Action] ⟸===⟹ [speaker/addressee]

⟸======⟹ : the manner
in which the
verbal action
is regarded or
experienced
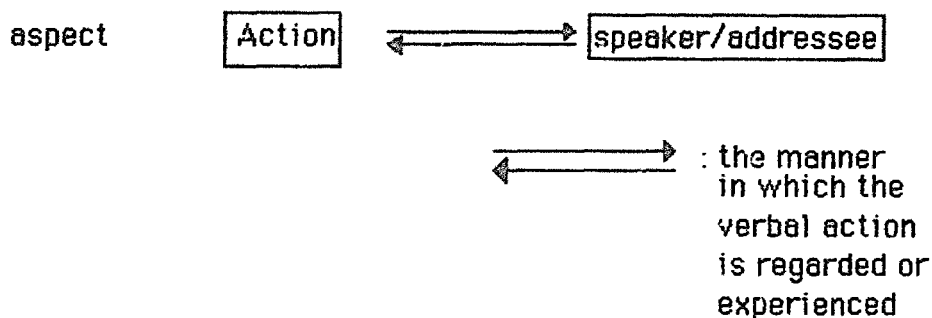
Fig. 8: Representation of Quirk, et al.,'s view of English aspect
as a grammatical category (1972, 1973, 1985)

Bache, Baker, Comrie and Quirk, et al., despite the
differences, seem to characterise the notion of 'aspect' in a more
or less uniform manner. Comrie (1976, 1985) emphasizes the way
of viewing the internal structure of a situation; Bache refers to
the speaker/writer's view of an action or situation; Quirk, et al.,
point to the manner the verbal action is regarded or experienced;
Baker talks of the way the event obtains in time. Comrie's
characterisation of aspect, however, is the most satisfactory in
that to characterise the basic meaning, 'aspect' is defined
separately from 'tense'. In addition several related phenomena to
the notion of aspect, i.e., 'time', 'time reference', 'grammatical-
isation', 'lexicalisation', 'meaning', 'implicature', peripheral
meaning(s) are proposed by Comrie. Also, Comrie has shown that
the distinction between 'perfective' and 'imperfective' is
characteristic of the Slavonic languages.

The interaction or interplay between aspect and other
related phenomena has not been given sufficient attention in the
literature particularly with the formulation of tense-aspect
complexes.

The question whether (present) perfect is a category of

aspect or tense is elusive. For, depending on one's view, the category of (present) perfect can be included under tense or aspect or even outside both. If, as implicit in Comrie (1976), the category of perfect is considered outside aspect and tense, one may postulate the interrelationship as shown in Fig. 9 (See Fig. 4 in this Chapter).

| states, events, processes, etc.|
(situation/s)

temporally located & expressed   temporally expressed
                  temporally expressed

deictic/externally determined   non-deictic/ internally determined

temporal/ time reference   perfect   aspectual reference

lexical- ised   grammatical- ised   lexical- ised   grammatical- ised

TENSE   ASPECT

|tense-aspect complexes|
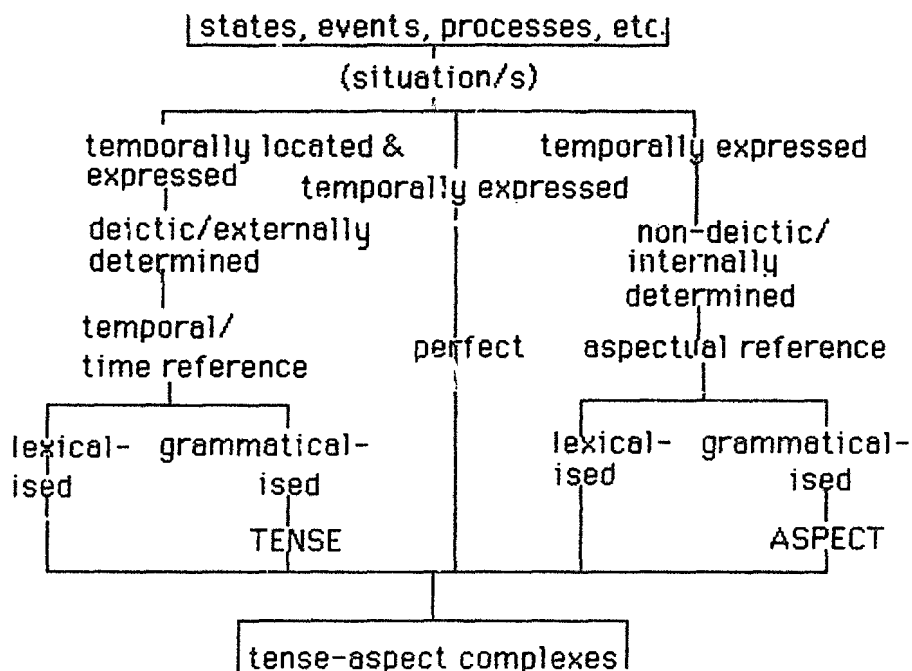
Fig. 9: A proposed model to describe tense-aspect complexes and their interrelationship

In this figure (present) perfect is distinct from tense. But the English Past Tense and (Present) Perfect, for example, do not differ in terms of locating situations in time (Comrie, 1985, p. 41). If this were true, the (present) perfect should be included under grammaticalised time reference in particular if the emphasis is on the *before-and-up-to S* relation, which is clearly deictic. If the emphasis is on the accomplished nature of the situation, the (present) perfect can be analysed under grammaticalised aspect. It is suggested in this thesis that in

either case situations are after all expressible as tense-aspect complexes in which case the distinction proposed may be blurred or considered irrelevant. When (present) perfect, tense and aspect interact, the distinction proposed is blurred. But when a description of each category is called for, different character-isations can be employed. It is interesting to note that, with regard to the (present) perfect, Hyman (1984, p. 81) has it identified both as tense and aspect. Bauer (1970, p.197) argues that the English (Present) Perfect can be regarded neither as a tense nor an aspect. Salkie (1987) states that "Bache takes great pains to argue that the English perfect does not instantiate the category of aspect . . ." (p. 136).

In this study, as shown in Fig. 9, time or temporality is assumed to be the superordinate domain for all the three categories: tense, aspect and perfect in the sense that the three categories can be related to time. Hence the term 'temporally expressed' is used in Fig. 9. A situation reported through an expression which calls attention either to aspectual or tense or perfect characteristics did occur in time.

For pedagogical purposes, perfect is treated as a special category. Comrie (1976) states that perfect is an aspect in a rather different sense from "different ways of representing the internal temporal constitution of a situation" (p. 52). Thus, perfect here is assumed to be distinct from the perfective-imperfective dichotomy.

3.8 Interaction between tense, aspect, (present) perfect, 'mood/modality', 'pragmatic issues' and time: beyond the unified theory of tense (Comrie, 1985)

The terms 'tense', 'aspect', '(present) perfect' and 'time' have been characterised in this Chapter. Other terms or concepts which have a bearing on verb structures and which interact with the aforementioned grammatical categories also require attention in a unified comparative framework. These are 'mood/modality' and 'pragmatic issues'.

The study adopts the assumption that 'modality' expresses modal concepts which "are understood concepts of what is possible, what is necessary, what is probable, what is conceivable, and the like" (Davidsen-Nielsen, 1990, p. 43). In this framework, the real world is disregarded and changed to "possible worlds which may be divided into different types (called modalities) according to the conceptual framework whithin which an event or proposition is considered real or true" (p. 43). (Also see Lyons, 1977, pp. 452, 787ff.). Davidsen-Nielsen (1990, pp. 43-44) distinguishes three basic modalities as follow: (i) those which concern 'rational laws of inference and deduction', i.e., epistemic — *The economy may get worse;* (ii) those which concern 'social or institutional laws', i.e., deontic — *He should go to bed,* and (iii) those which are relevant to 'natural laws', i.e., dynamic — *She can swim,* respectively.[3]

Specifically, Davidsen-Nielsen (1990, p. 48) defines modality as "a qualification whereby a speaker operates with alternatives to the current actual world", and mood as 'grammatically expressed modality (pp. 46, 48) either morphologically by means of verbal inflection, syntactically by means of auxiliaries or lexically by means of 'full verbs, adjectives, participles and

adverbs'. In other words, the term 'mood' is understood as 'grammaticalised modality' and 'modality' is a semantic notion of 'altered' world which can be expressed either grammatically or lexically.

In this study the term 'mood/modality' will be used to accommodate both grammaticalised and lexicalised modality, in Davidsen-Nielsen's terms. For the problems in making a clear distinction between 'mood' and 'modality' see Palmer (1986, pp. 3-7, 21-23).

'Pragmatic issues' in this study is a term used to refer to such dimensions as courtesy patterns and other matters relevant to speaker/hearer or writer/reader relationships.

Tense, aspect, (present) perfect, 'mood/modality', 'pragmatic issues' and time are known to interact. They impinge on each other whether they are grammaticalised or lexicalised (Also see Binnick, 1991, p. 67; Halliday, 1970, 1973; Lyons, 1968, pp. 309, 311, 1977, pp. 52-53, Quirk, et al., 1972, 1973, 1985). To account for this intricate interrelationship a distinction will be made in this study between prototypical and non-prototypical uses of tense-aspect complexes. In Chapter IV the interaction between on the one hand 'mood/modality' and 'pragmatic issues' and tense, aspect and (present) perfect on the other will be explored in relation to English. In Chapter V the same interaction will be considered for BI.

3.9   Summary

The argument propounded in this study is that tense is basically related to time. As such, tense is necessarily deictic. In this study it is argued that the deictic notions of past and present are implicitly understood even in the formal account of tense in TG. With regard to tense as a deictic category a question is raised

as to how an apparently tenseless language like BI expresses the notions of deictic time in particular those which correspond to the semantics of tense.

Confusion in the account of tense-aspect complexes is commonly caused by treating them as inseparable entities. But it is now generally accepted that tense and aspect can be treated separately. As shown in Figs. 4 and 9 this chapter argues that the notions of 'temporal/time reference' and 'aspectual reference' should be separated in order to provide a satisfactory account of tense-aspect complexes. Thus, the term 'tense' in this thesis is used to refer to grammaticalised time reference while the term 'aspect' is seen as related to grammaticalised aspectual reference. Comrie has emphasized the relation between tense and time reference but he has not developed what the author argues as being a parallel relationship between aspectual reference and aspect. The establishment of such a distinction seems to be necessary for comparative descriptions for pedagogical purposes,

By adopting Comrie's succinct formula together with Declerck's suggestion, attempts are made to formulate the (present) perfect under Comrie's unified account of tense. No unified account of aspect is attempted but by recognising the distinction between grammaticalised aspect and aspectual character of certain lexical verbs or items and the distinction between aspectual reference and time reference, a clear dividing line between tense, aspect and (present) perfect is drawn. In treating the (present) perfect it is argued that the (present) perfect can be analysed under aspect, or under tense or even outside both categories but is still related in its own way to both tense and aspect. Indeed, the present perfect of English seems to be distinct in terms of tense and aspect and this is what makes it

a unique category. The study will attempt to establish correspondences between the English present perfect and related phenomena expressed in BI.

In Comrie's unified account of tense, presumably applicable to any human language, the basic meanings of primary (absolute) tenses seem to be applicable to the notions underlying 'tense-like expressions' in BI which is claimed to be a tenseless language. To examine these correspondences, basic meanings of tenses and time expressions in English and related phenomena found in BI will be compared. The existing commonalities in the tense system and time expressions in both English and BI will be established.

The interaction between tense-aspect complexes and other related grammatical categories, such as 'mood/modality' and 'pragmatic issues' needs to be explored to go beyond the unified theory of tense (Comrie, 1985).

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[1]McTaggart (1908, p. 458) uses the term 'events' to refer to "the contents of a position in time", and he uses the term 'a moment' to refer to a position in time.

[2]The term 'etc.' is used in a way similar to that found in Comrie's books on aspect (1976, p. 13) and on tense (1985, p. 5); the term 'situation' is used as a cover-term for the sake of convenience. It is a technical term (See Comrie, 1985, p. 5) encompasing states, events and processes.

[3]Lyons (1977, pp. 787-849) distinguishes between *alethic* modality, *epistemic* modality and *deontic* modality.

Chapter IV

Time Concepts in English as Reflected in Tense-Aspect Complexes

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the analysis of the English tense-aspect complexes using Comrie's framework, viz., the unified theory of tense and the theory of aspect, and Declerck's characterisation of the English Present Perfect. Based on this framework along with the models proposed in Chapter III, attempts are made to describe the meanings/functions of the English tense-aspect complexes. Interaction between the English tense, aspect, 'mood/modality', (present) perfect and time is subsequently presented. The meanings of the English tense-aspect complexes including both basic and peripheral meanings are described. It will be shown that the basic meanings of the English tense-aspect complexes can be described independently whereas the description of the peripheral meanings of these complexes necessitates the description of the interaction between tense, aspect, 'mood/modality', (present) perfect and time.

4.1 'Tense' and Time Concepts

As discussed in Chapter III a conceptualisation of time extending from past to future is made possible by the relation between the present moment and the past moments creating the notion of succession. Viewed from this point of view, man, the world over, is thought to possess more or less the same time concepts. But when it comes to interpreting the 'temporal' meaning of sentences, i.e., 'tense-time relationship', such as that of English, one of the most complex problems in linguistics emerges. Hence scholars working on the subject have not yet attained complete success for there remain, albeit implicitly,

controversies, embarrassment, disputes and uncertainty amongst them (Braroe, 1974, p. v; Comrie, 1985, p. ix; Lyons, 1968, p. 306; Stubbs, 1983, p. 25; Weinrich, 1970, p. 32).

4.2   Tense in English

There is a considerable amount of disagreement among scholars concerning the tense-aspect complexes of English. One group of scholars maintains that English has only two tenses proper, (i.e., past versus non-past or present tenses versus past tenses where present tenses include expressions for future time reference), while others argue that there is a need to recognise a tripartite time division of past, present and future in the description of the English tense system.

According to the proponents of TG grammar, English has only two tenses proper. In this framework it is argued that tense is unrelated to time. But the term 'English past' or 'present tense' is generally assumed to indicate anteriority to the moment of speech or non-anteriority to the moment of speech respectively.

Although it is argued by TG grammarians that the English tense is either past or present, several scholars from both quarters, i.e., proponents of TG framework and a deictic theory of tense, still provide room for some kind of congruence between tense and the tripartite time division of past, present and future. Thus, Braroe (1974) maintaining that the surface realisation of the English tense is either past or present proposes the following relation   (pp. 158-59).
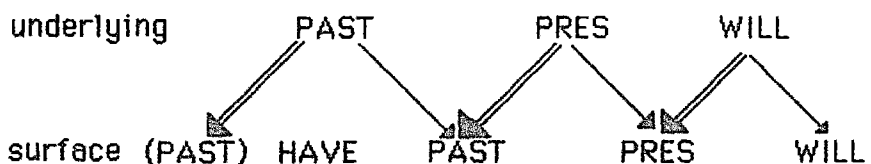
Fig. 12: A model that shows the relation between the under-

lying and the surface English tense markers
(Braroe, 1974, pp. 158-9)

If such a relation is considered valid, one cannot fail to notice that there exists an entity identified as *WILL* at both underlying representation and surface realisation (See Baker,1989, pp. 37, 439-40; Chapter III, Section 3.2). Huddleston (1969, pp. 786-87), while maintaining that English has two tenses proper, recognises that if tense as a deictic category is applied to the deep structure, a tripartite time division of past, present and future is required. (See Huddleston, 1989, pp. 8, 59, 84, 96).

Proponents of tense as a deictic category strongly argue that tense distinctions including those of English are determined with respect to the moment of speech which is identified as a reference point called the deictic centre (Comrie, 1985, p. 14; Ch. III Section 3.3). Based on this reference point three relations can be established, i.e., 'before', 'simultaneous' and 'after'. 'Before' relation constitutes the past, 'simultaneous' relation the present and 'after' relation the future.

If the arguments proposeu by Braroe (1974), Huddleston (1969) and those proposing tense as a deictic category (Bache, 1985a, 1985b; Bull, 1ᴄ60; Comrie, 1976, 1981, 1982, 1985, 1986a, 1986b; Dahl, 1935; Davidsen-Nielsen, 1988, 1990; Declerck, 1986, 1988: Hornstein, 1977, 1990 and Reichenbach, 1947) are synthesised, the tripartite time division has to be seen as related in one way or another with English tense distinctions.

Bull (1960, p. 28) has produced cross-linguistic evidence to support the view that almost all people have the same concepts of time. As pointed out in Chapter III, Section 3.7.1, Comrie (1985) has shown from his cross-linguistic study that tense as a grammatical category can succinctly be formulated as in the following:

$$E \ (relative \ R)^n \quad (relative \ S)$$
$$magn \qquad\qquad magn$$

where E refers to any tenseless situation
R refers to a reference point
S refers to the (present) moment of speech
relative refers to any of the following relations:
simul(taneous), before, after, not-before, not-after
n refers to the number of R's or reference
points, i.e., R_1, R_2, R_3, etc.
magn (from magnitude) refers to the degrees of distance
in time between the situation and the deictic centre

This formula can be applied to languages with tense distinctions (Comrie, 1985). For example, Bamileke-Dschang of Bantu language is reported to have five past tenses, i.e., P_1, P_2, P_3, P_4 and P_5 (Comrie, 1985, p. 97). P_1 refers to *immediate* past, P_2 *earlier on today* past, P_3 *yesterday* past, P_4 *the-day-before-yesterday* or *a-few-days-earlier* past, P_5 *a year or more* past. Using Comrie's formula one may formulate P_1, P_2, P_3, P_4, P_5 respectively as follows.

P_1	E	*before*	S	*immediate*
P_2	E	*before*	S	*earlier-on-today*
P_3	E	*before*	S	*one day*
P_4	E	*before*	S	*two days to a few days*
P_5	E	*before*	S	*one year or more*

Comrie (1985) argues that his succinct formula (1) can be used as the base on which the uses of the English tenses may be described. This implies the inclusion of the existence of future tense in the English tense system.

The suggestion that the category of future tense in English deserves a separate treatment is based on the fact that, first, there are severe constraints on the use of the English Present Tense for future time reference irrespective of the fact that in

many European languages the basic tense split is past versus non-past where the non-past or present is also used to express future time reference (Comrie, 1982, pp. 143-52, 1985, pp. 47-49). Secondly, there are different uses of *will* in English, i.e., modal and temporal. See 4.2.1.3 for further discussion o *will*.

The controversy over the debate whether English has future tense or not is still unresolved (Comrie, 1985, p. 47). The following scholars have argued that English has only two tenses past and non-past or preterite and present: Braroe (1974, pp. 12, 159), Foley and Van Valin, Jr., (1984, p. 226), Huddleston (1969, p. 777, 1984, pp. 143-76, 1989, p. 96), Jespersen (1933, p. 231), Joos (1964, p. 120), Lyons (1968, p. 310, 1977, p. 678), McCawley (1971, p. 101), Ota (1963, pp. 18, 19, 25, 41, 118), Palmer (1965, pp. 62-63, 1974, pp. 36-38), Quirk, et al., 1972, p. 84, 1985, pp. 176-77), Radford (1981, p. 238), Smith (1978, pp. 47, 74, 80), Todd and Hancock (1986, pp. 461-63), Traugott (1975, p. 208).

Comrie (1981, p. 30, 1982, p. 143, 1985, pp. 43-48) argues and puts forward the suggestion that the English Future Tense deserves recognition. In recognising the English tense system as having future tense Comrie is certainly not without company. Other scholars in whose work the use of the term 'the English Future Tense' is indicated or implied include Bach (1981, p. 75), Bache (1985, pp. 3, 102-103, 1986b, pp. 82, 90), Barnes (1977, pp. 68-72, 140-45), Bennett (1977, p. 493), Bennett and Partee (1978, pp. 4,6,7, 37-38), Bull (1960, p. 31), Close (1962, p. 104, 1977, p. 94), Dahl (1985, pp. 103-10), Davidsen-Nielsen (1988, pp. 14-18, 1990, pp. 7, 117ff.), Declerck (1984, p. 279, 1986, pp. 330-31, 361, 1988, pp. 29-33, 43-44, 46-47, 51-53), Diver (1961, p. 153, 1964, p. 339), Dowty (1977, p. 67), Enç (1986, p. 406), Hornstein (1977, p. 522, 1990, p. 38), Kaluza (1979, p. 139),

King (1983, p. 149), Leech (1969, p. 148, 1989, pp. 157-58, 511-12), Murray-Smith (1987, pp. 324-25), Nehls (1975, p. 280), Reichenbach (1947, p. 290), Roberts (1954, pp. 146-53), Tregidgo (1974, pp. 97, 103, 106, 1980, p. 265).

The English tense system, analysed in terms of Comrie's framework, can be subdivided into either absolute or absolute-relative tenses (Chapter III, Section 3.5.1). English, strictly speaking, does not have relative tenses but it does have verbal forms the meanings of which convey relative time references. Examples of absolute tenses in English include the Present Tense, the Past Tense and the Future Tense (Comrie, 1985, pp. 36-55). The English Pluperfect Tense, Future Perfect Tense, Future-in-the-past Tense and Past Future Perfect Tense are examples of absolute-relative tenses (1985, pp. 64-82, 125ff.).

4.2.1 Absolute Tenses

An absolute tense (cf. Chapter III) is defined as a tense the meaning of which includes the present moment as deictic centre (Comrie, 1985, p. 36). Based on this definition, English is known to have Present Tense, Past Tense and Future Tense. The English absolute tenses can be represented as follows (Comrie, 1985, pp. 122-24).

$$E \quad relative \quad S$$

Thus the following English tenses can be represented as:

Present Tense	E	*simul*	S
Past Tense	E	*before*	S
Future Tense	E	*after*	S
Non-past tense	E	*not-before*	S
Non-future tense	E	*not-after*	S

4.2.1.1 Present Tense

Using Comrie's succinct formula one can represent the basic meaning of the English Present Tense as E *simul* S (1985, p.

123).

Here the situation is located simultaneously with the moment of speech S, which is the present moment as the deictic centre. Other scholars also suggest simultaneity with the present moment as the basic meaning of the English Present Tense (See Leech, 1971, p. 1; Nehls, 1975, p. 251; Ota, 1963, pp. 1-2, 18-19, Quirk, et al., 1972, p. 84, 1985, p. 176). Diver (1963, p.173), speaking of the meaning of the English Present Tense in contrast with the Past Tense, argues that the meaning of Present Tense includes the moment of speaking.

In contrast with the foregoing characterisation of the basic meaning of the English Present Tense is the one which is proposed by, among others, Allen (1972, pp. 142-43) who maintained that the meaning of the English Present Tense does not directly involve reference to the present time. He argues that the meaning of the English Present Tense merely indicates absence of marked category 'past', that is, absence of reference to some identified time in the past. As Allen (1972) does not provide room for simultaneity with the moment of speech in characterising the meaning of the English Present Tense, he considers a statement like *I feel tired,* which conveys the idea that the speaker feels tired at the moment of speech, i.e., *E simul S,* as an instance of exceptions rather than the rule. However if one were to accept the basic versus secondary meanings distinction in this respect, one would not have to adopt such exceptions-to-the-rule strategy.

In addition to its basic meanings known as State Present, Instantaneous Present and Habitual Present, the English Present Tense expresses secondary meanings as in Historic Present, Present with Future Time Reference and Imaginary Present. In Historic Present and Imaginary Present, the relationship between

the situation and the deictic centre S, i.e., the simultaneity of the situation with the present moment, seems to be subjectively created by the speaker but in Present with Future Time Reference the simultaneity of the situation with the present moment is not expressed.

Examples of the uses of the English Present Tense to express the basic meanings:

i. State Present

Sentences in the State Present express states or processes which obtain at, before or even after the present moment (See Comrie, 1985, p. 37; Leech, 1971, p. 1; Quirk, et al., 1972, p. 85, 1985, p. 179). The use of the English Present Tense for the State Present is found with verbs expressing states or with stative meanings. Verbs with 'states' meanings or 'uses' include *be, live, belong, last, like, stand, know, have, contain* (Leech, 1971, pp. 4-5); Quirk, et al., (1985) show that *be, consist, make, move, share, believe, know, like, taste, live* (p. 179) can be used in state present to express 'general timeless statements' or 'eternal truths' in which the state can be extended into the past or the future, and the time span of the state is somewhat restricted as in *Everyone likes Maurice* (p. 179). Leech (1971, p. 2) and Quirk, et al., (1985, p. 179) speak of 'timeless statements' and 'eternal truth' in this regard. Leech (1971, pp. 1-2) refers to this phenomenon as 'unrestrictive use' of the present tense. Comrie (1985), however, chooses not to relate the basic meaning of the present tense to such notions as 'timeless statements' and 'eternal truth', arguing that the interpretation of universal truths, i.e., truths that hold at all times, is beyond the meaning of present tense as a deictic category (p. 40). Knowledge of the world will no doubt assist the language users to interpret, for example, the statement *Cows eat grass* as conveying universal truth or not. For, such a

statement, given the scarcity of grass in certain parts of the world, could be considered untrue as cows do not eat grass anymore but are given chemically prepared fodder at the present time in some areas. Thus, the statement is changed to *Cows do not eat grass here* which conveys the idea that the situation holds at the moment of speech *S*, i.e., *E simul S.*

The State Present which expresses a situation that obtains at, before or even after the present moment nonetheless includes the present moment in its meaning. Thus the State Present is not incompatible with the basic meaning of the present tense. That is, a situation obtains or exists simultaneously with the moment of speech *S*, i.e., *E simul S.* Observe how simultaneity with the moment of speech is conveyed in the following sample sentences (1, 2, 3, 4).

(1) *The Eiffel Tower stands in Paris* (Comrie, 1985, p. 37)
(2) *Honesty is the best policy* (Quirk, et al., 1985, p. 179)
(3) *He likes bananas now* (Dixon, 1991, p. 22)
(4) *Rome stands on the River Tiber* (Leech, 1971, p. 2)

ii. Instantaneous Present

Instantaneous Present expresses a situation which is conceptualised as being simultaneous with the moment of speech *S*, i.e., *E simul S.* The situation conveyed, however, which is usually of verbs with event meanings, does not strictly speaking coincide with the moment of speech since it is impossible for a situation to take place exactly at the instant it is uttered. It always takes a certain period of time to utter even the shortest sentence before the situation in question obtains. Leech (1971, p. 3) describes such a situation as 'subjectively simultaneous' with the moment of speech.

Examples of Instantaneous Present include performatives, commentaries, demonstrations and exclamations. Performatives are sentences the acts of which are performed by uttering them

as in the following.

(5) *I promise to pay you ten pounds* (Comrie, 1985, p. 37)

(6) *I name this ship the 'Titanic'* (Comrie, 1985, p. 37)

(7) *I apologize* (Quirk, et al., 1985, p. 180)

The utterance of (5), (6) and (7) given the appropriate circum-
stances, constitutes the acts, i.e., respectively the promise to pay
ten pounds, the naming of the ship and the apology intended.

Commentaries or reports of an ongoing series of events use
the present tense since the situations conveyed literally coincide
with the moment of speech. For example in a soccer game when
the commentator says (Quirk, et al., 1985, p. 180):

(8) *Black passes the ball to Fernandez . . . Fernandez shoots!*
at the moment of speech Black literally passes the ball to
Fernandez and at the moment Fernandez shoots the ball the second
part of (8) is uttered.

Demonstrations of step-by-step procedures and other self-
commentaries in English also use the present tense. For example,
if a language user wishes to show how to prepare certain food she
could relate her step-by-step procedure while she is in the act of
performing the step. Observe how the step-by-step procedure in
(9) as a series of events is conveyed instantaneously while the
step is performed.

(9) *I pick up the fruit with a skewer, dip it into the batter,*
    and lower it in the hot fat (Quirk, et al., 1985, p. 180)

A certain exclamatory remark in English is conveyed in the
present tense in particular one with initial adverbials (Quirk, et
al., 1985, p. 180). The use of the present tense here indicates that
the situation in question obtains or exists simultaneously with
the moment of speech. In (10), it can be argued that the winner is
in the act of approaching, for example, the finishing line at the
instant (10) is uttered.

(10) *Here comes the winner* (Quirk, et al., 1985, p. 180)

Bennet and Partee (1978, pp. 4-5, 13) describe the instan-

taneous present as a present tense with reportive reading whereby a proposition is asserted to be performed at the present moment, that is, specifically at the moment of speech.

iii. Habitual Present

Comrie (1985, p. 39) argues that habitual aspectual meaning does not contradict the definition of the present tense E *simul* S. For, although habitual aspectual meaning describes a situation that obtains at all times, nonetheless the habit is true at the present moment. Thus in (11), although the situation of John going to work at eight o'clock does not obtain at the moment (11) is uttered, the habit is true when the statement is uttered.

(11) *John goes to work at eight o'clock everyday*
(Comrie, 1985, p. 39)

Examples of the uses of the English Present Tense to express the secondary meanings:

iv. Historic Present

In the Historic Present, the English Present Tense form is used to refer to a situation with past time reference. Here the situation is presented or imagined as if it were going on at the present time (Leech, 1971, pp. 6-7; Quirk, et al., 1972, p. 86, 1985, pp. 181-82), as in (12)

(12) *Last week I'm in the sitting-room with the wife when this chap next door staggers past and in a drunken fit throws a brick through our window* (Leech, 1971, p. 7)

The use of the present tense form in (12) conveys a dramatic effect of the kind given in an eye-witness account (See Quirk, et al., 1985, p. 181).

Leech (1971, pp. 7, 12-13) and Quirk, et al., (1985, pp.181-83) have suggested a distinction to be made between Historic Present and Fictional Historic Present used by a story writer or a novelist. Quirk, et al., (1985, p. 183) point out that the situations in the Historic Present are real while those in the Fictional Historic Present are imaginary situations. Observe how the writer

presents imaginary events in (13).

> (13) *The crowd swarms around the gateway, and seethes with delighted anticipation; excitement grows, as suddenly their hero makes his entrance* . . . (Quirk, et al., 1985, p. 183).

v.   Present with Future Time Reference

In this function the English Present Tense is used to express future time situations. That is, the situations are located at the period or point of time *after S*, i.e., *E after S*. In other words, the English Present Tense may convey future time reference (Comrie, 1985, p. 47; Leech, 1971, p. 6; Quirk, et al., 1972, pp. 86, 88-89, 1985, pp. 182-83, 1008-10). Quirk, et al., (1985, p. 182) describe such uses to express a situation which is unalterably fixed in advance, as in (14) and in dependent clauses of conditional and temporal clauses, as in (15) and (16).

> (14) *The plane leaves for Ankara at eight o'clock tonight* (Quirk, et al., 1985, p. 182)
> (15) He'll do it *if you pay him* (ibid.,)
> (16) I'll let you know *as soon as I hear from her* (ibid.,)

In (14), the future time reference of the situation in question obtains tonight, while in (15) the future time reference of the conditional protasis, i.e., *if you pay him* obtains anterior to the situation expressed in the apodosis which in itself evidently expresses future time reference as is shown by the use of *'ll*. In (16), the situation expressed in the temporal clause *as soon as I hear from her* has future time reference. That is, it is located anterior to the future time reference in the matrix sentence *I'll let you know*.

vi.   Imaginary Present

Leech (1971, pp. 12-13) describes the imaginary uses of the English Present Tense whereby the present tense relates to imaginary present time rather than real time situations. In a sense, this imaginary present can be related to the Fictional

Historic Present which concerns imaginary situations discussed in the Historic Present. Examples of other uses of Imaginary Present are found in a travelogue itinerary, as in (17) and in an instruction booklet, as in (18).

(17) *To reach Chugwell, we make our way up to the*
source of the River Ede, then skirt the bleak
slopes of Windy Beacon, crowned by sparse
remains of a Bronze Age fort (Leech, 1971, p.13)

(18) *You take the first turning on the left past the*
roundabout, then you cross a bridge and bear
right until you reach the Public Library (ibid.)

In (17, 18) the person describing the situations in question imagines them to obtain at the moment of speech (Leech, 1971, p. 13). *You* in (18) is understood as an impersonal pronoun equivalent to one.

Here i. State Present, ii. Instantaneous Present, iii. Habitual Present exemplify the basic use, i.e., *E simul S*, of the English Present Tense, whereas iv. Historic Present, v. Present with Future Time Reference, vi. Imaginary Present exemplify its peripheral uses.

4.2.1.2 Past Tense

The English Past Tense is known to have the basic meaning of locating a situation before the present moment as the deictic centre. In giving the characterisation of the English Past Tense scholars are generally in agreement with respect to the above notion of priority to the moment of speech (Declerck, 1986, p. 321, 1988, Engels, et al., 1986; Givon, 1984, p. 273; Hornstein, 1977, p. 522, 1990; Johnson, 1981, p. 151; Leech, 1969, p.148, 1971, p. 9; Ota, 1963, p. 19; Quirk, et al., 1972, p. 86, 1973, p. 42; Reichenbach, 1947, p. 290).

The characterisation of the English Past Tense by those who adhere to the belief that English has only two tenses proper is

also in terms of reference to past time but with no further specification of what constitutes the past time, except perhaps Huddleston (1984, pp. 144-45). It seems that the meaning of past time is taken to be self-evident from the diagram of a tripartite time division of past, present and future as is found in Quirk, et al., (1972, p. 84, 1985, pp. 175-76). Hence Akmajian and Heny (1975, p. 117), Huddleston (1984, p. 144), McCawley (1971, p. 105), Quirk, et al., (1972, p. 84, 1985, p. 176), define the English Past Tense as tense that refers to past time or as tense that indicates that the time of the situation is in the past.

The notion of priority in the English Past Tense seems to imply that the 'before' relation is that of quality rather than quantity. Thus in English no matter how long ago a situation took place or obtained, it can still be expressed by using a past tense form. In Comrie's terms, formally, the English Past Tense can be represented as *E before S* (Comrie, 1985, pp. 41-43, 123).

There are suggestions to the effect that in terms of location in time the English Past Tense is not distinct from the English Present Perfect (Comrie, 1985, p. 78; McCoard, 1978, p. 152). For the discussion of how the English Present Perfect differs from the English Past Tense see 4.3.2 later in this Chapter.

The following are examples of the English Past Tense in its basic meanings. The situation either in (19) or (20) or (21) is precisely located prior to the present moment *S*.

    (19) *Haydn was born in 1832* (Leech, 1971, p. 9)
    (20) *Once this town was a beauty spot* (ibid.)
    (21) *We visited Selfridges last week* (ibid.)

In (19), the situation conveyed, i.e., the birth of Haydn was located prior to the present moment; in (20), the town in question was a beauty spot at some time located prior to the present moment; in (21), the visit to Selfridges took place last week, i.e., at some

time in the past prior to the present moment or the present week.

Whether a situation expressed in Past Tense does or does not obtain at the moment of speech is not part of the meaning of the English Past Tense. Rather it is an implicature. Thus, when a speaker says

(22) *I forgot it yesterday*

the implicature conveyed is that the speaker remembers it now, i.e., he does not forget it anymore — the situation that obtained in the past does not obtain anymore at the moment of speech in this particular instance. Notice this implicature can easily be cancelled by appending *and I still forget it now*, as in (23).

(23) *I forgot it yesterday and I still forget it now*

The secondary meanings of the English Past Tense do not refer to the notion of priority to the moment of speech. Quirk, et al., (1972, p. 867, 1985, pp. 187-88) speak of exceptional uses or special meanings of the English Past Tense in this respect. These include Backshifting, Attitudinal Past and Hypothetical Past.

Examples of the uses of the English Past Tense to express secondary meanings.

i. Backshifting

Backshifting is found in indirect speech with a past tense reporting verb. This past tense reporting verb is said to have the tendency of making the verb in the subordinate clause past tense as well (Quirk, et al., 1972, p. 86, 1985, pp. 187-88). This tendency does not imply that the situation in backshifting is always located before the moment of speech, i.e., *E before S*. Comrie (1986b, p. 290) notes that the change of *go* vs. *went, will go* vs. *would go, has gone* vs. *had gone, will have gone* vs. *would have gone, "*. . . is the formal correspondence". The meanings of these forms are irrelevant.

Notice how the present tense form of *are* changes to *were* in

(24) as a result of the change of *say* to *said*. Although this rule of backshifting does not apply in all circumstances it generally holds unless otherwise specified. Comrie (1985, pp. 104-17, 1986b, pp. 269, 272, 277ff.) has described the above-mentioned phenomenon as a 'sequence of tense rule'.

> (24) Direct Speech : *I am here*
> Indirect Speech: *You say you are here*
> *You said you were here*
> (Quirk, et al., 1972, p. 86)

ii.　Attitudinal Past

This kind of past tense is related to the present tentative attitude of the speaker and not the past time reference as such. The use of the English Past Tense in this instance conveys politeness as it would, for example, make a request indirect (Leech, 1971, p. 11; Quirk, et al., 1972, p. 86, 1985, p. 188), as in (25) and (26).

> (25) *I wondered if you'd look after my dog while I go*
> *shopping* (Leech, 1971, p. 11)
> (26) *Did you want to see me now?* (Quirk, et al., 1985, p. 188)

In (25) the request in question is indeed to hold at the moment of speech, i.e., the speaker asks her friend to look after her dog while she goes shopping. In (26), the speaker asks the hearer if she wishes to see him *now*. That is, the basic meaning of the English Past Tense, *E before S*, is not expressed.

iii.　Hypothetical Past

This kind of past tense is used in certain subordinate clauses particularly in the conditional protases to express contrary-to-to-fact situations, i.e., situations which are contrary to the expectation or belief of the speaker (Leech, 1971, p. 10; Quirk, et al., 1972, pp. 86-87, 1985, p. 188), as in (27) and (28).

> (27) *If you really worked hard, you would soon get*
> *promoted* (Quirk, et al., 1985, p. 188)
> (28) *It's time we had a holiday* (Leech, 1971, p. 10)

The situations as expressed in the past tense in (27) and (28) are

contrary to the belief or expectation of the speaker. That is, in (27) the hearer, in the speaker's view, does not work hard at the present time; in (28), the speaker and the hearer, notwithstanding their expectation to get one, do not have a holiday yet at present. The contrary-to-fact nature of the situations in question, i.e., the Past Tense form used does not express *E before S*, provides some justification in the use of the term 'hypothetical' in this respect.

4.2.1.3 Future Tense

The basic meaning of the English Future Tense is the location of a situation after or subsequent to the moment of speech as the deictic centre (See Comrie, 1985, p. 43ff.; Davidsen-Nielsen, 1988, pp. 12-14; Declerck, 1986, pp. 19-20, 1988; Hornstein, 1977, p. 522, 1990, pp. 1-15, 38; Reichenbach, 1947, p. 290; Tregidgo, 1980, p. 265). Formally, thus, the basic meaning of the English Future Tense can be represented as *E after S* (Comrie 1985, p. 123).

Comrie (1985, pp. 48, 120) has put forward his suggestion that future time reference uses of *will* is grammatically distinct from the modal uses of *will* as in (29).

(29) a. *It will rain tomorrow* (Comrie,1985, p. 4)
  b. **If it will rain tomorrow, we will get wet* (p. 4)
  c. *If it rains tomorrow, we will get wet* (p. 4)
  d. *If he will go swimming in dangerous waters, he will drown* (p. 4)
  e. *If you'll do the shopping for me, I'll give you some money* (p. 120)

Comrie (1985) points out that (29a) is an example of uses of *will* for future time reference. In (29b), the use of *will* is not permitted as there is no causal relation between the conditional protasis and the apodosis. Notice that the presence of such causal relation renders (29d) and (29e) perfectly acceptable. That is, *will* in each instance conveys modal meanings rather than future

time reference. These examples suggest that English does possess a separate grammatical category of future time reference, i.e., future tense uses of *will* in addition to uses of *will* with modal meaning. The modal use of *will* in this study is taken to be distinct from the use of *will* as a grammatical category of tense. See Comrie (1982, pp. 143-52), Davidsen-Nielsen (1988, pp. 5-20).

It is a well-known fact that English has different ways of expressing future time reference (Close, 1962, pp. 104, 1977, p. 94; Comrie, 1982, pp. 146 ff.; Leech, 1971, pp. 51-65, 1989, pp. 157-60; Nehls, 1975, pp. 284-85; Quirk, et al., 1972, pp. 87-89, 1985, pp. 213-17). Leech (1971, p. 71) adduces (30, 31, 32, 33, 34).

> (30) *The parcel will arrive tomorrow* (Leech, 1971, p. 51)
> (31) *The parcel is going to arrive tomorrow* (p. 51)
> (32) *The parcel is arriving tomorrow* (p. 51)
> (33) *The parcel arrives tomorrow* (p. 51)
> (34) *The parcel will be arriving tomorrow* (p. 51)

In (30) to (34), each situation indicates future time reference, and yet morphologically the verbal forms have different manifestations.

Quirk, et al., (1972, p. 87, 1985, pp. 176-77) have argued that in terms of verbal inflection English does not have future tense corresponding to the past and present distinction as is shown by the presence or absence of *-ed* attached to the base form of the verb. They conclude, therefore, that English does not have a grammatical category called future tense. While it would be utterly fruitless to seek a definite solution to this debate as it is ultimately based on the individual scholar's belief, for example, whether a tense is a category realized by verb inflection or whether semantically a tense is the property of the verb or the property of the whole sentence, and the individual scholar's

preference to choose which is which, one could still maintain that English has several ways of expressing the meaning of *E after S,* i.e., future time reference.

The situations in each of (30) to (34) express *E after S.* The fact, however, that each of (30) to (34) has undoubtedly slightly different shades of meaning forces one to recognise the existence of a general category to express future time reference in English. No better candidate can be offered but *will* or the conversational *I'll* (See Close, 1962, p. 92; 1977, pp. 94-95) to serve this purpose. A rather similar argument regarding the importance of *will* as a future time expression has been voiced by several scholars such as Leech (1971, p. 64), Nehls (1975, p. 220), Quirk, et al., (1972, p. 87, 1985, p. 217). More particularly, Quirk, et al., (1972, p. 87) have indicated that *will* and in some cases *shall* can convey some kind of colourless, neutral or 'unmarked' future time reference. Hence, it is argued here that as a general category of expressing future time reference in English *will* seems to be relatively neutral in comparison with the other means of expressing future time reference. For example, supposing in the following week a person would meet a friend of his, he would most likely utter

(35) *I'll see you next week*

If, however, the speaker chooses forms other than *will* to express (35), there will surely be particular nuances of meaning express-ed.

Thus, (36), (37), (38) and (39) despite their similarity in terms of *E after S* convey slightly different meanings.

(36) *I'm going to see you next week*
(37) *I'm seeing you next week*
(38) *I see you next week*
(39) *I'll be seeing you next week*

If, on the other hand, one were to apply the term 'future tense' to

each of (36) to (39) one would most likely lose sight of the sys-
tematicity embodied since evidently in terms of the verbal forms
used, each of (36) to (39) falls in nicely with other grammatical
categories. Thus (36) and (37) resemble that of the progressive
aspect; (38) that of present tense and (39) that of combined *will*
and the progressive aspect.

4.2.2   Relative Tenses

A relative tense as noted in Chapter III, Section 3.5.1, is a
tense the meaning of which is, quite strictly, interpreted relative
to some contextual reference point not excluding the present
moment. A relative tense differs from an absolute tense in that it
does not specify the present moment as its only reference point. A
relative tense, thus, has several possible reference points which
include the present moment. An absolute tense, by contrast,
includes as part of its meaning the present moment as the deictic
centre. Comrie (1985) uses E *relative* R to represent the meaning
of a relative tense where R refers to a reference point, i.e., the
time point to which a situation E is oriented, not excluding the
present moment.

In the formula E *relative* R, because of the indeterminacy of R to
which the situation E is oriented, different reference times can
be expressed.

4.2.2.1   Pure Relative Tenses

Strictly speaking, English does not have pure relative tenses
but it does have forms, i.e., non-finite verb forms, which express
relative time references whereby the time references are inter-
preted relatively. Thus, each of the verb form in question may
convey past, present or future time references. This observa-
tion is consonant with that made by Quirk, et al., (1972, p. 75,

1985, p. 153) who concede that the English non-finite verb forms are indifferent as to tenses. They do not, however, specify whether the English non-finite verb forms are indifferent as to time/temporal references.

English is known to have three non-finite verb forms, i.e., *(to) infinitive* exemplified by *(to)* + *the base form of the verb* like *(to) study, (to) go, (to) steal, (to) travel,* etc.; *the present participle* or *the -ing participle* exemplified by *base form of the verb* + *-ing,* as in *studying, going, stealing, travelling,* etc.; and *the past participle* or *-ed participle* exemplified by the 'third' form of the verb such as *studied, gone, stolen, travelled,* etc. None of these non-finite verb forms relate directly to the situations conveyed to a specified time reference. They can have past, present or future time reference. For example, in (40), (41) and (42) albeit their similarity in form, each infinitive conveys different time references as judged by the presence of certain time adverbs.

(40) *He wants to do it now*
(41) *He wanted to do it yesterday*
(42) *He wants to do it tomorrow*

The presence of *now, yesterday* and *tomorrow* secures the temporal interpretation of (40), (41) and (42) respectively. In (40), for example, the time adverb *now* secures the present time reference. Thus, the time reference of the situation as contained in *to do it* in (40) is determined with respect to the reference point R established in the matrix sentence. In this respect, the time reference of *to do it* is taken to be simultaneous with the time reference of the matrix sentence although it is not certain whether the situation as contained in *to do it* obtains or not at the present moment. What is true in (40) is that *he* wishes that the situation as expressed in *to do it* obtains *now*.

In (41), the time adverb *yesterday* secures the past time reference. The time reference of the situation as contained in *to do it* can also be established with respect to the time reference of the matrix sentence. That is, it is taken to be simultaneous with the time reference of the matrix sentence, i.e., *yesterday.* But again it is not certain whether the situation in question obtained before the present moment or not. What is true in this case is that *he* wished that the situation as conveyed by *to do it* obtained *yesterday*.

In (42), the future time reference is established by the presence of *tomorrow.* The time reference of the situation as expressed in *to do it* can be taken to be after the present moment, i.e., *tomorrow* the same as the future time reference established in the matrix sentence. Again it cannot be decided with certainty as to the exact time reference of the situation as expressed by *to do it* except that *he* wishes to do it *tomorrow.* The uncertainty of the time reference of the English to-infinitive in (40) to (42) evidently shows that the English to-infinitive has relative time reference.

Comrie (1985) has shown that the English *-ing participle,* too has relative time reference. Notice that in (43), the *-ing* participle *awaiting* can have different time references (Comrie, 1985, pp. 57-60).

(43) *the passengers awaiting flight 26 proceeded to departure gate 5* (Comrie, 1985, p. 57)

The first interpretation of (43) is that the time reference of *awaiting* is taken to be simultaneous with the time reference of the situation in the matrix sentence, i.e., the past time reference of *proceeded.* In other words *the passengers awaiting flight 26 . . .* can be taken to be equivalent *to the passengers who were awaiting flight 26 . . . .* The second interpretation is that the time

reference of *awaiting* is not the same as the time reference of *proceeded*. That is, *awaiting* has present time reference, as in (44).

(44) *the passengers who are now awaiting flight 26*
proceeded to gate 5 (Comrie, 1985, p. 57)

The third interpretation is that the time reference of *awaiting* in (43) is neither simultaneous with the time reference of the situation in the matrix sentence nor with the present moment. Here *awaiting* has different time reference, as in (45).

(45) *the passengers awaiting flight 26 yesterday proceeded*
to gate 5 the day before (Comrie,1985, p. 58)

In (45), *awaiting* has past time reference, i.e., *yesterday* while the situation in the matrix sentence has *the day before yesterday* as to express its past time reference. The same *-ing* participle *awaiting* in a different setting may have future time reference, as in (46).

(46) *the passengers awaiting flight 26 will proceed to*
gate 5, starting next week (Comrie, 1985, p. 59)

In (46), *awaiting* has future time reference. It is taken to be simultaneous with the future time reference established in the matrix sentence. Comrie (1985, p. 59) paraphrases (46) into (47) as follows.

(47) *the passengers who will be awaiting flight 26 will*
proceed to gate 5, starting next week (Comrie, 1985, p. 59)

Comrie (1985) has also indicated that the English *-ed* *participle* may have different time references. For example, in (48a), the *-ed* participle *denied* may have a time reference established with respect to the time reference of the situation in the matrix sentence giving a past-in-the-past time reference interpretation as in (48b) or with respect to the present moment giving a past time reference interpretation as in (48c).

(48) a. *The passengers denied boarding on flight 26*
proceeded to gate 7 (Comrie, 1985, p. 59)
b. *The passengers who had been denied boarding on*

flight 26 proceeded to gate 7 (p. 59)
 c. *The passengers who have been denied boarding
 on flight 26 proceeded to gate 7* (p. 59)

In (48c), the denial intended may still obtain at the present moment. Equally, the same *-ed* participle *denied* may also have a possible future time reference given the appropriate setting as in (49) and (50).

 (49) *passengers denied boarding on flight 26 will
  proceed to gate 7* (Comrie, 1985, p. 59)

The possible future time reference of *denied* in (49) is shown in (50).

 (50) *passengers who will have been denied boarding on
  flight 26 will proceed to gate 7* (Comrie, 1985, p. 59)

4.2.2.2 Absolute-Relative Tenses

An absolute-relative tense as indicated in Chapter III, Section 3.5.1, is defined as a tense which locates a situation with respect to an absolute time reference and a relative time reference. That is, a situation in an absolute-relative tense has its meaning both a reference point located before, at or after the present moment and another reference point located before, at or after the first reference point. An absolute-relative tense is formalised as follows (Comrie, 1985, p. 126):

$$E \quad relative \quad R_n \quad relative \quad S$$

where n refers to the number of the
     reference point(s) involved

Examples of the English absolute-relative tenses include Pluperfect Tense, Future Perfect Tense, Future-in-the-Past Tense, Past Future Perfect Tense (1985, pp. 64-82, 125ff).

4.2.2.2.1 Pluperfect Tense

The English Pluperfect Tense establishes a situation prior to a past reference point. This past reference point is determined

with respect to the moment of speech, i.e., an absolute inter-pretation. As the situation in the pluperfect tense is located prior to that past reference point, this is a relative interpretation.

Comrie (1985, p. 125) suggests the following formula to represent the basic meaning of the English Pluperfect Tense:

E before R before S

Comrie (1985, p. 65, 1986a, p.18), Huddleston (1984, p. 162) and Quirk, et al., (1972, p. 92, 1985, p. 195) suggest that the English Pluperfect Tense relates to the past-in-the-past sit-uation. That is, as stated above, a *past-in-the past* situation is located prior to a past reference point. This observation is supported by the evidence that the English Pluperfect Tense must be used with an intervening reference point. Comrie (1985, pp. 68-69) provides an example of an infelicitous use of the Plu-perfect Tense while one points at the Great Wall of China and says:

(51) *They had built a magnificent wall* (Comrie, 1985, p. 69)

The use of the Pluperfect Tense in (51) is inappropriate for there is no past reference point to which the situation in question is oriented.

In principle, the past reference point has to be available for the felicitous use of the English Pluperfect Tense. An implicit past reference point, however, may render the use of the English Pluperfect Tense appropriate, as in (52).

(52) *John had already left at ten o'clock* (Comrie, 1985, p. 66)

The past reference point in (52) could be *at ten o'clock,* i.e., an explicit past reference point whereby the interpretation would be *at ten o'clock* as the time prior to which *John had left.* Or the past reference point is implicit, i.e., *at ten o'clock* is the time that *John left.* The past reference point in this instance must be sought elsewhere in the context. For example, in (52), as *at ten*

o'clock is the time at which *John left,* the past reference point must be at any time after *ten o'clock* in relation to the time on that day. In most cases, the past reference point in the English Pluperfect Tense is established in the temporal clause, as in (53).

(53) *John had already left when Mary emerged
from the cupboard* (Comrie, 1985, p. 66)

In (53), the past reference point to which the situation in the Pluperfect Tense is oriented is Mary's emerging from the cupboard.

Secondary meanings of the English Pluperfect Tense are found in the Conditional Type 3 Protases and in Backshifting.

4.2.2.2.2   Future Perfect Tense

Comrie (1985, p. 126) suggests the following formulation to represent the basic meaning of the English Future Perfect Tense:

$$E \quad before \quad R \quad after \quad S$$

What is interesting about the English Future Perfect Tense is that the location of the situation *E relative S* is undetermined, i.e., the situation in question can be 'after', 'before' or 'simultaneous' with the moment of speech. There is a mistaken belief that the English Future Perfect Tense has future time reference. According to Comrie (1985, p. 25) the future time reference ascribed to this tense is an implicature. Thus in (54), for example, there are three possibilities as to the location in time of John's finishing his manuscript (Comrie, 1985, pp. 71-72).

(54) *John will have finished his manuscript by tomorrow*
(Comrie, 1985, p. 71)

The first possibility is that John's finishing his manuscript is located after the moment of speech; the second is that it is located simultaneously with the moment of speech but the speaker is or wishes to be unaware of the fact; the third is that the situation in question is located before the moment of speech, and again the speaker is or wishes to be unaware of it. All these three

possibilities render the use of (54) appropriate.

Comrie (1985, pp. 72-73) has proposed that the location of the situation in the English Future Perfect Tense is an implicature. His proposal is based on the fact that the location of the situation in the English Future Perfect is undetermined and, like all other implicature, is cancellable, as is shown in (55a).

(55a) A: *Will John have finished his manuscript by tomorrow?*
B: *Yes, in fact, he has already finished it*
(Comrie, 1985, p. 72)

In (55a), while providing an affirmative reply *yes,* B is also cancelling the implicature, i.e., the location in time of John's finishing his manuscript, as is evidenced by the second part of B's reply *in fact, he has already finished it.* Although B's affirmative reply maintains the truth of the proposition *John will have finished his manuscript by tomorrow,* the situation in question is not located after the moment of speech, i.e., between *now* and *tomorrow.* For, if John's finishing his manuscript were located after the moment of speech *S,* the second part of B's reply would be a contradiction. As is shown in (55a), the second part of B's reply is not a contradiction. In fact, B's reply *in fact, he has already finished it* serves to cancel the implicature. That is, that John's finishing the manuscript is *tomorrow,* as is engendered by the first part of B's reply *yes.* In other words, the use of *yes* gives rise to the implicature that the manuscript is not yet finished, and the use of the second part of B's reply indicates that the manuscript in question has been completed. In short, what is essential with regard to the meaning of the English Future Perfect Tense is the location of a situation prior to a future reference point and not the location of a situation *E* with respect to the moment of speech *S.*

The English Future Perfect verbal form is also used to

express, to use Hornstein's terms (1977, pp. 536-7), 'modal tenses' as in (55b).

(55b). *John will have arrived home yesterday*
(Hornstein, 1977, p. 537)

This verbal form does not express *E before R after S* but modal reading, i.e., 'a deviant nontemporal reading'[2]. (55b) seems to exemplify the peripheral use, i.e., secondary meaning, of the English Future Perfect Tense.

At this juncture, it would be appropriate to note that the English Future Perfect Tense and the Pluperfect Tense have one thing in common. In both the Future Perfect Tense and the Pluperfect Tense, the location of a situation is determined in terms of priority to a reference point *R*. There are, however, two differences to be noted. First, the situation in the Pluperfect Tense is oriented with respect to a past reference point, while the situation in the Future Perfect Tense is oriented with respect to a future reference point. Second, the Pluperfect Tense locates a situation absolutely in the past prior to a reference point which is itself in the past with respect to the moment of speech. Hence, the term *past-in-the-past* is introduced in the description of the English Pluperfect Tense. The Future Perfect Tense, by contrast, does not provide such a specific location in time. The location in time of the situation in the English Future Perfect Tense is at best an implicature allowing it to obtain either *before, after* or *simultaneous* with the present moment or the moment of speech (Comrie, 1985, pp. 65-71). See also King (1983, p. 118).

4.2.2.2.3   Future-in-the-past Tense

The English Future-in-the-past Tense locates a situation posterior to a past reference point. That is, the situation in the Future-in-the-past Tense is located *after* a reference point which is itself located *before* the present moment (Comrie, 1985, p. 75,

1986a, p. 19).

Comrie (1985, p. 128) proposes the following formulation by which the basic meaning of the English Future-in-the-past Tense is represented:

$$E \quad after \quad R \quad before \quad S$$

An example illustrating how the situation in the English Future-in-the-past Tense is located with respect to a past reference point R, i.e., R *before* S is given in (56).

(56) *John left for the front; he would never return*
(Comrie, 1985, p. 75)

In (56), the first clause establishes a past reference point, i.e., R *before* S. The situation in the second clause is located in the future with respect to the past reference point R as established by the first clause, i.e., E *after* R.

The English Future-in-the-past verbal form is also used in Conditional Sentences Type 2 and in Backshifting. These uses, however, seem to be the examples of the secondary meanings of the English Future-in-the-past Tense form.

Smith (1978, p. 48) suggests that the Future-in-the-past in English can also be expressed by using the past progressive aspect, as in (57).

(57) *The plan for the following day was made: Albert was playing tennis* (Smith, 1978, p. 48).

4.2.2.2.4   Past Future Perfect Tense

The English Past Future Perfect Tense or more widely known as the 'Conditional Perfect' strictly speaking locates a past situation with respect to a past reference point which is itself located in the future with respect to another past reference point. Comrie (1985, p. 128) formulates E *before* R_1 *after* R_2 *before* S to represent the basic meaning of the English Past Future Perfect Tense. R_1 refers to the reference point which is located

in the future with respect to R_2. R_2 refers to a reference point which is located in the past with respect to the moment of speech.

A good example illustrating the English Past Future Perfect Tense is given by Comrie (1985, pp. 76, 128), as in (58)

(58) *John left for the front; by the time he should return, the fields would have been burnt to stubble*

(Comrie, 1985, p. 76)

In (58), *John left for the front* establishes a past reference point R_2; *by the time he should return* establishes the reference point R_1 which is in the future relative to the past reference point R_2. Finally, the situation contained in *the fields would have been burnt to stubble* is located in the past with respect to R_1.

Instances of the secondary meanings of the English Future Perfect Tense are found in the Apodoses of the Conditional Sentences of Type 3 and in Backshifting in Indirect Speech.

4.3 Aspect in English

English is known to have a pervasive aspectual opposition between progressive and non-progressive, i.e., between progressive forms and simple forms or, to quote other scholars, between expanded and non-expanded forms. Comrie (1976, p. 33) has indicated that although many languages of the world allow uses of progressive and non-progressive forms to interchange, English obligatorily maintains the distinction between progressive and non-progressive. This fact alone is evident enough to merit attempts at characterising uses of the English progressive as distinct from its non-progressive counterpart at least in instances of its basic meaning if not in all instances of its peripheral meanings.

There is also another recognised opposition pervading the English verbal system between (present) perfect and non-perfect

forms. Bache (1985b, p. 227), Comrie (1976, p. 52) and Salkie (1987, p. 136) show that the (present) perfect including the English Present Perfect is not, strictly speaking, an aspectual category. Comrie (1976) seems to be correct, however, in treating (present) perfect under aspect as has traditionally been the practice in the past. Indeed, (present) perfect can be described either under tense or aspect or even outside the two (See Chapter III). One fact that remains valid is that in all languages it seems to be the case that all situations can be put into the (present) perfect (See Dahl, 1985, pp. 19ff.). That is, there are no constraints which limit the use of the present perfect which parallels the constraints limiting the use of the progressive aspect which in many instances is dependent on the aspectual character of the individual lexical verb.

Another recognised grammaticalised aspectual category in English is the past habitual aspect *used to*. Comrie (1976, pp. 27-30, 1985, p. 24) has made an important contribution in clarifying the subtle meaning of the English past habitual aspect. That is, the meaning of the English past habitual aspect *used to + V* refers to the characteristic situation that obtained in the past. That the habit no longer holds at present is not the meaning of this aspect but an implicature in the Gricean sense (Grice, 1975, p. 29). However, at present, English grammarians still assume that the use of *used to + V* does express the meaning of the past habit which no longer holds at present (See Alexander, 1984, pp. 89-90; Azar, 1989, p. 101; Close, 1962, pp. 89-90, 1977, pp. 91-92, 108-9; Hayden, et al., 1956, pp. 82-83; Leech, 1971, p.49; Quirk, et al., 1972, p.102, 1985, p. 140; Swan, 1980, Point 614; Thomson and Martinet, 1980, pp. 137-38; Wishon and Burks, 1980, p. 245; Wood, 1965, pp. 175-76).

4.3.1   The English Progressive Aspect

The English progressive aspect has a range wider than the 'original' or general meaning of the progressive aspect which according to Comrie (1976, pp. 32-33, 35) is the combination of progressive meaning and nonstativity. Progressive meaning or progressiveness is the same as continuousness or durativity (Comrie, 1976, pp. 26, 34). Progressiveness has traditionally been identified as a characteristic of progressive aspect the meaning of which is thought to indicate that a situation is in progress. As a situation in progress must always have duration in order to obtain, the term 'durative' came to be used as the characteristic of progressive aspect. But Ota (1963, p. 62) shows that duration is not the only property of the progressive aspect. Comrie (1976, p. 33) notes that to define progressive aspect as a situation which is in progress fails to bring out the distinction between pro-gressivity and imperfectivity. To distinguish imperfectivity from progressivity Comrie (1976) states that progressivity is im-perfectivity minus habituality   (p. 33).

To obtain a more accurate characterisation of the distinction between progressive aspect and non-progressive aspect the term 'nonstativity' is required. A verb is said to have the property of nonstativity if it inherently shows dynamicity. That is, a situa-tion is said to be dynamic when it requires an input of energy in order to obtain.

Lyons (1977, p. 708) shows that the meaning of progressivity or in particular of the English progressive aspect is to indicate dynamicity and durativity. His characterisation is essentially in consonance with that characterised by Comrie (1976). Bache (1985, p. 171) observes that *V-ing* element in the English pro-gressive aspect creates "an impression of situational vividness or

ongoing activity or process". Joos (1964, pp. 106-8) argues that *be -ing* in English shows a temporary aspect which does not necessarily signify anything but the validity of the predication. That is, the predication is assumed completely valid for the time referred to. Ota (1963, p. 59) proposes that the English progressive forms indicate that an action is/was "in the process (of taking place) now (present progressive) or at or during some time in the past (past progressive)". Implicit in Bache's, Comrie's, Joos', Lyons', Ota's remarks as well as in what Dahl (1985, p. 189) has observed is the idea that progressive aspect in most cases is indifferent of time reference. That is, progressive aspect can be explicitly described separately from the time reference (See Fig. 9, Chapter III).

The general definition of progressive aspect as advanced by Comrie (1976), i.e., the combination of progressive meaning and non-stativity, seems to be provisionally applicable to most, if not all, instances of progressive meaning. If one were not willing to call it a general definition one could still consider it as one of the meanings of progressive aspect, i.e., instances of basic versus peripheral meanings. Provided this general definition is accepted, it may readily be applied to English where this meaning of progressive aspect interacts or rather impinges on the tenses including the (present) perfect as well as on the aspectual character of a certain lexical verb.

An example to illustrate the interaction between progressive aspect and an aspectual character of a verb can be adduced from the following. The verb *understand* in English is normally a stative verb. In this interpretation it is incompatible with the progressive aspect. Thus in (59), the use of *understand* in progressive aspect is inappropriate.

(59) *Yes, I am understanding you*

But in (60) the use of *understand* in progressive aspect is perfectly acceptable. Here *understand* is used nonstatively.

> (60) *I'm understanding more about quantum mechanics as each day goes by* (Comrie, 1976, p. 36)

Comrie (1976, p. 36) argues that the use of progressive aspect in (60) is justified as it refers to a change in the degree of understanding. Thus there is some kind of input of energy in order that the situation in (60) obtains.

Comrie (1976, pp. 38-39) notes that at present there are several idiosyncrasies in the use of the English progressive aspect so that at the present state of research no general meaning to account for every single use of the form is available. Thus not all stative verbs can be used in the progressive aspect. For example, the verb *know* does not take progressive aspect although it is used to refer to a contingent state as in (61), or a surprising state as in (62), or a counterfactual state as in (63) or a changing degree of knowledge as in (64). All the examples are from Comrie (1976, pp. 38-39).

> (61) *John realised that there was no sugar before Mary came in, and forgot that there was no sugar almost as soon as she went out, so that when Mary was in the room he knew/*was knowing that there was no sugar.*
> (62) *Fancy that! You know/*are knowing all about quantum mechanics.*
> (63) *So you know/*are knowing all about quantum mechanics, do you/are you?*
> (64) *I find that I know/*am knowing more about mechanics with each day that passes.*

Perhaps Comrie (1976, p. 39) is correct when he notes that the English progressive aspect is possibly undergoing a change from being always associated with progressive meaning towards a wider range of meanings.

In addition to the basic meaning of progressive aspect in En-

glish Comrie (1976, pp. 37-39) suggests the following peripheral uses.

a. in idiomatic expressions:

(65) *I've only had six whiskies and already I'm seeing pink elephants* (i.e., I'm only imagining things, in fact there are no pink elephants to see)

b. in instances where greater emotive effect is intended:

(66) *She's always buying far more vegetables than they can possibly eat*

c. in purely idiosyncratic uses — compare (67a) and (67b).

(67) a. *You look well/ You are looking well*
     b. *You seem well/*You are seeming well*

Notice despite similarity in meaning between the lexical verbs *look* and *seem,* (67b) does not take the progressive aspect.

Krashen (1982, pp. 87-89) speaks of the three meanings of the English progressive aspect (irrespective of his use of the term 'tense' in this regard, i.e., Krashen uses the term the 'present progressive tense') as

(1) a current, on-going action that would soon be completed, (2) an action that began some time ago in the past and may or may not be taking place at the moment, and would end sometime in the future, and (3) future tense (p. 87).

In the third use, surely Krashen must have intended to mean future time reference rather than future tense.

Leech (1971, pp.1,4,5,14-28) uses a semantic framework, i.e., "according to the type of meaning conveyed by the verb" (p. 18) to describe the uses of the English verbs in Present Tense and Present Tense-Progressive. He suggests that the first most important function of the English Progressive Aspect is to refer to a temporary situation. For example, in the Present Tense-Progressive, the temporary situation includes the present moment but the situation stretches in a limited time into the past and into the future. Characteristically the temporal situation has

duration, limited duration and need not be complete. Notice that (68) has precisely these characteristics: duration in the sense that it is not instantaneous, limited duration in the sense that it is not unrestrictive and not necessarily a complete situation.

   (68) A: *Where's Joan?*
       B: *She's cooking the dinner* (Leech, 1971, p. 15)

Quirk, et al., (1985, pp. 198, 211) also speak of duration, limited duration and not necessarily a complete situation in characterising the meaning of the English progressive aspect.

   The second function of the English progressive aspect is when it is used as 'a temporal frame' which surrounds or encompasses a particular situation or a time point, as in (69).

   (69) *This time last year I was travelling round the world* (Leech, 1971, p. 17)

The situation as expressed by *I was travelling round the world* can be viewed to encompass a time point *this time last year.* That is, the situation stretches into the past or the future from that particular time point. The notion of 'temporal frame' is known to have been introduced by Jespersen (1933, p. 263) who has argued that the chief function of the English progressive aspect or to use his term 'the expanded tenses' is when they are used as a frame round something else either explicitly or implicitly.

Uses of the English Verbs in Progressive Aspect and in Present Tense

   In order to describe the distinction between the uses of the English verbs in Progressive Aspect and in Present Tense, Leech (1971, pp. 14-29) classifies the verbs in terms of the following verbal meanings, i.e., A. Momentary Verbs. B. Transitional Event Verbs, C. Activity Verbs,   D. Process Verbs, E. Inert Perception Verbs, F. Inert Cognition Verbs, G. State Verbs of Having and Being, H. Verbs of Bodily Sensation. He describes 4 other uses of English progressive aspect/forms: I. Habitual Iterative Uses of a

Series, J. Habitual Iterative Uses of Individual Events, K. Uses of Progressive Aspect/Forms to refer to Anticipated Future Situations, L. A Special Use of Progressive Form.

A. Momentary Verbs: Momentary Verbs *hiccough, hit, jump, kick, nod, tap, wink, etc.,* do not normally take progressive aspect except when iterative meaning is expressed. The situations conveyed by these verbs are so momentary that they are considered to have no duration. If the progressive form is used, therefore, it does not convey progressive aspect but iterative meaning, as in (70).

 (70) *He was nodding* (Leech, 1971, p. 19)

The situation conveyed in (70) indicates repetition. Comrie (1976, pp. 42-44) evidently referring to the same phenomenon, but using the term 'punctual' rather than 'momentary', shows that in a slow-motion film the use of progressive aspect will be rendered appropriate, as for example, in an anatomy lecture when the lecturer gives her or his comment, as in (71).

 (71) *and now the subject is coughing* (Comrie, 1976, p. 43)

This seems to indicate that punctuality is not a valid linguistic category. But citing examples from other languages such as Russian and Hungarian in which there are certain suffixes which indicate, under normal circumstances, momentary situations, Comrie (1976) argues that punctuality is a valid linguistic category. Even in English there is a verb which strictly speaking conveys a punctual situation, as in (72).

 (72) *John reached the summit of the mountain* (Comrie, 1976,
   p. 43)

Thus, in view of the said punctuality, progressive aspect never occurs in (73).

 (73) **At this point, John is reaching the summit*
     (Comrie, 1976, p. 43)

(73) is rendered inappropriate because there is no interval

between the moment before John reaches the summit and another moment after he reaches the summit. Surprisingly, when iterative meaning is intended, the progressive form of the situation *reach the summit* can be used, as in (74).

(74) *The soldiers are reaching the summit* (Comrie, 1976, p. 43)

In (74), there are several individual acts of reaching the summit. That is, iterative meaning is conveyed.

B. Transitional Event Verbs: *arrive, die, fall, land, leave, lose, stop, etc.* These verbs signal a transition from one state to another. The use of progressive aspect indicates an approach to the transition and not to the transition itself, as in (75).

(75) *The bus is stopping* (Leech, 1971, pp. 16, 19)

In (75), the situation conveyed is not necessarily complete. It means that the bus is slowing down towards a stop. It has not stopped yet.

The following two groups of verbs, i.e., *activity verbs* and *process verbs* can typically be used in the progressive aspect.

C. Activity Verbs: *drink, eat, play, rain, read, work, write, etc.* These verbs in simple tenses convey an 'event' sense. That is, there is no consideration of duration. In the progressive aspect, they indicate continuing, though bounded, situations. For example, in (76) the situation is going on.

(76) *I'm writing a letter* (Leech, 1971, p. 19)

D. Process Verbs: *change, grow, mature, slow down, widen, deteriorate, etc.* These verbs ordinarily have duration though not indefinite, and they tend to go with progressive aspect. The situation in (77) is understood to have duration.

(77) *They are widening the road* (Leech, 1971, p. 19)

There are straightforward cases of verbs which are inimical to the progressive aspect. These include 'verbs of inert perception', 'verbs of inert cognition', 'state verbs of having and being' and 'verbs of bodily sensation'.

E. Verbs of Inert Perception: *feel, hear, see, smell, taste.*

The term 'inert' is used to denote that the perceiver is passively receptive. Notice (78a) and (78b). The use of the progressive aspect in (78b) is inappropriate.

(78) a. *I could feel something hard under my foot*
     b. **I was feeling something hard under my foot*

F. Verbs of Inert Cognition: *believe, forget, hope, imagine, know, suppose, understand, etc.* These verbs like those in **(E)** are passive in meaning. In the present tense, these verbs indicate mental states. Notice (79a) and (79b).

(79) a. *I think that they are coming*
     b. **I am thinking that they are coming* (Leech, 1971, p. 21)

The use of progressive aspect in (79b) is inappropriate since it is stativity which is conveyed and not dynamicity. Leech (1971, p. 21) also talks about Attitudinal Verbs such as *like, hate, prefer,* which are classifiable under **(F)**.

G. State Verbs of Having and Being: *be, belong to, contain, consist of, depend on, deserve, have, matter, own, resemble,* etc. These verbs when used to refer to states do not take progressive aspect. But if reference is to an 'activity' such as *have* in *have breakfast,* progressive aspect may be employed. Notice that (80b) is inappropriate but (80c) is acceptable since nonstativity is conveyed.

(80) a. *He has a lot of friends*
     b. **He is having a lot of friends*
     c. *He's having breakfast now*

There is a small class of verbs in English which, although referring to a temporary state(s), can occur with or without progressive aspect. These are called 'verbs of bodily sensation'.

H. Verbs of Bodily Sensation: *ache, feel, hurt, itch, tingle, etc.* Leech (1971, p. 22) observes that there is a free choice without change of meaning between *I feel hungry* and *I am feeling hungry.* In accounting for this phenomenon Bache (1985a, pp. 64-65;

1985b, p. 42) describes it as instances of /-distinctive/ constructions, and Allen (1966, pp. 208, 255) describes it as being neutralised in certain contexts. Thus in each of the following pairs there is a free choice.

    (81) a. *Do you feel any better?*
          b. *Are you feeling any better?*
    (82) a. *Your teacher told me yesterday that your class*
           is going on a trip next week
          b. *Your teacher was telling me yesterday that your*
         class is going on a trip next week.
                        (Allen, 1966, p. 208)

Allen (1966, p. 208), however, also states that the distinction between examples marked 'a' and those marked 'b' is that between inclusive reference, i.e., looking from outside and intrusive reference, i.e., looking from inside. With regard to the verbs of classes E, F and G Leech observes apparent exceptions. From the verbs in class E such as *feel, taste, smell* progressive forms can be used, and in these instances they belong to class C verbs, i.e., activity verbs. Notice that (83a) shows inert perception while (83b) active perception.

    (83) a. *I smell the perfume*
          b. *I am smelling the perfume* (Leech, 1971, p. 23)

In (83a) the situation is simply presented to the speaker while in (83b) there is a deliberate attempt on the part of the speaker. The verb *hear* can also be used in the progressive form, as in (84).

    (84) *I am hearing you clearly* (Leech, 1971, p. 24)

Here (84) conveys the meaning *I am receiving your message* as used by a radio or telephone operator. There is an emphasis of the process similar to that of class D verbs in (84).

Verbs in class F can also be found in the progressive form in which case there is suggestive positive mental activity, as in (85).

    (85) *Surely you are imagining things* (Leech, 1971, p. 24)

Leech argues that in (85) the verb *imagine* is used as an activity verb.

There is a special polite use of the progressive form with certain verbs in class F. Notice that (86a, b, c, d) are preferred to their non-progressive counterparts since it is understood that the progressive is more tentative and hence shows a more polite way of expressing mental attitude.

(86) a. *I'm hoping you'll give us some advice*
b. *What were you wanting?*
c. *We are forgetting the moral argument*
d. *We're wondering if you have any suggestion*

(Leech, 1971, p. 24)

Verbs in class G may also combine with the progressive aspect if nonstative meaning is expressed. Notice (87a) and (87b).

(87) a. *She is kind*
b. *She is being kind* (Leech, 1971, p. 25)

(87a) means that she is inherently kind while (87b) means that she is acting kindly towards someone. Notice that (88) is inappropriate because of absence of nonstative meaning.

(88) **The trees are being green* (Leech, 1971, p. 25)

Certain verbs in class G can take progressive form if they are used with *more, less, etc.,* as in (89).

(89) *Good food is costing more since devaluation*

(Leech, 1971, p. 26)

In (89) the verb *cost* is no longer a state verb but a process verb.

Other Uses of Progressive Aspect/Forms.

Leech (1971, pp. 27-29) has mentioned four other uses of progressive aspect in English. Under Comrie's framework these clearly exemplify instances of peripheral uses.

I. Habitual Iterative Uses of a series: In these uses the limited duration of the progressive aspect is applied to the series as a whole rather than to the individual events. Notice that (90) has the meaning of habit which is in existence over a limited period.

(90) *I'm taking dancing lesson this winter* (Leech, 1971, p. 27)

J. Habitual Iterative Uses of Individual Events: Here the limited duration is applied to the individual events which constitute the habit, as in (91).

(91) *Whenever I visit him he is mowing the lawn*
(Leech, 1971, p. 28)

In (91), there is an effect of the time-span of the situation being stretched in the use of the progressive form.

K. Uses of Progressive Aspect/Forms to refer to Anticipated Future Situations

Leech (1971, p. 57) defines this kind of uses as future situations anticipated by virtue of a present plan, programme or arrangement. Observe (92).

(92) *We're having fish for dinner* (Leech, 1971, p. 57)

Notice that if the progressive form in (92) is changed into *be + going to + infinitive* there is intention in place of arrangement as signalled by the progressive form, as in (93).

(93) *We are going to have fish for dinner*

In uttering (93) the speaker is understood to have the intention of having fish for dinner at the time (93) is uttered.

L. A Special Idiomatic Use of Progressive Form: In this use there is no temporary element. Instead, what is conveyed is a persistent state or continuous activity, as in (94).

(94) *My father is forever getting into trouble with the law* (Leech, 1971, p. 29)

(94) can be paraphrased as to mean that there is never a time during which the father is not having trouble with the law.

In Comrie's framework, of these groups of verbs, (i.e., **A. Momentary Verbs, B. Transitional Event Verbs, C. Activity Verbs, D. Process Verbs, E. Verbs of Inert Perception, F. Verbs of Inert Cognition, G. State Verbs of Having and Being, H. Verbs of Bodily Sensation, I. Habitual Iterative Uses of a Series, J. Habitual**

Iterative Uses of Individual Events, K. Uses of Progressive Aspect/Forms to refer to Anticipated Future Situations, L. A Special Idiomatic Use of Progressive Form), two types of verbs, i.e., **C.** Activity Verbs and **D.** Process Verbs express progressivity and nonstativity — an instance of Comrie's basic use of the English Progressive Aspect. The following types of verbs, i.e., **E.** Verbs of Inert Perception, **F.** Verbs of Inert Cognition, **H.** Verbs of Bodily Sensation, express stativity, but when non-stativity is expressed, progressive aspect is used. The use of Progressive Aspect in these types of verbs, (i.e., **A.** Momentary Verbs, **B.** Transitional Event Verbs, **G.** State Verbs of Having and Being, **I.** Habitual Iterative Uses of a series, **J.** Habitual Iterative Uses of Individual Events, **K.** Uses of Progressive Aspect/Forms to refer to Anticipated Future Situations, **L.** A Special Idiomatic Use of Progressive Form), seems to exemplify the peripheral uses of the English Progressive Aspect.

4.3.2 The English (present) perfect

The category of (present) perfect in English has often been associated with the term 'aspect'. In Comrie's terms this classification is not accurate for the perfect does not fully concern the way a person looks at a situation. It is even more unfortunate that the term 'perfect' and 'perfective' seem to bear the same meaning. This resemblance has led a number of scholars to analyse the English perfect as 'perfective' (Close, 1977, p. 85; Engels, et al., 1986, pp. 102-103; Quirk, et al., 1972, pp. 90-92; 1985, pp. 188-97).

Several other scholars such as Bache (1985b, p. 227), Declerck (1986, p. 349), McCoard (1978, p. 152) and Nehls (1975, p. 278) have suggested that the category 'perfect' does not concern aspect. Comrie (1976, p. 52) points out that the category

'perfect' is not actually aspectual in the strict sense of the term but since other scholars have included 'perfect' in the discussion of aspect he includes perfect under aspect with some reservation. That is, perfect is aspect in a different sense.

In terms of tense, according to Comrie, (1986, p. 41) the English Present Perfect and the English Past Tense is not distinct since in both categories the respective situation is located before the moment of speech. But many writers argue that, unlike the past tense, the present perfect has a distinct property, i.e., current relevance. McCoard (1978, pp. 31-65) criticises the proponents of the current relevance theory by stating that current relevance is only the name given to the diverse implications that the perfect may have, such as recency, present existence, indef-initeness, continuance up to the present, iterativity, experiential-ity and present possibility. Current relevance does not properly contrast the past tense and the present perfect. Declerck (1986, pp. 310-11) and McCoard (1978, p. 56) observe that even sentences in the past tense can convey current relevance in English. In view of this fact Declerck suggests that the English Present Perfect and the English Past Tense differ basically in the way they locate situations. This suggestion runs counter to what Comrie (1985) has suggested, i.e., that the Present Perfect and the Past Tense in terms of locating situations in time is the same. Declerck (1986, pp. 346-50) argues that in the English (present) perfect, the situation is located or oriented to a reference point which is before-and-up-to the time of utterance, while in the Past Tense the situation is oriented to a reference point which is wholly before the time of utterance. In this framework Declerck (1986) seems to imply that the meanings which are normally ascribed to the English (present) perfect such

as the perfect of result, experiential perfect, perfect of persistent situation, perfect of recent past are not the criterial meanings of the present perfect which distinguishes it from the past tense. Ota (1963, pp. 55-58, 118) seems to be of the same opinion as Declerck (1986). He argues that the common semantic component of the English Perfect is the period the end point of which touches the moment of speaking. According to Ota (1963), resultative, continuative and completive are not the defining characteristics of perfect but of the tendencies of the context or the individual lexical verbs which are used in perfect. In his conclusion, Ota (1963) speaks of perfect as a secondary tense, unlike the present tense or past tense. This observation seems to corroborate the views that the category of perfect is unique in that it can be classified as tense or aspect or even outside both altogether as suggested by Bauer (1970, p. 197) who argues that the English perfect is neither a tense nor an aspect but is a category in its own right. McCoard (1978, p.134), while agreeing that the English Present Perfect expresses current relevance in many instances, argues that it is not its defining characteristic. He suggests that the defining characteristic of the use of the perfect depends on many factors (See Chapter III, Section 3.7.2).

By incorporating Comrie's framework (1985) together with that of Declerck's suggestion (1986, 1988), the following formula, in terms of time relation, seems to be applicable to the English Present Perfect.

$$E^1 \quad \textit{before-and-up-to} \quad S$$

where E^1 refers to a situation with perfect meaning

before-and-up-to means 'before-and-up-to' relation

While still admitting the different meanings of the perfect such as perfect of result, experiential perfect, perfect of persistent

situation, perfect of recent past as adduced in Comrie (1976, pp. 56-60), one can still argue that in each of the meanings above there is a relation of some kind between E^1 and S.

One interesting fact about the English Present Perfect is that this category does not collocate with a past time adverb but it does allow collocation with a time adverb which includes the moment of speech. In a sense this kind of adverb is interpretable as constituting a time span between a past time point and the moment of speech or a time span of *before-and-up-to* S. Thus, in (95) the time adverb *today* is understood to include the moment of speech S.

(95) *I have seen Fred today* (Comrie, 1976, p. 54)

Another interesting fact about the English Present Perfect is that all situations can potentially be conveyed by using the Present Perfect if only the perfect meaning is intended. Thus, one can formulate any English verb phrase to be expressed in the (present) perfect, as in (96a, b) and (97a, b).

(96) a. *He has a car*
    b. *He has had a car since last year*
(97) a. *He came here this morning*
    b. *He has come already*

Interestingly, this characteristic is absent in the English progressive aspect.

Basic vs. peripheral meanings of the English Present Perfect

To invoke the distinction between the basic and peripheral meanings of the English Present Perfect one could argue that while *before-and-up-to* S relation exemplifies the basic use, the following uses of Present Perfect as adduced in Comrie (1976, pp. 56-61) seem to be instances of extension of its basic meaning. According to Comrie there are four types of perfect.

A. **Perfect of Result:** Comrie (1976, pp. 56-61) suggests that

this is a clear manifestation of current relevance. Perfect of Result is characterised by a present state which is referred to as being the result of some past situation. Notice how (98a) and (98b) differ in meaning.

(98) a. *John has arrived* (i.e., John is still here)
b. *John arrived* (i.e., John is not necessarily here)

B. Experiential Perfect: This type of perfect indicates that a given situation has obtained at least once during the past time which leads up to *S*. Notice (99a) and (99b) which indicate respectively perfect of result and experiential perfect.

(99) a. *Bill has been to America*
b. *Bill has gone to America*

C. Perfect of Persistent Situation: Comrie (1976, pp. 56-61) speaks of this type of perfect as the characteristic of the English Present Perfect. Perfect of Persistent Situation describes a situation which started in the past and persists into the present. Notice that in (100), the situation conveyed persists into the present.

(100) *We've lived here for ten years*

C. Perfect of Recent Past: In English this type of perfect is used with adverbs such as recently, just, etc., which indicate recency or temporal closeness. According to Comrie (1976, pp. 56-61), the present relevance in this perfect is manifested by temporal closeness, i.e., a recent past situation. Notice (101a) and (101b). Arguably, the situations in (101a) and (101b) are all recent situations.

(101) a. *I have recently learned that the match is to be postponed*
b. *Bill has just arrived*

In discussing the English Perfect Quirk, et al., (1985, p.190) suggest that the most general definition of the English Perfect (in their terminology 'the perfective aspect') is to indicate 'anterior time', that is, time which precedes any other time point. The

English Perfect defines an anterior time zone within which a given situation holds. This anterior time zone seems to be what Declerck (1986,1988) has suggested, that is, *before-and-up-to S* relation. This may further provide justification for suggesting that the perfect or the English Perfect has *before-and-up-to S* relation. Applying Comrie's succinct formula (1985), Declerck's suggestion (1986,1988) and the model proposed in this thesis, the time relation *E before-and-up-to S* can be invoked in each the four types of perfect.

4.3.3 The English Past Habitual Aspect

Quirk, et al. (1972, p.102) indicated, as many other scholars had done before, that the meaning of the English past habitual aspect *used to* was that of 'a state or habit that existed in the past but has ceased' (See Section 4.3 in this Chapter). This characterisation is inaccurate as Comrie (1976, pp. 28-29; 1985, p. 42) has shown that the sense that the habit no longer exists at present is not the meaning of this aspect but rather an implicature. Thus, in (102),

(102) *John used to play football 20 years ago, and he still does now*

the use of *used to* according to the characterisation as advanced by Quirk, et al. (1972) should have been regarded inappropriate for the simple reason that the habit as conveyed in (102) still obtains at present.

This anomaly can be resolved by the observation that the habit no longer holds at the time of speaking in the English past habitual aspect can be accounted for as being an instance of an implicature and not the characteristic meaning of this aspect (Comrie, 1976, 1985; Grice, 1975, 1978, 1981). In the utterance of a speech act believed to be with an implicature, the implicature in question is normally conveyed unless it is cancelled as in (102). Here the

implicature is indeed cancelled by *and he still does now.* Thus, in (102) that John still plays football now holds at the present time. Grice's theory of conversation has been criticised as being both vacuous and too powerful for it can be used to work out any communicative meaning for any one utterance (Kiefer, 1979, p. 70; Sadock, 1978, pp. 287, 295). However, it has been shown by many writers that 'implicature' is a useful concept in accounting for specific phenomena in communication. For example, it has been shown that the Javanese folk linguistic term 'GR' to be pronounced [ge er] which stands for *gede rasa* [gǝde råså] as used by both Javanese and Indonesian speakers familiar with or of Javanese background, can be related to the notion of Gricean implicature (See Suwono, 1988).

4.4.1 The proposed interaction between tense, aspect, (present) perfect, 'mood/modality', 'pragmatic issues' and time in English

Comrie's unified theory of tense (1985) and the 'theory' of aspect (1976) can only represent the basic meanings of tense, aspect and (present) perfect characterised prototypically in language in general. As Comrie (1976, p. vii, 1985, p. ix) uses examples from a wide range of languages, including English, in this study it is assumed that these basic meanings are expressed by the English tense, aspect and present perfect. As Fig. 9 (See Chapter III) is assumed to represent the interrelationship between tense, aspect and present perfect in language in general, it is also assumed that it represents such interrelationship in English.

Tense, aspect, (present) perfect, 'mood/modality' and 'time' in English are related. But 'mood/modality' is a factor which brings in further complexity of the English tense-aspect

complexes. Each of these grammatical categories and time impinge on one another either in a grammaticalised or lexicalised form when these grammatical categories and concepts are used for communication. To account for this intricate relationship, two different uses of tense, aspect, (present) perfect, i.e., proto-typical and non-prototypical uses, i.e., basic and peripheral meanings respectively, need to be distinguished. It will be argued that a pedagogically appropriate solution to the presentation of this complexity is to distinguish clearly between basic and peripheral meanings of these complexes.

4.4.1.1 Interrelationship between the basic meanings of tense, aspect, (present) perfect in English

Fig. 10 is designed to show that tense, aspect and (present) perfect can be seen to interact simultaneously express-ing 'states', 'events', 'processes', etc., resulting in 'tense-aspect complexes'.
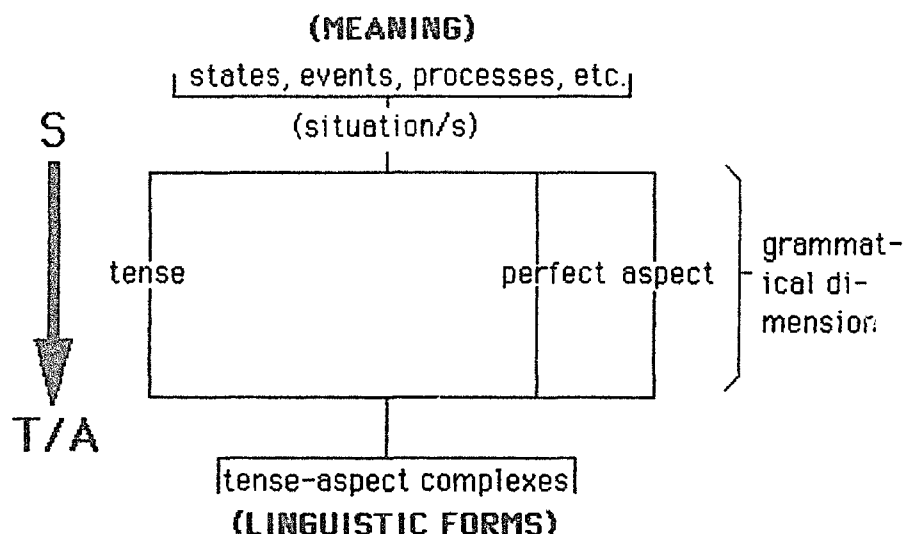
Fig. 10: A representation of basic (prototypical) meanings of tense, aspect and (present) perfect in English (S stands for situation/s and T/A stands for tense-aspect complexes)

As this representation is based on Comrie's unified theory of

tense assumed to be applicable crosslinguistically, this one-form-one-meaning relationship is assumed to be applicable to English. The one-form-one-meaning relationship is shown by the **S — T/A arrow**. It is assumed in this study that native speakers of English make this connection mostly subconsciously without paying attention to the grammatical distinctions which interact with each other in the merged forms.

A tense category in Fig. 10 is assumed to be deictic whereas an aspect category is assumed to be non-deictic (See Fig. 9, Chapter III). Hence time or time reference is assumed to be prototypically expressed by a tense category in English whereas aspectual reference, which is non-deictic, is also assumed to be proto-typically expressed by an English aspect category.

As shown in Fig. 10, when aspect interacts with tense it is assumed that the English aspectual category expresses aspectual reference, and simultaneously the English tense category expresses deictic time, i.e., deictic time reference. By the same token, the English (present) perfect interacts with progressive aspect to express both 'perfect' and progressive meaning. The interaction represented in Fig. 10 produces basic meanings of the respective tense-aspect complexes as in (103a, b).

Thus it is assumed in (103a) that progressive aspect in English hypothetically[1] interacts with each of the seven tenses and present perfect to produce sixteen possible forms. Kaluza (1979, p. 139), Nehls (1975, pp. 279-91) and Palmer (1974, p. 30) distinguish sixteen forms for pedagogical purposes, although under different names. Nehls (1975, p. 280) has mentioned the importance of the suitability of the sixteen active forms and sixteen passive forms in the teaching of

English as a foreign language in particular in providing an illustration of the formal expansion of the English verb phrase. The following examples are taken from Palmer (1974, p. 30).

(103a)

i. Present Tense *takes*
ii. Past Tense *took*
iii. Present Progressive *is taking*
iv. Past Progressive *was taking*
v. Present Perfect *has taken*
vi. Pluperfect Tense *had taken*
vii. Future Tense *will take*
viii. Future Perfect Tense *will have taken*
ix. Present Perfect Progressive *has been taking*
x. Pluperfect Progressive *had been taking*
xi. Future Progressive *will be taking*
xii. Future-in-the-Past Tense *would take*
xiii. Future-in-the-Past Progressive *would be taking*
xiv. Future Perfect Progressive *will have been taking*
xv. Past Future Perfect Tense *would have taken*
xvi. Past Future Perfect Progressive *would have been taking*

Nehls (1974, pp. 290-91) notes that numbers (xiv) and (xvi) occur very seldom in actual English usage.

Using Comrie's framework (1976, 1985) and Declerck's characterisation of Present Perfect (1986, 1988), one may characterise the basic meanings of the sixteen forms as follows:

103b)

i. *E simul S*
ii. *E before S*
iii. *E simul S* + progressivity & nonstativity
iv. *E before S* + progressivity & nonstativity
v. E^1 *before-and-up-to S*
vi. *E before R before S*
vii. *E after S*
viii. *E before R after S*
ix. E^1 *before-and-up-to S* + progress. & nonstativity
x. *E before R before S* + progress. & nonstativity
xi. *E after S* + progressivity & nonstativity
xii. *E after R before S*
xiii. *E after R before S* + progress. & nonstativity
xiv. *E before R after S* + progress. & nonstativity
xv. *E before R_1 after R_2 before S*

xvi. *E before R_1 after R_2 before S* + progress. & nonstativ.

Note: E^1 refers to a situation with 'perfect' meaning.

The characterisation of these meanings is in terms of proto-typical uses to express basic meanings. In (103b: iii, iv, x, xi, xiii, xiv, xvi) tense and progressive aspect interact, and in (103b: ix) (present) perfect and progressive aspect also interact as shown in Fig. 10. Hypothetically, it is assumed that the one-form-one-meaning relationship of these complexes is maintained.

It should be noted that the 16 meanings in (103b) are not automatically conveyed or expressed in every use of the forms. It is not the case that for any one form in any situation the meanings of (i) to (xvi) are always manifested. The meaning intended in some cases depends on the context. For example, the meaning of Present Tense which is prototypically *E simul S* can indeed be used to convey *E before S* as in Historic Present or *E after S* as in Conditional Sentences with future time reference. These other uses of Present Tense are perhaps an extension of the meaning of *E simul S*. But there is no agreement in this respect. In fact, King (1983, pp. 101-54) has postulated that since the present tense can be used to convey situations in the past, present and future, this tense is basically not tied to any temporal reference.

The boundary between lexicalisation and grammaticalisation is sometimes blurred. If one accepts polysemy in the lexicon, one can argue with equal validity that there is polysemy in grammatical categories. That is, a grammatical category can have other uses or meanings in addition to its prototypical use or meaning.

Can English tense, aspect, (present) perfect forms express secondary meanings? As the study adopts the assumption that a grammatical category in addition to its basic meaning which is prototypically expressed can also express peripheral meanings

(See Chapter III) it is assumed that the English grammatical categories can express peripheral or secondary meanings, too. For example, English Present Tense peripherally can be used to express 'historic present', 'present with future time reference' and 'imaginary present'; English Past Tense peripherally can be used to express 'attitudinal past', 'hypothetical past' and in 'back-shifting'; English Future Tense peripherally can be used to express 'modal' meaning; Pluperfect Tense peripherally can be used in Conditional Sentences Type 3 Protases, Backshifting; Future-in-the-Past Tense peripherally can be used in Conditional Sentences Type 2 Apodoses and Backshifting; Past Future Perfect Tense peripherally can be used in Conditional Sentences Type 3 Apodoses and Backshifting; Future Perfect Tense peripherally can be used to express 'modal tenses' (See Hornstein, 1977; see Section 4.2.2.2.2 in this Chapter). In this study no attempt is made to characterise the peripheral meanings of the English (present) perfect. It is assumed that the English Present Perfect basically expresses *before-and-up-to S* relation in each of the four 'perfect' meanings discussed in Section 4.3.2 in this Chapter.

Can these foregoing peripheral meanings be represented in Fig. 10? As these secondary or peripheral meanings do not express prototypical uses of tense, aspect and (present) perfect anymore owing to the interaction with 'mood/modality', 'pragmatic issues' and time, Fig. 10 cannot represent these peripheral meanings. A clear example for this intricate relationship is the use of 'modal tenses' which express "a deviant nontemporal reading" as in

   (55b) *John will have arrived home yesterday*
       (Hornstein, 1977, p. 537; see Section
       4.2.2.2.2 in this Chapter and Section 3.4
       Chapter III).

This 'modal tense', to use Hornstein's terms, cannot be represented in Fig. 10 for the simple reason that 'time/temporal reference'

in the grammatical dimension is mainly used to account for deictic tense, i.e., grammaticalised time reference, to express basic (prototypical) meanings of tense, aspect and (present) perfect. The use of Future Perfect Tense in (55b) violates its basic meaning which is *E before R after S*. (55b) does not express Future Perfect Time Reference but it does express deictic time reference lexically by the use of *yesterday* to express *before S*. There needs to be a model that can represent a deviant non-temporal reading of this type of tense form.

4.4.1.2 Interrelationship between peripheral (non-prototypical) meanings of tense, aspect and (present) perfect in English

The peripheral meanings of English tense, (present) perfect and aspect express a variety of meanings. 'Mood/modality' and 'pragmatic issues' override the basic meanings expressed by the English tense, (present) perfect and aspect. That is, 'mood/modality' and 'pragmatic issues' encroach on the temporal and aspectual reference expressed by these grammatical categories. 'Mood/modality' and 'pragmatic issues' thus affect the context-independent characterisation of tense-aspect complexes shown in Figs. 9 and 10. (Also see Comrie, 1976, 1985). The interaction of these complexes may thus express nontemporal as well as altered and generalised temporal reference (See Analysis of Texts 1, 2 and 3, Section 4.5 in this Chapter). Fig. 11 is constructed to show such interrelationship.
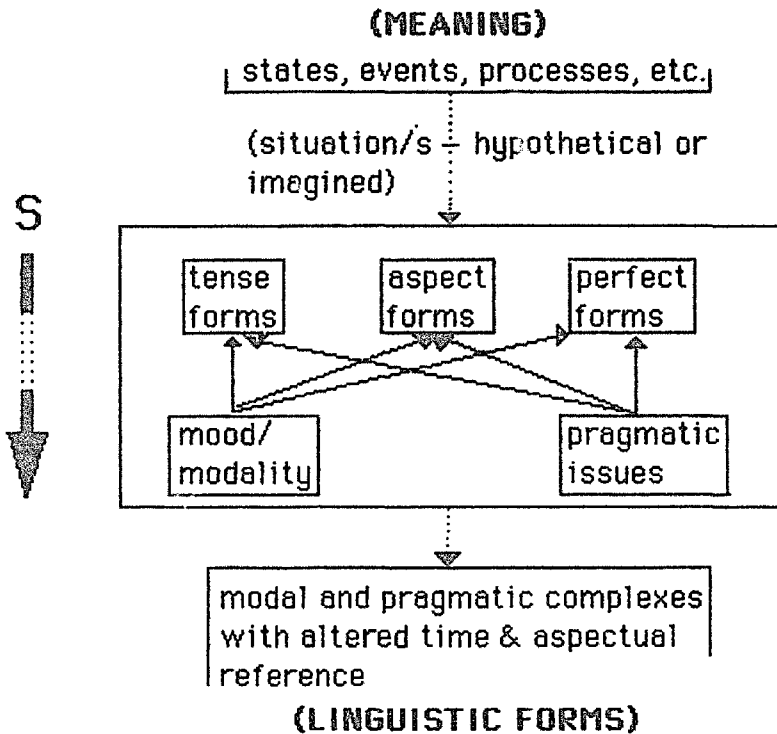
(MEANING)

┊ states, events, processes, etc.┊

(situation/s – hypothetical or
imagined)

S

| tense forms | aspect forms | perfect forms |

| mood/ modality | | pragmatic issues |

modal and pragmatic complexes
with altered time & aspectual
reference

(LINGUISTIC FORMS)

Fig. 11: A representation of peripheral (non-prototypical) meanings of tense, aspect, (present) perfect in English

'Mood/modality' and 'pragmatic issues' in Fig. 11 are not described separately but are assumed to operate optionally when relevant. The dotted lines show that the one-form-one-meaning relationship as indicated in Fig. 10 is disrupted owing to the interaction referred to. Grammatical terms in Fig. 11, however, can still be used for contextual, i.e., textual, etc., description without necessarily referring to the one-form-one-meaning relationship.

The term 'situation/s' in Figs. 10 and 11 in this context refers to 'states, events, processes, etc.,' relevant to those expressible in English, and 'tense-aspect complexes' and 'modal and pragmatic complexes' are to be understood as those of English. In other words, the term 'situation/s' in Fig. 10 is directly related to English 'tense-aspect complexes', and the term 'situation/s' in Fig. 11 is directly related to English 'modal and pragmatic complexes'.

4.4.1.3   Uses of Figs. 9, 10 and 11

To characterise the basic meanings of the English tense-aspect complexes one needs to isolate for analytical purposes individualized factors which interact in these complexes. Hence the description of the basic meaning of Present Tense, i.e., E *simul S,* can be represented or characterised in the 'grammatical dimension' shown in Figs. 9 and 10. Similarly, the description of the basic meanings of English Past Tense, i.e., E *before S,* Future Tense, i.e., E *after S,* Pluperfect Tense, i.e., E *before R before S,* Future-in-the-Past Tense, i.e., E *after R before S,* Future Perfect Tense, i.e., E *before R after S,* Past Future Perfect Tense, i.e., E *before R_1 after R_2 before S* and Present Perfect E^1 *before-up-to S* can all be characterised in terms of 'grammatical dimension' shown in Figs. 9 and 10.

In the foregoing characterisation, however, there is a difficulty in presenting or describing Present Perfect. As the study adopts the assumption that (present) perfect can be characterised under tense or aspect or outside both (See Section 3.7.2, Chapter III), the English Present Perfect will be characterised under tense, or aspect or even outside both. Under tense, the English Present Perfect in terms of locating situation/s in time, is not distinct from Past Tense (See Comrie, 1976, 1985; Section 3.7.2, Chapter III). In this study as indicated in Section 3.5.1, Chapter III, S is used to refer to the (present) moment of speech. Under aspect, the English Present Perfect is assumed to express the 'accomplished' nature of the situation/s. If the four types of Perfect are taken into account prototypically (See Section 4.3.2 in this Chapter), the English Present Perfect can be described outside tense and aspect.

A similar problem arises in describing the English habitual

present. Like Present Perfect, Habitual Present appears to contradict the separation of tense and aspect. A verb form that expresses a 'habitual' situation belongs in the category of aspect (See Section 3.5.2 Chapter III; Comrie, 1976). But the same form is also in a present tense form, and as such it can be characterised under tense. Here the distinction between tense and aspect is violated. Comrie (1985) offers a solution to this problem by arguing that the meaning of habitual present is in consonance with the basic meaning of Present Tense. That is, at the moment of speaking the habit is true. Such a description can be characterised in terms of time reference in the grammatical dimension (Figs. 9 and 10). But if one considers habitual present as a category of aspect one must describe it in terms of aspectual reference in the grammatical dimension (Figs. 9 and 10). Because of the difficulty in characterising Present Perfect and Habitual Present, the description or presentation must bypass the 'grammatical dimension'. In such a case 'meaning' and 'tense-aspect complexes' are seen as directly connected, though not in a one-form-one-meaning relationship.

Another problem arises in describing the English tenses peripherally. Past Tense, for example, can be used peripherally to express present time reference as in the Attitudinal Past *Did you want to see me now?* (Quirk, et al., 1985, p. 188). Quirk, et al., (1973, p. 43) state that the use of *'Did you want to see me?'* is a little more than a slightly politer version of *'Do you . . .?'* " (1973, p. 43); Present Tense can be used peripherally to express Imaginary Present or Historic Present (Leech, 1971, pp. 12-13). When Past Tense is used to express present time reference it does not express its basic meaning, which is *E before S* but *E simul S*. Similarly, when Present Tense is used to express Historic Present

the situation expressed is actually located *before* S but it uses a Present Tense form. Because 'grammatical dimension', as indicated in Chapter III (Fig. 9) and in Chapter IV (Fig. 10), cannot be used to describe adequately all the interactions in the English tense-aspect complexes, some of the description must be couched only with reference to 'situation', i.e., **MEANING,** and 'tense-aspect complexes' (Fig. 10) or 'modal and pragmatic complexes' (Fig. 11), i.e., **FORM.**

In other words the description of the peripheral meanings of Present Tense, Past Tense, Future Tense, Pluperfect Tense, Future-in-the-past Tense, Future Perfect Tense, Past Future Perfect Tense can be described in terms of 'situation/s' and 'modal and pragmatic complexes' rather than in terms of the 'grammatical dimension'.

The separation of 'situation', 'tense-aspect complexes', 'modal and pragmatic complexes', and 'grammatical dimension' is pedagogically necessary to draw the student's attention to the relevant linguistic forms that distinguish between the basic and peripheral meanings of the English tense-aspect complexes. The separation is necessary because the basic meaning of an English tense is deictic. When tense interacts with 'mood/modality' and 'pragmatic issues', however, the relation between tense and time is not clear, i.e., altered, in terms of tense as a deictic category (See Fig. 11). For example, Comrie (1986b) states that if a past tense form "is used modally, as in conditional sentences" (p. 288) the relation between tense form and time is 'abnormal', as in

(103c) *If Penny arrived tomorrow, we'd all be overjoyed*

Using Comrie's formulation for the meaning of *If Penny arrived tomorrow,* the formula *E after S* and not *E before S* is used to represent the meaning of the Past Tense form *arrived.*

4.5 An Illustration of the interaction between tense, aspect, (present) perfect, 'mood/ modality' and time in English

In this section, a sample analysis utilizing the concepts/ terms defined in Chapters III and IV will be presented using three different texts as a corpus of data to illustrate the interaction between the actual English tense, aspect, (present) perfect, 'mood/modality', 'pragmatic issues' and time as well as the respective basic meanings of these complexes.

Text 1 is taken from UNESCO AUSTRALIA Australian National Commission for UNESCO, Vol.1 Number 1 June 1991, p. 28.

(104) Jakarta Workshop (UNESCO AUSTRALIA Australian National Commission for UNESCO Vol. 1 Number 1 June 1991, p.28).

(105) The third in a series of successful conservation workshops *was held* at the National Museum, Jakarta in February.

(106) Funded as part of the National Commission's Culture Sector Program ($9,000), the training workshop *was organized* and *led* by Dr. Colin Pearson, Director, National Centre for Cultural Heritage Science Studies, University of Canberra, *assisted* by Mr. David Hallam, Head, Metal Conservation Section, Australian War Memorial, Canberra.

(107) The event *brought* together 15 participants and nine observers from museums in Jakarta and the Indonesian provinces.

(108) The objective *was to train* the conservation and curatorial staff to recognise the corrosion problems of metal artefacts, and *equip* them to perform a range of basic conservation techniques.

(109) The first week of the workshop *was devoted* to the many aspects of conservation theory while the second week *consisted of* hands-on work in the laboratory.

(110) Participants *had been requested* to bring to the workshop metal objects from their museum which *had* typical conservation problems.

(111) Metals covered *included* copper alloys (including brass and bronze), iron alloys (cast and wrought), silver alloys and plated metals.

(112) Most of the necessary conservation materials,

chemicals and literature *had been sent on* ahead of the workshop from Australia.

(113) (It *is* not always possible to obtain such items in Jakarta).

(114) Flammable solvents, which *cannot be airfreighted*, and some other items,*were supplied* locally.

(115) Dr. Pearson *said* there *were* few problems with the workshop.

(116) The enthusiasm and motivation *involved* everyone and the basic aims and objectives of the workshop *were achieved.*

(117) Projecting future such activities Dr. Pearson *was* it *was hoped* that the development of a conservation program for Indonesian museums and cultural centres *could be* a joint project effort between the Ford Foundation and the Australian-Indonesian Institute.

(118) Commenting on the fact that only one museum in Indonesia — the National Museum in Jakarta — *has* reasonable conservation laboratory facilities, Dr. Pearson *recommended* that the establishment of one central conservation facility to service the other Jakarta museums *be investigated.*

(119) The facility *could have* sections specialising in conservation of paintings, paper, textiles, metal, wood and general objects.

(120) "With careful consideration to the design, equipping, staffing and management I *believe* — such a facility *would work* and *would provide* an invaluable service," he *said.*

(121) Dr. Pearson also *stressed* that formal training of conservators *is* essential and *should be considered* a high priority in future developmental planning in this sphere °

Text 2 is taken from READER'S DIGEST SWEEPSTAKES SELECTION DEPARTMENT.

(122) Reader's Digest Sweepstakes Selection Department

(123) You *have* just successfully *passed* the first two stages in our sweepstakes draw.

(124) Your chances or coming through the third as a winner *depend upon* your decision to return the enclosed sweepstakes selection certificate.

(125) Dear Mr. . . .

(126) You *are* only one step away from the decisive draw in which $220,000 *will be shared* among 1,008 winners.

(127) Naturally, not everyone *will become* a winner — but I'*m going to congratulate* you all the same, Mr A, for being so close *at this moment*.

(128) It *would be* a great pity, just before the final stage, *to ignore* the very real chance you *have to win* a major prize, especially when the final step *is* so *easy to take* !

(129) All you *need do is* return your Sweepstakes Selection Certificate to me — and it *could make* you $ 100,000 richer!

(130) You *are* well placed along the road to fortune thanks to a perfect run *so far* (2 stages out of 3 passed).

(131) So I *would like* you now, Mr A, to give some thought to how you *would like to* receive that $ 100,000 if you *do turn out* to be the winner.

(132) *Would* you *prefer* $100,000 cash to spend as you please, or advice from a financial expert on how best to invest that sum, or perhaps a guaranteed income of $10,000 a year for life?

(133) We *would* also *need* your help in organising a memorable day — the presentation and Celebration Luncheon — during which you *would receive* your prize and *be* our guest of honour.

(134) And the Grand Prize *is* not all you *could win*.

(135) *Find* a Privileged Entry Cheque and an R.S.V.P. Card enclosed — both bearing your name — and you *will have* two extra chances to win extra cash.

(136) *Look for* them, then *make sure* you <u>beat</u> the deadlines.

(137) Now the third and final stage . . .

(138) As I *mentioned*, you *have passed* the first two stages.

(139) Who'*s to say* you *won't succeed* just as effortlessly at the third stage: the draw for 1,008 winners?

(140) <u>You *could claim* a FREE GIFT now!</u>

(141) That's right: together with a copy of our new GARDENERS' ENCYCLOPAEDIA, we'*ll* also *send* you an attractive, useful 1992 Calendar — yours FREE when you *say* YES!

(142) This superb gardening book from Reader's Digest *is* a first: a comprehensive, fully illustrated encyclopaedia or more than 4,000 garden plants, with information from the experts for growing them to create the garden you *want*.

(143) *See* the brochure — you'*ll get* some ideas from it to whet your appetite!

(144)*Don't pass* up the opportunity to own this thoroughly practical volume, which *is* available now at a money-saving, direct-to-the-customer price: the book *can be* yours for only $15.95 first instalment, followed by 2 interest-free monthly payments of $ 22.00 each — a total of $59.95, plus $5.45 for postage and handling.

(145) To send for the GARDENER'S ENCYCLOPEDIA (and the FREE Calendar) *return* all your Sweepstakes entry documents in the YES envelope.

(146) If you *want* to enter the Sweepstakes only, *use* the NO envelope instead.

(147) IMPORTANT: using the YES envelope *will give* you another chance to win cash in the Customers Only Prize Draw — *see* your <u>Bingo Card</u> and 'foil sachet' to find how much!

(148) *Make* the most of our offer — *send* your YES reply NOW.

(149) Sincerely

(150) *P.S.*

(151) <u>*Let*</u> me <u>*remind*</u> you that you <u>*have*</u> already <u>*passed*</u> the first two stages of our draw and that it <u>would</u> now <u>be</u> unthinkable for you not to return your entry documents within 7 days.

(152) *Somebody* <u>*has to win*</u> *the $ 100,000 Grand Prize . . . Why not you?*

(153) READER'S DIGEST (AUSTRALIA) PTY LIMITED (A.C.N. 000565471) (October 1991)

Text 3 is taken from Smile's <u>Self-Help: with illustrations of conduct & perseverance</u> (1908).

(154) . . . perseverance . . .

(155) The accidental destruction of Sir Isaac Newton's papers, by his little dog 'Diamond' upsetting a lighted taper upon his desk, by which the elaborate calculations of many years *were* in a moment destroyed, *is* a well-known anecdote, and *need not be repeated:* it *is said* that the loss *caused* the philosopher such profound grief that it seriously *injured* his health, and *impaired* his understanding.

(156) An accident of a somewhat similar kind *happened to* the MS. of Mr. Carlyle's first volume of his *French Revolution.*

(157) He *had lent* the MS. to a literary neighbour to peruse.

(158) By some mischance, it *had been left* lying on the parlour floor, and *became* forgotten.

(159) Weeks *ran on,* and the historian *sent* for his work, the printers being loud for 'copy'.

(160) Inquiries *were made,* and it *was found* that the maid-of-all-work, finding what she *conceived* to be a bundle of waste paper on the floor, *had used* it to light the kitchen and parlour fires with!

(161) Such *was* the answer *returned to* Mr. Carlyle; and his feelings *may be imagined* .

(162) There *was,* however, no help for him but to set resolutely to work to rewrite the book; and he *turned to* and *did* it.

(163) He *had* no draft, and *was compelled* to rake up from his memory facts, ideas, and expressions, which *had been* long since *dismissed.*

(164) The composition of the book in the first instance *had been* a work of pleasure; the rewriting of it a second time *was* one of pain and anguish almost beyond belief.

(165) That he *persevered* and *finished* the volume under such circumstances, *affords* an instance of determination of purpose which *has* seldom *been surpassed.*

(166) Smiles, Samuel. (1908). <u>Self-Help with illustrations of conduct & perseverance</u>. London: John Murray.

The corpus (104-166) consist of sentence, clause and NP units. The units in Text 1 (104-121) may be taken to express time reference either explicitly or implicitly referring to past, present or future time respectively, i.e., the situation E is either *before S,* or *simul S,* or *after S,* or E *relative R relative S.* Or else they simply express E (See Analysis of Text 1). The sentence, clause, NP units in Text 2 (122-153), by contrast, seem to express present time reference E *simul S,* future time reference E *after S,* past time reference E *before S,* E *relative S,* and E^1 *before-up-to S,* or simply E (See Analysis of Text 2). The clauses/units in Text 3 (154-166) seem to express E *before S,* E *simul S,* E *relative R relative S,* and E^1 *before-up-to S* or undefined time reference E without expressing the explicit future time reference at all (See Analysis of Text 3).

Analysis of Text 1:

(104) explicitly expresses past time reference, *E before S* by using *June 1991.* (105), by contrast, expresses *E before S* explicitly by using the Past Tense form *was held* and by the adverb of time *in February (1991).* Other Past Tense forms as in (106) *was organised/led, assisted;* (107) *brought;* (108) *was to train/equip;* (109) *was devoted to/consisted;* (110) *had;* (111) *included;* (114) *were supplied;* (115) *said, were;* (116) *involved, were achieved;* (117) *was, was hoped, could be;* (118) *recommended;* (119) *could have;* (120) *said;* (121) *stressed* all express *E before S.* But (117) *could be,* (119) *could have,* (120) *would work, would provide,* however, may also express modal meaning and nontemporal or generalised temporal reference.

(110) and (112) express past-in-the-past time reference, *E before R before S.* The request in (110), i.e., *had been requested,* was made prior to the past time reference expressed in the whole discourse. The dispatch of the materials, chemicals and literature in (112), i.e., *had been sent on,* were made prior to the time reference expressed in the whole discourse.

The interaction between tense and modality can be seen in (114), i.e., Past Tense in *were supplied* and modal auxiliary in *cannot be airfreighted.* Although *were supplied* explicitly expresses past time reference, *E before S, cannot be airfreighted* seems to express generalised time/temporal reference, *E (modal).*

Could in (117) can be considered to be the morphological Past Tense of *can.* But one may argue here that *could* does not express past time reference, *E before S.* In *Dr. Pearson hoped that similar activities could be a joint project* the modal auxiliary *could* seems to express altered or undefined time reference,

either past, present or future or simply *E.* Similarly in (119) *could* is used to express altered or undefined present or future time reference. Or if *could* in (119) is considered to be the morphological Past Tense of *can,* it can be taken to express past time reference as expressed in (117).

(113, 118, 120), i.e., *is, has, believe* may be taken to express present time reference *E simul S* or simply *E.* (120), i.e., *believe* seems to express present time reference, *E simul S*, and *would* may express undefined or altered time reference or *E (modal).* The time reference of *would* here is not explicitly expressed. If, however, the past time reference of *said* in (120) is taken into account *would work* and *would provide* may be taken to express future-in-the-past time reference, *E after R before S.*

(118), i.e., *has,* expresses present time reference, *E simul S* and past time reference, *E before S,* i.e., *recommended* and the subjunctive *be investigated.*

In (121), the present time reference, *E simul S, is* interacts with the modal auxiliary *should,* i.e., *should be considered,* and the *past time reference, E before S, stressed.* That is, *E simul S* interacts with *E before S* and *E (modal).*

Analysis of Text 2:

(122), i.e., 'Reader's Digest Sweepstakes Selection Depart-ment' seems to implicitly express present/future time reference. Or, perhaps, it simply expresses *E,* i.e., a situation with undefined time reference.

(123) expresses *E [1]before-and-up-to S* + perfect/recent past meaning; (124) *E simul S;* (125) *E;* (126) *E simul S* and *E after S;* (127) *E after S (will become)* and *E after S ('m going to congratulate);* (128) *E (modal) would be to ignore, E not before S, modal (have to win), E not before S* and Present Tense form *E not*

before S; (129) *E simul S,* i.e., *need/is* and *E (modal) could make, E not before S;* (130) expresses *E simul S,* i.e., *are well placed along the road to fortune;* (131) *would like* explicitly expresses present time reference, viz., *now,* and a Present Tense form, i.e., *If you do turn out to be a winner,* expresses future time reference; (132) *E (modal), E simul S, E after S;* (133) seems to express *E (modal), E simul S* or *E after S,* i.e., *would need/receive;* (134) *E simul S,* i.e., *is* and *E (modal).*

In (135, 136, 143, 144, 145, 146, 147, 148), an Imperative Mood is expressed, i.e., *find, look for, make sure, see, don't pass up, return, use, see, make/send;* (135) actually expresses future time reference, *E after S,* as in and *you will have two extra chances . . .;* In addition to the imperative mood, (136) expresses *E simul S, beat;* (137) expresses *E simul S* with an adverb of time *now;* (138) expresses past time reference, *E before S, mentioned,* and perfect meaning, *E ^{1}before-up-to S + perfect, have passed;* (139) seems to express present time reference, *E simul S, 's to say,* and future time reference, *E after S, won't succeed;* (140) expresses modal *could* and altered time reference, i.e., present time reference, *E simul S,* i.e., *now;* (141) expresses *E simul S, is,* and *E after S, 'll send;* the Present Tense form used in *when you say YES,* expresses future time reference, *E after S,* i.e., altered time reference; (142) expresses *E simul S* in *is/want;* (143) expresses future time reference *E after S,* i.e., *'ll get* and an imperative mood *see;* (144) expresses an imperative mood, *don't pass up,* present time reference, *E simul S, is,* a modal auxiliary *can be, E (modal)* or *E not-before S;* (145) expresses an imperative mood *return;* in (146) a Present Tense form *want* seems to express future time reference *E after S,* i.e., altered time reference, and an imperative mood, *use;* (147) expresses future

time reference, *E after S*, i.e., *will give* and an imperative mood *see;* (148) the imperative mood, *make* and *send*, explicitly expresses present time reference, *E simul S, now,* i.e., *would* is used to express altered time reference; (149) and (150) express *E.* (151) expresses *E simul S* implicitly *Let me remind you, E* [1]*before-and-up-to S + perfect,* and *E (modal).* In (151) *E simul S* is actually explicitly expressed by *would now be,* i.e., *would* is used to express altered time reference; (152) expresses *E simul S* with modal meaning, *has to win;* or simply *E* without reference to time, i.e., generalised time/temporal reference. (153) expresses *E before S* explicitly by using *(October 1991).*

Analysis of Text 3:

(154) . . . *perseverance* . . . seems to express *E* with no explicit reference to past, present or future. (155) *were, caused, injured, impaired,* (156) *happened to,* (158) *became forgotten,* (159)*ran on, sent for his work,* (160) *were made, was found, conceived;* (161) *was returned;* (162) *was, turned to, did;* (163) *had, was compelled;* (164)*was;* (165) *persevered, finished* definitely express *E before S.* (166) is different from the foregoing clauses/units because *Smiles, Samuel. (1908). Self-Help with illustrations of conduct & perseverance. London: John Murray* expresses explicit past time reference *E before S* by using *(1908)* rather than the tense-aspect complexes.

(155) *is, is said,* and (165) *affords* express *E simul S* or simply *E.* (157) *had lent,* (158) *had been left,* (160) *had used,* (163) *had been dismissed,* (164) *had been,* express *E before R before S.* (165) *has seldom been surpassed,* seems to express E^1 before-and-up-to *S* and 'perfect' meaning. (155) *need not be repeated,* and (161) *may be imagined,* express *E (modal),* and perhaps *E simul S* or simply *E,* i.e., generalised time/temporal reference.

Interaction of tense-aspect complexes in the three texts:

The interaction between English tense, aspect, (present) perfect, 'mood/modality', 'pragmatic issues' and time in the three texts is not uniform. However, each piece can certainly be related to the tripartite time division. If the time is indicated explicitly in the sentence, clause, and NP unit or the whole discourse, one can interpret it temporally. As English grammaticalises this the location of a situation in the tripartite time division using Present Tense, Past Tense and Future Tense, and so on, to express the basic meanings, 'grammatical dimension' is used to represent the grammaticalised temporal and aspectual interpretation including lexicalised expressions. If tense-aspect complexes express meanings or uses other than the basic meanings which are proposed in this study (103a, 103b), the 'grammatical dimension' cannot be used. The presentation of these meanings is in terms of a direct connection between 'situation/s' (meaning) and 'tense-aspect complexes' (form) for the basic meanings of English tense, aspect, (present) perfect or 'modal and pragmatic complexes' (form) for the respective peripheral meanings. In the interaction of these peripheral meanings the one-form-one-meaning relationship is not maintained. In these other meanings or uses, the 'tense-aspect complexes' can, thus, be temporally or nontemporally interpreted. Such interrelationship may be taken to exemplify the interaction between English tense, aspect, present perfect, 'mood/modality', 'pragmatic issues' and time. The description of the interaction of these complexes in texts 1, 2, and 3 is not presented in terms of 'grammatical dimension' only but also in terms of both 'situation/s' and 'tense-aspect complexes' or 'modal and pragmatic complexes' as shown in the following.

In Text 1, *E before S* is expressed in (105, 106, 107, 108,

109, 110, 111, 114, 115, 116, 117, 118, 119, 120, 121). In these units certain situations are located before the moment of speech, i.e., the situations express past time reference; *E simul S* is expressed in (113, 118, 120, 121). Here certain situations are located simultaneously with the moment of speech, i.e., the situations express 'present' time reference; *E before R before S* is expressed in (110, 112). Here certain situations express the past-in-the-past time reference. The *R* is the *E before S* expressed in Text 1. (104) expresses *E before S* explicitly by using *June 1991.* Its temporal interpretation is described in in terms of lexicalised time reference. The description of each unit here is in terms of 'grammatical dimension'.

In Text 1, the interaction between Past Tense, *E before S* and 'modality' is exemplified in (114, 117, 121). The situations here express past time reference and modality. (119) seems to express 'modality' only if the time reference as expressed in (117, 118) is not taken into account, i.e., (117, 118) express altered time reference. The interaction between Present Tense, *E simul S*, Past Tense *E before S,* and modality is exemplified in (120). The situation in (120) expresses present time reference, 'modality' and past time reference. If 'modality' is not taken into account, (120) expresses the interaction of Present Tense, *E simul S,* Past Tense, *E before S,* and Future-in-the-past Tense *E after R before S.* The interaction between Present Tense, *E simul S*, Past Tense, *E before S* and the subjunctive is exemplified in (118). The situation in (118) expresses present time reference, past time reference and the subjunctive. The interaction between Past Tense *E before S,* Present Tense *E simul S* and modality is exemplified in (121). The description of this interaction is not in terms of 'grammatical dimension' only but also in terms of 'situation' and 'tense-

aspect complexes' as well as 'modal and pragmatic complexes'.

In Text 3, *E before S* is expressed in (155, 156, 158, 159, 160, 161, 162, 163, 164 and 165), i.e., the situations express grammaticalised past time reference. (155, 165) express *E simul S* or simply *E.* (157) *had lent,* (158) *had been left,* (160) *had used,* (163) *had been dismissed,* (164) *had been,* express *E before R before S.* Here the situations in the Past Perfect Tense express *past-in-the-past* time reference. The description of these units is in terms of 'grammatical dimension'. But (165) *has been surpassed,* expresses E^1 *before-and-up-to S* and 'perfect' meaning, and (155) *need not be repeated,* (161) *may be imagined,* express *E (modal),* or perhaps *E simul S* or simply *E,* i.e., generalised time/temporal reference. This description must be in terms of 'situation', 'tense-aspect complexes', 'modal and pragmatic complexes' as well as in terms of 'grammatical dimension'.

In Text 3, the interaction between Past Tense/past time reference *were, injured, impaired,* Present Tense/present time reference *is, is said* and modal *need not be repeated* is exemplified in (155). The interaction between Past Tense/past time reference *was returned* and modal *may be imagined* is exemplified in (158). The interaction between Past Tense/past time reference *persevered, finished,* Present Tense/present time reference *affords* and Present Perfect *has been surpassed* is exemplified in (165). (157) *had lent* interacts with an implicit past reference point *R.* (157) expresses a situation prior to that past reference point, i.e., the situation of lending the MS took place before Mr. Carlyle found out that he had lost the MS. The same past reference point *R* is used to which the situation *E before R before S* in (158) is oriented. In (160), the *R* is explicitly expressed in *conceived ,* and *E before R before S* is expressed in

had used. The *R* in (163) is explicitly expressed in *had* and *was compelled*, and *E before R before S* is expressed in *had been dismissed.* The *R* in (164) is explicitly expressed in *was*, and *E before R before S* is expressed in *had been a work of pleasure.* The description of (157, 158, 160, 163, 164) here is in terms of 'situation', 'tense-aspect complexes', 'modal and pragmatic complexes' and 'grammatical dimension'.

(154) expresses implicit time reference. The temporal interpretation of (154) can be described in terms 'situation' and 'modal and pragmatic complexes'. (166) expresses *E before S* explicitly *(1908).* The temporal interpretation can be described in terms of lexicalised time reference.

In Text 2, (122) implicitly expresses *E simul S* or *E after S* or simply undefined or generalised time/temporal reference *E.* Other undefined time reference is also implicitly expressed in (122, 125, 149, 150). The description of these units is in terms of situation' without reference to 'tense-aspect complexes' but possibly to 'modal and pragmatic complexes'. *E before S* is only expressed in (138). *E simul S* is expressed in (124, 126, 129, 130, 131, 134, 139, 140, 141, 142, 144, 148, 151). *E after S* is expressed in (126, 127, 131, 133, 135, 136, 139, 141, 143, 146, 147). The description of these units is mainly in terms of 'grammatical dimension'. *E [1]Before-and-up-to S + perfect* meaning is expressed in (123, 138, 151). The interaction between present perfect and past time reference/Past Tense is expressed in (138), and the interaction between present perfect, imperative mood and modality is expressed in (151). *E (modal)* is expressed in (128, 129, 132, 133, 134, 140, 144, 151, 152). Present time reference and a special use of modal *would* seems to be expressed in (131). Present time reference interacts with modal *could* in (140), and

with *would* in (151). (140, 151) seem to express altered time reference. Imperative mood is expressed in (135, 136, 143, 144, 145, 146, 147, 148. The interaction between either present or future time reference and modal is expressed in (128, 129, 131, 132, 133, 134, 140, 144, 151, 152). The interaction between present time reference and future time reference is expressed in (126, 127, 130). The description of the interaction of these units can be given in terms of 'situation' and 'modal and pragmatic complexes'.

Now in (137) explicitly expresses present time reference. Similarly, (153) explicitly expresses *E before S* — *(October 1991)*. (137, 153) express lexicalised time reference.

Tables 1, 2 and 3 summarize how the sentence, clause and NP units (104-166) can be described in terms of 'situation', 'tense-aspect complexes', 'modal and pragmatic complexes' and 'grammatical dimension'. The interaction between tense, aspect, · (present) perfect, 'mood/modality', 'pragmatic issues' and time is also described'.

Of the 63 sentence, clause and NP units being described, (122, 125, 149, 150, 154) do not require 'grammatical dimension'. The interaction between tense, aspect, present perfect, 'mood/ modality' and time with or without 'pragmatic issues' is shown in (114, 117, 118, 119, 120, 121,123, 126, 128, 129, 130, 131, 132, 133, 134, 135, 136, 138, 139, 140, 141, 143, 144, 145, 146, 147, 148, 151, 152, 155, 161, 165).

Thus, of the 63 sentence, clause and NP units, only 5 units (0.77%) require no 'grammatical dimension', and 58 units (92.3%) require 'grammatical dimension'. 38 units (60.31%) require the description of the interaction of tense, aspect, (present) perfect, 'mood/modality', 'pragmatic issues' and time. The use of *could,*

would, should, and *would like* in (117, 119, 120, 121,128, 129, 131, 132, 133, 134, 140) to indicate altered time reference seems to be related to the 'pragmatic issues'. No altered time reference is found in Text 3.

Table 1: Interaction between tense, aspect, (present) perfect, 'mood/modality' and time as well as the respective characterisation of each grammatical category (Text 1)

	Interaction	Gram. dim
104		√ **
105		√
106		√
107		√
108		√
109		√
110		√
111		√
112		√
113		√
114	√	√
115		√
116		√
117	√	√
118	√	√
119	√	√
120	√	√
121	√	√

Gram. dim. stands for 'grammatical dimension'
*   is used to refer to implicit time reference
**   is used to refer to explicit time reference which uses no tense-aspect complexes at all

Table 2: Interaction between tense, aspect, (present)
perfect, 'mood/modality' and time as well as the
respective characterisation of each
grammatical category (Text 2)

	Interaction	Gram. dim.
122	√ *	
123	√	√
124		√
125	√ *	
126	√	√
127	√	√
128	√	√
129	√	√
130	√	√
131	√	√
132	√	√
133	√	√
134	√	√
135	√	√
136	√	√
137		√ **
138	√	√
139	√	√
140	√	√
141	√	√
142		√
143	√	√
144	√	√
145	√	
146	√	√
147	√	√
148	√	√
149	√*	
150	√*	
151	√	√
152	√	√
153		√ **

Table 3: Interaction between tense, aspect, (present)
perfect, 'mood/modality' and time as well as
the respective characterisation of each
grammatical category (Text 3)

	Interaction	Gram. dim.
154	√*	
155	√	√
156		√
157		√
158		√
159		√
160		√
161	√	√
162		√
163		√
164		√
165	√	√
166		√ **

4.6 Summary

Attempts have been made to analyse English tense as a deictic category and to show that tense is related to time. This category can be separated from English aspect which is defined as a way of viewing the internal temporal structure of a situation. Both tense and aspect are related to time, that is, both categories are expressed in time, hence both tense and aspect are temporal. The distinction between tense and aspect seems to rest on the notion of deixis, time reference and internal view of a situation.

In search for the basic meanings of the English tense, aspect and perfect, scholars have hitherto often ignored a number of peripheral uses which on occasion mask their basic meanings. It has essentially been shown that while still allowing interaction of the categories of tense, aspect and perfect, the basic meaning of the English individual tenses, progressive aspect and the present perfect can be established irrespective of the aspectual character of the individual lexical verbs which on certain

circumstances impinges on the tense, aspectual or perfect categories.

A hypothetical interaction between English tense, aspect (present) perfect, progressive aspect and time has been explored and an attempt to describe the actual interaction between tense, aspect, (present) perfect, 'mood/modality' and time in English has been presented.

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[1]The term 'hypothetically' is used here to point to the fact that not all possible combinations are normally utilised.

[2]*John will have arrived home yesterday* carries "a 'deviant' meaning, something like '*John must have come home yesterday*,' i.e., a quasi-modal interpretation rather than a temporal one" (Hornstein, 1977, p. 537)

Chapter V

Time Concepts: Past, Present and Future in BI (Bahasa Indonesia)

5.0 Introduction

This Chapter describes how time or temporal reference and aspectual reference are expressed in BI. The study attempts to make use of Comrie's framework of the unified theory of tense and aspect (1976, 1985) as discussed and developed in Chapter III. Based on this framework and on conclusions drawn from the relevant literature of BI (Indonesian) temporal/aspectual complexes, attempts are made to describe Indonesian time/ temporal reference, aspectual reference, aspect and perfect. The main data used in this chapter are published interviews and short stories from Horison, an Indonesian literary magazine, 1986-1987.

It is argued in this Chapter that BI is not lacking in expression of time or temporal reference. Both explicit and implicit time reference in BI are explored in terms of the tri-partite time division: past, present and future including recent/ distant past and immediate/distant future time reference. Aspectual reference, aspect, perfect, in BI are also explored. For this purpose a model is developed to describe time reference, aspectual reference, aspect and perfect in BI. Hypothetical and actual interaction of time reference, aspect, aspectual reference, perfect, 'modal auxiliaries' and time is presented.

5.1 Time Concepts: Past, Present and Future in BI

As indicated in Chapter III 'the core of time concepts' is assumed to be universal. Although the term 'time' itself cannot be defined in a universally accepted characterisation, in terms of 'material time' (Section 3.1 Chapter III) that constitutes a serial time which is divided by past, present and future as is

exemplified by *yesterday, today* and *tomorrow* in English, BI can be assumed to possess a similar representation of time, i.e., *kemarin* 'yesterday', *hari ini* 'today', *besok* 'tomorrow'. This conception of time can be related to the diagrammatic representation of 'time' — a straight line to the left and to the right.

5.2 Time, Tense and Aspect in BI

At this point a question is raised. That is, precisely how time concepts, in terms of 'tense-aspect complexes', are expressed in BI. This will be addressed in this chapter although perhaps only a partial solution to the problem posed will be offered. The relevant literature on 'tense-aspect complexes' in BI is reviewed. Published interviews and short stories written in Horison, a literary Indonesian monthly magazine in the period of 1986 to 1987 are used as the main data either to support or refute the conclusions reached in the past as well as to provide support for new suggestions found in the study.

In point of fact, studies specifically examining time reference in Indonesian languages are lacking or even non-existent as Gonda right points out:

> there seems therefore room for doubt as to whether the majority of authors in the field of IN.[1] linguistics, among whom have been some scholars of repute, did not too dogmatically cling to the time honoured opinion that moods and tenses are necessities in any language, and whether they have not too often neglected to make careful research into those distinctions which really exist in these idioms (Gonda, 1954, p. 247).

Unfortunately, questions about the extent or the existence of tense in Indonesian languages, let alone in BI, are normally left undiscussed (Gonda, 1954, p. 241).

There are numerous references to time concepts in BI in articles devoted to the subject, but none can be described as

adequate or comprehensive. One immediate problem of most of the articles is a failure to distinguish between the term 'tense' itself as applied to BI and the notion of time reference. Djajasudarma (1985, p. 61) states that BI does not have tense as grammaticalisation of locating situations in time. She contends that BI expresses time reference or to use her term 'temporal deictic' by means of lexical items called time adverbs. Sarumpaet and Mackie (1966, p. 21) state that 'tense' in BI is primarily conveyed by context — sometimes a time adverb is added *pre*sententially or finally. Pino (1961, p. 55) states that to mark tense in BI no inflection is used. Johns and Stokes (1977, p. 21) state that to express when an action occurs, BI does not change the form of the verb. Asofie (1979, p. 5) observes that time of occurrence or time element is not represented in the predicative verb.

These varied and somewhat vague interpretations of the term 'tense' in the description of BI can be found also in the work of scholars on Malay, a closely related language to BI. Hopper (1979, p. 232) states that in Malay tense is not overtly marked. Dodds (1977, p. 220) states that in Malay tense is implied or understood. Sulaiman (1975, p. 65) states that Malay tenses are understood from context or, when ambiguous time adverbs can be used.

If one were to examine closely each of the above descriptions, one would find that the use of the term 'tense' by Dodds (1977), Hopper (1979) , Pino (1961), Sarumpaet and Mackie (1966) and Sulaiman (1975) is inaccurate if what is meant by the term 'tense' is a formally marked grammatical category. In fact, implicitly the term 'tense' is used to refer to time reference. Even Asofie (1975) and Djajasudarma (1985), though do not themselves use the term 'tense', cannot be considered to provide a satisfac-

tory characterisation.

Similarly, studies on aspect in BI have not been thoroughly carried out either (Djajasudarma, 1985, p. 65; Fokker, 1960, p. 38). Perhaps this is due to the fact that there exists no agreement on the use of the term 'aspect' in a general linguistic theory (Bache, 1982, pp. 57-58). In addition, as has been pointed out in Chapters III and IV the study of aspect itself is not generally without complication.

By using both formulations on tense and aspect by Comrie (1976, 1985) coupled with other earlier and later theories dealing with tense such as those of Dahl (1985), Declerck (1986), Hornstein (1977), McCawley (1971), Reichenbach (1947), and so on, attempts will be made to characterise aspectual and temporal distinctions in BI. Specifically, this chapter will attempt to seek an answer to the question of how these distinctions can be characterised in terms of Comrie's unified theory of 'tense' (1985) and the 'theory' of aspect (1976). In particular I will investigate the meanings of BI 'tense-aspect' complexes' in terms of temporal and aspectual references defined in this study (See Chapter III) and their related meanings. In particular I will seek both the grammatical or 'semantico-grammatical' meanings and the lexical or 'semantico-lexical' meanings. Also, the inter-action between time/temporal reference, aspectual reference/ aspect, perfect and 'modal auxiliary' in BI is explored. Analysis of the actual interaction between these phenomena in BI will be presented.

5.2.1 Tense/Time Reference vs. Aspect/Aspectual Reference in BI

As pointed out in Chapters III and IV Braroe is right when she says that" tense is a mind boggling business, once the semantic function of it is taken into consideration" (Braroe, 1975, p. v).

Others are noted to say that "interpreting the temporal signif-
icance of sentences is one of the most complex problems in
linguistics" (Miller and Johnson-Laird,1976, p. 411). They further
state that part of the difficulty is that there are many ways by
which a language can express temporal relations. Certain lexical
items can convey temporal information along with tense as a
major grammatical category with which such information is
generally expressed. Each of the following English lexical items
can be construed as having temporal information: *precede, tomor-
row, former, often, during, before,* etc.

Another difficulty, which is nonlinguistic, lies in the nature
of tense itself. Dahl (1985, p. 1) has pointed out that as tenses
belong to the things in one's native language one tends to take
them for granted. Hence speakers of a language with tense dis-
tinctions will use a particular tense automatically even without
stopping to think why they come to use it at all instead of an-
other.

Finally, there is another difficulty which is theoretical in
nature. Prior to Comrie's book on tense (1985) there had hardly
been any attempt to characterise tense proper. Notice the con-
fusion in practice between the notion of tense and aspect. It is
not uncommon to find a book on the grammar of a certain language
with tense distinctions which has a heading for tense to include
aspect as well. Futhermore, there has not been any attempt to
formulate the distinction between tense and time reference
precisely although apparently Comrie meant to distinguish the
two implicitly but did not mention it specifically (Comrie,
1976, 1985).

Analysis after analysis on tense in individual languages has
been proposed, each one bringing with it new suggestions in an

attempt to support or refute earlier conclusions. Even in English, the most thoroughly researched language, one cannot hope to find a single uncontroversial formulation of the tense system. To overcome the foregoing difficulties in describing 'tense-aspect complexes' in BI, the models proposed in Chapters III and IV, which separate the grammaticalisation and lexicalisation of tense and aspect are used.

The term 'tense', as is applied to the analyses of BI and Malay to date by grammarians and linguists such as Dodds (1977, p. 220), Gonda (1954, p. 242), Hopper (1979, p. 232), Pino (1961, p. 55), Sarumpaet and Mackie (1966, p. 21), Sulaiman (1975, p. 65), has apparently been used to refer to both time reference and tense, in Comrie's (1985, p. 9) definition, "grammaticalised expression of location in time". The latter, which is also known as a grammatical category (Comrie, 1985, p. 9; Lyons, 1968, pp. 270-333, 1977, p. 386) shows time relations which are expressed by systematic grammatical contrasts (Lyons, 1968, p. 304). These kinds of time relations are, of course, closely related to time reference, and hence a confusion may arise. If, however, accurate characterisation is attempted, it is essential to be clear about the distinction between time reference and tense, particularly in regard to BI which is assumed to be 'tenseless'.

A 'grammar' as a subsystem of a language can be seen as a structure which consists of three smaller interrelated structures: semantic structure, syntactic structure and pragmatic structure (Kridalaksana, 1986, p. 3). Kridalaksana (1986) defines the term 'function' as the interdependence relationship among interrelated structures which forms a whole or complete structure. He recognizes the distinction that obtains among semantic function, syntactic function and pragmatic function.

In the semantic function, there is a functional interdependence between the predicator and its argument(s) (Kridalaksana, 1986, pp. 3-4), the combination of which constitutes the proposition expressed. He shows that BI has 19 different semantic functions one of which is *waktu* 'time' which details the time when the action expressed by the predicator takes place. Here Kridalaksana shows that time (or more accurately time reference) can act as one of the arguments, too, (Kridalaksana, 1986, pp. 5-6). He uses the term 'predicator' to refer to semantic categories of *perbuatan* 'action', *proses* 'process', *posisi* 'position', *keadaan* 'state' and *identitas* 'identity'. The term 'argument' is used to refer to nominals/nouns or nominalisation (1986). In all of the 19 sample sentences in BI (pp. 4-6) with which Kridalaksana (1986) illustrates the relationship between the arguments and the predicator in a proposition, the expression of time is either explicit or implicit. It is not shown by the verb form but expressed by a lexeme or worked out from the context. In Fig. 13

```
                        Proposition
                   /         |         \
                  /          |          \
                 /           |           \
          Predicator     Argument     Argument
              |              |            |
           action         actor         time
              |              |            |
           come            he         yesterday
```

Kemarin   ia   datang
yesterday   s/he   come   (Kridalaksana, 1986, p. 6)
'S/he came yesterday'
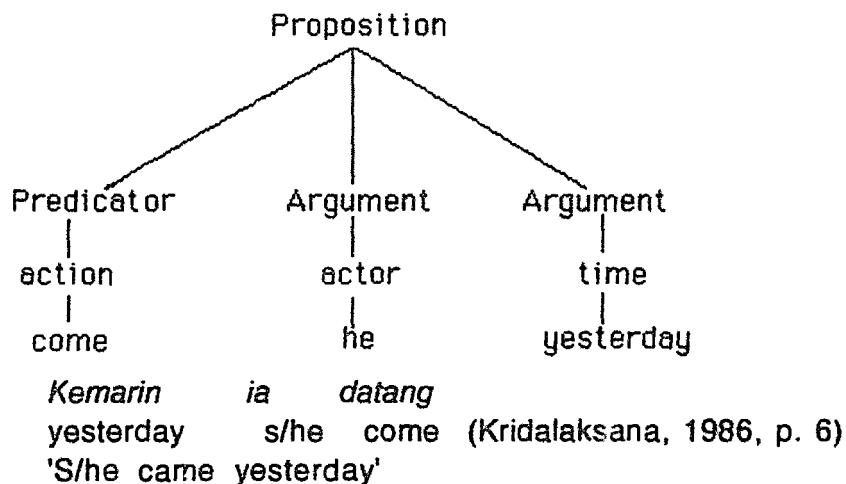
Fig. 13: Kridalaksana's illustration of the relationship between the arguments and the predicator in which time reference is explicitly expressed

the time reference is explicitly expressed only by the temporal lexeme *kemarin* 'yesterday' to constitute a proposition.

In the syntactic function at the clause level, there is a

functional relationship between smaller and larger constituents such as subject, predicate, object, complement, etc., (Krida-laksana, 1986, p. 6); at the phrase level one can identify, for example, the head and the modifier. At the clause level time reference is generally expressed especially if the language gram-maticalises time reference either by using verbal affixes, par-ticles or periphrases. This way of showing time reference in which formal characteristics are used is called tense. Krida-laksana's views are consistent with Comrie's (1985) definition of tense as grammaticalisation of locating situation(s) in time.

If the language in question does not have tense, time ref-erence may or may not explicitly be shown at the clause level. In the latter case, time reference can still be worked out on the basis of the context. At the phrase level, time reference may or may not be expressed. In *yesterday's newspaper*, for example, one can easily identify its time reference but not in *my newspaper.* The latter is indeed indifferent to both time reference and tense; the former, by contrast, is indifferent to tense but not to time reference. It is true that in a language with tense distinction like English, certain finite verb phrases may show tenses such as *studied* or *was worried* as in *He studied hard (for the test) but he was worried about the result.* But this is not true of all languages. In BI, for example, *was worried about the result* here can be translated as *khawatir mengenai hasil itu* 'be worried-about-result-the'. If the time reference in question is required to be expressed, *waktu itu* — a lexical item showing past time ref-erence — has to be added as in (1).

> (1) *Dia   belajar   keras (untuk tes   itu) namun*
>   s/he   study   hard   for   test the   but
>   *dia   khawatir mengenai hasilnya waktu itu*
>   s/he be worried about   result-NYA time   that
>   'S/he studied hard for the test but s/he was worried

about the result at that time'

In the pragmatic function one can also detect some kind of structure which establishes contextual appropriateness of the utterances. Normally, these pragmatic aspects can be classified into theme-rheme, figure-ground, focus-contrast-emphasis (Kridalaksana, 1986, p. 10). The pragmatic function is concerned with language in use. If a language shows grammatical contrasts which express time reference or time relation, tense will definitely be found in use. If a language does not have tense it does not mean that the language in question does not convey time/temporal reference. It surely must have some means to express time/ temporal reference otherwise it is pragmatically nonviable.

One can thus assume that time reference can be expressed through grammar, vocabulary or through pragmatic means. This fact becomes evident in a language which does not have tense but which still conveys time reference. Time reterence, if required, can be expressed in a language at the phrase, clause, sentence or discourse level. Tense is one type of expression of time reference which functions (grammatically) at the verb phrase level. Time reference can also be identified in certain nominals ᵤᵣ in *yesterday's newspaper*. In finite verbs with tense distinction such as in English, however, both time reference and tense can be identified. If a language does not show tense distinctions, time reference can still be expressed. In *will study* one can argue that this is future tense and has future time reference; in *besok berangkat* 'tomorrow-leave', one cannot properly talk about tense as there is no grammatical contrast, that is, verbal inflection involved. One can certainly talk about lexicalised future time reference as in *besok berangkat,* the situation of leaving is located *tomorrow* or *after* S, that is, after the moment of speech S as the deictic centre. In short, the manifestation of tense is

more restricted than that of time reference. Languages with no tense distinction still have time reference while languages with tense distinctions have both lexicalised and grammaticalised time reference (tense).

As applied to BI the term 'time reference' is defined as reference to the time during which a situation, (the content of a position in time, which may include states, events, processes, etc.), may occur or may be imagined to occur. As has been shown in the example of time reference of nominals, the term 'situation' can refer to such a phrase; it can also refer to the totality of what is expressed in a piece of discourse as in a past narrative. In Kridalaksana's term (1986), the time referred to is one of the arguments that constitute a proposition as in Fig. 13.

The distinction between time/temporal reference and aspectual reference is assumed to exist in BI. But because BI is a 'tenseless' language, and the finite verb (the predicate or the predicator), *per se* does not express time reference nor show tense contrasts, terms like 'tense-aspect complexes', cannot be used. The theoretical models presented in Chapter III (i.e., Figs. 4, 9) to describe the 'tense-aspect complexes' in language as applied to BI must be modified accordingly as in Fig. 14a. The dotted lines are used to indicate that the relationship between *verb form* on the one hand and tense, aspect and perfect on the other in BI is not as direct as that of English. Fig. 14a shows that a 'verb' by itself in BI seems to be indifferent to time and tense. For this reason, the term 'temporal-aspectual complexes' is used in place of 'tense-aspect complexes'. The term 'situation' is used to subsume 'states', 'events', 'processes, etc.'

```
                    |states, events, processes, etc.|
                                   |
                            (situation/s)
                                   |
         ┌─────────────────────────┼─────────────────────┐
    temporally located &           |        temporally expressed
    expressed          temporally expressed               |
         |                         |            non-deictic/
    deictic/externally             |            internally
    determined                     |            determined
         |                         |                 |
    temporal/                   perfect      aspectual reference
    time reference                 |                 |
         ┊.........................┊.................┊
                                   ┊
                        ┌ - - - - - ┊ - - - - - - - ┐
                        ┊ temporal-aspectual ┊
                          complexes
```
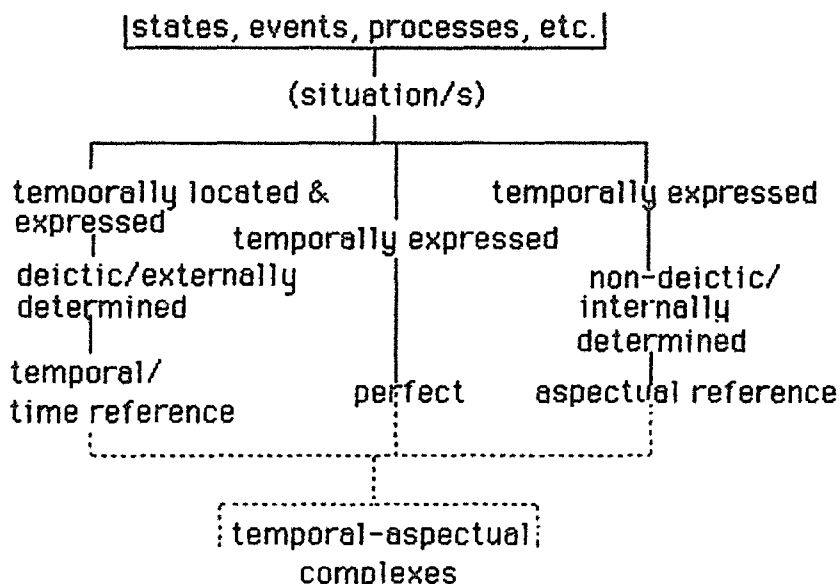
Fig. 14a: A model to describe BI temporal and aspectual complexes

The term 'temporal/time reference' thus defined seems to be related to what Traugott (1975) refers to as "deep semantic or conceptual tense". She states that this deep semantic tense which "locates what is talked about on an imaginary time-line of which the speaker is the axis can be realized by verb inflections, particles, adverbial phrases or nothing at all" (p. 208). In other words, Traugott's statements imply that this deep semantic tense (referred to in this study as time reference) can be grammaticalised, lexicalised or presupposed. If time reference is grammaticalised, there exists tense; if it is lexicalised, time reference is expressed through the presence of a particular lexical item with temporal meaning; if it is presupposed, there is formally nothing to show time reference and yet a language user can extract the expected time reference from a clause, sentence or a piece of discourse. And hence the use of the term 'implicit' time reference is in order here. In a language where time reference is both grammaticalised and lexicalised, Miller and Johnson-Laird (1976, p. 412) observe that they must coordinate in

one way or another.

The above characterisation of time reference is in line with Lyons' (1977) statement that 'every actual utterance is spatio-temporally unique.' That is, it is 'being spoken or written at a particular place and at a particular time' (p. 570). Lyons then argues that in principle the actual spatiotemporal situation of any utterance-act can be specified. Thus an utterance token is both spatially and temporally bound. Similarly, Cascio (1985, p. 191) states that a linguistic expression becomes text when it is time bound. In other words, a linguistic expression used in a discourse, when required must convey time reference, otherwise communication is unlikely to be successful. Thus there is every reason to assume that time reference is more common than tense as it can be found in any discourse in any language irrespective of whether it is grammaticalised or lexicalised or both. Furthermore, even in a sign language, the notion of time reference is indicated by showing the appropriate point on the time line (Crystal, 1987, p. 22; Deuchar, 1984, p. 98; Klima and Bellugi, 1979, p. 82).

5.3   Time Reference in BI

If looked at from the point of view of the definition of tense as a grammaticalisation of locating situations in time, it seems difficult to say with any degree of certainty that BI does have tense as time reference is not formally shown in the verbal morphology. Gonda (1954, p. 248) has observed that the verb in itself in Indonesian languages in some cases is indifferent as to tense. However, it will be shown that time or temporal reference in BI is, on occasion, formally shown along with the verb though not in the form of a bound morpheme, and that this formal characteristic is, on some occasions obligatory while on others it is optional and on yet other occasions it is not even required at

all. In other words, I will show that time reference in B̲I̲ is partly grammaticalised, lexicalised and presupposed.

5.3.1 Explicit vs. Implicit Time Reference in B̲I̲

B̲I̲ shows time reference in two ways: explicitly and implicitly. Asofie (1979, p. 3) states that "In B̲a̲h̲a̲s̲a̲ I̲n̲d̲o̲n̲e̲s̲i̲a̲ the notion of time (i.e, time reference in the terminology of this study), *can* be made explicit". A rather similar observation is also made by Pino (1961, p. 56) when she says that in B̲I̲ "time relation can be expressed by context and time adverbs".

Explicit time reference in B̲I̲ is usually made by means of a time adverb which shows the notion of time such as *yesterday, two hours ago, before, in the next three days*, etc., and by means of a particle or an auxiliary word which shows a temporal meaning either in reference to the past or present or future or even the distant past and distant future or recent past and immediate future, such as:

(2) *akan* 'will' for future time reference; *tadi* 'later' for today-past or recent time reference; *sekarang* 'now' for present time reference; *baru saja* 'just' for recent past time reference; *sebentar lagi* 'in a moment' for immediate future time reference; *sudah^2,telah^2* 'already' for past time reference; *dulu/dahulu* 'in the distant past' for distant past time reference; *dahulu kala* 'once upon a time' for very distant past time reference; *kelak/bakai* 'in the distant future' for distant future time reference

Implicit time reference is deducible from the context. To date no research has been carried out to precisely formulate how the context determines time reference in B̲I̲. Whether in fact this undertaking is feasible or not, remains to be seen. At most the present chapter aims to look into the problem closely rather than to solve it.

The absence of a thorough treatment of time reference in B̲I̲ has so far passed unnoticed. In the work of writers on grammar in

BI and linguists interested in BI, the treatment of time reference is generally given under *Keterangan Waktu* 'Adverbials of Time', for example, in the work of Alisjahbana (1983, pp. 105-6); Kridalaksana (1986, p. 10); Ramlan (1985, p. 115); Samsuri (1983, pp. 258-59); Slametmuljana (1969, pp. 364-65); Wojowasito (1978, pp. 88-91). Each of their works is based on the semantics of 'time adverbs' as well as 'temporal particles' or 'auxiliary words' which are formally present.

Alisjahbana (1983, p. 105) states that BI does not modify verb forms to indicate when an event, state or process, etc., takes place. It merely uses a lexical item which explicitly expresses time-event relationship. He proposes two types of these *Kete-angan Waktu* 'time adverbs': i). *Kata Bantu Predikat* 'Auxiliary Word for the Predicate', i.e., *masih, sedang, lagi, baru,* to express on-going events; *akan* to express future events; *sudah, telah, baru* to express perfect or completed or past events. This type of *Keterangan Waktu* is usually placed before the predicate of a sentence.

ii). *Keterangan Waktu,* i.e., a lexical item consisting of one word or adverb or of a combination of several words which expresses time. Unlike the first, the second type can be moved freely depending upon the nature of the sentence. He shows that the time adverb *kemarin* 'yesterday' can be placed in four different positions as pointed out by Alisjahbana (1983, p. 106) as in (3a, b, c, d).

(3) a. *Saya kemarin   pergi ke Bogor*
      I   yesterday go to Bogor

    b. *Kemarin saya pergi ke Bogor*
       yesterday I   go to Bogor

    c. *Saya pergi kemarin ke Bogor*
       I   go   yesterday to Bogor

    d. *Saya pergi ke Bogor   kemarin*
       I   go   to Bogor yesterday

'I went to Bogor yesterday/Yesterday I went to Bogor'

As the word *kemarin* carries temporal meaning, Alisjahbana (1983, pp. 105-106) refers to it as a time adverb or *Kata Keterangan Waktu*. This *kemarin* type of time adverb answers the question of 'when'. The English 'when' can be translated into *apabila, bila, bilamana, manakala, kalamana, kapan* in <u>BI</u>. Belonging to this type of *Keterangan Waktu* are those *Keterangan Waktu* that answer the question of the length of time as in (3e)

(3) e. *Amat   tidur   semalam   <u>sepuluh jam</u>*
     Amat   sleep   last night   ten   hour
     'Amat slept/had slept ten hours last night'

and the question of when the time-event relationship starts and ends as in (3f)

(3) f. *Saya   tidak   menerima   koran   <u>sejak</u>   hari Sabtu*
     I   not   receive   newspaper   since   day   Saturday
     'I have not received any newspaper since Saturday'

and of the frequency of the time-event relationship, as in (3g)

(3) g. *Dia   <u>jarang</u>   benar   sakit*
     S/he   rarely   quite   (get) sick
     'S/he rarely gets quite sick' (See Alisjahbana, 1983, p. 106)

Alisjahbana (1978, pp. 81-82) states that an adverb, which includes a time adverb such as *sekarang, nanti, tadi, kemudian, lusa,* etc., is used to modify a verbal or adjectival phrase, etc., conveyed by a sentence. These adverbs are never used to modify substantives. It will be shown later that this statement is somewhat inaccurate as certain time adverbs can also modify nouns in <u>BI</u>.

What is apparent in the treatment of time reference in Alisjahbana's work is that it is based on the semantics and the presence of a time reference marker which specifies explicit time reference. Alisjahbana (1978, 1983) does not go beyond the level of clauses in order to describe implicit time reference in <u>BI</u>. Other writers on the subject of time reference in <u>BI</u> have also

mostly done all their analyses at the clause level. It is thus obvious that in most of their work contextual time reference is absent. Even Asofie (1979, pp. 5-7, 51) does not provide further characterisation of implicit time reference — an instance of contextual time reference — other than mentioning that implicit time reference is found in discourse, and is related to the presence of "presupposition, total setting and fragmentary/ shifted setting" (Asofie, 1979, p. 51). According to Asofie, at the syntactic level the implicit time reference is not formally present but at the discourse level, the "presupposition, total setting, fragmentary/shifted setting are present" (1979, p. 51).

Contextual time reference cannot be adequately described by linguistic criteria. Because the nature of communication itself requires that the speaker and the hearer both share the situational/contextual real world knowledge, contextual time reference is no less important for language use. If implicit time reference is uncharacterisable in BI, communication in this language will be rendered impractical or pragmatically non-viable. The fact that speakers of BI do rarely, if ever, misunderstand each other with regard to the time reference of situations clearly shows that it is characterisable.

5.3.1.1 Explicit Time Reference

This study has adopted the assumption that time can be subdivided into the past, present and future extending without limit either to the past or the future. This is required because such notions as distant past and distant future, recent past and immediate future have to be accounted for in addition to the commonly known notions of past, present and future. This conceptual time division can be explicitly referred to in BI by

using a time adverb, a particle or an auxiliary word which conveys past, present, future time reference as well as recent past, immediate future, distant past and distant future time reference.

Explicit time reference is shown by the presence of a time reference marker. As this marker may indicate past, present or future, three kinds of explicit time reference will be discussed, namely explicit past time reference, explicit present time reference and explicit future time reference (Asofie, 1979, pp. 51-57).

5.3.1.1.1   Explicit Past Time Reference

The meaning of past time reference can be related to Comrie's formulation of past tense (1985) as a grammatical category. His formula for a past tense, where a situation obtained before the moment of speech, is *E before S*. Here the event(s) *E* is/are located before the moment of speech *S* taken as the deictic centre. What is true in the past tense, i.e., the location of a situation before the moment of speech as the deictic centre, is also true of the past time reference except that in the latter case there is no grammaticalisation.

To indicate past time reference explicitly, B̲I̲ employs a particle or an auxiliary word and/or a time adverb with past time meaning either independently (i.e., as a word) or in combination (i.e., as a phrase). The time adverb can basically be created to convey a certain temporal meaning. Take the particle *kemarin* 'yesterday'. This particle can be combined with other particles or time words to specify a certain time of day such as morning, afternoon, evening, night or to express different kinds of temporal or time concepts. But the combination is limited to the time concepts which pertain among speakers of B̲I̲. Notice that some of the following do not have one-to-one English glosses.

(4)   *kemarin pagi*   'yesterday morning'

kemarin siang	'yesterday morning/afternoon'
kemarin sore	'yesterday afternoon/evening'
kemarin malam[3]	'last night'
kemarin dulu	'the day before yesterday'
kemarinnya lagi	'the day before that day'
bulan kemarin	'last month'
tahun kemarin	'last year'

For explicit past time reference in BI, Asofie (1979, pp. 53-57) has suggested the following three groups: i. the lexicon, i.e., auxiliary word/particle; ii. phrases and iii. clauses. In the lexicon group Asofie (p. 53) describes *jarang* 'seldom', *sering* 'often', *kadang-kadang* 'sometimes or some time in the past' as explicit past time markers. I will show that past time reference in the form of clauses will be treated under implicit time reference in this study. The following (5) is from Asofie's table of explicit past time reference markers (1979, pp. 53-57) with approximate glosses slightly modified.

(5) i. Auxiliary word/particle:
   jarang 'seldom'; *sering* 'often'; *kadang-kadang* 'sometimes'

   dahulu/dulu 'in the distant past/formerly/once'; *pernah* ' ever, once'; *konon* 'perhaps/they say/it is said/I wonder'; *sebelumnya* 'before(-NYA)'; *tadi* 'today-past or recent past or just now'; *kemarin* 'yesterday'; *semalam* 'last night'; *sekali* 'once'

   mestinya/harusnya (tidak) 'should (not) have V-en'; *telah* 'already'

ii. Phrases   :
   a. *tadi pagi* 'this morning + recent past'; *tadi siang* 'today + recent past'; *tadi malam* 'last night + recent past'; *tadi subuh* 'this morning prayer time + recent past'; *kemarin pagi* 'yesterday morning'; *kemarin siang* 'yesterday afternoon'; *kemarin malam* 'last night'; *kemarin sore* 'yesterday afternoon'; *kemarin subuh* 'yesterday morning prayer time';

   b. *kemarin dulu* 'the day before yesterday'; *kemarinnya lagi* 'the day before that day';

   c. *baru-baru ini* 'recent past/recently'; *baru saja* 'just now/recent past';

d. *tidak lama ini* 'not long ago'; *belum lama ini* 'not long ago';

e. *dahulu kala* 'once upon a time/long long ago/distant past';

f. *kala itu* 'at that time'; *masa itu* 'at that period'; *waktu itu* 'at that time'; *ketika saat itu* 'at that time/when'; *saat itu* 'at that moment'; *hari itu* 'on that day'; etc.; *kedatangannya itu* 'his/her arrival';

g. *masa-masa itu* 'in those days'; *waktu-waktu itu* 'at that time'; *saat-saat itu* 'at that moment'; *hari-hari itu* 'on those days', etc.

h. *beberapa jam yang telah lalu* 'a few hours ago which had just passed'; *sekian jam yang telah lalu* 'a few hours ago which had just passed'; *sepuluh jam yang telah lalu* 'ten hours ago which had just passed'; *pada jam sepuluh yang lalu* 'at ten o'clock which had just passed'; *beberapa hari yang telah lalu* ' several days ago which had already just passed'; *sekian hari yang telah lalu* 'some days which had already just passed'; *sepuluh hari yang telah lalu* 'ten days which had already just passed'; *beberapa minggu yang telah lalu* 'a few weeks ago which had already just passed'; *sekian minggu yang telah lalu* 'some weeks which had already just passed'; *sepuluh minggu yang telah lalu* 'ten weeks which had already just passed'; *beberapa bulan yang telah lalu* 'several months which had already just passed'; *sekian bulan yang telah lalu* 'some months which had already just passed'; *sepuluh bulan yang telah lalu* 'ten months which had already just passed'; *pada bulan yang telah lalu* 'in the month which had already just passed'; etc. (In this group *lalu* 'past' can be replaced by either *lampau* 'ago' or *lewat* 'past' with no difference in meaning);

i. *sebelum waktu itu* 'the time before that'; *sebelum saat itu* 'the moment before that'; *sebelum hari itu* 'the day before that'; *sebelum pekan itu* 'the week before that', etc.

j. *sering/kerap kali* 'often times'; *jarang kali* 'seldom'; *beberapa kali* 'some times'; *banyak kali* 'many times'; *sepuluh kali* 'ten times', etc.

iii. Clauses: This group comprises:
    a. Temporal Conjunction + Clause
    b. Conditional Clause

c. Indirect Speech and Nominalisation

Asofie (1979) made no mention of past time time reference using an auxiliary word. I will argue here that there are four auxiliary words, i.e.,*sudah*[4],*telah*[4], *baru(san)* and *pernah* which can be used to convey past time reference in BI although they do interact with aspectual meanings. *Baru,* for example, can have progressive meaning while *telah* and *sudah* can have 'perfect' meaning, and *pernah* 'ever'/'once' meaning.

The use of each of the above past time reference markers secures past time reference in BI. The following is quoted to illustrate their actual use to express past time reference.

> (6) a. *Djajanto pernah menjadi guru, bekerja di Pusat Balai*
>   Djajanto once become teacher work at central centre
>   *Bahasa dan kemudian redaksi sebuah penerbitan*
>   language and then editor a publishing company
>   *di Jakarta*
>   in Jakarta
>   (Horison, January, 1986, p. 24)
>   'Djajanto was once a teacher, worked in the Central
>   Language Centre and then worked as an editor of
>   a publishing company in Jakarta'

In (6a), the use of *pernah,* an auxiliary word, correctly establishes the past time reference, and *specific* meaning(s). Echols and Shadily (1961, 1963, p. 276, 1989, p. 424) state that *pernah* expresses a past situation which occurred 'once' as in (6b); 'ever' as in (6c) and when combined with *belum* or *tidak/tak* expresses 'never' as in (6d, e).

> (6) b. *Saya pernah ke Bali*
>   I once go to/visit Bali
>   'I once went to/visited Bali'
> c. *Apakah saudara pernah pergi ke Madura?*
>   INT (yes/no question) you ever visit Madura
>   'Did you ever visit Madura?'
> d. *Saya belum pernah pergi*
>   I not yet ever visit
>   'I have never visited, i.e., that place'
> e. *Ia tak pernah senang*
>   s/he never PERNAH happy/contented

'S/he was never/has never been happy/contented'

In (7), the use of *beberapa waktu yang lalu* 'some time ago' marks the past time reference of the argument stated by Alisjahbana.

(7) *Gagasan menutup Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan*
idea close down centre cultivation and development
Bahasa, seperti yang dikatakan   Prof. Sutan Takdir
language as   LIG be stated Prof. Sutan Takdir
Alisjahbana di koran-koran beberapa waktu yang lalu
Alisjahbana in newspaper some   time LIG past
— *misalnya dalam Horison edisi Desember*
for example in   Horison edition December
86 ini — tentunya sudah   pak Anton ketahui
'86 this certainly already Mr. Anton be known
(Horison, January, 1987, p. 5)
'The idea of closing down the Language Cultivation and
Development Centre as stated by Prof. Sutan Takdir
Alisjahbana in the press some time ago — for
example, in Horison, December '86 edition — certainly was
already known by *Pak* Anton.'

In (8), the use a phrase *pada waktu itu* establishes the past time reference intended.

(8) *Pada waktu itu usia saya pun   cenderung   ke arah   itu*
at   time that age my   PUN tend   towards that
(Horison, March, 1987, p. 77)
'At that time my age also showed a tendency towards that'

In (9), the use of *di Hari Sastra 1985* secures past time reference to which the whole series of events in (9) are oriented, i.e., the speaker's meeting Teeuw and Teeuw's cheerful look at that time. This past time reference is then specified by the use of *28 Nopember sampai dengan 1 Desember 1985,* a definite period of time in the past as the publication of the interview is in February, 1987.

(9) *Ditemui ketika sibuk-sibuknya   ia mengikuti acara*
be met when   be very busy-NYA he   attend   session
demi   acara   di Hari Sastra   1985 Pulau Pinang
after session at   day literary 1985 Pulau Pinang
Malaysia, 28 Nopember sampai dengan 1 Desember
Malaysia, 28 November   until   December 1
1985. A. Teeuw tampak gembira
1985, A. Teeuw look   cheerful

(Horison, February, 1987, p. 41).
(Lit: 'Met in the midst of his busy schedule attending
session after session in the 1985 Literary Day in
Pulau Pinang Malaysia, 28 November to 1 December
1985, A. Teeuw looked cheerful').

Example after example can indeed be found to illustrate the use of explicit past time reference markers provided by Asofie's list. But there are two important points which Asofie (1979) does not address. There is one important point which is not included in Asofie's list, and another point in the list which can be treated differently. The first point in his list: Asofie does not include an explicit past time reference marker which is related to the dates, days, weeks, months, etc., such as in (10).

(10) *suatu hari*   'one day'
      one   day
      bulan Januari   'in January'
      month January
      tahun 1985   'in 1985'
      year 1985
      5 Desember 1985   'December 5, 1985'
      5 December 1985

These obviously show explicit past time reference. In a piece of discourse they are used to convey past time reference explicitly in particular if no other time reference is conveyed. For example, in *bulan January,* if it is accompanied by *akan* it does have future time reference rather than past time reference. In (11), although there is another past time reference marker *baru saja* 'just', the past time reference marker *suatu hari* 'one day' in this context also secures past time reference.

(11) *Suatu hari, Gerson Poyk, bertanya kepada Montingo*
      one day   Gerson Poyk   ask   to   Montingo
      Busye tentang kesediaan Busye memangku jabatan
      Busye about willingness Busye hold   position
      Ketua III Induk Koperasi   Seniman Indonesia yang
      Chief III main cooperative artist Indonesia which
      baru saja   dibentuk oleh lebih dari 25 seniman Jakarta
      just   be founded by more than 25 artist Jakarta
      (Horison, January, 1986, p. 23)

'One day, Gerson Poyk, asked Montingo Busye about
his willingness to hold the position of Chief III
Main Indonesian Artists Cooperative which had been
just founded by more than 25 Jakarta artists'

In (12), *Tanggal 18 Maret yang lampau* secures past time reference.

 (12) <u>*Tanggal 18 Maret yang lampau*</u> *Dewan Kesenian*
   date 18 March LIG past council arts
   Jakarta telah menyelenggarakan selama tiga hari
   Jakarta TELAH hold   for three day
   Pertemuan Sastrawan Jakarta 86 dengan tema
   meet   writer Jakarta 86 with theme
   judul di atas
   title above
   (<u>Horison</u>, April, 1986, p. 111).
   'On March 18th (just past), the Jakarta Arts Council
   held a 3-day 86 Jakarta Writers' Meet with the
   theme as the title above'

In (13), *tahun 1950* correctly secures the past time reference.

 (13) <u>*Tahun 1950*</u> *untuk pertama kali saya kenal nama S.*
   year 1950 for first time I recognise name S.
   Sudjojono lewat brosur kesenian/seni rupa terbitan
   Sudjojono via brochure arts be published-AN
   Departemen Penerangan dengan Menteri Ruslan
   department information then minister Ruslan
   Abdul Gani
   Abdul Gani
   (<u>Horison</u>, June, 1986, p. 189)
   'The first time I saw the name S. Sudjojono via an
   arts brochure published by the Information Ministry
   with Ruslan Abdul Gani the-then-Information
   Minister was in the year 1950'

<u>The second point in his list:</u> Asofie has treated uses of Temporal Conjunction + Clause, Conditional + Clause and Indirect Speech under explicit past time reference. It will be shown that these time reference markers interact with other time reference markers either referring to past or future to convey past or future time reference. Therefore, they would have to be treated under implicit time reference.

5.3.1.1.2 Absolute vs. Relative Past Time Reference

English shows a distinction between absolute tense and absolute-relative tense (Comrie, 1985, pp. 36-82). In describing time reference in BI, I do not explicitly distinguish between absolute time reference and absolute-relative time reference but I will argue that BI can express relative time reference, either past or future, and absolute-relative time reference.

The past time reference which is related to the present deictic centre, in Comrie's terms, known as 'absolute time reference' (1985), can be seen in the following.

(14) a. *Kemarin Tuti pergi ke pasar*
   yesterday Tuti go to market
   'Tuti went to the market yesterday'

The situation of Tuti's going to the market in (14) is located in the past with respect to the present time or the deictic centre S. The time adverb *kemarin* 'yesterday' felicitously secures the past time reference which is interpreted absolutely. Conceptually, *kemarin* can be construed to mean 'the day before today'. It is interesting to note that (14) can be changed into a sentence which shows relative past time reference by using a *-nya* determiner suffix: *-nya* 'the/this/that' (Verhaar, 1984a, p. 12). Thus, in (15) the 'day before today' notion is interpreted or located with respect to the intended deictic centre which is not the present deictic centre S. The *-nya* determiner suffix could refer to the day before 'today' or 'a particular day'.

(15) *Kemarinnya Tuti pergi ke pasar*
   yesterday-NYA Tuti go to market
   'The day before a particular day in the past, Tuti
   went to the market'

The *-nya* determiner suffix can also be combined with *sebelum* 'before' or *sesudah* 'after' to refer to a situation in the past which is located prior or posterior to another past situation. Literally, *sebelumnya* can be glossed 'before that' and *sesudahnya* 'after that'. When they are used to relate past situations they also illus-

trate instances of relative past time reference in BI as in (16, 17).

(16) *Bulan yang lalu* dia   *ke Eropa.*   *Sebelumnya*   dia
       month LIG last s/he   to Europe   before-NYA   s/he
       ke Amerika
       to America
       'Last month s/he went to Europe. Before that s/he
       had gone to America'

(17) *Bulan yang lalu*   dia   *ke Eropa.*   *Sesudahnya itu*
       month LIG last   s/he   to Europe   after-NYA that
       (sesudah itu)   dia   *pergi ke*   *Amerika*
       (after that)   s/he   go   to   America
       'Last month s/he went to Europe. After that s/he
       went to America'

In both (16) and (17) relative past time reference is secured but the relation in (16) is *before* relation while in (17) is *after* relation.

Another relative past time reference marker is the use of *kemudian* 'later' following time quantity phrase such as *setahun kemudian* 'a year later', *dua bulan kemudian* 'two months later', *dua jam kemudian* 'two hours later', etc., as in (18).

(18) *Tiga bulan kemudian*   wanita   itu   mengetuk   pintu
       three month later   woman   the   knock-at   door
       belakang rumah Sapie
       rear   house   Sapie
       (Horison, June, 1986, p. 207).
       'Three months later the woman knocked at the rear
       door of Sapie's house'

In (18), *tiga bulan kemudian* 'three months later' establishes relative past time reference with respect to the established reference past time R in the discourse.

(19) and (20) illustrate the use of relative past time reference. Notice the use of *sebulan kemudian* in (19) and *besok harinya* in (20) both of which establish relative past time reference.

(19) *Sebulan kemudian* aku sengaja   datang lagi ke kota
       one month   later   I   deliberately   come   again to   city
       S di tempat wanita itu   mengajar — tetapi bukan
       S at place woman the   teach   but   not

sebagai seorang wartawan
as   a   journalist
(Horison, June, 1987, p. 210).
'The following month I deliberately came to the S
city again where the woman was teaching — but not as a
journalist'

(20) *Dan   besok   harinya,   ketika berangkat ke kantor saya*
and tomorrow   day-NYA when   leave for   office   I
lihat anak-anak itu kembali mengerumuni tukang jualan itu
see   kids   the return crowd   street-hawker that
(Horison, January, 1986, p. 29).
'And the following day on my way to the office I saw
the kids return crowding the street-hawker again'

With regard to *kemudian* Kaswanti Purwo (1984, pp. 206-13) observes that in the above circumstances *kemudian* is related to its antecedent. In his words, *kemudian* is a 'correlative structure', i.e., a structure which consists of an interdependent pair. *Kemudian* does not constitute an independent constituent but a modifier of another constituent, i.e., its antecedent. Although Kaswanti Purwo (1984) does not discuss the temporal significance of *kemudian,* he seems to imply the 'before' relation which obtains in *kemudian.*

At this point I would like to indicate that *kemudian* can be interpreted absolutely to refer to a very distant future Specifically, when it is combined with *di hari* 'the day' it refers to the Day of Judgement: *di Hari Kemudian.* In this study this phenomenon is referred to as an instance of peripheral meanings.

5.3.1.1.3   Immediate/Recent and Distant Past Time Reference

BI does not possess any formal verbal morphology to express finer distinction in temporal distance such as found in some Bantu languages to distinguish between recent past and distant past. It does, however, have a distinction which shows immediate/recent and distant past time reference. There are certain lexical items or particles which can be used to convey the notions of recent

past, distant past and very distant or remote past time reference.

In terms of Comrie's succinct formula of tense (1985, p. 130; also Section 3.5.1 Chapter III) temporal distance past time reference can be formulated as follows:

$$E \quad before \quad S$$
$$magn$$

'Magn' is for magnitude, that is, the quantity of the time involved. If it has small quantity it is called recent past or today past; shorter quantity very recent past; long quantity distant past; very long quantity very distant past or remote past. This division, however, is not very rigid depending on the language itself. Some languages do have a rigid division while others have a more fluid division.

To express recent past time reference which extends, for instance, from about one minute to about half an hour ago, BI uses *baru saja, baru* or *barusan* and *tadi*. *Baru saja* can be interpreted as a recent past time reference marker combined with emphasis while *baru* expresses the same recent past time reference but without such emphasis. In (21a, b) the departure is located just a short while ago with respect to the moment of speech. In (21c) the rain has just stopped.

(21) a. *Ia   baru saja   pergi*
　　　 s/he   just SAJA   leave
　　　 'S/he did just leave/has just left'

　　 b. *Ia   baru pergi*
　　　 s/he   just leave
　　　 'S/he just left/has just left'

　　 c. *Hujan   baru saja   reda*
　　　 rain   just SAJA   subside
　　　 (Horison, April, 1987, p. 130).
　　　 'The rain has just subsided'

In spoken BI, one can use *barusan* in place of *baru* or *baru saja*, as in (22a). In (22b) *baru* is also used in spoken BI.

(22) a. *Ia   barusan datang*
　　　 s/he   just-AN   arrive
　　　 'S/he has just/just arrived'

b."Saya _baru_ datang dari Semarang", jawab tamu   itu
I   just arrive from Semarang reply visitor the
(Horison, April,1987, p. 131)
'"I have just arrived from Semarang", replied the
visitor'.

Tadi as a recent past time reference marker is interesting in that it can collocate only with a time adverb which conveys the meaning within the period earlier today and last night. Thus, there are combinations of *tadi pagi* 'this morning-past', *tadi siang* 'this afternoon-past', *tadi sore* 'this evening-past', *tadi malam* 'last night' but not **tadi kemarin, *tadi bulan yang lalu, *tadi tahun yang lampau.* The latter are not acceptable as they do not refer to the period of earlier today and last night.*Tadi* can sometimes be used alone to refer to the period just past almost similar in meaning to *baru saja*. In (23), the sentence should appropriately be spoken in the afternoon or evening following that morning.

(23) *Dia*   _tadi pagi_   *di sini*
s/he   *recent past* morning   here
'S/he was here this morning'

In (24), the sentence is spoken a little after s/he has gone, i.e., an instance of recent past time reference.

(24) *Dia*   _tadi_   *di sini*
s/he   *recent past*   here
'S/he was here just now (recent past)'

Tadi in (24) secures recent past time reference, and in some cases *tadi* in this instance can be replaced by *baru saja*. With regard to *tadi* Kaswanti Purwo (1984, p. 73) observes that it can be transposed without any change of meaning. Notice that each of (25a, b) has to be used to refer to a situation which is located at a recent past time with respect to the present deictic centre. Thus, when it is already nightfall one cannot use *tadi malam* to refer to last night but one can say *tadi pagi, tadi siang, tadi sore*. To use *tadi malam* appropriately the time of utterance should be before the following night. (25a) and (25b) show no difference in

meaning.

(25) a. *tadi pagi*   (25)   b. *pagi tadi*
    recent past (morning)
    tadi siang   *siang tadi*
    recent past (today)
    tadi sore   *sore tadi*
    recent past (afternoon)
    tadi malam   *malam tadi*
    recent past (last night)

(25a, b) can be literally glossed *tadi pagi/pagi tadi* 'this morning', *tadi siang/siang tadi* 'this afternoon, today', *tadi sore/sore tadi* 'this afternoon', *tadi malam/malam tadi* 'last night'.

Kaswanti Purwo (1984, p. 85) states that *baru-baru ini, belum lama ini, akhir-akhir ini, belakangan ini* are used to express recent past time reference, as in (26a, b).

(26)   a. *Seorang ahli biokimia William Frey, <u>baru-baru ini</u>*
       a   biochemist   William Frey   recently
       mengutarakan suatu teori gejala   menangis.
       propose   a   theory symptoms crying
       (Kaswanti Purwo, 1984, p. 85)
       'A biochemist William Frey, has recently
       proposed a theory of crying symptoms'
    b. *Sebanyak 306   mahasiswa Universitas Gajah Mada*
       a total of 306   students   Universitas Gajah Mada
       (UGM) <u>belum lama ini</u> dilepas   oleh   Rektor.
       (UGM)   recently   be sent out by
       Vice-Chancellor
       (Kaswanti Purwo, 1984, p. 85)
       '306 Gajah Mada University students were recently
       sent out by the Vice-Chancellor'

Each situation in (26a, b) expresses recent past time reference by using *baru-baru ini* and *belum lam? ini* respectively.

To express a distant past time reference which extends from about one year to several years within the speaker's past life time, BI uses the words *dulu* or *dahulu* which can be glossed literally into 'formerly' or 'used to'. *Dulu* seems to be commonly used in spoken BI though it may also be found in written BI. In (27a, b, c), *dulu* establishes the distant past time reference. *Dahulu* (27d)

establishes the distant past time reference. (27c) can be con-
strued as to mean that Tono was my student in the distant past.

(27) a. *Saya*   *dulu*   *murid*   *Bapak*
      I   formerly (in the distant past)   student   BAPAK/your
      (Horison, 1986, p. 24).
      'I was (i.e., in the distant past) *Bapak* /your student'

     b. *Dulu*   *Ngatiyo temannya*   *menggembala kerbau*   *dan*
      formerly   Ngatiyo   friend-his   tend   buffaloes   and
      kambing gombal   *dua*   *biji*   *itu*   *cuma*   *bercelana*
      sheep   two   BIJI   the   only   wear
      hitam   *komprang*   *yang*   *lusuh*
      black   long trousers   LIG   dirty/worn-out
      (Horison, 1986, p. 208).
      'Formerly Ngatiyo was his friend to tend the
      buffaloes and two sheep with only wearing dirty or
      worn-out long trousers'

     c. *Tono*   *dulu/dahulu*   *murid*   *saya*
      Tono   formerly   student   my
      'Formerly Tono was my student/Tono used to be my
      student'

     d. *Dahulu*   *dia*   *mengira, kebahagiaan*   *hanya*   *bisa*
      formerly   s/he   think   happiness   only   can
      diraih   *dengan*   *melulur*   *ilmu pengetahuan*
      be reached   by   swallowing/learning   knowledge
      sebanyak-banyaknya
      as much as possible-NYA
      (Horison, 1986, p. 204).
      'In the distant past, s/he used to think that happiness
      can only be reached by learning knowledge as much as s/he
      could'

If the distance in time extends to the period of antiquity such as
the period during the early history of man, the phrase *dahulu kala*
is used. Hence the term very distant past time reference is used.
Notice that *dulu* is never used to replace *dahulu* in this context. In
(28), *dahulu kala* binds the utterance to a very distant past time.

     (28) *Dahulu kala*   *ada seorang raja*   *yang*   *amat*   *arief*
      once upon a time   be   a   king   LIG   very   wise
      dan   *bijaksana*   (+ in the distant past)
      and   considerate
      'Once upon a time there was a very wise and considerate
      king'

One would find that the length of the past time conveyed by (28)

is so long that it supposedly exceeds the life-span of one or several generations. Thus one may not actually be able to pinpoint precisely to when the situation with *dahulu kala* took place except approximately. Therefore, if the length of the distant past time does not exceed one's life time, one cannot use *dahulu kala* even if the situation is considered to have occurred a long time ago. In (29) referring to the speaker's close friend, Tono, *dahulu kala* is not permitted since the sentence expresses the speaker's knowledge of his life time during which Tono is said to have resided in

(29) *Dulu/dahulu/*dahulu kala*   *Tono tinggal di sini*
    formerly (in the distant past) Tono live   here
    'Formerly Tono lived here/Tono used to live here'

such and such a place. In uttering (29) the speaker necessarily projects himself to the past time with respect to his own past life time. If he uses *dahulu kala* the past time reference conveyed will include a very distant past time which extends to the time long before the speaker was born. Thus the use of *dahulu kala* in (29) contradicts the meaning of the sentence.

Dahulu kala and *tadi* which have their respective collocation restrictions exemplify the use of rigid past time reference markers as the former can only be used to refer to situations which are located at a very distant past time while the latter is used to refer to situations which hold within the period of earlier today and last night. *Baru*, by contrast, exemplifies the use of fluid temporal distance marker. If it is used alone as in (30) *baru,* it usually refers to a very recent past situation within half an hour ago or so, but if it is used with other time adverbs which do not indicate recent past time reference *baru* conveys the subjective recency of the situation in question as in *baru kemarin* 'just yesterday', *baru bulan yang lalu* 'just/only last month', *baru tahun yang lalu* 'just/only last year'. (31) may be interpreted to mean 'it

was not many years ago when s/he graduated'.

(30) *Aku* <u>*baru*</u> *saja* *makan,* *bu.* *Di warung*
    I   recent past have a meal Mum   at foodstall
tempat pemberhentian bis *tadi,*   *bu.*
bus stop   recent past   Mum
(<u>Horison</u>, February, 1987, p. 62)
'I have just had my meal, Mum. At the
foodstall in the bus stop (just mentioned), Mum'

(31) *Ia* <u>*baru*</u> *lulus* *tahun yanq lalu*
    s/he just graduate year LIG last/past
'S/he just graduated last year'

A note for *sudah, telah, baru(san)* and *konon*

The particles *sudah, telah, baru(san)* can be placed directly before the main verb. Notice the infelicity of (32b) in which the particles follow the main verb, i.e., *datang.*

(32) a. *baru datang*   (32) b. **datang baru*
      (has/have) just arrived
      telah datang   **datang telah*
      has/have arrived (TELAH perfect)
      sudah datang   *datang sudah* [5]
      has/have arrived (SUDAH perfect)

Barusan, however, behaves differently in that it can be put either before or after the main verb, and thus both of the following are acceptable: *barusan datang* and *datang barusan.*

Two of these particles *sudah* and *telah,* unlike English auxiliaries, cannot be negated but *baru(san),* like an English auxiliary, can be negated. Hence (32c) is acceptable while (32d) is not.

(32) c. *tidak baru datang* (32) d. **tidak telah datang*
     not   just arrive   not   TELAH arrive
     tidak barusan datang   **tidak sudah datang*
     not just-SAN arrive   not   SUDAH arrive

When used in interrogative sentences, however, these three particles behave in a manner similar to that of the English auxiliaries. That is, they are placed at the beginning of the interrogative sentence, as in (33).

(33) a. <u>*Sudah*</u> *datang dia?*
     SUDAH arrive s/he
     'Has s/he arrived?'

b. *Telah* *datang* *dia?*
TELAH arrrive s/he
'Has s/he arrived?'

c. *Baru(san)* *datang* *dia?*
BARU(SAN):just arrive s/he
'Has s/he just arrived?'

As the three examples behave in a manner almost similar to that of auxiliary verb it might be legitimate to consider them as auxiliary words. Moreover, these particles, unlike other time adverbs, cannot be transposed freely.

Konon, like the three particles *sudah, telah* and *baru(san),* is used for a past situation, but the past situation is not certain in the sense that it is not based on the speaker's first-hand experience. A past situation expressed with *sudah, telah* or *baru-(san),* is always certain. That is, the situation did occur.

In (34a), for example, the speaker is not personally certain that what K.H. Mustofa states is true. Likewise the speaker in (34b) shows that the past situation expressed is not based on first-hand experience; each of (34c, d, e) also expresses a past situation which is uncertain to some degree.

(34) a. *Konon,* *di Universitas Al Azhar Kairo, Mesir,*
they say at university Al Azhar Kairo Egypt
menurut *K.H. Mustofa Bisri, tak pernah dikenal*
according to K.H. Mustofa Bisri not ever be known
acara *muballigh* *baca* *puisi*
programme muballigh read poem
(Horison, October, 1987, p. 354).
'They say, at Al Azhar University of Cairo,
Egypt, according to K.H. Mustofa Bisri, nobody
ever knows/knew a programme where a *muballigh*
reads a poem'

b. *Konon,* *kucing-kucing gubernuran itu* *dimasukan*
they-say cats governor-AN the be placed
ke dalam sebuah truk, *lalu* *dilemparkan*
into a truck then be cast
di *tengah hutan yang jauh*
into middle forest LIG far
(Horison, July, 1986, p. 241).
'They say that the cats from the governor's

(mansion) were placed in a truck, then they
were cast into the middle of a far away forest'

The speaker of (34a) or (34b) is committed neither to the truth nor to the falsity of the statements reported.

Echols and Shadily state that *konon* expresses 'wonder' (1963, p. 197, 1989, p. 306) as in (34c); 'they say' (1963, p. 197, 1989, p. 306) as in (34d); 'perhaps' (1963, 1989) and 'it seems' (1989) as in (34e, 34f).

(34) c. *Siapa   konon   memanggil   saya   tadi*
      who   I-wonder call   me   just now
      'I wonder who called me just now/
      Apparently someone called me just now'

d. *Konon   ia   dipilih   menjadi presiden*
    they say s/he be elected become president
    'They say s/he was elected president'

e. *Bukan itu   konon   yang   dimaksudkan*
    not that perhaps which   be meant
    'Perhaps that wasn't what he meant' (1963, p. 197)

f. *Permintaaan itu   konon   diajukan   secara mendadak*
    request   the 'it seems' be made all of a sudden
    'It seems that the request was made all of a sudden'
    (1989, p. 306)

It is interesting to note that Echols and Shadily show that the English glosses of (34c, d, e, f) are in the Past Tense which clearly expresses past time reference.

5.3.1.1.4   Explicit Present Time Reference

Explicit present time reference, in which a situation is assumed to coincide with the present moment as the deictic centre, can also be found in BI. This semantic characterisation can be related to Comrie's formulation of present tense as a grammatical category the meaning of which refers to the co-incidence of the situation with the present moment. In Comrie's formulation (1985), present tense is represented as E *simul* S. That is, the situation or the event E positions simultaneously with the present moment of speech S. If R (i.e., the reference point) is introduced, it can be shown that this R coincides with

the *E* and *S* as well (Reichenbach, 1947, p. 290). In B̲I̲, however, as this present time reference is not grammaticalised one cannot definitely apply the term present tense to B̲I̲ in place of present time reference.

There is a very limited number of lexemes which can be used to refer to explicit present time reference apart from the un-limited number of their possible combinations. In fact only three lexemes are identified, namely, *sekarang, kini,* which can be used independently, and *ini,* which can only be used with certain time adverbs. The use of these particles secures present time reference in B̲I̲. In (35a, b), the utterance is temporally bound by the use of *sekarang* 'now' and in (35c) by the use of *kini* 'at present'.

(35) a. *Sekarang   kita   berkumpul   lagi*
  now   we (incl.)   gather/be together   again
  'Now we are together again'

b. *Ngatiyo   memang   gagah   sekarang*
  Ngatiyo   really   valiant and strong   now
  (Horison, June,1986, p. 208).
  'Ngatiyo is really valiant and strong now'

c. *Dia   kini sepenuhnya percaya bahwa memang sikap*
  s/he at present fully   believe   that   true attitude
  berontaklah   yang membuat manusia menemukan adanya
  rebellious-LAH LIG make   man   find out   truth-NYA
  (Horison, June, 1986, p. 205).
  'At present s/he fully believes that a true rebellious
  attitude will make a man find out the truth'

The particle *sekarang* can be placed (sentence) initially as in (35a) or (sentence) finally as in (36) or before the main verb as in (37).

(36) *Kita   berkumpul lagi   sekarang*
  we (incl.)   be together again   now
  'We are together again now'

(37) *Kita   sekarang berkumpul lagi*
  we (incl.)   now   be together again
  'We are now together again'

Ini, which is in origin a demonstrative adjective 'this', is interesting in that it can only be used to refer to present time in

combination with certain time adverbs. This observation seems to vindicate the claim made by Traugott (1975, p. 213) who states that "temporal relations in language are locative in underlying structure". Stokhof (1986, p. 326) has pointed out that the meaning of *ini* itself is "temporally, spatially and/or psychologically relatively proximate to the speaker". Thus in terms of proximity to the speaker both *ini* and present time reference have much in common.

The number of *time adverb* + *ini* combinations seems to be unlimited as is shown by Asofie (1979, p. 52). One plausible explanation to account for this is that basically a time adverb as a lexical item can be created to refer to a certain time concept as is shown in (38) proposed in Asofie (1979) for the possible combination of *ini* to refer to the present time reference.

(38) a. *saat ini* 'at this moment'; *waktu ini* 'at this time';
minggu ini 'this week'; *belakangan ini* ' this recent time,
lately'; *sekarang ini* 'nowadays'; *bulan ini* 'this month',
etc.

b. *hari-hari terakhir ini* 'these last days';
bulan-bulan terakhir ini 'these last months'; *saat-saat
terakhir ini* 'these last moments'; *waktu-waktu terakhir
ini* 'these last periods of time'; *hari-hari belakangan ini*
'these last days'; *bulan-bulan belakangan ini* 'these last
months'; *saat-saat belakangan ini* 'these last moments';
waktu-waktu belakangan ini ' these last periods of time',
etc.

c. *pada saat-saat terakhir ini* 'on these last moments';
pada bulan-bulan terakhir ini ' on these last months'; *pada
saat-saat belakangan ini* 'on these last moments'; *pada
bulan-bulan belakangan ini* 'on these last months', etc.,
dalam saat-saat terakhir ini 'within these last moments';
dalam bulan-bulan terakhir ini 'within these last months';
dalam bulan-bulan belakangan ini 'within these last
months'; *dalam saat-saat belakangan ini* 'within these
last moments', etc.

From Asofie's list, the combination of *ini* with reduplicated words, i.e., *hari-hari, bulan-bulan, saat-saat, tahun-tahun*, etc.,

can be used to express present time reference, as in (39).

> (39) *hari-hari ini* 'these days', *bulan-bulan ini* 'these
> months', *saat-saat ini* 'at this moment', *saat-saat*
> *sekarang ini* 'nowadays', *tahun-tahun ini* 'these
> years', etc.

Notice that these present time reference markers do not apply rigidly to present time only. In a sense the distinction is fluid. For example, *sekarang* can be used in a sentence with future time reference, as in (40).

> (40) <u>Sekarang</u>   kita   akan   menyanyi
> now   we (incl.)   will/AUX   sing
> 'Now we will sing (a song)'

Thus, if an individual present time reference marker extends further into the past and into the future, it can be used to refer to past time reference, present time reference and future time reference. In this sense, the time reference marker does not actually explicitly indicate a single time reference, definable across contexts. Consider (41), (42) and (43).

> (41) <u>Tahun ini</u> dia   sudah   menyelesaikan Bab II
> year this s/he   SUDAH   complete   Chapter II
> 'This year s/he has completed Chapter II'
> (42) <u>Tahun ini</u> dia   menyelesaikan Bab   II
> year this s/he   complete   Chapter II
> 'This year s/he is completing/completed Chapter II'
> (43) <u>Tahun ini</u> dia   akan menyelesaikan Bab II
> year this s/he   will/AUX complete   Chapter II
> 'This year s/he will complete Chapter II'

In (41) the past time reference of *tahun ini* is secured by the presence of *sudah,* a past time reference marker; in (42), in the absence of other time reference markers, *tahun ini* can be used to refer to present time reference, future time reference or past time reference; in (43) the future time reference of *tahun ini* is established by the presence of *akan,* a future time reference marker/particle.

There are uses of *ini* as a demonstrative adjective combined with certain time adverbs to refer to the past, present or future

time reference. For example, *ini* combined with past time reference markers such as *kemarin* 'yesterday' to contrast with 'the day before', *ini* can be used to refer to past time reference, as in (44).

> (44) *kemarin* 'yesterday'
> *kemarin ini* 'Lit.: this yesterday'
> *kemarin dulu* 'the day before yesterday'

Similarly, *bulan yang lalu* 'last month', *tahun yang lalu* 'last year', *besok* 'tomorrow', can also be combined with *ini* for the same reason.

The use of *ini* in combination does not specifically secure present, past or future time reference which is typically found in the combination of *dalam* + *nominals* + *ini*, as in (45).

> (45) *dalam proyek ini*
> in   project   this
> 'in this project'
> *dalam usaha ini*
> in   effort/business   this
> 'in this effort/business'
> *dalam hidup ini*
> in   life   this
> 'in this life'
> *dalam menyelesaikan tugas ini*
> in   finish/complete   task   this
> 'in finishing/completing this task'

Each combination in (45) can be used with present, past or future time reference, as in (46a, b, c).

> (46) a. <u>*Dalam proyek ini*</u> *kita sudah menghabiskan dana*
> in   project   this   we (incl.) SUDAH spend   fund
> *yang tidak sedikit*
> LIG   not   small
> 'In this project we have spent the fund which was not small'
> b. <u>*Dalam proyek ini*</u> *kita akan menghabiskan dana*
> in   project   this   we (incl.) will   spend   fund
> *yang tidak sedikit*
> LIG   not   small
> 'In this project we will spend the fund which is not small'
> c. <u>*Dalam proyek ini*</u> *kita menghabiskan dana yang tidak*
> in   project   this   we (incl.) spend   fund LIG   not

sedikit
small
(implicit time reference)
'In this project we (have) spent the fund which is/was not
small'

In (46a) the past time reference is secured by the presence of *sudah* 'already'; in (46b) the future time reference is secured by the presence of *akan;* in (46c) there is no time reference indicated but implicitly it can be construed as conveying present time reference.

There is one interesting fact about *ini* combination in *baru-baru ini* 'just recently'. Unlike other *ini* combinations, *baru-baru ini* is never used to refer to present time reference but only to past time reference. It is argued here that this is an instance of an *ini* combination used peripherally. *Baru,* which literally means 'new', in its temporal meaning can be interpreted to refer to a situation which holds in the recent past (See 26a, b). Thus in a sense the use of *baru-baru* in *baru-baru ini* neutralises the present time reference of *ini* into the past time reference. By contrast, *belakangan ini, akhir-akhir ini,* which both literally mean 'recently' without necessarily emphasizing the recency of the situation, can be used to refer to either past or present time reference. Consider (47a) and (47b).

   (47) a. <u>*Baru-baru ini*</u>   *dia*   *sibuk*
       recent past/recently   s/he busy
       'Recently s/he has been or in the recent past s/he was
       busy'
      b. <u>*Belakangan ini*</u>   *dia*   *sibuk*
       recently/lately/recent past   s/he busy
       'Recently s/he has been busy or in the recent past s/he
       was busy'

In (47a) the speaker may imply that *dia* 's/he' is not busy now, but s/he was busy in the recent past, or that s/he has been busy now but s/he was not busy before. In (47b) the speaker may imply that *dia* 's/he' has been busy at present, or s/he was busy in the recent

past and not busy at present (See Kaswanti Purwo, 1984, p. 85).

There is present time reference in (48) as the editor expects the reader to read the magazine in July 1986.

(48) *Majalah sastra Horison pada bulan Juli 1986, tepat*
magazine literary Horison in   month July 1986 exactly
berusia 20 tahun (Juli 1966 - Juli 1986). Dalam   usianya
age   20 years (July 1966 - July 1986).   In   age-NYA
yang ke 20 ini dikandung maksud untuk memperingatinya
LIG 20th this   be   intention for   celebrate-it
dengan cara mengadakan   pameran   Perjalanan
 by   hold   exhibition journey
Majalah Sastra   yang   pernah terbit di Indonesia.
magazine literary LIG PERNAH be published in Indonesia
Dalam pameran itu akan juga dipamerkan lembaran budaya
in   exhibition the will also be shown   pieces   culture
yang   pernah ada di media Koran/majalah umum   yang
LIG   PERNAH be in newspaper/magazine general LIG
terbit   di   seluruh pelosok tanah air
be written in   every nook and cranny of the country
sejak   dahulu   hingga   sekarang
from   the distant past to   the present/now
(Horison, June, 1986, p. 188).
'The Horison literary magazine reaches the age of
exactly 20 years in July 1986 (July 1966 - July 1986).
On her twentieth birthday we hope to celebrate it by
holding an exhibition of *Perjalanan Majalah Sastra*
published in Indonesia. In the exhibition, pieces of
cultural works published in the newspapers and general
magazines which have been written in every nook and
cranny of the country from the distant past to the
present time will also be shown'

In (48), it can be seen how productive the combination of *ini* is as is shown by *dalam usianya yang ke 20 ini* 'on her twentieth birthday'. Other nominals can certainly be created to refer to other possible present time reference. The time adverb *sekarang* in (48) also refers to the present but it is mainly used in combination with other time adverbs to create *sejak dulu hingga sekarang* 'since a long time ago up to now/the present'.

5.3.1.1.5   Explicit Future Time Reference

The meaning of future time reference in BI can also be es-

tablisned in terms of Comrie's formulation of future tense (1985; also see Section 3.5.1 Chapter III). Future time reference conveys the idea that events, states and processes are located at some time after the moment of speech. Comrie's formulation of future tense to express future time reference is represented as *E after S*. That is, an event or a situation *E* will hold or take place after the moment of speech *S*. I will show that B̲I̲ both partly grammaticalises and lexicalises future time reference, and that both grammaticalised and lexicalised future time reference in B̲I̲ can be made explicit.

Grammaticalised future time reference in B̲I̲ is made explicit by using an auxiliary word while lexicalised future time reference is made explicit by making use of a future time adverb. This is in contradistinction to past time reference and present time reference, which are basically lexicalised, that is, they are conveyed by a lexeme with past or present time reference although in some cases past time reference may also be conveyed by using an auxiliary-like particle, such as *sudah, telah* and *baru*. See 5.3.1.1.1.

Asofie (1979, p. 56) identifies three 'auxiliaries' used for future time reference in B̲I̲ and five particles as well as a large number of phrases with future time reference, as in (49).

(49) 'Auxiliary words' :
    akan 'will, going to'; *hendak* 'intend, shall';
    mau 'will, shall, want, going to'.
  Words/particles :
    kelak 'in the distant future';
    nanti 'later' ;*nantinya* 'in the future'; *besok* 'tomorrow';
    lusa 'day after tomorrow'; *sebentar (lagi)* 'in a second'.
  Phrases :
  a. *bulan muka* 'next month'; *bulan yang akan datang* 'the
      next coming month(s)'; *hari yang akan datang* 'the next
      coming day(s)'; *tahun yang akan datang* 'the next coming
      year'; *saat yang akan datang* 'the moment to come'; *bulan
      depan* 'next month'; *hari depan* 'next day'; *tahun depan*
      'next year'; *bulan itu nanti* 'that coming month'; *hari itu
      nanti* 'that coming day'; *tahun itu nanti* 'that coming

year'; *saat itu nanti* 'that coming moment', *minggu
muka/depan* 'next week', etc.

b. *di/pada saat yang akan datang* 'at the coming moment/
at the next moment'; *di/pada hari yang akan datang* 'on
the day to come/next day'; *di/pada/dalam bulan yang akan
datang* 'in the month to come/next month';
di/pada/dalam tahun yang akan datang 'in the year to
come/next year'; *di/pada waktu yang akan datang* 'at the
time to come', *dalam waktu yang akan datang* 'by the time
to come', etc.

c. *di/pada saat itu nanti* ' at that coming moment/time';
di/pada hari itu nanti 'on that coming day'; *di/pada tahun
itu nanti* 'in that coming year'; *di/pada masa itu nanti*
'at that coming time/period of time ', etc.

As is shown by Asofie's list it is not necessary to state again
that the list can be expanded. Basically new phrases can be
created as long as they can be used to express possible future
time reference.

In describing future time reference in BI Alisjahbana (1983,
p. 105) shows that *akan* is used to refer to events that hold in the
future. Gonda (1954, p. 260) states that in present-day BI, future
time reference is almost always explicitly expressed by *akan/
hendak*. Johns and Stoke (1977, p. 90) state that the combination
of *akan* + *verb* "indicates that an action is going to occur in the
future". To support this claim for the existence of future time
reference marker in BI, I will add that *akan* used as a future time
reference marker constitutes an example of a grammatical cat-
egory of time reference in BI although it is not fully grammat-
icalised.

Akan is indeed an auxiliary word as it is always placed
before the main verb; in the affirmative *akan* can never be
transposed to any other positions unlike the other lexicalised
(future) time reference markers which can be transposed "quite
freely". Thus, if *akan* is not placed directly before the main verb
or the predicate the sentence becomes unacceptable, as in (50a, b,

c, d).

   (50) a. *Dia   <u>akan</u>   membantu kita*
           s/he   will   help   us (incl.)
           'S/he will help us'

      b. **Akan dia   membantu kita*
          will   s/he   help   us (incl.)

      c. **Dia   membantu akan kita*
          s/he   help   will   us (incl.)

      d. **Dia   membantu kita   akan*
          s/he   help   us (incl.)   will

(50 b, c, d) are all unacceptable; if (50a) is changed into an inter-rogative, *akan* is inverted as in (50e),

   (50) e. *<u>Akan</u>   membantu kita   dia?*
           will   help   us (incl.)   s/he
           'Will s/he help us?'

although normally a change of intonation is sufficient to convert (50a) into an interrogative. By contrast, lexicalised future time reference markers, i.e., particles or phrases, can all be transposed as shown in (51a, b, c).

   (51) a. *Dia   <u>besok</u>   datang*
          s/he tomorrow come
          'S/he will come tomorrow'

      b. *<u>Besok</u>   dia   datang*
         tomorrow s/he come
         'S/he will come tomorrow'

      c. *Dia   datang   <u>besok</u>*
         s/he come   tomorrow
         'S/he comes tomorrow'

    Future time reference is only partly grammaticalised in the form of the auxiliary word *akan* in the sense that *akan* is not obli-gatorily used in any utterance-act with future time reference. In many cases it can be replaced by time adverbs with future time meaning. That is, the future time reference is conveyed by a lex-ical item, as in (52a, b).

   (52) a. *<u>Besok</u>   saya cincang tikus-tikus   itu   sampai*
          tomorrow I   mince   mouse RED   the   until
          menjadi   serbuk-serbuk
          become   be pulverized
          'Tomorrow I will mince the mice until they become

pulverized'
b. *Dia* <u>*besok*</u> *datang*
s/he tomorrow come
'S/he comes tomorrow, i.e., s/he will come tomorrow'

In (52a, b) the future time reference is conveyed by *besok* 'tomorrow'. If the future time reference is emphasized or requires that it be made more explicit *akan* must then be added, as in (53a, b).

(53) a. <u>*Besok*</u> <u>*akan*</u> *saya cincang* *tikus-tikus itu sampai*
tomorrow will I mince mice the until
menjadi *serbuk-serbuk*
become be pulverized
(<u>Horison</u>, 1986, p. 31)
'Tomorrow I will mince the mice until they become pulverized'
b. *Dia* <u>*besok*</u> <u>*akan*</u> *datang*
s/he tomorrow will come
'S/he will come tomorrow'

In certain expressions *akan* can never be used, as in (54a). (55a) can use *akan* when it is placed before *ditutup* as in (55c) although (55c) seems to be intuitively incorrect for some speakers of <u>BI</u>.

(54) a. *Jam berapa* *pemakamannya?*
what time burial ceremony-NYA
'What time is the burial ceremony (going to be conducted)?'
b.**Jam berapa akan* *pemakamannya?*
what time will burial ceremony-NYA
(55) a. *'Begini, nak* *Syahrul. Kapan pendaftaran untuk*
now my son Syahrul when nomination for
menjadi ketua *RW* *ditutup?'*
be president RW (Neighbourhood Association) close
'Malam ini, pak,' *kataku* *dengan* *mimik* *serius.*
night this *pak* reply/say-I with mimicry serious
(<u>Horison</u>, August, 1986, pp. 281-82)
'Now, my son Syahrul. When will the nomination for the President for the Neighbourhood Association close?'
'Tonight, *pak*,' I replied seriously.
b. * *Kapan* <u>*akan*</u> *pendaftaran* *untuk menjadi ketua*
when will nomination for be president
RW *ditutup?*
RW (Neighbourhood Association) be closed
c. *?Kapan pendaftaran untuk menjadi ketua*

```
            when  nomination  for    be      president
RW                                   akan   ditutup?
RW  (Neighbourhood Association)  will    be closed
```

Both speakers of (54a) and (55a) seek information with future time reference. In (54a) the speaker asks the time when the burial ceremony is going to be conducted whereas in (55a) the speaker asks when or on what date/day will the nomination for the president of the neighbourhood association be closed. In other instances *akan* can be shown to be obligatory, as in (56a, c, d, e).

(56) a. *Dia   akan   pergi*
     s/he   will   go/leave
     'S/he will go/leave'

    b. *Beberapa pekan lagi kami   akan memperingati*
     a few   week again we (excl.) will   celebrate
     satu tahun berdirinya   patung pahlawan kami
     one   year   erected-NYA statue hero   our (excl.)
     (Horison, February, 1986, p. 61).
     'In a few weeks' time we will celebrate the
     first anniversary of the day when our statue for the
     hero was erected'

    c. *Para   warga kota   akan berduyun-duyun*
     all/every city dweller/citizen will   flock
     ke lapangan balai kota untuk mengikuti upacara
     to square   hall city for   attend   ceremony
     (Horison, February, 1986, p. 61).
     'Every citizen in the town will flock to the city
     square to attend the ceremony'

    d. *Pada hari diselenggarakannya peringatan tersebut*
     on day be held-NYA   anniversary mentioned
     Pak walikota akan menetapkan tahun ini sebagai
     Pak Mayor   will launch   year   this as
     Tahun Pembersihan Sampah
     year clean-AN   rubbish
     (Horison, February, 1986, p. 61).
     'On the day of the anniversary mentioned (above) the
     Mayor will launch this year as 'Cleanliness Year'

    e. *Tapi sekarang amat   diperlukan. Sebab*
     but now   very/badly needed   because
     kalau tidak, maka   kita   akan berlari
     if   not   therefore we (incl.) will run/go
     ke bahasa   lain
     to language other
     (Horison, January, 1987, p. 6)

'But now (it is) badly needed. Because if (it is) not,
we will, therefore, go to another language'

If *akan* is not used in (56 a, c, d, e) future time reference is not
expressed at all. Notice how (56a) is used without *akan* as in *Dia*
pergi to express *'S/he left/has left/leaves'*. Thus, if (56a)
expresses future time reference *akan* is obligatory in particular if
the speaker has no idea as to when *dia* 's/he' will leave, or the
speaker, by contrast, knows definitely that *dia* will leave in the
not too distant future or in the immediate future. Thus, *akan* is
optional on one occasion (52a, b; 53a, b), obligatory on another
(56a, c, d, e) and on yet another it is not required at all (54a, 55a).
In (56a) *akan* can be interpreted modally to express intention.

The illustration of *akan* as a future time reference marker,
which is a partly-grammaticalised expression of future time in
BI, differs from that of the various writers on BI grammars. Kas-
wanti Purwo (1984, p. 164) stated that time reference in BI was
not grammaticalised but lexicalised; Djajasudarma (1985, p. 61)
stated that BI did not have tense as a grammaticalisation of lo-
cating situations in time; Asofie (1979, p. 5) stated that the time
of occurrence or time element was not represented in the pred-
icative verb. In the light of the behaviour of *akan* one would
certainly concur with the argument presented in this study. In
part, the use of *akan* shows partly-grammaticalised future time
reference in BI. Asofie's statement cannot be defended either as
the predicative verb in some cases obligatorily includes *akan* as
its auxiliary word as in (56a). It follows, therefore, that the
predicative verb in BI may also express tense or time reference.
In short, BI can provisionally be shown partly to have future
tense. This study, however, will leave this important topic to be
dealt with in depth in further research.

Kaswanti Purwo (1984) observes that there is a difference

which obtains among the three future time reference auxiliary words: *akan, hendak, mau.* He states that *akan* is used to express pure future while *hendak* has the meaning of willingness in addition to futurity (p. 76). Kaswanti Purwo (1984) also states that *hendak* and *mau* are synonyms. Notice the unacceptability of *hendak* and *mau* in (57). The example is quoted by Kaswanti Purwo (1984).

(57) *Mereka tidak *hendak berdaya*
                *mau
                <u>*akan*</u>
            (Kaswanti Purwo, 1984, p. 77)
    they-not-*wish-become-strong
             *want
             will

In (57) the use of *hendak* or *mau* contradicts the meaning of *berdaya* 'have the strength' which is independent of man's willingness. Kaswanti Purwo (1984, p. 77) shows that " . . . <u>*hendak dan*</u> <u>*mau tidak dapat dipergunakan untuk menyatakan suatu perkiraan atau dugaan*</u>" (Lit.: *hendak* and *mau* cannot be used to express a guess or an 'approximation').

At this point, in regard to Asofie's list of explicit future time reference markers (1979, pp. 56-57), the following points are suggested. First, calendrical or time units, which convey futurity, can be used to refer to future time reference. Let us assume that it is now 10 a.m., and Tono will arrive at *12 a.m.* In the following example by referring to *12 a.m.*, <u>BI</u> conveys future time reference. (58) is assumed to take place in the morning.

(58) A: *Jam berapa   Tono datang?*
       what time   Tono   arrive
       'What time (will) Tono arrive?'
   B: *Jam 12*
      'At 12'

In (58), it can be shown that time units, as indicated by the time of day, can be used to convey future time reference. Similarly,

dates with future time meaning can be used to convey future time reference. Let us assume that today is the first day of November. A and B are talking about the exact date of their exams in an Australian tertiary setting.

(59) A: *Kapan   kita   ujian?*
     when   we (incl.)   exam
     'When is our exam?'

    B: *Tanggal 22*
     date   22
     'On the twenty second'

In (59), the use of *Tanggal 22,* which refers to the same month, i.e., *November,* conveys future time reference.

Phrases with *lagi* following time quantity, i.e., days, etc., can also provide future time reference. In (60), even using time quantity, such as *2 jam* and *lagi,* absolute future time reference is expressed.

(60) A: *Jam   berapa   Tono   datang?*
     what time   Tono   arrive
     'What time will Tono arrive?'

    B: *2 jam lagi*
     2 hour   next
     'In the next two hours'

Here Tono's arrival is located two hours after the time of the utterance-act and thus it is absolutely interpreted.

Secondly, *Temporal Conjunction + Clause, Conditional Clause* and *Indirect Speech & Nominalisation,* as indicated in Asofie's list of explicit future time reference marker (1979, p. 57), should properly be treated under implicit time reference.

5.3.1.1.6   Immediate and Distant Future Time Reference

Although lexicalised, BI can also be said to have immediate future time reference as well as distant future time reference in addition to the common future time reference such as *tomorrow,* *next week,* etc. Here, too, Comrie's succinct formula of tense (1985) can be used as a basis to characterise the meaning of BI

future temporal distance:

$$E \quad after \quad S$$
$$magn$$

In this formula the distance in time between the moment of speech S and the situation E is quantified. If the distance in time is from several minutes to approximately half an hour, immediate future time reference is expressed; if it is considered longer, then another immediate future time reference marker is used. If the distance in time is some years to come distant future time reference is expressed; in a very limited sense BI can be said to have a very distant future time reference.

To express immediate future time reference BI uses the lexical items *sebentar* 'in a moment' and *nanti* 'later, immediate future'. In (61), *sebentar* means in a very short time perhaps within minutes.

(61) *Dia   <u>sebentar</u>   <u>akan</u>   datang*
       s/he   a moment/very soon   will   come
       'S/he will come in a moment/very soon'

Thus, appropriately *sebentar* expresses immediate future time reference. Kaswanti Purwo (1984, p. 72) observes that *nanti* can be used to provide future time reference which does not exceed one day. Hence he presents the following examples.

(62) **nanti   pagi   pagi   nanti*
       later   this morning   this morning   later
       nanti   siang   siang   nanti
       later   this morning/   this morning/   later
                 this afternoon/   this afternoon/
                 today   today
       nanti   sore   sore   nanti
       later   this afternoon   this afternoon   later
       nanti   malam   malam   nanti
       later   tonight   tonight   later
       (Kaswanti Purwo, 1984, p. 72)

If one were to accept Kaswanti Purwo's argument for *nanti* as having its basic meaning to refer to within one day future time reference one would also accept the ungrammaticality of **nanti*

pagi. It can, however, be added that *nanti* has a peripheral use as well. It can be used to refer to subjective immediate future time reference, as in

(63) *bulan Januari nanti* 'this coming January'
month January later/this coming
tahun 2000 nanti 'later in the year 2000'
year 2000 later
hari ulang tahunmu nanti 'your coming birthday'
birthday-your coming

This subjective use of immediate future time reference marker *nanti* can perhaps be related to the meaning of *nanti* as a verb, which more or less means 'wait' in English. Thus, it can be argued that in waiting one expects the time to be short.

To express <u>distant</u> future time reference within man's life span one can use *kelak* in <u>BI</u> as in (64a, c). In this case, *nanti* can also be used, as in (64b, d).

(64) a. *Dia kelak ingin jadi dokter*
s/he in the distant future want be surgeon
'S/he (in the distant future) wants to be a surgeon'

b. *Dia nanti ingin jadi dokter*
s/he in the distant future want be surgeon
'S/he (in the distant future, which is subjectively made shorter) wants to be a surgeon'

c. *Aku akan pulang kelak dengan kaca mata hitam,*
I will go home in the distant fut. with sun glasses
jaket, celana, sepatu dan arloji seperti yang dipakai
jacket trousers shoes and watch as LIG be worn by
Ngatiyo, aku harus membuktikan kalau aku mampu
Ngatiyo I must prove that I be able to (do it)
(<u>Horison</u>, June, 1986, p. 209).
'I will (in the distant future) go home wearing sun glasses, trousers, shoes and a watch like those worn by Ngatiyo, I must prove that I am able to do it'

d. *Aku akan pulang nanti dengan kaca mata hitam,*
I will go home in the distant fut. with sun glasses
jaket, celana, sepatu dan arloji seperti yang dipakai
jacket trousers shoes and watch as LIG be worn
Ngatiyo, aku harus membuktikan kalau aku mampu
Ngatiyo I must prove if I be able to (do it)
'I will (in the distant future, which is subjectively made shorter) go home wearing sun glasses, trousers,

shoes and a watch like those worn by Ngatiyo, I must
prove that I am able to do it'

In (64a, c), with *kelak* the future time reference is considered to be located further into the future while with *nanti* as in (64b, d) the future time reference is subjectively made shorter in spite of the length of time. Kaswanti Purwo (1984, p. 72) observes that *kelak* cannot be used to replace *nanti* if it has immediate future time reference as in (65).

(65) *Nanti,*   *sebentar lagi,*
in the immediate future moment more/an additional amount
pasti   *dia*   *datang*
definitely/certainly s/he   come
*Kelak
in the distant future
(Kaswanti Purwo, 1984, p. 72)
'In the immediate future or in a moment, one more minute,
s/he will certainly come'

In (65), *kelak* is unacceptable since the rest of (65) conveys immediate future time reference. This argument does vindicate the claim that *kelak* is a distant future time reference marker in BI.

There is another distant future time reference marker in BI, that is, *bakal*. *Bakal* has more limited distribution than *kelak*. Kaswanti Purwo (1984, p. 78) notes that *bakal* is used to locate situations which are in the distant future.

(66) *Pesawat itu jatuh ketika   bersiap-siap *bakal/*
plane   the   crash when   be ready   BAKAL/
akan   mendarat
will   land
(Kaswanti Purwo, 1984, p. 78).
'The plane crashed when it was about to land'

The use of *bakal* in (66) would violate the meaning of the sentence as the landing of the plane would have been located shortly before the crash. In other words, (66) has something to do with immediate future time reference and not distant future time reference.

Bakal differs from *kelak* in that *bakal* emphasizes the begin-

ning of a situation towards a distant future time point while *ke-lak* seems to emphasize the end of a situation in the distant future time point. Consider the following.

(67) a. *Dia   bakal   menjadi presiden*
       s/he   in the distant future   be   president
       'S/he will/would be a president'

   b. *Dia   akan   menjadi   presiden*
      s/he   will   be   president
      'S/he will/would be a president'

(68) a. *Dia   bakal   sakit*
        s/he   in the distant future   sick
        'S/he will/would be sick'

   b. *Dia   akan   sakit*
      s/he   will   sick
      'S/he will/would be sick'

(67a, 68a) both convey distant future time reference but with the emphasis on the beginning of the situation, that is, in (67a), *dia* shows some potential of becoming a president as judged from his present performance, etc.; in (68a) considering his present activity and indulgence in unhealthy practices the speaker concludes that from such beginnings *dia* would likely get sick one day. (67b, 68b), by contrast, have no such information except that the situations referred to are located *after* S, i.e., after the present moment as the deictic centre. Consider (69a, 69b).

(69) a. *Dia   kelak   menjadi   presiden*
        s/he   in the distant future   become   president
        'S/he will/would (in the distant future) become a president'

   b. *Dia   kelak   sakit*
      s/he   in the distant future   sick
      'S/he will/would (in the distant future) be sick'

In both (69a, 69b) the speaker emphasizes the end of the situations conveyed which are located in the distant future. In fact, (69a) and (69b) can be interpreted to convey a prediction which normally refers to the end-situation irrespective of what the beginning is or was.

To refer to a very distant future situation which mainly

refers to the Day of Judgement one can use *di Hari Akhir Nanti* 'at the end of the world'. Here *nanti* is used subjectively to refer to distant future time reference which is considered to be nearer than it actually is as the speaker is himself implicitly ready for such judgement. There is a synonym of *di Hari Akhir Nanti* but it uses *Kemudian* instead of *akhir nanti,* that is, *di Hari Kemudian.* Although both phrases roughly mean 'at the end of the world, the day of judgement or on Dooms Day' in *di Hari Kemudian* there is no subjective involvement as expressed in *di Hari Akhir Nanti.*

There are also examples of peripheral uses of future time reference markers in B̲I̲. In *hari depan,* which literally means 'day-in front', the phrase is being used to refer to one's future in life, career, etc. In this context, *hari,* can be replaced by *masa* 'period' to become *masa depan* a synonym of *hari depan.* These phrases can be used metaphorically to include the life of a nation as in *masa depan/hari depan bangsa* 'the future of (our) nation'. (70a, 70b) illustrate these uses.

(70) a. <u>*Masa depannya*</u>   *suram*
    time/period/during future-NYA be shattered
    'His/her future is shattered'

   b. <u>*Masa depan*</u> <u>*suatu bangsa*</u> *terletak pada generasi*
    time/period future a nation   lie   in   generation
    mudanya
    young-NYA
    'The future of a nation lies in her young generation'

5.3.1.1.7 Absolute vs. Relative Future Time Reference

To express relative future time reference, which is determined with respect to a previously mentioned future reference point, B̲I̲ uses *nantinya, sesudah itu, sebelum itu.* The last two phrases are also used as relative past time reference markers. The *-nya* clitic in *nantinya,* in a sense unlike that used in the possessive, establishes relative future time reference. Note that this *-nya* clitic can also be used to refer to relative past time

reference (See 15, 16, 17 and 20).

Kaswanti Purwo (1984) observes that *nantinya* involves two future events while *nanti* involves one future event. Thus, if there are two future events the use of *nanti* is avoided as is shown in (71) cited in Kaswanti Purwo (1984, p. 221).

    (71) *Apakah*   *kau pergi ke*   *Bali*   **nanti ?*
        INT(yes/no question) you   go to   Bali   in future
                                      nantinya
                                        in future-NYA
        [setelah kau lulus ujian]   (Kaswanti Purwo, 1984, p. 221)
        [after you pass your exams]
        'Will you go to Bali *in the future?'
                            in future-NYA
        [after you pass your exam]

Unlike Kaswanti Purwo's argument, which is based on a one-event versus a two-event situation, I will argue here, following Comrie, that *nanti* differs from *nantinya* in terms of absolute future time reference versus relative future time reference. The future time reference of *nanti* is established in terms of the deictic centre S, as in *malam nanti* 'tonight'. The future time reference of 'night' refers to the night following the time of speaking or the S. In *nantinya* the future time reference is established with respect to the future time reference point which is already established. In (71) the visit to Bali, is located in future relative to the passing of the exams.

Sesudah itu and *sebelum itu,* when used to refer to relative future time reference, locate situations, respectively, later or earlier than the established future time reference point, as in (72a, 72b).

    (72) a. *Dia*   *akan ke Jakarta* *bulan depan. Sesudah itu* *dia*
           s/he   will to Jakarta   month next after that   s/he
           akan ke Bandung
           will   to   Bandung
           'S/he will go to Jakarta next month. After that s/he
           will go to Bandung'
        b. *Dia*   *akan ke*   *Jakarta* *bulan depan. Sebelum itu*

s/he   will to Jakarta   month next   before   that
dia   akan   ke   Bandung
s/he   will to   Bandung
'S/he will go to Jakarta next month. Before that s/he
will go to Bandung'

Notice the use of *akan* 'will' in (72) is to secure future time reference. In (72a) the visit to Jakarta is located before the visit to Bandung while in (72b) the converse is true.

Another relative future time reference marker is formed by *berikutnya* following time quantity such as *jam* 'hour', *hari* 'day', *bulan* 'month', etc., as in (73).

(73) A: *Apakah   dia   akan   ke sini   minggu depan?*
INT(yes/no quest.) s/he will come here   week   next
'Will s/he come here next week?'

B: *Bukan   minggu depan   tetapi   minggu berikutnya*
not   week   next   but   week following-NYA
'Not next week but the following week'

The following is quoted from <u>Horison</u>, January 1987. It is a note from the editor of the magazine to inform the reader that starting from January 1987 onwards <u>Horison</u> will publish, alternately, a special article entitled *Catatan Kebudayaan* 'Notes on Culture' from writers outside <u>Horison</u>. Notice how in this piece of discourse the future time reference is established by a time adverb *January 1987* and a future time auxiliary word *akan*.

(74) <u>*Mulai Horison Januari 1987*</u>   *secara berselang-seling*
start Horison January 1987   alternate(ly)
<u>*akan*</u> *diturunkan Catatan Kebudayaan para   penulis tamu*
will be published notes culture   PARA writer guest
yang kami undang. Hal   ini   kami lakukan   guna
whom we (incl.) invite matte this we   do   in order to
menghindari kejenuhan, sebab sejak majalah   ini terbit
avoid monotony   because since magazine this published
hingga sekarang, tradisi mengisi Catatan Kebudayaan
up to   now   tradition fill in   note   culture
senantiasa diisi   oleh orang dalam   Horison   saja.
always   be filled in by people inside Horison   only.
Semoga   hal   ini   menambah pariasi   baru
Hopefully situation this   add   variety   new
dalam   penampilan   <u>Horison</u>

in   performance   Horison
(Horison, January, 1987, p. 3).
'Starting from Horison, January 1987 onwards,
alternate articles on Notes on Culture by guest writers
invited will be published. We will do this mainly to avoid
monotony as since the time the magazine was published
there has been a tradition of people inside Horison only
to present articles on Notes on Culture. Hopefully this
situation will add new looks in the performance of
Horison'

In this piece of discourse, the future time reference is conveyed by *mulai Horison Januari 1987* 'starting from Horison January 1987 onwards' which indicates a point of time onwards. This future time reference meaning is further secured by the use of an auxiliary word *akan* 'will'. If *akan* is eliminated the first sentence in (74) will be rendered ambiguous. This can be viewed as an instance of obligatory use of *akan* to indicate future time reference or future tense. The second sentence in (74) does not convey any future time reference but mainly provides the reasoning behind such a move. The third sentence has future time reference but it is not explicitly indicated. This can be taken to illustrate the non-obligatory use of future tense. Notice the English gloss of the third sentence in (74) where the use of will is obligatory in such a case.

5.3.1.2   Implicit Time Reference

Kridalaksana (1984, p. 73) uses the term 'implicit' to characterise information which is contained in a piece of discourse as actually intended by the speaker and understood by the hearer although there is nothing to formally represent it. It follows, therefore, implicit time reference, as it applies to BI, has to be worked out on the basis of what is already present in the discourse. In other words, it has to be worked out through context.

Asofie (1979, p. 51) states that implicit time reference in BI

is presupposed by the speaker and the hearer on the basis of "total and fragmentary/shifted setting". Asofie apparently implies that the so-called time 'presupposition' is implicitly contained in the setting. It turns out, however, that the solution is not as simple as one would like to expect.

The term 'presupposition' itself, unfortunately, does not refer to a unified single phenomenon (Karttunen and Peters, 1977, p. 362) for there are different kinds of phenomena to which linguists have referred as instances of presuppositions. Karttunen, et al. (1977, p. 360) specifically, point out that "no single notion of what a presupposition is and what laws govern presuppositions could successfully account for all of them". In this study what is presupposed with regard to time reference refers to the presupposed shared knowledge possessed by the speaker and the hearer: it is in a sense what is taken for granted. It is taken for granted because it is already mentioned or it will be mentioned in the course of communication, or it is presumably known to the speaker and the hearer. This assumption accounts for the fact that time reference in BI can be made explicit if necessary as is observed by Asofie (1979, p. 3) who states that "in Bahasa Indonesia the notion of time can be made explicit". Time reference in BI needs to be made explicit if there is a possible misunderstanding as to which time reference is intended or if there is a request for such clarification.

Vendler (1957, p. 143) with regard to the concepts of time also makes use of the term 'presupposition'. He argues that considerations of the concepts of time are not limited to the tripartite time division of past, present and future but should, in addition, be related to the individual verbs which may presuppose and involve the notion of time differently. The latter, to which he

refers as time schemata, are presupposed by various verbs. Unlike presuppositions in Vendler's time schemata, presupposition in this study is related to Vendler's former notion, that is, the tripartite time division past, present and future. I will argue, however, that the nature of the verb itself may have a role to play in the interpretation of time reference in BI. In other words, the use of certain verbs in a piece of discourse in BI, coupled with certain entities as the sentence-subjects, can implicitly convey certain time reference in the absence of other explicitly expressed time reference. Such an undertaking is not in the least unrealistic. Uhlenbeck (1982, p. 10) points out that linguistics seeks the mechanisms by which a language develops in such a way that speakers of that language will understand each other. To achieve this end an accurate analysis of language in use through a careful observation is required. But given the scope and limitation of this study I would humbly admit that this undertaking consti-tutes only the tips of the iceberg.

In order for an utterance to be temporally implicit there must exist a form which can be construed as having any possible time reference, be it present, past or future. BI and Malay exhibit such a characteristic. This fact has also been pointed out by Lyons (1977, p. 679) when he states that particular utterances in Malay "might be translated into English provided that the necessary in-formation is given in the context". That the necessary information given in the context is characterizable in BI with regard to time reference is an empirical question. It is assumed that such contextual information can be linked to what Stubbs (1983, p. 1) described as shared knowledge and assumption in stating that "communication is impossible without shared knowledge and assumptions between speakers and hearers". Thus, there is every

reason to believe that information concerning implicit time reference in BI constitutes but one of the many facets from which "shared knowledge and assumptions" are made up.

To illustrate an instance of a temporally unanchored sentence in BI the following is quoted. Sulaiman (1975, p. 65), describing Bahasa Malaysia, observes that *Saya makan nasi* 'I-to-eat-rice' could be construed as to convey 'I eat rice'; 'I ate rice'; and 'I am eating rice'. (It will be added that *Saya makan nasi* could also be used to convey 'I will eat rice'). Speakers of BI or Malay confronted with such a temporally unanchored utterance would, so to speak, look for the clues to which time reference can then be established. The presence of a time adverb, an auxiliary word or a particle will explicitly establish its temporal or aspectual reference as in (75a, b, c); or else, if there is no explicit time reference marker, then contextual information is sought as in (75d) — an instance of implicit time reference.

(75) a. *Saya   makan   nasi   nanti*
         I   eat   rice   later
        'I will eat rice later'

(75) b. *Saya   makan   nasi   kemarin*
         I   eat   rice   yesterday
        'I ate rice yesterday'

(75) c. *Saya   makan   nasi   terus*
         I   eat   rice ASPECT OF CONTINUANCE
        'I kept on eating rice'

In (75c) the use of *terus* indicates aspect of continuation.

(75) d. *Lihat.*   *Saya makan   nasi*
        look (at)   I   eat   rice
        'Look. I eat/am eating rice'

(75d) is an instance of implicit present time reference. It describes a situation which holds simultaneously with the moment of speech though implicitly represented. The information that the speaker is in the act of eating rice is not contained in *saya makan nasi* but in the imperative *Lihat* 'Look'. Contextually, the im-

perative *Lihat* indicates that the situation referred to is visible. In other words, it is simultaneous with the present moment or the moment of speech *S*. If progressive aspect needs to be expressed in <u>BI</u> then (75d) is changed into (75e) by using the particle *sedang* 'in the act of'.

> (75) e. <u>*Lihat*</u>.   *Saya*   <u>*sedang*</u>   *makan*   *nasi*
>   look (at)   I   PROG.   eat   rice
>   'Look. I am in the act of/am eating rice'

One cannot, however, claim that all imperatives implicitly convey present time reference. In <u>BI</u>, imperatives can also be used with utterances which indicate past or future time reference. This is not at all surprising because one can witness what has already been or will be done as in (75f) and (75g).

> (75) f. <u>*Lihat.*</u> *Saya*   <u>*sudah*</u>   *makan*   *nasi*
>   to look   I   SUDAH   eat   rice
>   'Look. I have finished eating rice'
>
> (75) g. <u>*Lihat.*</u>   *Saya*   <u>*akan*</u>   *makan*   *nasi*
>   to look   I   will   eat   rice
>   'Look. I will eat rice'

Given all the evidence in (75a, b, c, d, e, f, g) were acceptable one could then argue that in the absence of other time reference markers such as *nanti, kemarin, terus, sudah, akan,* etc., *Saya makan nasi* can be taken to convey present time reference implicitly as in (75d).

5.3.1.3   Temporal Conjunction + Clause

Asofie (1979, pp. 52, 55, 57) lists the following temporal conjunctions used as explicit present, past and future time reference:

     a. For explicit present time reference: details are given
     b. For explicit past time reference
        ketika   +   clause
        when,time,moment   clause
        (*pada saat* 'when', *waktu* 'when', *semasa*
        'during, through the whole time' *selama* 'while, as
        long as, during', *sebelum* 'before',
        sesudah 'after', *menjelang* 'nearly, close to', etc.)

c. For explicit future time reference

pada saat + clause + *(nanti)*
when, at that moment clause (later, afterwards)
(pada waktu 'when, at that time', *pada hari* 'on that
day', *di saat* 'at that moment', *di waktu* 'at certain
period of time', *di hari* 'on that day, on . . .* ' etc.)

These temporal conjunctions are basically temporally unanchored as each can be used to refer to past, present or future time reference. In fact, Asofie (1979, pp. 52, 55, 57) in his list, has included and treated *temporal conjunction + clause* in the discussion of explicit past, present and future time reference markers. The reason for his treatment seems to be due to the fact that these temporal conjunctions do not behave in a uniform manner in the past, present or future. Some temporal conjunctions can only be used to refer to certain time reference especially when they are used independently. For example, *ketika + clause* can be used to refer to past time reference, as in (76).

(76) *Ketika saya datang* dia menangis
when I come s/he cry
'When I came s/he was crying'

(76) by itself can only show past time reference, i.e., the speaker's arrival coincided with the act of his/her crying. But one could argue that in combination with *nanti,* (76) can be used to convey future time reference, as in (77).

(77) *Ketika saya datang nanti,* dia *akan* menangis
when I arrive later s/he will cry
'When I come in the immediate future, s/he will cry/be
crying'

It is interesting to note that (76) can never be used to refer to present time reference, hence (78) is not acceptable under normal circumstances.

(78) **Ketika saya datang saat ini* dia sedang menangis
when I come at this moment s/he SEDANG cry
?When I am coming at this moment s/he is crying'

It can, however, be argued that if the speaker were using a two-way radio and recounting or reporting what he is doing (78) would

become perfectly acceptable.

The temporal conjunction *pada saat* can be used in conjunction with present, past and future time reference depending upon the individual utterance-act and/or the presence of explicit time reference. Thus, one could argue that *pada saat* + *clause* as it is not temporally anchored has implicit time reference. The presence of time reference marker or other temporal information results in making the time reference explicit. Consider (79, 80, 81, 82, 83 and 84).

> (79) *Pada saat dia   datang, berikan ini   kepadanya*
>   when   s/he come give   this to-him/her
>   'When s/he comes give it/this to him/her'

(79) implicitly shows future time reference as the handing-in of the object is yet to happen as is shown by the use of the imperative *berikan ini kepadanya* 'give it to him/her'. One cannot naturally use an imperative in conjunction with past time reference as in *Write a letter to your Dad yesterday*. Thus the future time reference in (79) is secured by the use of the imperative in question.

> (80) *Pada saat dia   datang, Tina   tidak di rumah*
>   when   s/he   come   Tina   not   at home
>   'When s/he came (for a visit) Tina was not at home'

Here, a speaker of BI intuitively seems to know that (80) has past time reference although nothing is explicitly shown in regard to the said time reference. In the absence of other explicit time reference markers, thus one can assume that (80) has past time reference: the past time reference is implicitly represented. It is interesting to note that (80) can be changed into an utterance-act which conveys future time reference by using *akan, nanti* or *besok*, as in (81a, b, and c).

> (81) a. *Pada saat dia   datang, Tina tidak akan di rumah*
>   when   s/he come Tina   not   will at home
>   'When s/he comes, Tina will not be at home'
>   b. *Pada saat dia datang nanti, Tina tidak (akan) di rumah*

when s/he come   later Tina not will at home
'When s/he comes (in the immediate future) Tina will
not be at home'
   c. *Pada saat dia datang besok, Tina tidak akan di rumah*
when s/he come tomorrow Tina not   will   at home
'When s/he comes tomorrow, Tina will not be at home'

If, for example, the word *selalu* 'always' is introduced into (80) then present habitual aspect is intended as is conveyed by *selalu* (82).

  (82) *Pada saat dia   datang, Tina selalu   tidak   di rumah*
when(ever) s/he come Tina always not   at   home
'When(ever) s/he comes, Tina is always out'

Interestingly, by introducing a past time reference marker *waktu itu* in (82) past habitual aspect is in turn conveyed as in (83).

  (83) *Pada saat dia datang waktu itu Tina selalu tidak di rumah*
when(ever) s/he come time that Tina always not at home
'Whenever s/he came (for a visit) at that time, Tina was
always out'

Pada saat + *clause* can also be shown to indicate present time reference, as in (84).

  (84) *Pada saat saya sibuk   seperti ini   jangan diganggu*
when   I   busy   as   this do not   interrupt
'When I am as busy as this, don't try to interrupt'

Here, (84) can be taken to indicate present time reference implicitly, or if the speaker intends to let the hearer know about his habit then (84) may also be used to convey present habitual aspect.

From the evidence thus presented it follows that *temporal conjunction* + *clause* does not specifically show time reference. In the absence of other explicit time reference markers it seems that implicitly *temporal conjunction* + *clause* indicates either past time reference as in (76, 80) or future time reference as in (77). This claim, however, is contingent upon the individual temporal conjunctions. In the foregoing illustration, they are represented by *ketika* + *clause* and *pada saat* + *clause.*

Each of the following is quoted to illustrate instances of

actual use of *temporal conjunction + clause.*

(85) *Dulu,* *ketika saya mulai menulis novel,* saya
in the distant past when I start write novel I
sangat memperhatikan . . . .
much pay attention to . . . .
(Horison, April, 1987, p. 117).
'In the distant past, when I started to write a novel(s), I
paid much attention to . . . .'

In (85), *ketika + clause* is used in conjunction with *dulu,* an

explicit distant past time reference marker.

(86) *Waktu* saya tanyakan nasib teman serumah, ternyata
when I ask fate friend same-house turn out
sama saja
same just
(Horison, January, 1986, p. 31)
'When I asked my friend with whom I was sharing the same
house, it turned out that s/he had the same fate/bad luck'.

Although there is nothing explicit to indicate past time reference,

the presence of *waktu* . . . is related to the story the speaker was

recounting. (86) is quoted from a short story which uses past

narrative.

(87) *Ketika pada tanggal 28 Oktober 1928,* dalam
when on date 28 October 1928 in
Konggres Pemuda II, kita bersumpah bahwa Bahasa
congress youth II we(incl.) pledge that language
Indonesia adalah bahasa persatuan kita, sebenarnya
Indonesian be language unified our(incl.) actually
kita telah membuat suatu keputusan yang unik
we(incl.) TELAH make a decision LIG unusual
(Horison, September, 1986, p. 363)
'When, on October 28, 1928, in the Second Youth
Congress, we pledged that the Indonesian language
was our unified language, actually we did make/have
made an unusual decision'.

In (87), *ketika + clause* is explicitly used to refer to past time

reference. This conclusion, however, does not arise from *ketika +*

clause per se but from the presence of a definite date in the past,

i.e., *pada tanggal 28 Oktober 1928* 'on October 28, 1928'. If this

part were deleted, given he has the necessary knowledge such as

the Second Youth Congress, a speaker of B̲I̲ could still construe (87) as having past time reference. In such a case the past time reference is implicitly and not explicitly conveyed.

(88) *Ketika undangan tiba, sebenarnya saya merasa ragu-ragu*
    when invitation come actually I feel in doubt-
untuk menyajikan satu makalah bagi Pertemuan
    to present a paper for meeting
Sastrawan ASEAN ini
    man of letters ASEAN this
    (H̲o̲r̲i̲s̲o̲n̲, March, 1986, p. 92)
    'When the invitation came, actually I doubted
    whether I could present a paper in this ASEAN
    Man of Letters' Meeting.'

In (88) there is nothing to formally indicate that *ketika + clause* here has past time reference, except the reporting of the situation of the time when the invitation for the forthcoming conference has/had just been or was received. Actually the past time reference is implicitly conveyed by the fact that the writer refers to *Pertemuan Sastrawan ASEAN ini* 'this ASEAN Man of Letters' Meeting', which originally conveys present time reference. Based on this information and coupled with the fact that an invitation should have been sent before any conference, a speaker of B̲I̲ can establish the past time reference of *ketika + clause* in (88). That is, the invitation was received earlier in the past and when he read it he doubted whether he would present a paper or not.

5.3.1.4 Conditional Clauses

Asofie (1979, pp. 52, 55, 57) treats conditional clauses under the list of explicit past, present and future time reference markers. Specifically, he suggests the following.

a. Conditional clauses as explicit present time reference
    markers:
    k̲a̲l̲a̲u̲ + *c̲l̲a̲u̲s̲e̲* + *(s̲e̲k̲a̲r̲a̲n̲g̲)*
    if   clause   (now)
    (c̲o̲b̲a̲ ̲k̲a̲l̲a̲u̲ 'if only', *a̲n̲d̲a̲i̲k̲a̲t̲a̲* 'if, supposing',
    s̲e̲h̲a̲r̲u̲s̲n̲y̲a̲ 'actually, in fact', etc.)

b. Conditional clauses as explicit past time reference
markers:

andaikata + *clause*
if, supposing clause
(*kalau* 'if', *coba kalau* 'if only', *coba* 'if',
mestinya 'actually, in fact', etc.)

c. Conditional clauses as explicit future time reference
markers:

(*nanti*) + *kalau* + *clause*
'later, afterwards if clause
(*bila* 'when', *seandainya* 'if, supposing',
andaikata 'if, supposing')

I will argue that basically conditional clauses in B̲I̲ can be anchored temporally either to past, present or future time reference by introducing a time reference particle or a temporal lexeme. For example, in Asofie's list the presence of *sekarang* 'now' in (a) secures present time reference while the presence of *nanti* in (c) secures future time reference. In (89) the presence of *sekarang* secures present time reference.

(89) *Kalau saya sekarang tahu*, hal itu *akan* saya jawab
if I now know matter the will I reply
'If I knew it now I would give you the answer/would reply'

If *waktu itu* 'at that time' is used instead of *sekarang* in (89) then past time reference is conveyed as in (90).

(90) *Kalau saya waktu itu tahu*, hal itu *akan* saya jawab
if I time that know matter the will I reply
'If I had known it then I would have given you the answer'

If *nanti* [6]/ *besok* is used in (89) instead of *sekarang* then future time reference is intended as in (91).

(91) *Kalau saya nanti tahu*, hal itu *akan* saya jawab
if I later know matter the will I reply
'Later If I know it, I will answer it'

Considering the evidence cited it is argued here that the so-called conditional clauses in B̲I̲ can be used to refer to either past, present or future time reference. In other words, a conditional clause implicitly conveys time reference. Each of the following (92, 93, 94, 95) is quoted to provide more illustration

in support for the arguments presented.

(92) *Kalau pun tidak menjadi informan, paling tidak Jassin*
     if   PUN   not   become   informant   at least   Jassin
     sengaja   atau tidak ternyata tidak mengoreksi <u>kekeli-</u>
     intentionally or not   in fact   not   correct   mistake
     <u>*ruan Yahya itu*</u>   *pada waktu memeriksa   konsep awal*
     Yahha   those when   read through   draft   first
     skripsi   yang   niscaya   selalu   dikonsultasikan kepada
     thesis   which   surely   always   be consulted   to
     beliau   sebagai   pembimbing
     him   as   supervisor
     (<u>Horison</u>, October, 1987, p. 328)
     'Even if Jassin had not been the informant, at least
     intentionally or unintentionally he had not in fact
     corrected Yahya's mistakes when he read through the
     first draft of the thesis which surely had
     always been consulted to him as a thesis supervisor'

In (92) one cannot explicitly locate definite past time reference unless he has the knowledge of Yahya's thesis; there is an anaphoric reference as is shown by *kekeliruan Yahya itu* 'Yahya's mistakes' which can only be established when one knows the antecedent. But again temporally this anaphoric reference is still indeterminate. In fact, (92) — an example of a conditional sentence in <u>BI</u> — has an implicit past time reference. The past time reference to which (92) is bound is explicitly indicated in the previous part of the discourse as is shown in (93).

(93) *Karena saya tidak termasuk   yang   dikecualikan,   maka*
     because   I   not   be included   LIG   be exempted   thus
     secara implisit Yahya   menganggap   saya   anggota   Lekra
     implicitly   Yahya   consider   me   member *Lekra*
     dan/atau LKN. Karena   Yahya   sendiri <u>baru datang</u>   di
     and/or *LKN*   because Yahya   himself just   arrive   in
     Jakarta <u>dalam tahun 1967,</u> sesudah Lekra   tidak ada
     Jakarta   in   year 1967 after   *Lekra*   be abolished
     dan   karena   H.B. Jassin   menjadi pembimbingnya <u>waktu</u>
     and   because H.B.Jassin   be   supervisor-HIS   when
     <u>*menyusun skripsi itu,*</u> *maka   wajar   kalau   saya*
     write up   thesis   the   therefore natural if   I
     berkesimpulan   bahwa Jassin   juga menjadi (salah
     come to a conclusion that   Jassin   also   be   (one
     seorang) informan   Yahya   mengenai   siapa pengarang

of)   informant Yahya as regard to who   writer
yang   menjadi   anggota Lekra dan mana yang tidak.
LIG   become   member *Lekra* and who LIG   not
Kalau pun tidak   menjadi informan,   paling tidak
if   PUN not   be   informant   at least
Jassin   sengaja   atau tidak ternyata tidak
Jassin   intentionally or   not   in fact   not
mengoreksi   kekeliruan   Yahya   pada waktu
correct   mistake   Yahya   when
memeriksa   konsep   awal   skripsi   yang   niscaya
read through   draft-first/initial thesis   LIG surely
selalu   dikonsultasikan kepada beliau sebagai pembimbing
always   be consulted   to   him   as   supervisor
(<u>Horison</u>, October, 1987, p. 328)
'Because I am not included in the list of exceptions,
implicitly Yahya considers me as a member of *Lekra*
and/or *LKN*. Because Yahya himself came to Jakarta
as early as 1967, after Lekra was abolished and
because H.B. Jassin was his supervisor when he
was writing up his thesis, it is only natural
that I come to conclude that Jassin was (one of)
the informant(s) of Yahya regarding which writers
were members of *Lekra* and which were not. Even
if Jassin had not been the informant, at least
intentionally or unintentionally he had not in fact
corrected Yahya's mistakes when he read through
the first draft of the thesis which surely had
always been consulted to him as a thesis supervisor'

The past time reference of (92), which is implicit, is explicitly
indicated in (93). That is, the information regarding the time
during which Yahya came to Jakarta in 1967 and the time when
Yahya was completing his thesis, as is shown by *waktu menyusun
skripsi itu* 'when (he) was writing the thesis'. In other words, the
implicit past time reference in (92) is established on the basis of
the past time reference conveyed earlier; it is not discoverable in
(92) except implicitly. The most explicit past time reference
particle in (93) is the reference to the definite past time, i.e., *da-
lam tahun 1967* 'in 1967'.

(94) *Kalau Panitia Pengarah cerdik tentu   ia tidak akan*
      if committee steering   smart certainly it not   will
      meletakkan Banda sebagai pembawa makalah pada

appoint   Banda   as   presenter paper   on
'session' *sesudah* *makan siang*
session   after   lunch
(Horison, July, 1986, p. 239)
'If the Steering Committee had been smart it would not
have certainly appointed Banda as a speaker to present
the paper in the after lunch session'

In (94) one cannot explicitly identify the time reference. If it were considered to have past time reference as the story is apparently reported or narrated, one could do so on the basis of other information. In fact, one cannot find any definite past time reference to which (94) is anchored except from the information found at the the end of this short story in which the date and the place are written: *Padang, 7 Oktober 1984* (Horison, July, 1986, p. 241). Thus in the whole discourse the writer is actually recounting his past experience — obviously with definite past time reference — but this is done while he is attending the session referred to in (94). He is doing this partly to stop himself from falling asleep as the speaker of the after-lunch session, Banda, according to him and apparently other participants too, is a very dull speaker. After the writer finishes recounting his past experience he refers again to the situation conveyed in (94) by mentioning that Banda continues reading the paper and the writer starts feeling sleepy again, as in (95).

(95) *Sedangkan Banda masih terus membaca makalah di mimbar.*
    whereas Banda still continue read   paper   on platform
    Dan   kantuk   saya pun mulai menyerang   lagi
    and   sleepiness my PUN   start attack   again
                        Padang, 5 Oktober 1984
    (Horison, July, 1986, p. 241)
    'Whereas Banda still continues reading the paper on the
    platform. And I start feeling sleepy again'
                        Padang, October 5, 1984'

Thus, given the information which obtains in (94) and (95) one may conclude that although the discourse was written/recounted on *October 5, 1984* — most probably simultaneous with the

session the writer was attending — (94) and (95) may be taken to have present time reference. This is comparable to the historic present in which a past situation is vividly presented as if it were happening at the present moment to give stylistic effect or emphasis to the importance of the past situation.

To establish the time reference of conditional clauses in BI other information present in the discourse is required. In (92), for example, the conditional clause has past time reference while in (94), the conditional clause has present time reference. Thus, to understand the time reference of a conditional clause in BI one cannot, strictly speaking, refer to the conditional clause *per se,* but rather to other temporal and/or nontemporal information present in the whole discourse should be taken into account. In other words, a conditional clause in BI by itself conveys implicit time reference.

5.3.1.5   Indirect Speech and Nominalisation
5.3.1.5.1   Indirect Speech

Indirect Speech in BI can be taken implicitly to convey past time reference unless otherwise indicated. In *Dia mengatakan . . .* in (96), there is nothing to indicate the time reference, that is, there is no explicit time reference, and yet, a speaker of BI can

(96) *Dia   mengatakan akan   hadir*
    s/he   say   will come
    'S/he said s/he would come'

interpret, given the appropriate circumstances, that *mengatakan* in (96) has past time reference. This conclusion is based on the fact that the situation expressed is reported, and given the knowledge of reported events and in the absence of other explicit time reference particles it follows that *mengatakan* in (96) has past time reference. This may be taken to illustrate an instance of the shared knowledge of the speaker and hearer of BI in

interpreting the time reference of a speech act. Such information is, so to speak, taken for granted. If, however, one wishes to indicate that the situation expressed by *mengatakan* in (96) refers to something which is yet to happen in the the future then *akan* is used before *mengatakan*, as in (97).

    (97) *Dia*   *akan*   *mengatakan* *akan*   *hadir*
           s/he   will   say   will   come
           'S/he will say that s/he will come'

(97) has explicit future time reference as is shown by *akan*' will'. Interestingly, (97) can be changed into (98) to show past time reference, i.e., future in the past time reference, by introducing *waktu itu* 'at that time'.

    (98) *Waktu itu* *dia*   *akan*   *mengatakan* *akan*   *hadir*
           time that s/he   be going   say   will   come
           'At that time s/he was going to say that s/he would
           come'

From this scanty evidence and in contradistinction to Asofie's treatment which describes Indirect Speech as explicit past, present and future time reference, I would argue here that Indirect Speech should appropriately be considered to have implicit time reference. The following is quoted in support of the argument.

    (99) *Seorang* *teknologiwan*   *di* *bidang* *bio-teknologi*
           a   technologist   in field   biotechnology
          menyebut *kemungkinan* *rekayasa genetika* *dan*   *DNA*
          indicate possibility experimentation genetic and   DNA
          untuk   *mendapatkan* *tanaman* *dan* *ternak*   *unggul,*
          in order to obtain   plant   and cattle   prime
          malahan   *juga*   *manusia*   *unggul*
          even   also   human being prime/superior
          (Horison, December, 1986, p. 400)
          'A technologist in biotechonology indicated the
          possibility of DNA and genetic experimentation to
          obtain prime cattle and plants, possibly even
          superior human beings'

In (99) one does not find any explicit time reference to which it is anchored but it can be argued that (99) has implicit past time

reference. This can be established on the basis of the fact that earlier in the discourse (i.e., the text) one can find past time reference. The discourse, among others, is about a commentary made on a seminar on science and technology which was held in Salatiga, a city in Central Java in October 1986. The commentary itself was published in December 1986. In this case the past time reference is indicated explicitly earlier. If the verb in (99) *menyebut* 'indicated' itself is interpreted to have past time reference it is only implicitly represented. For example, in (100)

> (100) *Ia* *menyebut* *kemungkinan* *itu*
> s/he indicate possibility that
> 'S/he indicated that possibility'

without any other temporal information, one can interpret it as having past time reference. But one cannot claim that *menyebut* by itself always implicitly indicates past time reference as (101) shows that *ia menyebut kemungkinan itu* can have present time reference.

> (101) *Dengarkan! Dia* *menyebut* *kemungkinan* *itu.*
> listen s/he mention possibility that
> 'Listen! S/he mentions that possibility'

In (101), *dia menyebut kemungkinan itu* has present time reference as it refers to a situation which obtains simultaneously with the moment of speech *S*.

5.3.1.5.2 Nominalisation

Nominalisation, as Crystal (1985, p. 207) defines it, refers to "the process of forming a noun from some other word class (e.g., red + ness) or (in generative grammar especially) the derivation of a noun phrase from an underlying clause (e.g., *His answering of the letter . . .* from *He answered the letter).* Nominalisation, as is used in this study, refers to Crystal's second definition, i.e., that which is derived from an underlying clause.

Asofie (1979, p. 52) lists the following nominalisation to be used in explicit past, present and future time reference:

a. Nominalisation used for explicit present time reference (not specified)

b. Nominalisation used for explicit past time reference
bilangnya + *clause*
it is/was stated that . . .-NYA clause
(sangkanya 'it is thought-NYA', *katanya*
'it is/was stated-NYA', *maunya* 'it is wanted-NYA',
diduganya 'it is assumed-NYA')

c. Nominalisation used for explicit future time reference
maksudnya + *clause*
'it means that . . .-NYA clause
(rencananya 'it is planned that . . .-NYA, *keinginannya*,
'it is wanted-NYA' *maunya* 'it is intended-NYA'
sedianya 'it is expected that . . . -NYA')

I will argue here that basically these nominalisations implicitly convey past time reference, but if required, they can be used with explicit future time reference particles or words. (102) implicitly conveys past time reference.

(102) *Katanya* *dia* *mau* *datang*
say-NYA s/he will(AUX) come
'S/he said s/he would come'

Given the knowledge of what is already said by *nya* 'him/her' in (102) without any other evidence to the contrary, a speaker of BI will take (102) as having past time reference. But *katanya* in (102) may be used to indicate future time reference as in (103).

(103) a. *Terserah* *apa* *katanya* *besok*
it depends on what be said-NYA tomorrow
'It depends on what will be said tomorrow'

(103a) definitely has future time reference as is secured by the presence of *besok* 'tomorrow'. Even without *besok* if a speaker of BI is confronted with (103a), he will most likely consider it as implicitly conveying future time reference. The presence of *terserah* 'it depends on', as part of the speaker-hearer' shared knowledge, connotes a situation which is yet to happen. Here the time reference is established without, strictly speaking, taking into

account the nominalised item *katanya*. When *terserah* is used to express past time reference, explicit past time reference marker must be used as in (103b).

(103) b. *Dahulu hal itu terserah apa katanya penjual*
distant past matter the depend on what be said-NYA seller
'In the distant past that depended on what was said by the seller'

Other nominalisations such as *jawabannya* 'his answering of something' can be used to refer to either past, present or future time reference, as in (104a, b, and c) respectively.

(104) a. *Jawabannya dibuat kemarin*
answer-NYA be made yesterday
'His/her answer was made yesterday'

Here *kemarin* 'yesterday' secures the past time reference.

(104) b. *Jawabannya dibuat sekarang*
answer-NYA be made now
'His/her answer is made/is being made now'

The presence of *sekarang* 'now' secures present time reference of (104b).

(104) c. *Jawabannya akan dibuat besok*
answer-NYA will be made tomorrow
'His/her answer will be made tomorrow'

In (104c) the future time reference is secured by the presence of both *akan* 'will' and *besok* 'tomorrow'. In short, nominalisation can be used to refer to either present, past or future time reference. At its best, contrary to Asofie's claim (1979, pp. 52-57), nominalisation can only be used to implicitly establish time reference in BI.

5.3.1.6 Shared Knowledge for Determining Implicit Time Reference

In a piece of discourse with an implicit time reference speakers of BI are capable of determining the time reference of an utterance, but taken by itself devoid of its setting an utterance will be temporally indeterminate. A speaker of BI will determine

the time reference of an utterance on the basis of what normally constitutes its setting. This normal setting accompanying the discourse known by both the speaker and hearer is part of their shared knowledge. Thus, (105) taken by itself does not show any definite time reference

(105) *Kapan datang?*
     when come

but under 'normal circumstances' a speaker of BI may interpret (105) as having past time reference as he believes that (105) is spoken to a friend who has been away in the past and has now returned and meets the speaker.

As an utterance-token, (105) is temporally bound, that is the time reference is established either because it is explicitly expressed or implicitly expressed. As the explicit time reference has been discussed at some length in the foregoing paragraph, it is appropriate now to try to determine how the implicit time reference of an utterance-token in BI is established.

Implicitly, as an utterance-token, (105) may have either past time or future time reference. Let us assume that there are two participants A and B, and that they are talking about a third person Tono in one setting, and in another setting A is enquiring about B himself. For example, if A is enquiring about the arrival of Tono to B then the time reference of (105) is either past or future. If Tono has arrived (i.e., A knows that B knows that Tono has arrived — an instance of shared knowledge for determining the time reference of (105) in this circumstance, then *Kapan datang?*(105) has past time reference, as in (106).

(106) B: *Tono   di rumah   sekarang*
          Tono   at home   now
          'Tono is at home now'
     A: *Kapan datang?*
          when come
          'When did he arrive/come?'

B: *Kemarin*
'Yesterday'

Notice that in (106), *Kapan datang?* has definite past time reference given the knowledge that Tono has arrived. If A knows that B knows that Tono has not arrived then *Kapan datang?* (105) has future time reference. The establishment of this future time reference is based on the shared knowledge that Tono has not arrived, as is shown in (107).

(107) A: *Tono ada?*
Tono   be home
'Is Tono home?' (A and B know that Tono often goes out of town)
B: *Tidak*
'No'
A: *Kapan datang?*
when   come
'When will he arrive/come?'
B: *Besok*
' Tomorrow'

Notice that in (107), *Kapan datang?*(105), which in (106) has past time reference, now has definite future time reference precisely because of the shared knowledge that Tono has not arrived.

Suppose there is no such shared knowledge available then it is necessary that it be established or corrected if the presupposed shared knowledge possessed by one participant is not true. That is, in this case A thought that Tono had arrived but then B told A that he had not. In such an instance (105) would have past time reference as uttered by A but after being corrected by B (105) in another setting with different shared knowledge will have future time reference as in (108).

(108) A: *Kelihatannya Tono ada.   Kapan   datang?*
seem-NYA Tono be home/here when   come
'Tono seems to be at home/here. When did he arrive?'
B: *Belum*
'Not yet'
(He hasn't arrived yet)
A: *Kapan   datang?*

        when   arrive
        'When will he arrive?'
    B: *Besok*
        'Tomorrow'

Notice that in (108), *Kapan datang?*, as in (105), has different time references as there are different shared knowledge for each, past time reference and future time reference.

Now, if A is enquiring about B's own arrival as B had apparently been away and has now returned and is present face to face with A, (105) will not have future time reference but past time reference as in (109).

    (109) A: *Kapan   datang?*
             when   come
             'When (did you) arrive?'
          B: *Kemarin*
             'Yesterday'

Notice the shared knowledge which determines past time reference of (105) in (109) is the fact that the enquiry is about B himself and not about Tono or someone else.

Consider now (110). This is an illustration which shows an instance where implicit time reference is conveyed by the individual verb along with its sentence-subject. For example, *meninggal* 'to die' when it is applied to a certain individual known to the speaker and the hearer may be taken implicitly to convey past time reference, as in (110).

    (110) A: *Tono   meninggal*
             Tono   die
             'Tono died'
          B: *Kapan?*
             'When'
          A: *Kemarin*
             'Yesterday'

However, if the verb *meninggal* 'to die' is used with a non-individual entity such as *pria atau wanita* 'man or woman' then it does not have past time reference but rather present time reference as is shown in (111).

(111) *Pria   atau   wanita   meninggal*
     man   or   woman   die
     'Man or woman (will) die'

Thus, it seems evident that there is different shared knowledge with regard to (110) and (111). In (110), the shared knowledge seems to be the known individual *Tono* while in (111) it seems to be the non-individual entity or a non-referring expression *pria atau wanita*. The distinction seems to be linked with the distinction between first-order entity versus third order entity (Lyons, 1977, pp. 442-43). Tono is a first-order entity, i.e., Tono is known to be physically in existence; *pria atau wanita* is a third-order entity, i.e., it is an abstract proposition which is outside space and time.

The following examples are quoted to illustrate both implicit and explicit time reference in B̲I̲. In (112), the first utterance has nothing to show its time reference explicitly but given its meaning and in the absence of particles which show explicit time reference the first utterance can be said to convey present time reference implicitly. This is supported by the fact that the second utterance in (112) conveys events with past time reference which is established by the use of *dipanggil oleh Yang Maha Kuasa* 'literally: to be recalled by the Almighty, i.e., died' together with a known subject, i.e., individuals the speaker and the hearer know. In (112), implicit present time reference and past time reference are both conveyed.

(112) *Kampung kami   diliputi   duka   yang amat dalam.*
     village   our(excl.) be enveloped mourning LIG   real deep
     Dua pemimpin kami   yaitu   ketua RW dan   wakilnya,
     two leader our (excl.) namely   chief RW and   deputy-NYA
     dipanggil   oleh   Yang Maha Kuasa   secara serentak
     be recalled by   the Almighty   together
     (Horison, August, 1986, p. 281)
     'Our village is enveloped in real deep mourning. Our two leaders, namely the chief and the deputy-chief RW died/ were recalled by the Almighty together'

In (113), the first part is direct speech addressed to the hearer. This seems to establish the present time reference of this part implicitly. The shared knowledge seems to be the use of an imperative *Percayalah, bu* 'Believe me, ma'am' being interpreted as it should in this part. The second part of (113) has implicit past time reference as it expresses a proposition which contains *kejadiannya* 'the happenings in question' — a definite past event. This, which in this part constitutes the shared knowledge of the speaker and hearer, implicitly conveys the past time reference.

(113) *Percayalah, bu.   Saya menyaksikan sendiri   dengan*
      believe-LAH ma'am I   see   own   with
      mata   kepala   kejadiannya
      eye   head   incident-NYA
      (<u>Horison</u>, February, 1986, p. 57)
      'Believe me, ma'am. I saw the incident with my own eyes'

In (114), the second part of the utterance does not explicitly show its time reference but it can be established on the basis of the time reference conveyed in the first part which has explicit past time reference as shown by the presence of *telah* — a past time reference particle. This, strictly speaking, also constitutes the shared knowledge of the speaker and the hearer.

(114) *Di kota kami   telah   didirikan   sebuah   patung*
      in city our (excl.) TELAH be erected   a   statue
      pahlawan. Patung itu   dibangun   untuk   menghormati
      hero   statue the   be made   to   honour
      seorang   pejoang   sekaligus   pelopor
      a   freedom fighter at the same time   pioneer
      pembangunan   kota   kami
      development   city   our (excl.)
      (<u>Horison</u>, February, 1986, p. 59).
      'We have erected a hero's statue in our city. The statue
      was made in honour of a freedom fighter and at the
      same time a pioneer of development in our city'

In (115), the shared knowledge seems to be in the form of the interpretation of *lahir* 'be born' as applied to Hamzah Fansuri, a known individual, which implicitly conveys past time reference in

the first part of (115). Its second part, however, has present time reference which is shown explicitly by the use of *sampai sekarang* 'up to now'.

(115) *Waktu dan tempat Hamzah Fansuri lahir* <u>*sampai*</u>
      time and place Hamzah Fansuri be born up to
      <u>*sekarang*</u> *masih merupakan teka-teki*
      now   still be   puzzle/mystery
      (<u>Horison</u>, May, 1986, p. 155)
      'The date and the place when and where Hamzah
      Fansuri was born are still a mystery up to now'

It cannot, however, be claimed that *lahir* by itself conveys past time reference. Consider the following hypothetical situation. Supposing one knows the date of Hamzah Fansuri's birth as in hypothetical (116),

(116) *Hamzah Fansuri   lahir   <u>pada tanggal 4 April 1948.</u>*
      Hamzah Fansuri   be born on   ⁀ ͡te   4 April 1948
      'Hamzah Fansuri was born on April 4, 1948'

(116) has past time reference which is explicitly shown by the presence of a time adverb *pada tanggal 4 April 1948*. However, if *lahir* 'be born' is used with a subject, which is in Lyons' term of a third-order entity, i.e., an abstract proposition which is outside space and time (Lyons, 1977, p. 443), such as *manusia* 'man' then implicitly *lahir* will not convey past time reference except when it is intended and understood to have such time reference by the speaker and the hearer. Thus, hypothetical (117) has present rather than past time reference given the interpretation of the subject *manusia* 'man'.

(117) *Manusia lahir tanpa   apa-apa kecuali nyawa dari   Ilahi*
      man be born without thing   except soul   from *Ilahi*
      'Man is born with nothing except the soul from the Almighty'

Based on the foregoing discussion it can be suggested that implicit time reference in <u>BI</u> is indeed characterisable in terms of:

I. Temporal Information

a. temporal information, i.e., a time adverb, a lexeme, etc.,

which is referred to earlier in the discourse, for example, as is
found in the discussion presented for *telah* in (114).

b. temporal information which is referred to later in the
discourse as in the use of the date and place when and
where the short story was written, in (94) and (95).

The temporal information referred to in (Ia) and (Ib) may be
either explicit or implicit.

II. Shared knowledge of the speaker and the hearer which
may be in the form of information which is based on

a. previous communicative experience though absent in the
utterance-act, a speaker can still retrieve it to give a temporal
interpretation of an utterance as is shown in the discussion for
Kapan datang? (105).

b. information presently acquired or presupposed as is shown in
the discussion presented for (106), (107), (108) and (109).

c. knowledge of the individual verbs along with the
sentence-subjects which may be of first-order or third-order
entities.

5.3.2 Absolute-Relative Time Reference

Absolute-relative time reference in a sense is related to the
meaning of absolute-relative tense. An absolute-relative tense,
such as the English Pluperfect and Future Perfect Tenses, has the
meaning which is derived from the combination of the meaning of
relative tense and that of absolute tense. Comrie (1985, p. 65)
defines an absolute-relative tense as a tense which locates a sit-
uation prior or posterior to a reference point (i.e., relative
interpretation) which is in turn determined with respect to the
present moment as the deictic centre (i.e., absolute interpre-
tation). Comrie (1985) formulates the meaning of pluperfect tense
and future perfect tenses as

> pluperfect tense   *E before R before S*
> future perfect tense   *E before R after S*

BI in a sense does express the notion of absolute-relative time reference by using particles *telah/sudah,* and *akan* with time adverbs. In the absolute-relative future time reference an auxiliary word *akan* may also be used while in the absolute-relative past time reference the presence of *sudah* can be used to establish such time reference. For example, an English utterance with future perfect meaning can be translated into BI by using *telah/sudah* and optionally with *akan* in combination with the future time adverbs in question. Unlike the English *will, akan* in BI is not obligatorily used in the absolute-relative future time reference. Consider (118).

> (118) *Besok jam 10 pagi pekerjaan ini <u>sudah</u> <u>(akan)</u> selesai*
> tomorrow at 10 a.m. work   this SUDAH will finish
> 'I will have finished this work by 10 a.m. tomorrow'

In (118) with or without the particle *akan* the work in question will have been completed at 10 a.m., that is, the situation referred to is located prior to the reference time which is located tomorrow — an absolute time adverb.

In (119) Kaswanti Purwo (1984, p. 230) provides an illustration of the absolute-relative future time reference in BI although it is not described in Comrie's terms (1985).

> (119) a.*Tetapi ia yakin, bahwa paling lama dalam dua puluh*
> but s/he confident that at most   within twenty
> *tahun kita   <u>sudah akan</u>   menyamai   mereka*
> year we (incl.) SUDAH will   match   them
> <u>(Kompas,</u>1977)
> 'But s/he is confident that at most within 20 years we will have matched them'
>
> b.*Tetapi ia yakin, bahwa paling lama dalam dua puluh*
> but s/he confident that at most   within twenty
> *tahun kita   <u>telah akan</u>   menyamai   mereka*
> year we (incl.) TELAH will   match   them
> 'But s/he is confident that at most within 20 years we will have matched them'

In (119), the situation conveying the absolute-relative future time reference is 'located', in terms of 'implicature' (See Comrie, 1985), twenty years later.

Consider (120) and (121) which convey absolute-relative past time reference.

(120) *Ketika anda memberitahu saya mengenai hal itu*
       when   you   tell   me   about   matter the
       sesungguhnya saya sudah mengetahuinya sebelumnya
       actually   I   SUDAH know-NYA   before
       'When you told me about it actually I already knew it
       before/I had known it already'

In (120), the situation conveying absolute-relative past time reference is located before the speaker was told about the information referred to.

(121) *Tidak sampai satu jam perjalanan, kami telah sampai*
       not   till   one hour trip   we (excl.) TELAH reach
       ... *Petani-petani lain sudah duluan tiba di*
           farmer   other SUDAH earlier arrive at
       sawahnya   masing-masing
       ricefield-their   respective
       (Horison, February, 1987, p. 62).
       'In less than one hour we reached our destination . . . .
       Other farmers had arrived earlier at their respective
       ricefields'.

In (121), the situation conveying absolute-relative past time reference is located prior to the past situation of the speakers' arrival. One will see that in (120) and (121) *sudah* here is not distinct from *sudah* used to convey explicit past time reference. The notion of absolute-relative past time reference is conveyed by the before-temporal relation, i.e., one situation is located prior to another situation which is located with respect to the deictic centre. In contrast, absolute-relative future time reference is distinct from absolute future time reference as evidenced by the presence of *sudah/telah,* as in (119a, b). I have shown that absolute-relative past time reference is not formally distinct from absolute past time reference while the absolute-relative

future time reference is distinct from the absolute future time reference in <u>BI</u>.

5.3.3 Time Reference in Nominals

<u>BI</u> can, in certain cases, express the time reference of nominals by using a time adverb which is used as a modifier of the nominal in question. (122a, b) and (123) provide evidence that certain time adverbs do indeed modify nouns or nominals.

(122) a. *buku kemarin* 'book- yesterday'; *pertemuan hari itu*
'meeting-on-that day'; *pertemuan tempo hari* 'meeting
-the other day'; *rapat tadi pagi* 'meeting-this morning';
pesta tahun lalu 'party - last year'; *konggres tahun
depan* 'congress-next year'; *pertemuan kali ini*
'meeting-this (present) time'

Each of the time adverbs in (122a) modifies the noun as the head.

(122) b. *kedatangannya besok*   'his/her arrival tomorrow'

dulu	in the past
nanti	later immediately
waktu itu	at that time
hari ini	today
tahun lalu	last year
etc.	

kehadirannya *nanti*   'his/her attendance later'

besok	tomorrow
saat ini	at this time

In (122b), the time adverbs modify nominals *kedatangannya* 'arrival-NYA' and *kehadirannya* 'attendance-NYA'. Similarly, the time adverbs or time adverbial phrases are used to modify nominals in (123a, b, c, d).

(123) a. ... *pokok pembicaraan kita*   *kali ini*
     main   discussion   we (incl.) time this
    '... our main discussion this time'
    (<u>Horison</u>, December 1987, p. 399)

  b. *Dalam naskah*   *Sipenmaru tahun 1987*...
    in   exam papers *Sipenmaru* year 1987
    'In the 1987 *Sipenmaru* examination papers'
    (<u>Horison</u>, December 1987, p. 399)

  c. *Dalam kegiatan kita*   *sepanjang hidup ini*...
    in   activity we (incl.) throughout life this

'In our activities throughout this life'
(Horison, December 1987, p. 400)
d. *Di   sekolah kita   sekarang ini, . . .*
at/in school we (incl.) now   this
'In our school at present, . . .'
(Horison, December 1987, p. 400)

Notice that in (122a) and (122b) present, past and future time reference can be expressed. (123a, b, c, d) express either past (123b), present (123a, d) or past to present (123c) time reference.

5.4   Summary and Conclusions

Time, which is philosophically and religiously viewed as unreal by some (See Section 3.1, Chapter III), is indeed conceptually present in BI. It is reflected in the general assumption of the existence of the tripartite time division of past, present and future.

Speakers of BI, as reflected in the language, seem to cut up the concepts of time into this tripartite time division along with some finer distinctions in immediate or distant future and recent and distant past. Almost all of these time concepts are lexicalised in BI except for the future which is lexicalised and partly grammaticalised, and for certain forms of past time reference with *sudah/telah* and *baru* which seem to interact with aspectual meanings.

In order to understand the time concepts of BI as reflected in the language, i.e., through tense or otherwise, I have shown that it is necessary to recognise and make use of the distinction between the notions of time or temporal reference and tense, aspectual reference and aspect, tense-aspect complexes, temporal-aspectual complexes, and of the distinction between basic versus peripheral meanings.

To describe explicitly the distinction between BI, a tense-

less language, and English, a language with tense distinctions, two different models are constructed. The English tense-aspect complexes cannot be translated directly into B̲I̲ 'tense-aspect complexes'. The term 'temporal-aspectual complexes' is used in the model in place of the the term 'tense-aspect complexes'.

B̲I̲ expresses time/temporal reference explicitly and implicitly. Explicit time reference is shown by the presence of formal time reference markers or indicators as is shown by time adverbs, auxiliary words or particles which appropriately convey past, present or future time reference as well as recent or distant past and immediate or distant future time reference. Implicit time reference, by contrast, is understood regardless of the absence of formal time reference indicators/markers in the utterance-act or in the discourse.

This study has mainly made use of Comrie's formulation of tense which is basically Reichenbachian and has shown that time reference in B̲I̲ is characterisable in terms of this formulation.

To conclude it appears worthwhile to restate the following points.

I. B̲I̲ has recent/distant past, immediate/distant future in addition to past, present and future time reference. These are expressed mainly by lexicalisation. But, in a somewhat different sense B̲I̲ also grammaticalises future time reference in addition to lexicalised future time reference.

II. There are instances of basic meanings of time reference particles versus their peripheral meanings.

III. Time reference in B̲I̲ can be indicated explicitly as well as implicitly:

    a. explicit time reference is indicated by the presence of time adverbs, particles or auxiliary words in the utterance act or

discourse.

 b. Implicit time reference can be worked out on the basis of

  i. the available explicit temporal information which is

discoverable outside the utterance-act or in the discourse

in question.

  ii. the speaker-hearer's shared knowledge which can be

manifested in the form of:

   1. previous experience which is formally absent in the

utterance-act or the discourse

   2. information presently acquired by the speech

participants

   3. knowledge of individual verbs along with their

sentence-subjects which can be either first- or third-

order entities.

IV. Although lexicalised, <u>BI</u> can express immediate and distant

future time reference as well as recent and distant past time

reference.

V. With regard to *Temporal Conjunction + Clause, Conditional*

Clauses, Indirect Speech and Nominalisation I have shown that

they can convey implicit time reference (which is perhaps linked

with shared knowledge based on previous experience). In many

cases, these interact with time adverbs, auxiliary words and

particles to convey explicit time reference.

VI. In reference to **(I)**, i.e., the existence of partly

grammaticalised and lexicalised expression of time, I have

provisionally shown that, though on the whole it is true that verbs

in <u>BI</u> are unspecified for tense and time reference, in the case of

future time reference the verb 'complexes' may express tense as a

deictic category. The study shows that <u>BI</u> has a deictic tense

category. Hence Fig. 14a is modified to give Fig. 14b. The term

'tense' here is loosely used to distinguish between the partly

grammaticalised and lexicalised BI future time reference.

```
                    |states, events, processes, etc.|
                    └───────────────┬───────────────┘
                            (situation/s)
                                 │
        ┌────────────────────────┴────────────────────────┐
    temporally located &        │        temporally expressed
    expressed          temporally expressed
                                 │
    deictic/externally                          non-deictic/
    determined                                  internally
    temporal/                                   determined
    time reference          perfect         aspectual reference
         │
    ┌────┴─────┐
    │     partly│
    lexical-  grammatical-
    ised      ised
              TENSE
```

```
            : temporal-aspectual :
                complexes
```
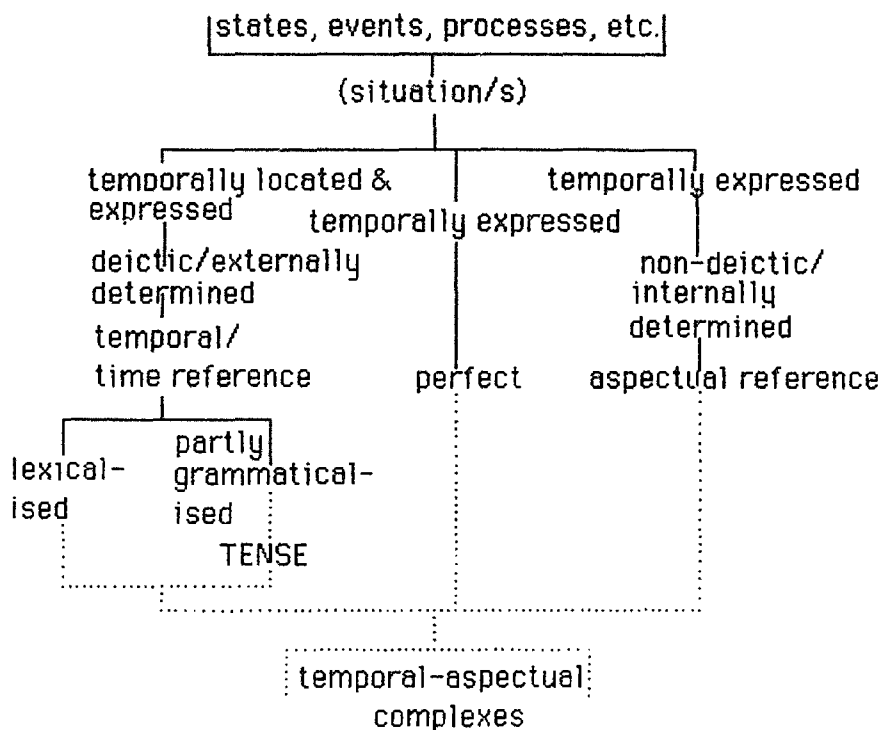
Fig. 14b: A modified model to describe BI 'tense', i.e., temporal
           complexes

VII. Time reference in BI in some cases can also be expressed

along with nominals.

VIII. Relative time reference for the past and future is

expressed in BI.

IX. Regardless of absence of obvious contrasts as is found in

the case of English absolute tense versus absolute-relative

tense I have shown that BI in a sense can express

absolute-relative time reference.

5.5   Aspectual Reference in BI

Several scholars argue that there exist aspectual distinc-
tions in BI albeit there is disparity in their accounts. Others,
however, do not even make use of the term 'aspect' at all in de-
scribing the relevant phenomena. This is perhaps primarily attrib-
utable to the fact that, first, as hypothesized in the proposed
models in Chapter III, situations are all expressible as tense-
aspect complexes, in that if one were to choose to ignore the
distinction between tense and aspect he would still be able to
identify the situation in question by taking for granted the exis-
tence of tense at the expense of aspect (See Weinrich, 1970, pp.
31-32). Secondly, in so far as aspect in BI is assumed to be lex-
icalised as is pointed out by Djajasudarma (1985, p. 65) who says
that *partikel keaspekan bl diduga memiliki makna aspektual lek-
sikal*" (Lit.: aspectual particles in BI are assumed to be lexemes
expressing aspectual distinctions), the absence of the term
'aspect' in reference to a grammatical category seems justified.
Thus, scholars like Alisjahbana (1978, 1983), Dwidjasusana
(1953), Husin Idris (1957), Motik (1950), Muhammad Zain (n. d.),
Pernis (1951), Poedjawijatna and Zoetmulder (1955), Ramlan
(1983), Simorangkir Simandjuntak (1955), Slametmuljana (1969),
Wojowasito (1978), etc., do not make use of the term 'aspect' at
all in describing the grammar of BI. There are, however, scholars
of BI who use the term 'aspect' in their descriptions (Asofie,
1979, pp. 4-5, 9, 23, 25, 28, 30-32, 36-39, 44, 46-47; Dahl, 1985,
p. 90; Djajasudarma, 1985, pp. 65-8; Fokker, 1960, pp. 36-42, 45,
48, 51, 54, 55, 75, 81, 121-22; Gonda, 1952, p. 37; Kaswanti
Purwo, 1984, pp. 253-55; Samsuri, 1983, pp. 251-53; Verhaar,
1977, p. 69; 1984b, pp. 27, 33, 36, 40, 58). Cartier (1985), Hopper
(1977, 1979, 1982) and Rafferty (1982) use the term 'aspect' in

discourse perspective on BI and Malay.

Forty years ago Gonda (1952) stated, among other things, that an investigation of the phenomena concerning aspect in Indonesian languages was not without its reward. Characteristically, it is stated that

> modal and temporal concepts are . . . very often indicated by so-called auxiliary words. Malay and other IN(donesian) languages possess a whole series of modal, 'aspectual', temporal and 'variational' indices, which often show a predilection for a definite position in the sentence. Painstaking investigations into the rules and tendencies governing them will in all probability repay the trouble (1952, p. 37).

Fokker (1960) stated that a systematic description on aspect in Indonesian languages had not been carried out yet, and that his treatment of aspect in BI was provisionally short (p. 38). In particular he discussed, in his terms, the inchoative aspect, durative aspect and frequentative aspect (1960, pp. 38-42) as well as, albeit briefly six aspect markers in BI: *belum, sudah, telah, habis, sedang, tengah* (1960, p. 81). Irrespective of the provisional nature of his account Fokker emphasized the importance of aspectual distinctions in Indonesian languages (1960, p. 121). In his description, events or processes which show aspectual distinctions do not relate to time past, present and future but to the ways the events or processes are viewed (Fokker, 1960, p. 37).

Samsuri (1983, pp. 251-53) treated aspect and time reference (or tense) in BI under 'aspect'. It is stated that BI has three different ways of expressing what is happening, what has happened and what will happen by using *sedang, telah/sudah* and *akan* respectively. Apparently, Samsuri (1983) did not explicitly separate the notions of tense and aspect.

Djajasudarma (1985, pp. 65-68), using Comrie's formulation of aspect, has indicated that aspectual particles in BI can be used

to express perfectivity and imperfectivity. But unlike Comrie who treats perfective and perfect as distinct phenomena, Djajasu-darma treats perfect in <u>BI</u> as part of perfective in contrast with imperfective.

Lyons (1977, p. 705) shows that the term 'aspect' is usually used as a cover-term for a variety of grammaticalised oppositions which are based upon the notions of duration, instantaneity, frequency, initiation, completion, etc. Basically, this is consonant with what Comrie has to say on the definition of aspect. Comrie (1976) defines aspect as different ways of viewing or representing the internal temporal constitution or constituency of a situation (pp. 3, 52). Thus, if one were to view a situation as having an internal structure which extends over a period of time then one could justifiably employ the term durative or progressive aspect for it. But, as tense may interact with aspect, and there are, as Lyons has put it, aspectual characterestics of certain verbs or words which also have a role to play on the interpretation of aspect (Lyons, 1977, p. 706), the picture is far from simple.

Lyons (1977, p. 706) states that aspect and aspectual char-acter or simply character are interdependent as they both rest ul-timately upon the same ontological distinction. For example, the English verbs *know* and *recognise* have different kinds of aspec-tual character. *Know* denotes a state while *recognise* denotes an event. It is thus interesting to note that *know* does not take pro-gressive aspect. Lyons (1977, p. 707) postulates that in the gen-eral treatments of aspect the following semantic notions are taken into account: stativity, progressivity, duration, completion, habituality, iteration, momentariness, inception and termination. In this study these basic semantic notions will be employed but at

the same time language-particular aspectual categories relevant to BI will also be postulated.

To see whether BI has aspectual distinctions or not let us observe again the models proposed in Chapter III (Figs.4 and 9). In these figures, aspect is defined as a way of viewing or representing the internal temporal structure of a situation. In the models it is postulated that events, states, processes, etc., are all situations which are temporally bound in one way or another Events, as Lyons (1977) states, are non-extended dynamic situations that occur momentarily in time; processes, unlike events, are extended dynamic situations that last or endure through time while states, although resembling processes in that they last or endure through time, are homogeneous throughout their period of existence (p. 707). Comrie (1976, p. 13) has indicated that states are static, that is, they continue as before unless some change is applied while events and processes are dynamic, that is, they require a continual input of energy if they are to proceed. Comrie (1976, p. 51) even states that events are dynamic situations viewed perfectively whereas processes are dynamic situations viewed imperfectively.

In the proposed models (See Sections 3.5.2, 3.7.2 in Chapter III) it is postulated that one phenomenon whether temporally located or expressed is ultimately characterisable as a situation which may express tense-aspect complexes. Fig. 14c, an extension of Fig. 14a, is proposed to describe 'tense-aspect complexes' in BI. It is claimed that BI shows either lexicalised and grammaticalised aspectual reference.

|states, events, processes, etc.|

(situation/s)

temporally located &
expressed

temporally expressed

temporally expressed

deictic/externally
determined

non-deictic/
internally
determined

temporal/
time reference

perfect

aspectual reference

lexical-
ised

partly
grammatical-
ised

lexical-
ised

grammatical-
ised

TENSE

ASPECT

temporal-aspectual
complexes
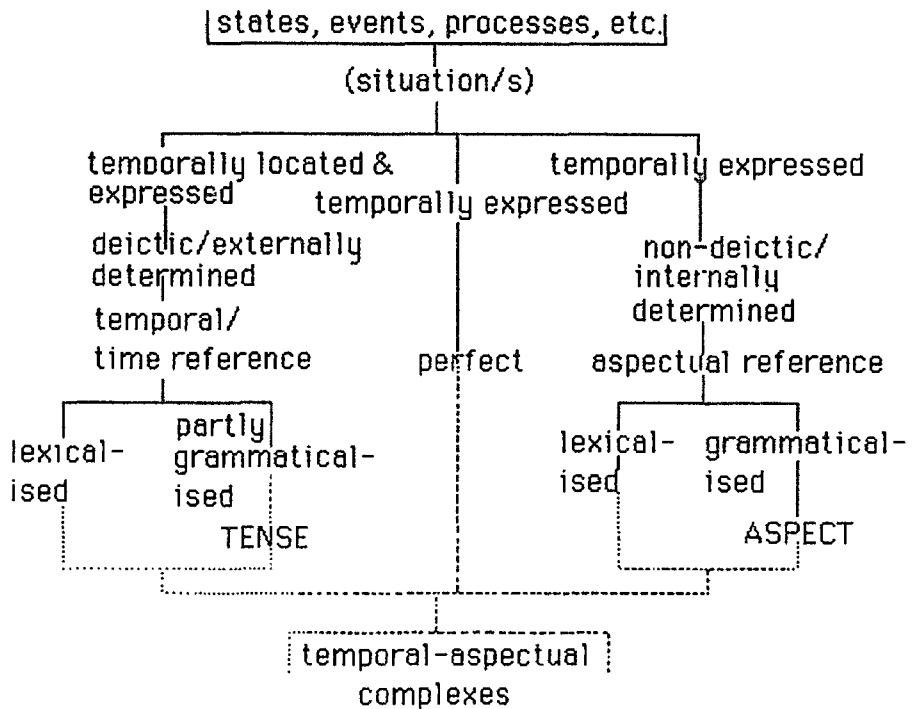
Fig. 14c: A model to describe BI 'tense' and 'aspect', i.e.,
temporal and aspectual complexes, and their inter-
relationships

If one were to accept Comrie's classification of the most
typical subdivision of aspectual oppositions (1976, p. 25),   Fig. 5

Perfective   Imperfective

Habitual   Continuous

Nonprogressive   Progressive
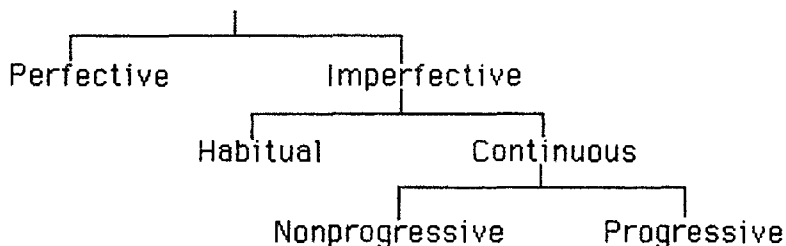
Fig. 5: Comrie's classification of aspectual oppositions (1976,
p. 25)

could very well be placed directly under aspect (See Section 3.5.2
in Chapter III). In view of the fact that these oppositions, i.e.,
"between perfective and imperfective forms, and between
habitual and continuous forms", as Comrie argues, are accounted
for largely irrespective of the particular lexical items having
such contrasts (Comrie, 1976, p. 41), aspect in BI, which is

basically lexicalised, can best be described separately in terms of progressivity, inception, duration, habituality as well as in terms of a number of idiosyncratic aspectual distinctions which are presumably manifest in BI. In addition, like Comrie's (1976) and Dahl's (1985) account, 'perfect' in BI is treated separately from the treatment of aspect.

One principle which underlies the approach adopted in this study is that aspectual distinctions in BI coupled with the aspectual character of the individual verbs or words are mostly lexicalised, although there are cases of grammaticalised aspectual expressions in BI (See Fig.14c). Asofie (1979, p. 25) even claims that aspectual particles in BI are meaningful particles the function of which is primarily in the semantic field. Another principle is related to Dahl's claim (1985, p. 69) with regard to perfectivity and imperfectivity. From a typological perspective, it turns out that "the Slavic systems . . .", from which the distinction between perfectivity and imperfectivity is commonly adopted by many Slavists, "are in fact rather idiosyncratic in many ways". In view of these two principles, therefore, the study does not attempt to insist on the application of the perfective and imperfective opposition to the aspect system in BI.

An analysis of aspect in BI has been attempted by Djaja-sudarma (1985) in terms of perfectivity and imperfectivity. In this study I will show that there are essential aspectual distinctions in BI which cannot be analysed under the perfective-imperfective opposition.

5.5.1 Progressive Aspect in BI

Progressive aspect in BI is expressed lexically by using the particles *sedang, lagi, tengah, masih* and *baru*. These particles are basically used to express non-stative, on-going situations, that

is, situations which conceptually occupy a period of time and require an input of energy in order to obtain. In Comrie's terms (1976), these progressive aspect particles seem to express progressive meaning, that is, continuousness/durativity and non-stativity. The most productive particle, or the one with the widest distribution of the five particles is *sedang.* Macdonald and Dardjowidjojo (1967, p. 164) note that *sedang, lagi, tengah* and *masih* are not interchangeable.*Tengah* and *lagi* are less frequent in occurrence than *sedang* and *masih.* These five particles are lexemes which express different shades of meaning in addition to the progressive meaning.

i. *Sedang* is general in that it can be used either formally or informally to indicate progressivity and non-stativity, that is, a situation which is in progress and requires an input of energy in order to obtain as in (124 a. b, c, d, e, f).

(124) a. *Bapak* <u>*sedang*</u> *mengikuti penataran*
Bapak SEDANG take upgrading course
di luar kota
out of town/in the country
(Horison, June, 1987, p. 207).
'Bapak (Boss) is taking an upgrading course in the country'

b. *Kebetulan dia bawa mobil dan kebetulan*
happen s/he bring car and by chance
salah satu mobil milik hakim <u>*sedang*</u> *diparkir*
one of car own judge SEDANG be parked
di depan rumah
in front of house
(Horison, January, 1986, p. 29).
'S/he happened to bring her/his car with her/him and by chance a car owned by a judge was being parked in front of the house'

c. *Apa yang* <u>*sedang*</u> *kau tangisi di sini, Nak?*
what LIG SEDANG you cry for here lad
(Horison, May, 1986, p. 175)
'What are you crying here for, my lad?'

d. *Nyonya* <u>*sedang*</u> *mandi. Silakan tunggu,*
lady/madam SEDANG take a shower please wait

> *Pak. Akan   saya   panggil*
> sir   will   I   call
> (Horison, April, 1987, p. 140)
> 'The lady is having a shower. Please wait (a
> moment sir). I will call her'

e. *Ketika ia <u>sedang</u> bercukcukuduk terhadap langit,*
   when he SEDANG say cukcukkuduk to   sky
   tiba-tiba   muncul orang gila yang lain   di
   all of a sudden appear a lunatic LIG other   at
   pinggir lapangan bola   itu
   edge   field   football the
   (Horison, September, 1986, p. 389)
   'When he was saying cukcukuduk to the sky all of
   a sudden appeared another lunatic at the edge of
   the football field'

f. *Pasar Baru Jakarta <u>sedang</u> panas-panasnya*
   Pasar Baru Jakarta   SEDANG get hot-NYA
   dibakar   matahari musim   kemarau
   be burnt sun   season   dry
   (Horison, June,1987, p. 189)
   '*Pasar Baru Jakarta* was getting hot and
   burnt by the dry season sun'

In (124), each situation with *sedang* conveys progressivity and non-stativity. Notice, however, that *sedang* in (125a) is used as a 'conjunction' in the sense of *whereas*. The use of *sedang* here seems to be incorrect. It should have been written *sedangkan* 'whereas' as in (125b). Although intuitively one may argue that *sedang* in (125a) is used in spoken <u>BI,</u> and yet (125c) uses *sedangkan* 'whereas' to express 'whereas'.

(125) a. *Mur digendong   neneknya,   <u>sedang</u>*
         Mur be carried on the back grandma-his whereas
         Nolan digandeng   waktu mereka melakukan
         Nolan be led by the hand   when   they   perform
         tlusupan
         TLUSUPAN ceremony
         (Horison, April,1987, p. 136)
         'Mur was carried on the back of his grandma whereas
         Nolan was led by the hand when they were performing
         tlusupan (under the-coffin) ceremony'

   b. *Mur digendong   neneknya,   <u>sedangkan</u>*
      Mur be carried on the back grandma-his whereas
      Nolan digandeng   waktu mereka melakukan

Nolan be led by the hand when   they   perform
tlusupan
TLUSUPAN ceremony
'Mur was carried on the back of his grandma whereas
Nolan was led by the hand when they were performing
tlusupan (under the-coffin) ceremony'

c. *Sedangkan Banda masih terus membaca makalah*
   whereas   Banda still CONT read   paper
   di mimbar
   in platform
   (Horison, July, 1986, p. 241)
   'Whereas Banda still kept on reading his paper
   on the platform'

ii. *Lagi* seems to have the same meaning as *sedang* when it is used to express progressive aspect but the former seems to be more in use informally. In (126) *lagi* is used to express progressivity and non-stativity.

(126) *Demikian pula dengan Ujang Komar (sekarang dikenal*
      likewise   with Ujang Komar (now   be known
      sebagai 'Kiyai Istimewa'). Dia pun suka nampak
      as   Kiyai special   he PUN like appear
      fotonya   di suratkabar atau majalah   lagi
      photograph-his in newspaper or   magazine LAGI
      berjabatan dengan seorang mentri; lagi mengantar
      shake hands with   a   minister LAGI take
      tamu luar negeri melihat-lihat pesantrennya; lagi
      guest overseas   visit religious centre-his LAGI
      main kecapi di saung tengah sawah; lagi main tennis;
      play harp at den middle ricefield LAGI play tennis
      lagi berjoged dengan santri-santrinya; lagi berpelukan
       LAGI dance with student-his   LAGI embrace
      dengan seorang romo yang berjubah kekerajaan Katolik;
      with a   priest LIG wear   cassock Christian
      dan yang istimewa   sekali, dia lagi coba naik ke
      and LIG extraordinary most he LAGI try climb to
      puncak paling tinggi dari kubah gereja Sint Pieter
      top   most high of   dome church St. Pieter
      di kota Roma; dengan kedua belah tangannya berpegang
      in city Rome with both side   hand-his hold
      pada seutas tambang yang tebal dia nampak
      on   a   rope   LIG thick he   be seen
      sedang mengangkat badannya, merangsod-rangsod
      SEDANG raise   body-his move upwards
      sejengkal demi sejengkal naik   ke atas

inch   by   inch   rise upwards
(Horison, June, 1987, p. 194).
'Likewise with Ujang Umar (now known
as the 'Special Kyai', i.e., a religious teacher).
His photograph is often seen in the newspapers or
magazines — (he) is shaking hands with a minister;
(he) is taking foreign guests to visit his
religious centre; (he) is/was playing a harp in a den
in the middle of a ricefield; (he) is playing tennis;
(he) is dancing with his religious school students; (he)
is embracing a priest who wears a Christian cassock;
and what is most extraordinary is when he is trying
to climb to the top of the highest dome of St. Peter's
Church in Rome; with both of his hands holding on to a
piece of thick rope he is seen raising his body moving
upwards inch by inch'

In (126), of the 8 progressive situations, 7 progressive situations use *lagi* while the last situation only uses *sedang.* If it is not to avoid monotony, perhaps the writer's choice of *sedang* is to express a relatively longer duration of the progressive situation in order to emphasize the progressive meaning expressed. However, if he had wished, he could still have used *lagi* in place of *sedang* or *sedang* in all without, of course, the implication just discussed. In (127) *lagi* is used to describe a progressive situation in an informal style.

(127) *Ini   memang   lagi   mahal   pasarannya,*
     this   indeed currently expensive market value-NYA
     beruntung   kamu   memilikinya
     lucky   you   own-it
     (Horison, January, 1987, p. 32)
     'This is indeed currently of high market value, you
     are lucky that you own one'

Here the speaker is commenting on a certain object owned by his close friend.

    iii. *Tengah* literally means '(in) the midst (of)'. The use of *tengah* to express progressive aspect seems to imply that the situation expressed is indeed in progress and non-stative but the speaker is focusing on the middle portion of the situation which

is/was in progress when another situation is/was also in progress. In (128b) and (129b), for example, the use of *sedang* in place of *tengah* does not alter the message conveyed in any way except that when *tengah* is used the middle portion of the progressive situation in question is given a focus.

(128) a.*Lalu dengan rakusnya ia menggeram-geram seolah*
then with greedy-NYA he growl as if
tengah melumat habis tubuh sebuah bangkai
in the midst of chew up body a carcass
(<u>Horison</u>, May, 1976, p. 176)
'Then it was growling greedily as if it were
chewing up the whole body of a carcass'

b.*Lalu dengan rakusnya ia menggeram-geram seolah*
then with greedy-NYA he growl as if
sedang melumat habis tubuh sebuah bangkai
SEDANG chew up body a carcass
'Then it was growling greedily as if it were
chewing up the whole body of a carcass'

(129) a. *Sepasang tamu Hotel Indonesia,*
couple guest *Hotel Indonesia*
sepasang pengantin baru yang <u>tengah</u>
couple married new LIG in the midst of
berbulan madu, terbangun juga karena teriakan itu
honey moon woken up too because of shout the
(<u>Horison</u>, June, 1986, p. 212).
'A male and female guest at *Hotel Indonesia*, a
newly-married couple who were having their
honeymoon (wedding night) were woken up by the shout,
too'

(129) b. *Sepasang tamu Hotel Indonesia,*
couple guest *Hotel Indonesia*
sepasang pengantin baru yang <u>sedang</u>
couple married new LIG SEDANG
berbulan madu, terbangun juga karena teriakan itu
honey moon woken up too because of shout the
'A male and a female guest at *Hotel Indonesia*, a
newly-married couple who were having their
honeymoon (wedding night) were woken up by the
shout, too'

iv. *Baru* literally means 'new'. In addition to its use as a recent past time reference particle, *baru* can be used to express an on-going situation. Alisjahbana (1983) states that "*<u>Baru</u> mung-*

kin juga berarti <u>sedang</u>" (p. 106). (Lit: *Baru* perhaps also means *sedang"*). In using *baru* to express progressive aspect the speaker seems to convey the recency of the situation and hence it implies that the situation in question is not yet over. In other words, the situation is still in progress and non-stative, as in (130).

> (130) *Dia   <u>baru</u>   mandi*
>   s/he   just   take a shower
>   'S/he is taking a shower (literally: s/he has just
>   started taking a shower a short while ago and s/he
>   has not finished it yet'

(130) can be used in a conversation in a reply to an enquiry by a person who is coming to see a friend who is still in the bathroom when he arrives.

v. *Masih*, which literally means 'still' in English, is different from the other four progressive aspect particles *sedang, lagi, tengah,* and *baru* although in general *masih* can be used to express progressive aspect as is noted by Djajasudarma (1985, p. 67), Macdonald and Dardjowidjojo, (1967, p.164). Kaswanti Purwo (1984, p. 233) shows that *masih* is related to the beginning point from which the end-point of a situation is moving. Thus *masih* cannot collocate with *tua* 'old' as *tua* itself indicates an end-point towards which a human life moves. Observe (131a) and (131b).

> (131) a. **masih tua*   (131) b. *masih muda*
>   '*still old'   'still young'

(131b) is acceptable as *muda* 'young' conveys the beginning point from which an old age is reached. Irrespective of this property, however, *masih* can be used to convey progressivity and non-stativity, as in (132a, b, c, d).

> (132) a. *Sekali-kali   menoleh   ke arah orang-orang yang*
>   every now and then turn around   towards people   LIG
>   *<u>masih</u>   main   badminton*
>   still   play   badminton
>   (<u>Horison</u>, January, 1987, p. 27).
>   'every now and then (he) turned around at the place
>   where some people were still playing badminton'

b. *Sesaat   dia   masih berusaha mencari siapa yang*
moment s/he   still   try   find out who LIG
bertanya
ask (a question)-NYA
(Horison, January, 1986, p. 24)
'A moment, s/he was still trying to find out who
was asking her/him (a question)'

c. *Sementara dia   masih   menaksir-naksir, saya*
while   s/he   still   figure out   I
segera   mengambil   gambar   itu   dan
immediately   pick up   picture   the   and
mengembalikan   ke tempatnya
return   to   place-its
(Horison, January, 1987, p. 31)
'While s/he was still trying to figure out the value of
the picture, I immediately picked it up and returned
it to its place'

d. *. . . sewaktu   kereta   masih   berjalan dan para*
when   train   still   move   and PARA
penumpang   berjejalan . . . .
passenger   be jammed
(Horison, August, 1986, p. 280)
'. . . when the train was still moving and (collective
plural: all/every) passenger(s) were jammed . . . .'

Masih 'still' in each of (132a, b, c, d) is used to express pro-
gressive aspect as well as reference to the beginning to the sit-
uation. Here *masih* can be replaced with *sedang* without a change
in meaning. By contrast, however, in each of the following *masih*
does not express progressive aspect but the state of the situation
and/or the beginning point of the situation expressed.

(133) a. *Ketika   masih   kanak-kanak   kami   teman*
when   still   young   we (excl.)   friend
sepermainan
be on the same playground
(Horison, June, 1987, p. 194)
'When we were still young, we were on the same
playground'

b. *Celana pendek merk " Adidas",   masih   baru*
pants short brand *Adidas*   still   new
(Horison, January, 1987, p. 25)
'A pair of short pants "Adidas" brand, still new'

c. *Kau   masih   betah   saja   hidup   sendiri*
you   still   stand/continue   I   live   alone

(<u>Horison</u>, January, 1987, p. 28)

'You could (were still able to) stand living alone'

d. *Aku masih ingat pengalamanku waktu mengikuti*
  I   still   remember experience-my when   join
rombongan pejabat dari pusat yang mengadakan
team   officials from capital LIG organize
kunjungan kerja ke daerah
visit   work to   regions
(<u>Horison</u>, June, 1987, p. 197).

'I still remember the days, i.e., my experience,
when I joined a team of (government) officials from
the capital to carry out work visit to the regions'

e. *Pak Musa itu seperti sudah kita ketahui bersama*
  Mr. Musa that as   SUDAH we (incl.) know together
adalah orang kurang bijaksana, rasa memiliki
be   person not   wise   feel belong to
kampung ini juga masih perlu dipertanyakan
community this also still   need be questioned
(<u>Horison</u>, August, 1986, p. 282)

'Mr. Musa, as we all know, is not a wise person, his
sense of belonging in our community also still
needs to be questioned'

f. *Dia masih ingat dalam operasi penculikan*
  he still remember in   operation kidnapping
di emper stasiun kota
in porch railway station city
(<u>Horison</u>, October, 1987, p. 349)

'He still remembers one kidnapping operation in the
porch of the city railway station'

As *masih* 'still' does not express progressive aspect in each of the examples (133) the use of *sedang* in place of *masih* will render them ungrammatical. This shows that *masih* is different from *sedang* in some way.

Kaswanti Purwo (1984, p. 81) observes that *baru, sedang, masih* can all collocate with *akan.* Because the five progressive aspect particles, *sedang, lagi, tengah, baru, masih* can collocate with *akan*, I would argue that this is an example of an interaction between the future time reference particle *akan* and progressive aspect. The meaning of this interaction, however, does not indicate an on-going future situation which is expressed by the verb

form but rather the process of starting the situation or the preparation for it. Observe (134).

    (134) *Dia* <u>*sedang*</u>   *akan*   *menyanyi*
          s/he SEDANG   will   sing
          (lagi, tengah, baru, masih)
          (the process of starting . . . .)
          'S/he is in the process of starting to sing (a song)'

In (134), *sedang* or *lagi* or *tengah* or *baru* or *masih* expresses the process of starting the situation expressed by the verb form. If one were to express an on-going future situation, one could use *akan* too, but it has to be placed before the progressive aspect particle and not after it, as in (135) where presumably an on-going future situation is expressed.

    (135) *Waktu saya ketemu dia*   *besok,*   *dia akan* <u>*sedang*</u>
          when   I   see   her/him tomorrow s/he will   SEDANG
          menyanyi (lagi, tengah, baru, masih)
          to sing (progressive aspect)
          'When I see her/him tomorrow, s/he'll be singing (a song)'

5.5.1.1   Some Characteristics of the Progressive Aspect in <u>BI</u>

Progressive aspect particles in <u>BI</u> *sedang, lagi, tengah, baru,* and *masih* intuitively collocates with nominals directly to express progressive aspect, as in (136).

    (136) <u>*sedang*</u>   *dalam penyelesaian*
          <u>*lagi*</u>
          <u>*tengah*</u>
          <u>*baru*</u>
          <u>*masih*</u>
          'in the process of being finalised/settled'
          in the short process of
          in the middle of
          just in the process of
          still in the process of

Tengah in (136) seems to be odd as the nominal *dalam penyelesaian* 'in . . . being settled' necessarily conveys the idea of proceeding the situation expressed in a period of time rather than the middle part of it only. Thus as *tengah* can be glossed as 'the

midst/middle of . . . ,' its use in (136) seems to be contradictory. But if the speaker insists either explicitly or implicitly that for him *tengah* is used to convey a point of time which is necessarily so long as to indicate duration, however short, then the use of *tengah* here is perfectly acceptable.

In some cases, the use of *sedang* to express Progressive aspect in BI is optional or perhaps is not required even though evidently progressivity and non-stativity are expressed. In such cases the progressive meaning seems to be self-evident. Notice in (137a, b) *sedang* is not used and yet progressive aspect is conveyed. Here the use of *berkisah* and *ketika* in (137a) and *Lihat tuh* in (137b) can be taken to express the progressive meaning.

> (137) a. *Kebekuan suasana   terpecahkan ketika H. Rosihan*
>   silence atmosphere be broken   when   H. Rosihan
>   *yang "story-teller" berkisah tentang   Umar Ismail*
>   LIG   story-teller tell   about   Umar Ismail
>   *dan   latar belakang   serta proses   pembentukan*
>   and   background   and   processes building
>   *kepribadiannya . . . .*
>   character-NYA
>   (Horison, May, 1987, p. 178)
>   'The silence of the atmosphere was broken when H.
>   Rosihan, who is a story-teller, was telling (us)
>   about Umar Ismail and his background and
>   the processes which are conducive to his character
>   building . . . '
>
> b. *Lihat   tuh,   Pak Mangku. Apa   yang*
>   look at (that)   Mr. Mangku   what   LIG
>   *dicatatnya   begitu   asyiknya?*
>   note down-NYA so   be absorbed-NYA
>   (Horison, July, 1986, p. 239)
>   'Look at Mr. Mangku. What's he noting down — he is
>   so absorbed?/What did he note down — he was so
>   absorbed?'

In (137a, b) progressive aspect is conveyed implicitly, i.e., the activities of telling a story in (137a) and of noting down something in (137b) convey progressivity and non-stativity as judged from the settings. For a speaker of BI this implicit progressive

aspect is self-evident.

The relationship between progressive aspect particle *sedang* and the verb, is loose, in that *sedang* can be placed away from the progressive situation expressed to give extra emphasis to the progressive meaning intended, as in (138a).

> (138) a. *Ya, gambar ini yang <u>sedang</u> saya cari*
> yes picture this LIG SEDANG I look for
> (<u>Horison</u>, January, 1987, p. 30)
> 'Yes, this is indeed the picture I am looking for'

If no such emphasis is intended, *sedang* in (138a) can be placed before the verb *cari* 'look for' as in hypothetical (138b).

> (138) b.*Ya, gambar ini yang saya <u>sedang</u> cari*
> yes picture this LIG I SEDANG look for
> 'Yes, this is the picture I am looking for'

Depending on the intonation pattern used, (138b) can shift the emphasis to *saya* 'I' if it is indeed what is intended.

The Progressive aspect marker in <u>BI</u> cannot be used to refer to future situations, such as the use of the English *be-V-ing* to express future time reference as in *He is leaving soon.* Thus, the hypothetically constructed (139) is totally unacceptable.

> (139) *Dia sedang datang besok pagi*
> s/he SEDANG come tomorrow morning

5.5.2 Inchoative Aspect

The Inchoative Aspect indicates the beginning of a situation. Fokker (1960, p. 38) identifies the use of *-lah* and *-pun* post-positions or particles as a means of expressing inchoative aspect in <u>BI</u>, as in (140).

> (140) *Aku<u>pun</u> duduk<u>lah</u> lurus-lurus*
> I-PUN sit down-LAH straight RED
> 'Then I sat down straight + INCH'

The use of *-pun* and *-lah* in (140) can be taken to signify the inception of the situation. Hopper (1977, 1979), in discussing the same phenomenon but in discourse perspective, indicates that in Classical Malay discourse *-lah* is used as a focusing particle

(1977, p. 18, 1979, p. 227), while -*pun* is a foregrounding device. He states that the two are inseparable as they are "aspect of one and the same principle" (1977, p. 18). Abas (1975, pp. 90-91) makes use of the term *aspek mula* in discussing what seems to be, in essence, an inchoative aspect. He states that in Malay, *aspek mula* can be expressed by *meN-* prefix, as in (141). The example is from Abas (1975).

> (141) *Badannya makin membesar*
> body-his increasingly get bigger-INCH
> 'His body is getting bigger and bigger'

He also indicates that the word *mulai*, which literally means 'to begin/start', can be placed before *meN-* prefix plus the verb (Abas, 1975, p. 91), as he states, to provide clarification of the inchoative aspect expressed. Although this phenomenon is also found in BI I would show that the use of *meN-* to express inchoative aspect is linked with the aspectual character of the verb. Observe (142).

> (142) a. *Padi memang sedang menguning,*
>   rice indeed SEDANG get yellow-INCH
>   *menghampar luas hingga kaki bukit kecil di sana*
>   spread out vast as far as foot hill small yonder
>   (Horison, February, 1987, p. 62)
>   'The rice seeds are getting ripe (yellow) spreading out
>   as far as the foot of that low hill yonder'

Notice that in (142a) the inchoative aspect is conveyed in *menguning* but not in *menghampar*. It seems that there is no way of distinguishing between *menguning* and *menghampar* in terms of the "aspectual marker" *meN-* without recourse to their respective aspectual characters. It is interesting to note, however, that this difficulty does not at all constitute any kind of gap in ways of expressing inchoative aspect in BI. For there is a lexical verb *mulai* 'to begin/start' which can be placed in front of the verb intended to express inchoative aspect. If *menguning* in (142) expresses inchoative aspect *mulai menguning* is acceptable.

Menghampar in (142) does not express inchoative aspect as *mulai menghampar* is not acceptable in this context. If *mulai menghampar* expresses inchoative aspect in (142) it means that the spreading seems to have a beginning. In (142) the beginning of *menghampar* here it is not taken into consideration. It is clear that the spreading of the rice-field is presented instantly without taking into account the beginning of *menghampar*. In a different context, if *menghampar* involves the view of the beginning of the situation expressed *menghampar* can be taken to express inchoative aspect.

Observe the following.

(143) a. *Kami* <u>*sudah mulai*</u> *mencintai lingkungan sampah ini*
    we   SUDAH start love   site   refuse this
    yang ternyata menyimpan emas hijau, pepohonan
    LIG turn out store   gold green tree
    dan sayuran yang tumbuh subur
    and vegetable LIG   grow   prosperous + INCH
    (<u>Horison</u>, February, 1987, p. 70)
    'We have started to love the life around this refuse
    site which turns out to store green gold, trees and
    plants which grow prosperously'

   b. *Mirah* <u>*mulai*</u> *bingung*
    Mirah   start   get confused/puzzled + INCH
    (<u>Horison</u>, August, 1987, p. 284)
    'Mirah started to get confused/puzzled'

   c. *Bis* <u>*mulai*</u> *bergerak. Mula-mula pelan sekali*
    bus   start   move   at first-RED slowly very +INCH
    (<u>Horison</u>, September, 1987, p. 393)
    'The bus started to move. At first very slowly'

   d. *Kulihat satu dua orang* <u>*sudah mulai*</u> *meninggalkan*
    I-see one two person SUDAH start leave
    ruang rapat (mesjid)
    room meeting (mosque) + INCH
    (<u>Horison</u>, August, 1986, p. 283)
    'I saw one or two persons already starting to leave
    the meeting room (mosque)'

   e. *Sambil berlari-lari si rayban dan*
    at the same time run-RED   the *rayban* and
    kawannya
    friend-NYA

    d. *Sebetulnya rapat sudah bisa <u>dimulai</u> Pak Musa, ya?*
       actually meeting SUDAH can started Mr Musa YA+INCH
       (<u>Horison</u>, August, 1986, p. 283)
       'Actually, the meeting could have been started Mr.Musa,
       couldn't it?'

    e. *Tentu saja aku tak bisa <u>memulainya</u>*
       of course I not can start-NYA + INCH
       (<u>Horison</u>, August, 1983, p. 283)
       'Of course, I could not start it'

In each of (144a, b, c, d, e) although *mulai, dimulai, memulainya* all express the beginning of a situation of some sort this interpretation is derived from the aspectual character of the verb *mulai* rather than from an aspectual marker as such.

5.5.3 Iterative Aspect

Iterative Aspect expresses the idea that a situation occurs repeatedly or many times (See Comrie, 1976, p. 42; Hartman and Stork, 1972, p. 20-21; Kridalaksana, 1984, p. 18). Fokker (1960) uses the term 'frequentative' aspect to describe a situation which occurs repeatedly in succession (p.36). One of the ways to express iterative aspect in <u>BI</u> is by using *reduplication of the word-base* as in (145a). The word-base of *mengangguk-anggukkan* is *angguk* 'a nod'. Because of the reduplication of the word-base *angguk* 'a

    (145) a. *Saya <u>mengangguk-anggukkan</u> kepala saya*
         I nod-ITER head my
         'I kept nodding my head'
       b. *Saya <u>menganggukkan</u> kepala saya*
         I nod head my
         'I nodded my head '

nod' the situation in (145a) occurs repeatedly, whereas the situation in (145b) does not. There is only one nod in (145b) while there are more than one nod in (145a). The English gloss of (145a) shows that a lexical verb 'to keep' is used to express iterative aspect.

Iterative Aspect in <u>BI</u> is interesting in that it provides a clear example of how grammaticalised and (presumably) lexical-

ised aspectual reference are expressed. There is no direct lexical information whereby aspectual meaning is interpreted. There are several ways by which iterative aspect in BI is expressed: **i.** the prefix-plus-suffix *meN-* + *-i;* **ii.** the prefix-plus-suffix *ber-* + *-an;* **iii.** reduplication of the word-base; **iv.** lexicalised iterative aspect.

i. The prefix-plus-suffix *meN-* + *-i* :

Verhaar (1984a, p. 7) shows that "some *meN-* verbs, not circumfixed, may have a derivational suffix (not the final portion of a circumfix) *-i,* which is conveniently called *iterative -i*" (See Dardjowidjojo, 1981, pp. 206-208). These "iterative" *-i* verbs derive from the corresponding *men-* form: *memukuli* 'to hit repeatedly', *menggigiti* 'to bite repeatedly', *menampari* 'to slap over and over'. Although *men-* forms: *memukul, menggigit* and *menampar* are transitive verbs, not all *meN-* + *-i* with transitive verbs in BI can have the iterative aspect suffix *-i.* Tampubolon (1983, pp. 113-15) shows that there are conditions which govern the use of iterative aspect in BI: the verb has a totally overt object; the verb is basic; the verb is an action verb. (Chafe's terms, an action verb expresses an activity or an action, "something which someone does", Chafe, 1970, p. 100). The following examples are from Tampubolon (1983).

(146)a. *Sudin melempari mangga pak Tahir*
      Sudin throw ITER mango Mr Tahir
      'Sudin threw (something) repeatedly at Mr. Tahir's mangoes'

  b. *Toni memukuli adiknya*
      Toni beat ITER brother-his
      'Toni beat his younger brother repeatedly'

  c. *Pak Burhan menjuali harta bendanya kepada*
      Mr.-Burhan sell ITER property+his to
      tetangganya
      neighbour+his
      'Mr. Burhan kept selling his properties to his neighbours'

d. *Tina* *mengangkati*   *air*   *dari*   *sumur*
Tina   take ITER   water   from   well
'Tina took water repeatedly from the well'

Each of the examples of (146) shows that *meN-* + *verb* + *-i* conveys iterative meaning. The verbs in (146) have overt objects; they are basic, that is, *lempar* 'throw', *pukul* 'beat', *jual* 'sell', *angkat* 'take', and these are all action verbs. Tampubolon (1983, p. 115) shows that if the *meN-* + *verb* + *-i* does not have an overt object then iterative meaning is ruled out. Thus, although (147, 148a) seem to have transitive verbs, each of the *meN-* + *verb* + *-i* does not convey iterative meaning. The examples are from Tampubolon.

(147) *Tuti*   *membasahi*   *rambutnya*
Tuti   wet   hair-her
'Tuti wet her hair'

In Tampubolon's term, *basah* 'wet' is a state verb. Thus, the *meN-* + *verb* + *-i* here does not trigger iterative meaning. Furthermore, *rambutnya*' her hair' is not an overt object but a locative. For Verhaar (1984a, p. 6), the *-i* in *membasahi* (147) is not an iterative marker but a locative role marker *membasahi rambutnya* literally means 'to put water on her hair'.

(148) a. *Dia*   *mendatangi*   *orang asing*   *itu*
s/he come/visit   foreigner   the
'S/he came to/visited the foreigner'

In (148a), *mendatangi* 'came to/visited' is an action-locative verb. Thus, the *meN-* + *verb* + *-i* in (148a) cannot be used to indicate iterative meaning. However, if one wishes, one can still convey iterative meaning in (148a) by introducing a lexical item which has iterative meaning or iterative aspectual character, such as *berkali-kali berturut-turut* 'repeatedly in succession', as in (148b).

(148) b. *Dia*   *berkali-kali berturut-turut*   *mendatangi*
s/he repeatedly in succession (ITER)   visit
orang asing   *itu*
foreigner   the

'S/he repeatedly visited the foreigner in succession'

Berkali-kali berturut-turut 'repeatedly in succession' in (148b) seems to be an instance of a lexicalised iterative aspect.

ii. The prefix-plus-suffix *ber- + verb -an:*

Tampubolon (1983, pp.116-17) shows that certain types of *ber- + -an* verbs have iterative meaning in BI. Abas (1975) shows that in Malay *ber- + -an* verbs may have iterative meaning (p. 102). Tampubolon (1983) further states that in order for *ber- + verb + -an* to have iterative meaning the following conditions must be fulfilled: i) the verb must have coreferential agent and object; ii) the verb must be basic; iii) the verb must have action-locative meaning. The following examples are from Tampubolon.

(149) a. *Burung-burung itu   beterbangan   ke   hutan*
         bird RED   the   fly ITER   to   wood
         'The birds flew repeatedly to the wood'

      b. *Anak-anak   itu   berlarian   keluar*
         child RED   the   run ITER   outside
         'The children ran outside repeatedly'

      c. *Tamu-tamu sudah   berdatangan   ke tempat   itu*
         guest RED   SUDAH   come ITER   to place   the
         'The guests have come (in groups or individually)
         to the place'

In (149a, b, c) each of the verbs has action-locative meaning, that is, it expresses an activity or an action and it is followed by a locative such as *ke hutan* 'to the woods', *keluar* 'outside', *ke tempat itu* 'to the place'; each of the verbs also has a coreferential agent and object. That is, in Tampubolon's terms (1983, p. 116), *burung-burung itu* 'the birds', *anak-anak itu* 'the children' and *tamu-tamu* 'the guests' are respectively the agent (A) and the object (O). If a verb does not have the properties referred to, then the *ber- + an* iterative aspect is ruled out as in (149d). The example is from Tampubolon (1983, p. 116).

(149) d. **Gadis-gadis   itu   bermerahan   bibir*
         girl RED   the   BERMERAHAN (ITER)   lips
         '*The girls BERMERAHAN (ITER) their lips'

(149d) is ungrammatical for the basic verb *merah* 'red', to use Tampubolon's term, is a state. In order for *ber- + an* iterative aspect to operate the verb must be an action-locative verb.

iii. <u>Reduplication of the word-base</u>:

Depending on the aspectual character of the verb, a reduplicated verb-base can show iterative meaning in Indonesian languages (Fokker, 1960, p. 42). Fokker states that *"Pengulangan kata untuk menyatakan aspek ialah suatu gejala yang amat banyak tersebar dalam bahasa-bahasa Indonesia"* (Lit: The use of a redu-plicated word to express aspectual reference is a pervasive phenomenon in Indonesian languages). Rosen (1974) shows that in <u>BI</u> "reduplication of the word-base can also mean to do something many or several times" (p. 4). This concurs with the definition of iterativity in <u>BI</u> adopted in this study. Rosen (1974, p. 5) then adds that "the use of reduplication to indicate repetition is very productive in <u>BI</u> (<u>Bahasa Indonesia</u>)" (p. 5). The following examples are quoted to support this claim.

(150) a. <u>*Berganti-ganti*</u> *warna,* *baik* *hanya* *satu-satu warna*
change RED/ITER colour either only one RED colour
saja, *maupun* *pelangi*
just or-PUN rainbow/a whole spectrum of colours
(<u>Horison</u>, April, 1986, p. 129)
'Changing (repeatedly) in colour, either changing in one
colour or in the whole spectrum of colours'

b. *Ia* <u>*tertawa-tawa*</u> *kecil* *sambil* <u>*mengetuk-ngetukkan*</u>
he laugh RED/ITER little while tap RED/ITER
pinsil *di* *mejanya*
pencil on table-NYA
(<u>Horison</u>, April, 1986, p. 131)
'He laughed (repeatedly) a little simultaneously
tapping his pencil repeatedly on the table'

c. *Bila* *masih* *juga* *menjawab,* *aku* *kerap kali tertawa*
if still too reply I often laugh
keras-keras sampai pak Kardi <u>*menggedor-gedor* *meja*</u>
loudly RED until Mr Kardi hit RED/ITER table
dimukanya, *merasa* *terganggu*
in front of-NYA feel disturbed

(Horison, April, 1986, p. 131)

'If (he) still replied, too, I often laughed my head off
so loudly that Mr. Kardi hit the table in front of him
repeatedly feeling disturbed'

d. *Asisten*   *ini*   *disebut-sebut*   *mempunyai*
junior lecturer this   mentioned RED/ITER   have
hubungan   *erat*   *dengan*   *salah seorang*   *pembantu*
association close   with   one of   deputy
rektor   *yang*   *berpengaruh*
Vice-Chancellor LIG   very influential
(Horison, April, 1986, p. 132)

'This Junior Lecturer is often reported to
have a close association with one of the deputy
Vice-Chancellors who is very influential'

e. *Namaku*   *disebut-sebut*   *sebagai*   *wartawan*
name-my   be quoted RED/ITER   as   journalist
yang   *berhasil*
LIG   successful
(Horison, June, 1987, p. 196)

'My name is quoted repeatedly as a successful journalist'

f." *Saya*   *tidak*   *meragukan lagi*   *kegigihan saudara*
I   not   doubt   any more   perseverance   your
mencari   *berita*   *yang*   *membutuhkan*   *partisipasi",*
collect   news   LIG   require   participation
katanya   *seraya*   *bangkit*   *dari*   *duduknya*   *dan*
say-NYA   while   stand up   from   sit-NYA   and
menepuk-nepuk   *pundakku*
tap RED/ITER   shoulder-my
(Horison, June, 1987, p. 210)

'"I do not doubt your perseverance any more in collecting
news which require participation", he said standing up
from his seat and tapping my shoulder repeatedly.'

g. *Atau mungkin aku akan* *diburu-buru*   *perasaan berdosa,*
or perhaps   I   will   pursued RED/ITER   feeling sinned
karena   *guru*   *yang kuberitakan*   *itu telah berubah*
because teacher LIG   I-report   the   TELAH changed
menjadi orang gila yang mengembara dari kota ke kota
become lunatic   LIG   wander   from city to city
(Horison, June, 1987, p. 210).

'Or perhaps, I would feel being pursued/haunted by the
feeling of guilt because the teacher I reported has already
been changed into to a lunatic wandering from city to
city'

The reduplicated word-base can be either *ber-* + *reduplicated*
word-base, as in (150a);*ter-* + *reduplicated word-base,* as in

(150b); *meN- + reduplicated word-base,* as in (150c, f); *meN- + reduplicated word-base + -kan,* as in (150b) and *di- + reduplicated word-base,* as in (150e, g).* The reduplicated word-base in (150a, b, c, d, e, f, g) coupled with each of the aspectual characters contained does show iterative aspect. The wide distribution as shown by various prefixes used serves to support the claim that the use of a reduplicated word-base to express iterative aspect in BI is very productive.

iv. <u>Lexicalised Iterative Aspect:</u>

Lexicalised Iterative Aspect in BI seems to be expressed by using (a) lexical word(s) which express(es) repetition of the situation expressed in succession such as *berkali-kali berturut-turut* 'repeatedly . . . in succession' as in a hypothetical sentence (148b).

(148)b. *Dia* <u>*berkali-kali berturut-turut mendatangi*</u>
s/he repeatedly in succession (ITER) visit
orang asing itu
foreigner the
'S/he repeatedly visited the foreigner in succession'

Unfortunately, the lexical words *berkali-kali berturut-turut* 'repeatedly . . . in succession' used to express iterative aspect in (148b) are not found in the data.

5.5.4 "Durative" Aspect

Fokker (1960, p. 40) observes that so-called "durative" aspect in BI is used to express the length or "duration" of a situation. No instances of "durative' aspect in the data of the present study are found. Fokker provides the following examples (1960, pp. 40-41).

(151) a. *Saudaranya perempuan* <u>*ada*</u> *beranak seorang*
relative-NYA female DUR have a
laki-laki
son RED
'Her/his female relative does have a son'

b. *Ia* <u>*ada*</u> *menaruh maksud jahat*

    s/he   DUR have   intention   bad
    'S/he does have bad intentions'

c. *Ishak ada menulis buku*
    Ishak DUR write   book
    'Ishak does write a book/books'

d. *Tiap-tiap manusia ada berhak*
    every RED man   DUR   have the right
    mengurus penghidupannya sendiri
    lead   life-NYA   own
    'Every man does have a right to lead his
    own life'

e. *Saya ada sanggup membayar ongkos*
    I   DUR have the ability pay for   cost
    'I do have the ability to pay for the cost'

Fokker (1960, p. 41) states that *ada* here is often used to intensify or to contrast the situation expressed. In spoken BI *ada* can be used to express or mark the intensification and is accented.

5.5.5 Habitual Aspect

Comrie (1976, pp. 27-28) states that there is a common feature to all habituals, whether or not they are iterative. This common feature is the "characteristic of an extended period of time", that is, "a characteristic feature of a whole period" (1976, p. 28). Habituality, Comrie observes (1976, p. 27), is different from iterativity in two respects. First, mere repetition of a situation does not necessarily constitute habituality. Second, habituality may not involve iterativity.

Habitual aspect in BI is expressed by a lexical word and the corresponding verbal morphology which is for present time reference. In other words, to express habitual aspect, BI uses particles which are used to express a feature which is characteristic of an extended period of time or a whole period of time. (152a) shows how different verb forms are used to express habitual aspect. The use of *sering menyebut-nyebut* in (152b) expresses habitual aspect. This phenomenon is made possible only because habitual aspect in BI is lexicalised. Mere presence of a habitual

aspect particle or time reference marker, such as *setiap hari* 'every day' conveys the notion of habitual aspect.

(152) a. *Dia pergi ke kantor setiap hari*
s/he go to office everyday + HAB
(belanja, menulis sajak, bermain pingpong,
(go shopping write a poem play pingpong
mencari uang, lupa akan bukunya, disuruh bekerja,
look for money forget her/his books be hired
terkecoh, khawatir, mempersoalkan masalah itu,
be deceived worried discuss problem the
berpura-pura, lari pagi, etc.)
pretend run in the morning, etc.)
'S/he goes to her/his office everyday'
(goes shopping, writes a poem, plays pingpong,
works/looks for money, forgets her/his book(s), is
hired, is deceived, is worried, discusses the matter,
pretends, runs in the morning'

b. *Orang sering menyebut-nyebut, bahwa novel yang anda*
people often state RED/ITER that novel LIG you
tulis tidak mempunyai alur yang kuat'
write not have theme LIG strong + HAB
(Horison, April, 1987, p. 117).
'People often say (+ iterative aspect) that the novels you
write do not have strong themes'

If one wishes to indicate past habitual aspect in BI, one can do it simply by using an appropriate past time reference marker such as *bulan yang lalu* 'last month', *dulu* 'in the distant past' *pada tahun 1980* 'in 1980', etc., in sentences which express habitual aspect. Thus, putting *bulan yang lalu* 'last month' in (152a), one will automatically express past habitual aspect as in (153).

(153) *Dia pergi ke kantor setiap hari bulan yang lalu*
s/he go to office everyday month LIG last+ HAB
(belanja, menulis sajak, bermain pingpong)
(go shopping, write poems,play pingpong)
'S/he used to go to her/his office everyday last month'
(used to go shopping, used to write poems, used to
play pingpong)

Thus, unlike English which uses *used to* to express past habitual aspect, BI mainly uses the combination of lexicalised habitual aspect with a compatible past time adverb. On the other hand, in

(154) ᴜecause the past time adverb is incompatible with the habitual aspect conveyed, it is rendered ungrammatical.

(154) *Dia   pergi   ke   kantor   *setiap hari   kemarin*
      s/he go   to   office   everyday   yesterday'
      '*S/he used to go to the office everyday yesterday'

There is, however, an interesting phenomenon with regard to *dulu/ dahulu* 'distant past time' in relation to past habitual aspect. In a sense, *dulu/dahulu* seems to be close to the meaning of the English *used to*, as in (155).

(155) a. *Dia   dulu   tinggal   di sini*
         s/he   formerly   live   here + HAB
         'S/he used to live here'

      b. *Itu   semua   dulu   tidak   ada*
         that   all   formerly   not   exist + HAB
         (Horison, January,1987, p. 6).
         'Those all did not (use to) exist'

      c. *Jadi,   berbagai unsur   pokok   peradaban   yang*
         so   various   element major   civilisation   LIG
         dahulu   tidak berkembang sekarang kita   tingkatkan
         formerly   not   develop   now   we (incl.) improve
         mutunya
         quality-NYA + HAB
         (Horison, January, p. 6).
         'So, various major elements of the former civilisation
         which did not use to develop are now being improved
         qualitatively'.

It cannot, without further investigation, be claimed that *used to* and *dulu/dahulu* are fully equivalent.

Djajasudarma (1985, p. 67-68) indicates that habitual aspect in BI is expressed by particles such as *selalu* 'always', *biasa* 'commonly', *sering-kali* 'often', *berkali-kali* 'many times', *sering-sering* 'often', *kerapkali* 'often', *acap kali* 'often', *beberapa kali* 'sometimes', *kadang-kadang* 'occasionally', *jarang* 'seldom', *sekali-sekali* 'once in a while', etc. Basically, this study also maintains, in line with Djajasudarma's observation, that habitual aspect in BI is lexically expressed. The following examples are from Djajasudarma (1985).

(156) a. *Jawaban atas   pertanyaan-pertanyaan itu <u>selalu</u>*
   answer to question RED the always + HAB
   tidak   memuaskan (J/al 5/7)
   not satisfactory
   'Answers to these questions are always un-
   satisfactory'
 b. *la   bisa   membaca   karangannya <u>berkali-kali</u>   pada*
   s/he can read article-NYA many times RED on
   hari   pemuatannya   itu   (Js/al 3/10)
   day appear for publication-NYA the + HAB
   'S/he could read her/his article many times on the day
   it appeared for publication'
 c. *Barang-barang   itu   <u>jarang</u>   dijual   di sini (bL)*
   item RED that rarely for sale here + HAB
   'Those items are rarely for sale here'

If (156b) is taken not to convey a characteristic feature of an
extended period of time, the situation in (156b) seems to be
limited to one day, that is, on the day of the article in question
was published. But if (156b) is intended to express a charac-
teristic feature of an extended period of time from past to
present to describe a writer who has the habit of sending his
story to a magazine or newspaper and to read it over and over on
the day of its publication, it may be taken to express habitual
aspect as shown in the gloss.

5.5.6   Accidental Aspect

Verhaar (1984a, p. 7) identifies what is so-called "acci-
dental" aspect, or using his term the "accidental" intransitive. The
meaning of this aspect conveys the notion of being devoid of de-
liberateness (Verhaar, 1984a, p. 10), and hence the term "acci-
dental" is introduced. This aspect is formed by *ter + intransitive
verbs* as well as *ter + transitive verbs*. The verb has to be mono-
morphermic (1984a, pp. 7,10). The following examples are from
Verhaar (1984a).

 (157) a. *terbakar* '(to be) accidentally burnt'
   tergilas '(to be) accidentally run over/crushed'
   terlewati '(to be) accidentally passed by by mistake

b. *ternganga* 'to have one's mouth wide open'
terjatuh 'to fall down accidentally'
tergelincir 'to slip'

Each of (157a) is derived from a transitive verb while each of (157b) an intransitive verb.

5.5.7 Aspect of Presence

In discussing the difference between passive and zero passive[7] in BI, Kaswanti Purwo (1984, pp. 253-54) postulates the existence of *aspek* hadir 'aspect of presence' in BI. This is the verbal property of zero passive which is considered more real and more concrete than the passive using *di + ... + nya*. Thus, (158a) is rejected as the passive *dikerjakannya* does not express the concreteness of the situation conveyed as (158b) does. Similarly, (159a) is rejected while (159b) is accepted on similar grounds although the English glosses for all of the examples seems to be acceptable. The examples are from Kaswanti Purwo (1984, pp. 253-54).

(158) a. *Hal   itu   harus   *dikerjakannya   sekarang*
      thing   that   have to   be do-NYA   right now
      'That thing has to be done by him right now'

    b. *Hal   itu   harus   dia kerjakan   sekarang*
      thing   that   have to   he do   PRE   right now
      'That thing he has to do right now'

(159) a.*Saya minta hal ini supaya *dikerjakannya dengan*
       I request thing this in order that be done-NYA with
       segera
       soon
       'I requested (him) in order that this thing will be done by
       him soon'

    b.*Saya minta hal ini supaya dia kerjakan dengan segera*
      I request thing this in order that he do   with soon PRE
      'I requested (him) in order that he do this thing soon'

5.5.8 Simulfactive Aspect, Aspect of Instantaneity or Immediacy, Aspect of Continuation, Aspect of Persistence or Permanence

Several aspectual distinctions which are related to the internal temporal structure of a situation in BI are postulated. Provisionally, the following terms are used: **a.** Simulfactive Aspect; **b.** Aspect of Instantaneity; **c.** Aspect of Continuation; **d.** Aspect of Persistence or Permanence. There are, no doubt, other aspectual distinctions in BI which are not included in the present discussion.

5.5.8.1 Simulfactive Aspect

Simulfactive Aspect[8] is used to refer to the simultaneity of a situation with another situation. The use of the term is not without ground. In Latin *simul* means 'at the same time' (Webster's New . . . , 1978, p. 1693; The Oxford English . . . , 1989, p. 2122) and *factive*, although obsolete can be shown to mean 'making' (Webster's New . . . , 1978, p. 656; The Oxford English . . . , 1989, p. 653). Thus a situation is described as conveying simulfactive aspect if it occurs simultaneously with another situation.

To express simulfactive aspect, that is, a simultaneity of a situation with another situation, BI uses the following particles *sambil*[9], *seraya*[9], *sembari*[9], which all roughly can be glossed 'simultaneously' in English. Specifically, *sambil* means 'while, simultaneously, at the same time' (See Echols and Shadily, 1963, p. 312; Masri, 1973, p. 423); *seraya* 'simultaneousiy, while, during which, at the same time' (See Echols and Shadily, 1963, p. 330; Masri, 1973, p. 454); *sembari* 'while' (Echols and Shadily, 1963, p. 326). It seems that most widely used particle among the three to indicate simulfactive aspect is *sambil* as it can be used either in formal or informal circumstances. *Sembari* seems to be informal

in nature as it is confined to less formal setting. *Seraya* seems to be closer to *sambil* than to *sembari*. But on the whole it could be said that *sambil, seraya* and *sembari* can be used to express simulfactive aspect in <u>BI</u>. Observe the following.

(160) a. *"Tidak! Tidakk!", teriak Sugeng Domino <u>sambil</u>*
         no   no   shout Sugeng Domino SIM
         membelalakkan matanya   yang penuh karisma
         stare wide-eyed -NYA   LIG full   charm
         (<u>Horison</u>, April, 1987, p. 138)
         '"No! No!", shouted Sugeng Domino, staring wide-eyed
         full of charm'.

    b. *Bilal mengangkat dadanya, <u>sembari</u> mengepalkan tangan*
         Bilal raise   chest-NYA SIM   clench   fist
         (<u>Horison</u>, April, 1987, p. 139)
         'Bilal raised his chest (simultaneously) clenching his
         fist'

    c. *. . . Kerabat duduk saja <u>sambil</u> memandangi*
          Kerabat sit   just   SIM   look at
         bunga-bunga   amarillis . . . .
         flower RED   amarillis
         (<u>Horison</u>, January, 1987, p. 27)
         ' . . . Kerabat just sat looking at the amarillis flowers'

    d. *"Lihat sendiri, betul tidak?" lalu, <u>sambil</u> tersenyum*
         look at   self   true not   then SIM   smile
         bangga, langsung mengayunkan kapak yang ada
         proud   INST   swing   axe   LIG   be
         di   tangan kanannya
         in   hand   right-NYA
         (<u>Horison</u>, August, 1987, p. 285)
         ' "Look at (this) yourself, isn't it true?" then
         smiling proudly (he) swung his axe in his right hand at
         once'

    e. *Ia berjalan ke   tengah lapangan bola dan berdiri*
         he walk towards middle field   ball and stand
         di sana <u>sambil</u>   memandang langit . . . .
         there SIM   look at   sky
         (<u>Horison</u>, September, 1986, p. 389)
         'He was walking towards the middle of the football
         field, standing there looking at the sky'

    f. *"Saya tidak meragukan kegigihan   saudara mencari*
         I   not doubt   determination your   look for
         berita yang membutuhkan partisipasi", katanya
         news LIG require   participation say-NYA
         <u>seraya</u> bangkit dari duduknya dan menepuk-nepuk

```
SIM     get up  from sit-NYA  and tap RED/ITER
pundakku
shoulder-my
```
(Horison, June, 1987, p. 210)
'"I do not doubt your determination to look for
news which requires participation" he said
while getting up from his seat and tapping my
shoulder repeatedly'

In (160) each situation with *sambil, seraya, sembari* expresses simultaneity with another situation. For example, in (160a), Sugeng Domino shouted and (simultaneously) staring wide-eyed full of charm.

Djajasudarma (1985), apparently discussing a similar phenomenon, indicates that a situation with *sambil* is perfective. In Djajasudarma's terms, a situation with *sambil* is described as *perfektif tengah* 'middle perfective'. The term perfective is not used in this study to refer to this phenomenon since in terms of its internal structure a situation with *sambil, seraya* or *sembari* is characterised by simultaneity, some sort of progressivity and hence it is appropriately described as imperfective rather than perfective.

5.5.8.2 Aspect of Instantaneity or Immediacy

To indicate that a situation is viewed to take place immediately or instantly BI uses *langsung* 'direct, straight, at once, suddenly, etc.,' (See Echols and Shadily, 1963, p. 212; Masri, 1973, p. 268), which is normally placed directly before the verb. In (161) each of the verbs is preceded by *langsung* to indicate the aspect of instantaneity or immediacy.

(161) a. *Saya perlihatkan pada pejabat kabupaten bahwa*
      I   show   to   functionary regency   that
      saya bisa membawa mesin cetak ini sampai
      I   can   carry   printing machine this as far as
      ke desa-desa terpencil dan langsung mencetak kartu
      to village RED remote and INST   print   card
      penduduk

local citizen
(Horison, September, 1986, p. 388)
'I showed the regency functionary that I could carry
this printing machine with me as far as to remote
villages and print identity cards for the local citizens
on the spot'

b. *Tanpa   banyak   bicara   tangannya   langsung kena*
without so much talk   hand-NYA INST   hit
pangkal   telinga   saya
lower end   ear   my
(Horison, September, 1986, p. 388)
'Without so much talk his hand suddenly hit the
lower end of my ear'

c. *Begitu   saya   bangun,   bangun pelan-pelan , ia*
no sooner had I   get ut   get up slowly RED   he
langsung   mengirim   tinju   kedua
INST   send   punch second
(Horison, September, 1986, p. 388)
'No sooner had I got up — very slowly — when he
suddenly landed his second punch on me'

d. *Aku   langsung   teringat   Haji Abdulghaib*
I   INST   remember   Haj Abdulghaib
(Horison, August, 1986, p. 283)
'I immediately remembered Haj Abdulghaib'

e.   . . . *sambil   tersenyum   bangga,   langsung*
SIM   smile   proud   INST
mengayunkan kapak yang ada di tangan kanannya
swing   axe   LIG   be   in   hand   right-NYA
(Horison, August, 1987, p. 285)
' . . . smiling proudly, (he) swung his axe straight
in his right hand'

f. . . .*saya   langsung   memungut 'Jakarta Courier'   dari*
I   INST   pick up   'Jakarta Courier'   from
depan rumah, . . .
porch
(Horison, June, 1987, p. 193)
' . . . I picked up 'Jakarta Courier' directly from the porch'

g. . . . *lalu   langsung   mencari   wawancara yang*
then   INST   look for   interview   LIG
dimaksud   oleh   Fifi   itu
referred to by   Fifi   the
(Horison, June, 1987, p. 193)
' . . . then at once (I) was looking for the interview which
was referred to by Fifi'

In each sentence of (161) the use of *langsung* indicates aspect of

immediacy or instantaneity. For example, in (161a) the speaker prints the identity card on the spot while he travels from one remote village to another; in (161f) the speaker picks up 'Jakarta Courier' directly from the porch'. It is also observed that *langsung* can be used with a state as in (116d); events (161b, c, e, f) and processes (161a, g).

In a limited instance, *terus,* which can be approximately glossed as 'continued, direct(ly), etc.,' can also be used to convey aspect of immediacy or instantaneity, as in (162).

(162) *Saya* <u>*terus*</u> *jatuh*
    I   INST   fall down
    (Horison, September, 1986, p. 388)
    'I immediately/suddenly fell down'

In (162), *terus* can be replaced with *langsung* without changing the meaning. Conversely, *langsung* in (161c, d, e, f, g) can be replaced by *terus* but not in (161a, b). In (161a, b) aspect of continuation is not expressed, perhaps if it is expressed the use of *terus* in place of *langsung* will not change the meaning.

5.5.8.3   Aspect of Continuation

This aspect is used to indicate that a situation keeps on continuing that it is viewed as continuing persistently against a background of of potential cessation. This aspect is different from the progressive aspect in that the sense of progressivity of the situation is already present. What is crucial here is the fact that the situation keeps on continuing. To express this kind of aspect <u>BI</u> uses *terus* as in the following.

(163) a. *Mereka* <u>*terus*</u> *bersilat lidah tanpa memperhatikan*
      they   CONT   argue   without take notice of
      aku   *selaku* *ketua*   *rapat*
      me   as   chairman meeting
      (Horison, August, 1986, p. 283)
      'They continued arguing taking no notice of me as
      the chairman of the meeting'
   b. *Dan dia* <u>*terus*</u> *saja mengajak aku untuk*

and he   CONT   just   ask   me   to
ngomong-ngomong   tanpa   bisa   kuhentikan
chat RED   without   can   I-stop
(Horison, August, 1986, p. 282)
'And he kept on asking me to chat which I failed to stop'
    c. *Marilah   terus   berjoang   dan   melawan*
let's-LAH   CONT   fight   and   resist
(Horison, April, 1987, p. 139)
'Let's keep on fighting and resisting'
    d. *Kesepian   malam   terus   menghidupkan kembali*
loneliness   night   CONT   bring back to life
pelbagai   kenangan   saya
all sorts of   memory   my
(Horison, June, 1987, p. 19?)
'The loneliness at night kept on bringing back to life all
sorts of my memories'
    e. *Sedangkan   Banda   masih   terus   membaca   makalah*
whereas   Banda   still   CONT   read   paper
di   mimbar
in platform
(Horison, July, 1986, p. 241)
'Whereas Banda still kept on reading his paper
on the platform'

In (163) the use of *terus* expresses the aspect of continuation. It seems that depending on the aspectual character of the verb, *terus* can be used to express the aspect of immediacy or instantaneity as well as the aspect of continuation. At present an adequate account of this behaviour of *terus* cannot be provided before further observation is carried out.

5.5.8.4   Aspect of Persistence or Permanence

Aspect of persistence   indicates that the situation expressed persists or continues persistently. In BI, this kind of aspect is expressed by the use of *tetap* which is placed before the verb or the situation in question. Literally, *tetap* approximately means 'firm, fixed, permanent, same, constant, persistent, determined, definite(ly), steady, still, etc.,' in English (See Echols and Shadily, 1963, p. 381; Masri, 1973, p. 528). Observe (164a, b, c, d, e, f, g).
    (164) a.*Ternyata Mansur Samin dari dulu   hingga*

turn out   Mansur   Samin   from   distant past   up to
sekarang   masih   tetap   dipanggil — "Kak Mansur" . . .
now   still   PERS   be called   "Brother Mansur"
(Horison, January, 1987, p. 9)
'It turns out that from the distant past up
to now Mansur Samin has still been constantly called
"Brother Mansur"'

  b. *Aku   yang   selalu   menyertaimu   dan   harus   tetap*
     I   LIG   always   accompany-you   and   must   PERS
    selalu   mendampingimu
    always   be with you
    (Horison, May, 1986, p. 175)
    '*Aku* (Self) who always accompanies you and must always
    constantly be with you'

  c. *Kawan-kawan   kita   yang   menyerah,   tetap*
    friend RED   we (incl.) LIG   surrender   PERS
    ditembakkk
    be shot
    (Horison, April, 1987, p. 139)
    'Our friends who surrendered, they were still shot'

  d. *Saya   tetap   dianggap   kelompok   kelas   dua*
    I   PERS   be considered   group   class   second
    (Horison, March, 1987, p. 102)
    'I am still considered a member of the second class
    group'

  e. *Saya   tak tahu   apakah   jawaban   penjaga*
    I   not   know   INT (yes/no question)   answer   keeper
    kios   itu   jujur   ataukah   sekedar   reklame
    kiosk   the   honest   or-KAH   only   advertisement
    agar   saya   tetap   membeli   perekat   tikus
    so that   I   PERS   buy   glue   mouse
    (Horison, January, 1986, p. 31)
    'I did not know whether the answer of the kiosk keeper
    was honest or whether it was just an advertisement so
    that I would still buy the mouse glue'.

  f. *Saya   tetap   minta   bantuan   hakim   itu*
    I   PERS   ask   help   lawyer   the
    (Horison, January, 1986, p. 32)
    'I will still ask the help of the lawyer'

  g. *Komar   masih   tetap   pada   keyakinannya*
    Komar   still   PERS   on   belief-his
    (Horison, August, 1986, p. 278)
    'Komar still persistently sticks to his belief'

In (164) each of the situations conveyed persists in one way or
another, and hence the term aspect of persistence or permanence

is introduced.

5.5.9 Perfect and *belum* or non-performed situation/s
5.5.9.1 Perfect

Dahl (1985, p. 129) states that the category of perfect is legitimate cross-linguistically. In his investigation he shows that a wide range of languages exhibit the category of perfect including BI (p. 130).

The study adopts the observation made by Macdonald and Dardjowidjojo (1967, pp.162-64) who show that there are three particles which can be used to express the notion of perfect in BI: *sudah, telah* and *pernah.* Note that these particles can also be used to convey past time reference.

In general *sudah* and *telah,* which in English roughly mean 'already, ever, etc.,' can be used to indicate that the situation referred to has come to an end — it has been completed. Gonda (1954, p. 250) observes that *sudah,* which is frequently used to indicate termination in point of time, means "accomplished, finished, over". I would argue that *sudah* and *telah* convey the sense of perfect of result as defined by Comrie (1976, p. 56) as the result of some past action. In this sense *telah* and *sudah* are interchangeable as in the following.

(165) a. *Saya* <u>*sudah*</u> *terpengaruh ulah Kerabat*
      I   SUDAH be influenced manner Kerabat
      (<u>Horison</u>, January, 1987, p. 30)
      'I have been influenced by Kerabat's manner'

    b. *Dengan begitu kematiannya* <u>*sudah*</u> *kita*
      with   thus   death-HIS   SUDAH we (incl.)
      anggap sah   dan wajar
      consider legitimate and natural
      (<u>Horison</u>, April, 1987, p.135)
      'And thus we have considered his death legitimate
      and natural'

    c. *Beberapa orang* <u>*telah*</u> *datang lagi dengan*
      several   people   TELAH arrive   again with
      berturut-turut menawar saling   mengungguli
      in succession   offer   one another exceed

(Horison, January, 1987, p. 33)
'Several people have returned again stating their offer
exceeding one another in succession'

d. . . . *saya* *telah* *mencapai* *titik akhir batas*
       I   TELAH reach   point last limit
kesabaran *dalam* *diam*
patience in   silence
(Horison, January, 1987, p. 30)
' . . . I had come to the point where my patience
in silence could stand no longer'

In each sentence of (165) *telah* and *sudah* are interchangeable.

Both *telah* and *sudah*, although in some cases interchange-
able, are semantically and syntactically different (Mcdonald and
Dardjowidjojo, 1967, p.162; Kaswanti Purwo, 1984, p. 228). Syn-
tactically, for example, *sudah* has a different distribution from
telah as is shown in the following. First, *sudah* can be followed by
-*kah* particle as in (166a) but *telah* cannot. Second, *sudah* can be
followed by -*lah* particle as in (166b) to convey emphasis but
telah cannot. Third, *sudah* can be inverted as in (166c) whereas
telah cannot. Finally, *sudah* can stand alone functioning as a
clause as in (166d) but *telah* cannot. The following examples are
quoted by Kaswanti Purwo (1984, p. 229).

(166) a. *Sudahkah*   *Radio Australia* *memenuhi*
      SUDAH-KAH (yes/no question) Radio Australia   meet
      syarat   *itu?*
      requirement the
      (Tempo, March 17, 1968, p. 26)
      'Has Radio Australia met such a requirement?'

b. *Kedua* *hal* *di ataslah* *yang* *rupanya* *mendorong ke*
    both   point above-LAH LIG   seem   trigger   to
    arah   *terciptanya*   *pola*   *dalam pengesahan*
    direction create-NYA   model in   endorsement
    RAPBN *oleh* *DPR.* *Jika* *DPR* *mempunyai cukup*
    RAPBN by   DPR   if   DPR have   sufficient
    "*rallying power*", *pola* *di atas* *sudahlah* *baik.*
    "rallying power" pattern above   SUDAHLAH good
    Pola *itu* *sendiri* *sebetulnya* . . . .
    model   the self   actually
    (Kompas, March, 1979, p. IV)

'Both of the above points seem to trigger the way
to create a model in the endorsement of RAPBN
(State Annual Budget Plans) by the DPR (People's
Representatives Council).
If the People's Representatives Council has sufficient
rallying power the above pattern is already good.
The pattern itself is actually'

c. . . . *akhirnya SK Gubernur Jabar pun   dicabut —*
     at last   SK governor Jabar-PUN be revoked
     24 Februari 1979. Dan lengkaplah   sudah   surat-surat
     24 February 1979 and complete-LAH SUDAH letter RED
     yang dicabut   sehingga . . .
     LIG   be revoked so that
     (Tempo, March 31, 1979)
     ' . . . finally the letter of appointment for the West
     Java Governor was revoked — February 24,
     1979. And that completed all the letters that were
     revoked so that . . . '

d. . . . *Makanlah   dulu.*
           Have a meal-LAH first
     Sudah, di jalan
     SUDAH in   street/way
     (Badai Pasti Berlalu, 44)
     'Have your meal first'.
     'I had it, on my way here'

Kaswanti Purwo goes on to indicate that the semantic difference
between *telah* and *sudah* is reflected in their antonyms. In (167a,
b) *sudah* can be contrasted with *belum* while *telah* in (167c) can
be contrasted with *akan.* These examples are from Kaswanti
Purwo (1984, p. 230).

(167) a. *Tuntutan hak asasi   semacam itu sudah tentu*
         demands human rights such   the SUDAH certainly
         berbau   "Barat"
         be influenced Western
         (Tempo, March, 1979, p.14)
         'Such demands of human rights have certainly been
         under the Western influence'

    b. *Sebaiknya   engkau belajar mencinta sudah*
       preferably you   learn   love   SUDAH
       waktunya. Engkau sudah   tingkat lima
       time-NYA you   SUDAH stage   five
       (Badai Pasti Berlalu, p. 11)
       'Preferably you learn how to love; (your time) has

      arrived. You are already in the fifth year (of university
      study)'

  c. .... *Selain   perlawatan yang <u>telah</u>   dan   akan*
      .... In addition trip/visit LIG TELAH and will
      dilakukan ke berbagai negara termasuk Asia.
      be made   to various   country including Asia
      (<u>Kompas</u>, March 26, 1978, p. XVI)
      ' .... In addition to the (overseas) trips having been
      and will be made to various countries including Asia . . ..'

Sudah in (167a, b) contrasts with *belum* because the situations
expressed have already been performed. Because of this there
seems to be no expectation that the same situations will be
performed. Kaswanti Purwo (1984, p. 130) states that *belum*
expresses such expectation. *Telah* in (167c) contrasts with *akan*
because some of the situations expressed have already been
performed whereas some others will be performed. What is inter-
esting about *sudah* and *telah* in (167a, b, c) is that *sudah* and *telah*
in these examples are related to past time reference (See also
Kaswanti Purwo, 1984, p. 230).

      Kaswanti Purwo also indicates that the use of *telah* instead
of *sudah* has something to do with foregrounding as in (168). The
examples are quoted by Kaswanti Purwo (1984, p. 231).

  (168) a.<u>*Telah*</u> *meninggal dunia nenek   kami   tercinta . .*
  .   TELAH pass away   grandmother our (incl.) beloved
      'RIP our beloved Grandmother . . .'

    b. *Waktu kami sampai   di rumah sakit,   nenek*
      when we (incl.) reach   at hospital   grandmother
      <u>*sudah*</u>   *meninggal dunia*
      SUDAH   pass away
      'By the time/when we reached the hospital Grandma had
      passed away'

Kaswanti Purwo (1984, p. 231) states that in (168a) the situation
of the grandmother's death, which occurred in the past, is fore-
grounded. The news reported is made salient and presented as a
piece of new information. In (168b) with *sudah* what is made
salient is not the past situation (grandmother's death) *per se* but

the nuances expressed along with the past situation such as disappointment, sadness, and so so on. Therefore, in (168a) *telah* cannot be replaced by *sudah.*

Pernah is distinct from *telah* and *sudah*. Dahl states (1985, p. 139) that *pernah* is an experiential perfect. The experiential perfect, as Comrie puts it, "indicates that a given situation has held at least once during some time in the past leading to the present (1976, p. 58). This property is indicated by *pernah* in <u>BI</u>. Macdonald, et al., (1967, p. 163) in this regard also state that "the premodifier *pernah* is used to specify that the event referred to by the predicate takes place at least once". In (169) each situation conveyed has held at least once.

(169) a. *Saya   juga   <u>pernah</u>   muda*
        I   too   PERNAH   young
        (<u>Horison</u>, April, 1987, p. 132)
        'I was once young, too'

   b. *Tapi bagaimana dengan tanggapan Prof. Yus Badudu*
        but how about   remark   Profl. Yus Badudu
        yang <u>pernah</u> dimuat   di harian Kompas itu?
        LIG PERNAH be published in daily *Kompas* the
        (<u>Horison</u>, January, 1987, p. 5)
        'But how about Prof. Yus Badudu's remarks which
        had been published in the daily newspaper *Kompas* ?'

In addition to its singular or plural past time occurrences, *pernah* is also related to distant past time reference. Therefore (170a) is less acceptable as the past time reference is not distant; whereas (170b), by contrast, is acceptable as the time reference is located in the distant past.

(170) a. ?*Saya <u>pernah</u> ketemu dia   tadi   pagi*
        I   PERNAH   meet   him/her recent past morning
        '?I PERNAH met him/her this morning'

   b. *Saya   <u>pernah</u>   ketemu   dia   bulan yang lalu*
        I   PERNAH   meet   him/her month LIG   past
        'I PERNAH (once) met him/her last month'

Note that with *sudah* or*telah* there is no such restriction. Thus, if *pernah* in (170a) is replaced by *sudah* or *telah* it is perfectly

acceptable, as in (170c).

(170) c. *Saya* *telah/sudah* *ketemu dia tadi* *pagi*
        I TELAH/SUDAH   meet her/him recent past morning
        'I have met her/him this morning'

The Indonesian or BI perfect *sudah, telah* and *pernah* are unlike the English present perfect in that the Indonesian perfect can be used to refer to definite past time situations, that is, situations with definite past time adverbs such as *last week, last year, in 1970,* etc. The English present perfect, by contrast, does not allow such a collocation. Absence of such a restriction in the Indonesian perfect can perhaps be attributed to the fact that the notion of current relevance in the Indonesian perfect is mildly manifested. That is, it is not the dominant property of the Indonesian perfect. Thus, (171a, b, c) are all acceptable. Notice how the English glosses are realized.

(171) a. *Bulan* *yang* *lalu* *dia* *sudah* *ketemu* *saya*
            month LIG   last s/he SUDAH meet   me
            'S/he has met me (SUDAH). It was last month'
       b. *Bulan* *yang* *lalu* *dia* *telah* *ketemu* *saya*
            month LIG   last s/he TELAH meet   me
            'S/he has met me (TELAH). It was last month'
       c. *Bulan* *yang* *lalu* *dia* *pernah* *ketemu* *saya*
            month LIG   last s/he PERNAH meet   me
            'It was last month. S/he had met me once (PERNAH)'

There is, however, some kind of similarity between perfect in BI with that of the English present perfect. *Sudah* and *telah* (but not *pernah),* like the English present perfect, can collocate with present time adverbs, as in (172a).

(172) a. *Dia* *telah/sudah* *mengerti* *sekarang*
            s/he TELAH/SUDAH understand (it) now
            'S/he has understood (it) now'

Pernah does not collocate with present time adverb, hence the unacceptability of (172b).

(172)b. **Dia* *pernah* *mengerti* *sekarang*
            s/he PERNAH understand now
            '*S/he once[10]/has understood (it) now'

5.5.9.2 *Belum* or non-performed situation/s

Fokker (1960, p. 81) states that *belum* is an Indonesian aspectual marker. This type of situation is very productive in <u>BI</u> in the sense that any situation which is anticipated and which is in contrast to *sudah* and *telah* can be expressed by using a particle *belum* which is placed before the verb or the situation in question. Literally, in English *belum* may be glossed as 'not yet'. Kaswanti Purwo (1984, p. 130) states that *belum* expresses negation and anticipation by the speaker of the incoming situation expressed. *Belum* in (173) expresses the notion of anticipated situation and negation.

(173) a. *Karena   itu,   ia   belum   bisa   merelakan*
because that   he   not yet can   acquiesce in
(<u>Horison</u>, August, 1986, p. 276)
'Because of that he cannot/could not yet acquiesce in'

b. "*Sialan lu!   Gua   belum   ketemu dia,   kok,* "
omen you   I   not yet meet   him   really
kilahnya   sambil   meninjuku.
twist words-he SIM   hit-me
(<u>Horison</u>, April, 1986, p. 132)
' "To hell with you! I haven't met him yet, really"
he twisted words (and simultaneously) hitting me'

c. "*Sudah   lihat   'Jakarta Courier'   pagi   ini?*"
SUDAH   see   'Jakarta Courier'   morning this
tanya   Fifi.
ask   Fifi.
"*Belum.   Kenapa?   Ada kabar apa?*"
not yet why   be   news   what
(<u>Horison</u>, June, 1987, p. 193).
Lit: 'Did you see *Jakarta Courier* this morning?
Fifi asked.
No yet. Why? What's up?'

d. *Tiga   minggu genap   Kerabat belum   kelihatan*
three week   complete   Kerabat not yet   appear
lagi
again
(<u>Horison</u>, January, 1987, p. 33).
'In three full weeks Kerabat still did not show up again'

e. *Ning   masih   belum   sadar*
Ning   still   not yet conscious

(Horison, April, 1987, p. 136).

'Ning is still not yet conscious/is still unconscious'

f. *Belum pernah   seumur-umur keluarga ini berurusan*
not yet PERNAH same-age-RED family this have business
dengan Hansip, sampai   Hansip
with   HANSIP go so far as to HANSIP
datang   menanyai   kita,   seperti maling
come   interrogate us (incl.) as if   thief
(Horison, August, 1987, p. 284).

'Never in the history of this family has business with
HANSIP . . . HANSIP has gone so far as to interrogate us
as if we were thieves'

If a performed situation needs to be expressed *sudah* can replace *belum* as in (173g).

(173) a. *Karena itu, ia sudah   bisa   merelakan*
because that he SUDAH can   acquiesce in
'Because of that he could already acquiesce (in it)'

Kaswanti Purwo (1984, p. 230) notes that *belum*, like *akan*, indicates a situation which is posterior to the deictic centre but *belum* is used when the speaker expects the situation in question to happen, or when he knows that the situation has not yet been performed, or has not happened yet. Whether the existence of *belum* is legitimate to express aspectual meaning with non-performed situation/s cannot be determined at present before more evidence is accumulated.

5.6 Hypothetical Interaction Between Time Reference, Aspectual Reference, 'Perfect', 'Modal Auxiliaries' and time in BI

BI like English does also express possibility, necessity, imperative mood and subjunctive mood, and so on. These will be described below. Lyons' scales (1968, p. 308) of modality seem to be the appropriate framework on which the 'modal auxiliary' in BI is described. Suwarno (1985, p. 104) uses Lyons' scales of modality for BI modality as follows: the first scale of 'wish' and 'intention' *ingin* 'want', *mau* 'will, want', *hendak* 'want, wish, intend'; the second scale of 'necessity' and 'obligation' *harus*

'must, have to', *mesti* 'must'; the third scale of 'certainty' and 'possibility' *boleh* 'may, can', *dapat* 'can', *bisa* 'be able to, can'. Lyons (1968, p. 308) states that these scales grammatically mark the attitude of the speaker in different languages. Fig. 14d illustrates the interaction of time/temporal reference, 'perfect' 'modal auxiliary' and time in BI. There is no one-form-one meaning relationship with regard to these complexes. This fact is shown by the use of dotted lines.
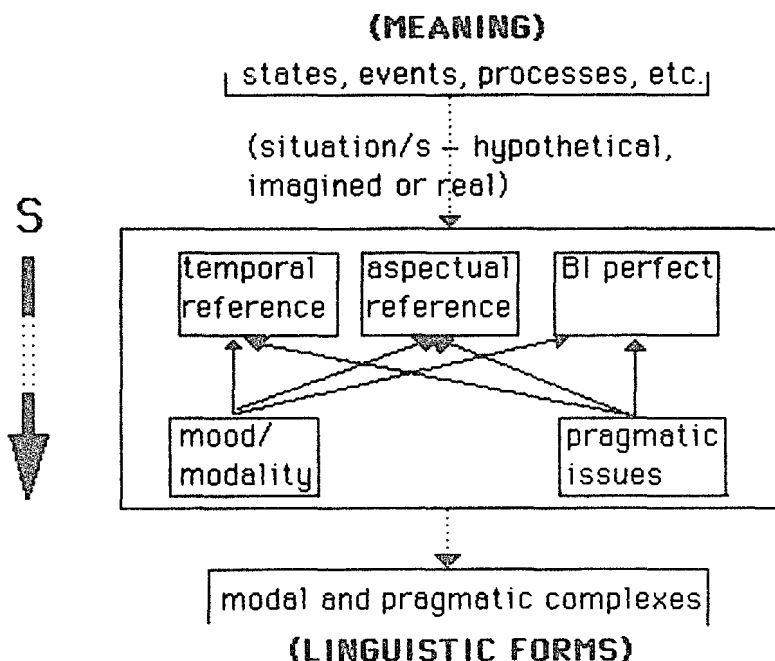
Fig. 14d: A model to describe the proposed interaction between temporal/time reference, aspectual reference, perfect, 'modal auxiliaries', time and other related phenomena in BI (See Section 3.8 Chapter III and Section 4.4.1.2 Chapter IV)

The following hypothetical examples show the interaction of iterative aspect with that of progressive aspect, tense/time reference, 'perfect', certain modal auxiliaries *harus, musti, dapat, boleh* and *belum*. See (174).

(174) a. *Dia   mengangguk-anggukkan   kepalanya*
s/he   nod RED/ITER   head-NYA
'S/he nods her/his head repeatedly'

b. *Dia   kemarin   mengangguk-anggukkan   kepalanya*
s/he   yesterday   nod RED/ITER   head-NYA

'S/he nodded her/his head repeatedly yesterday'

c. *Dia* <u>*setiap hari*</u> <u>*mengangguk-anggukkan*</u> *kepalanya*
s/he everyday nod RED/ITER head-NYA
'S/he nods her/his head repeatedly everyday'

d. *Dia* <u>*dulu biasa*</u> <u>*mengangguk-anggukkan*</u> *kepalanya*
s/he USED TO nod RED/ITER head-NYA
'S/he used to nod her/his repeatedly head '

e. *Dia* <u>*sedang*</u> <u>*mengangguk-anggukkan*</u> *kepalanya*
s/he SEDANG nod RED/ITER head-NYA
'S/he is/was nodding her/his head repeatedly'

f. *Dia* <u>*besok akan*</u> <u>*mengangguk-anggukkan*</u> *kepalanya*
s/he tomorrow will nod RED/ITER head-NYA
'S/he will/would nod her/his head repeatedly
tomorrow'

g. *Dia* <u>*telah*</u> <u>*mengangguk-anggukkan*</u> *kepalanya*
s/he TELAH nod RED/ITER head-NYA
'S/he has/had nodded her/his repeatedly head '

h. *Dia* <u>*belum*</u> <u>*mengangguk-anggukkan*</u> *kepalanya*
's/he not yet nod RED/ITER head-NYA
'S/he has/had not nodded her/his head repeatedly
yet'

i. *Dia* <u>*harus/musti*</u> <u>*mengangguk-anggukan*</u> *kepalanya*
s/he must/have to nod RED/ITER head-NYA
'S/he must/has to nod her/his head repeatedly'

j. *Dia* <u>*boleh*</u> <u>*mengangguk-anggukan*</u> *kepalanya*
s/he may nod RED/ITER head-NYA
'S/he may/might/can nod her/his head repeatedly'

k. *Dia* <u>*dapat*</u> <u>*mengangguk-anggukan*</u> *kepalanya*
s/he can/may nod RED/ITER head-NYA
'S/he can/may nod her/his head repeatedly'

In (174a), the iterative aspect is expressed explicitly; the tense is not expressed; the time reference is implicitly expressed with present as the unmarked time reference. (174b) expresses past time reference and iterative aspect. (174c) expresses habitual aspect *setiap hari* and iterative aspect. (174d) expresses past habitual aspect *used to* and iterative aspect. (174e) expresses progressive and iterative aspect but neither tense nor time reference is expressed explicitly. (174f) expresses iterative aspect and future time reference. Future-in-the-past may also be conveyed in (174f). (174g) expresses perfect and iterative aspect.

(174h) expresses iterative aspect and *belum* or a 'non-performed' situation. (174i) expresses iterative aspect and necessity or obligation *harus* or *musti.* (174j) expresses iterative aspect and possibility or permission *boleh.* (174k) expresses iterative aspect and permission or ability *boleh.* In short, iterative aspect can interact with compatible time reference to express a time-bound utterance, as in (174b, c, f). Iterative aspect also interacts with perfect as in (174g); progressive aspect as in (174e); modal auxiliaries as in (174i, j, k). Interestingly, (174i, j, k) may be used with explicit time reference markers *kemarin* 'yesterday' or *besok* 'tomorrow', etc., to express the meanings of Modal Auxiliaries in BI such as *ingin* 'want', *mau* 'will, want', *hendak* 'will, want, intend', *harus* 'must, have to', *mesti* 'must', *boleh* 'may', *dapat* 'can', *bisa* 'be able to/can', etc. When iterative aspect interacts with progressive aspect present or past time reference markers can be used as in (174l, m).

(174) l. *Dia* <u>*sedang*</u> <u>*mengangguk-anggukkan*</u> *kepalanya* <u>*saat ini*</u>
    s/he SEDANG nod RED/ITER   head-NYA now
    'S/he is nodding her/his head now/at present'
   m. *Dia* <u>*sedang*</u> <u>*mengangguk-anggukkan*</u> *kepalanya* <u>*waktu itu*</u>
    s/he SEDANG nod RED/ITER   head-NYA then
    'S/he was nodding her/his head then'

(174l) shows an interaction between progressive aspect, iterative aspect and present time reference whereas (174m) progressive aspect, iterative aspect and past time reference.

5.6.1 An Illustration of the actual interaction of Temporal or Time Reference, Aspectual Reference/Aspect, 'Perfect', 'Modal Auxiliaries, and time in BI.

A written interview published in <u>Horison</u> in January 1987 is used as the data for the description of the actual interaction of time or temporal reference, aspectual reference/aspect, 'perfect', 'modal auxiliaries', and time in BI. The Q/A (Question/Answer) ex-

changes form the basis on which the interaction of these cat-egories and the related phenomena including modal auxiliaries is described. These 19 Question/Answer (Q/A) written exchanges constitute the whole discourse of the interview with the title *Menggali Khazanah Yang Terselubung Dalam Bahasa* (Lit: Digging up the 'treasure' covered up in language). The title seems to express present time reference with respect to the here-and-now of the publication. Or if the title is viewed alone without considering the here-and-now of speech, it may be taken to express a time-less situation or proposition. That is, because the title does not express time reference explicitly it can be argued that it expresses either present, past, or future time reference. The following shows how each Question/Answer exchange (<u>T</u> stands for *tanya* 'question' and <u>J</u> stands for *jawab* 'answer') is described in terms of both implicit and explicit time reference, and in terms of the interaction between temporal/time reference, aspectual reference, <u>BI</u> perfect, modal auxiliaries and time.

Q/A1: The interviewer expresses explicit past time reference in the situation conveyed by using *beberapa waktu yang lalu* 'some time ago' which interacts with *sudah* or 'perfect'. *Sudah* here can also be taken to express explicit past time reference and the *sudah* meaning. He asks the interviewee's present reaction to the past situation. The interviewee uses implicit present time ref-erence using the present time reference expressed by the interviewer's question. The situation with the implicit present time reference interacts with the modal auxiliaries *tidak akan* 'will not', *tidak perlu* 'won't need/does not need'. Actually, *akan* here can also be taken to express future time reference explicitly.

T: *Gagasan menutup Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa ,*
   idea close centre   cultivation and development language
   seperti yang dikatakan Prof. Sutan Takdir Alisjahbana di

as   LIG   stated   Prof. Sutan Takdir Alisyahbana in
koran-koran   *beberapa waktu yang lalu* — *misalnya*   *dalam*
newspaper RED some   time LIG ago   for example in
Horison   edisi   Desember '86   ini —   *tentunya* *sudah*
Horison edition December '86   this   certainly SUDAH
pak Anton   ketahui. Lalu   apa   kira-kira   tanggapan
Mr. Anton   know   then   what approximately reaction
pak Anton tentang itu?
Mr. Anton   about   that
'The idea of closing down the Language Cultivation and
Development Centre as stated by Prof. Sutan Takdir
Alisyahbana in the newspaper some time ago, for example, in
Horison December '86 edition — certainly was already known
by Pak Anton. Then what is Pak Anton's possible reaction to
that?'

J: *Saya   tidak akan   menjawab apa-apa.   Oleh menteri saya,*
I   not will   answer   thing RED by   minister my
saya   disarankan   untuk   tidak perlu   menanggapi.
I   be advised for   not need   give response to it
Toh   kenyataannya   Pusat   Pembinaan dan
but still fact-NYA   centre   cultivation and
Pengembangan   Bahasa   tidak akan   ditutup.
development   language not will   be closed
'I will not answer it. By my minister I am advised not
necessarily to give any response. But still the fact is that the
Language Cultivation and Development Centre will not be
closed.'

Q/A2: The interviewer asks the interviewee's responses to the
past situation. The past situation expressed interacts with *pernah*
'once'. *Pernah* here explicitly expresses past time reference. The
interviewee's reply to the question uses implicit time reference,
that is, either for past or present time reference, by stating that
the person who invoked the situation in question Prof. Dr. Yus
Badudu, is or was not so accurate: *Saya kira Yus Badudu juga*
kurang teliti (Lit: I think Yus Badudu was not so accurate).

T: *Tapi bagaimana   dengan   tanggapan   Prof. Dr. Yus Badudu*
but how   about   reaction   Prof. Dr. Yus Badudu
yang   pernah   dimuat   di harian Kompas itu?
LIG   PERNAH be printed in daily *Kompas* the
Tentang ejaan (EYD)   misalnya?

about   spelling (EYD) for example
'How about (your) reaction to Prof. Dr. Yus Badudu which was
printed in Kompas daily newspaper? About the spelling (EYD)
for example?'
J: *Saya kira Yus Badudu juga kurang teliti.*
   I   think Yus Bududu also less   accurate
   'I think Yus Badudu is/was also not accurate.'

Q/A3: The interviewer asks the present expectations of the
interviewee in the Language Cultivation and Development Centre
in respect to the current situation by using implicit present time
reference. He asks the interviewee to specify the types of ideas
formulated in the Language Cultivation and Development Centre.
The interviewee's reply uses implicit present time reference
which is already expressed by the interviewer. The reply, which
interacts with modal auxiliaries *harus* 'must', *tidak boleh* 'may
not', *dapat* 'can', *perlu* 'need' seems to express present and future
time reference. The interviewee uses conditional *sejak* 'since' and
sedangkan 'whereas' clauses. Also, in addition to the implicit time
reference, the interviewee uses *nanti* 'in the immediate/distant
future' to express explicit future time reference.

T: *Lha, lalu apa sebetulnya yang pak Anton harapkan dengan Pusat
Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa ini? Pemikiran macam apa
yang pak Anton coba canangkan lewat lembaga ini?*
(Lit.: Well now [*Lha* is a 'particle bringing previous discussion to
its conclusion', Echols and Shadily, 1989, p. 342], then what do
you expect from the Language Cultivation and Development
Centre? What kinds of ideas do you [pak Anton] formulate/
announce through the centre?)
J: *Begini. Pertama, kita harus membedakan terlebih dahulu
gagasan penggunaan bahasa dari pengembangan bahasa, terutama
dari sisi pembinaan tersebut. Sejak kita berbicara tentang
pembinaan bahasa, maka sasaran dari pembinaan tersebut adalah
manusia pemakai bahasa. Sedangkan ketika kita berbicara tentang
persoalan pengembangan bahasa, maka sasarannya adalah bahasa
tersebut, sebagai sistem pengungkap isi hati.*
(Lit.: Well. First we must differentiate between the ideas/
concepts of using the language and cultivating the language

particularly from the area of its cultivation. Because when we talk about language cultivation, the target is the language user. Whereas when we talk about matters relating to language development, the target, therefore. is the language itself as a system of expressing one's thoughts and feelings.)

Jadi, kegiatannya dengan sendirinya berbeda. Dan walaupun kita bedakan, tidak boleh kita pisahkan. Tetapi harus dikerjakan secara serempak dan sejajar. Jadi, kalau ingin agar bahasa Indonesia itu dapat berfungsi di dalam peradaban Indonesia yang modern, sebagai pengungkap peradaban itu, maka kita harus mengembangkan bahasa itu. Nanti dengan sendirinya, orang Indonesia dapat berbicara apa saja di dalam peradaban itu.

(Lit.: Thus, the activities automatically differ. And although we make the distinctions, we cannot separate them. But they must be executed together and in parallel. So if we want to enable the BI to function in the Indonesian modern civilization as a means to express civilization, therefore, we must develop/expand the language. In the [near] future Indonesian people automatically will be able talk about anything in the civilization.)

Nah, bahasa Indonesia itu perlu dikembangkan, karena fungsinya memang berlipat ganda. Disamping juga, karena bidang-bidang kehidupan modern Indonesia ini begitu berlipat ganda . . . .

(Lit.: Well! [*Nah* is a 'particle that introduces a sentence that concludes a conversation', Echols and Shadily, 1989, p. 383], the Indonesian language needs to be developed because its function multiplies. In addition the aspects of modern Indonesian life are so multiple or manifold . . . .)

Q/A4: The interviewer seeks clarification of the foregoing reply in Q/A3. He uses implicit time reference. The interviewee replies using implicit present time reference by stating *Kita lihat saja di sekitar kita. Bahasa Indonesia itu dipakai untuk mengembangkan ilmu dan teknologi* (Lit.: Let's us just look at our own environs. BI is used to develop science and technology). To contrast the present situation with the past situation the interviewee uses explicit distant past time reference by stating *Yang itu dahulu tidak menjadi fungsinya. Sebab pada waktu itu, bahasa yang dipakai orang Indonesia adalah bahasa Belanda* (Lit: Such was not the function of BI in the distant past. Because at that time, the

language used by the Indonesian people was Dutch). He further emphasizes the situation/s expressed with explicit present time reference marker *sekarang.* The situation/s with the present time reference interact(s) with the modal auxiliaries *musti* 'must', *harus* 'must', *dapat* 'can'.

T: *Maksudnya berlipat ganda?*

(Lit.: What do you mean by the word *berlipat ganda* 'multiple/ manifold? or What does it mean *berlipat ganda?)*

J: _Kita lihat saja di sekitar kita_. _Bahasa Indonesia itu dipakai_
untuk mengembangkan ilmu dan teknologi. _Yang itu dahulu tidak_
menjadi fungsinya. _Sebab pada waktu itu, bahasa yang dipakai_
orang Indonesia adalah bahasa Belanda. Tapi _sekarang?_ Kita
mengembangkan ilmu dengan memakai bahasa Indonesia. Kita
musti meluaskan jaringan perdagangan, yang itu pun diharapakan
dengan memakai bahasa Indonesia. Kita _harus_ mengembangkan
hukum di Indonesia, maka hukum di Indonesia _musti_ diungkapkan
dengan memakai bahasa Indonesia.

(Lit.: Let's just look at our own environs. B̲I̲ is used to develop science and technology. Such was not the function of B̲I̲ in the (distant) past. Because at that time, the language used by the Indonesian people was Dutch. But now? We expand science by using B̲I̲. We must expand the trade network, and that is also expected by using B̲I̲. We must establish and expand law in Indonesia, therefore, law in Indonesia must be expressed in the Indonesian language or B̲I̲.)

  *Jadi, berbagai unsur pokok peradaban yang dahulu tidak
berkembang,* _sekarang_ *kita tingkatkan mutunya. Kita luaskan
jangkauannya. Dan itu semuanya* _harus_ *berlangsung dalam bahasa
Indonesia. Pembangunan* _musti_ *dilaporkan. Nah, laporan teknis
tentang hasil pembangunan itu* _harus_ *diungkapkan dengan bahasa
Indonesia. Itu semua dulu tidak ada. Oleh karena itu, bahasa
Indonesia* _harus_ *dikembangkan. Sehingga betul-betul memadai dan
dapat menunaikan fungsinya guna mengungkapkan tujuannya.*

(Lit.: Thus, different kinds of major elements of civilization which were not developed in the distant past, now we are to improve their qualities. We expand their scopes. And all these must take place in B̲I̲. (Progress in) development must be reported. See! [*nah* is a 'particle implying acceptance of one's advice or opinion, fact, common knowledge, etc.', Echols and Shadily, 1989, p. 383], technical reports of the results of development must be expressed in the Indonesian language. All of these in the distant past did not exist. Because of this the Indonesian language has to be developed. So that it will really suit the language user and can

function appropriately to express ideas/their intentions.)

Q/A5: The interviewer uses implicit present time reference. The interviewee replies using situations with the same implicit present time reference which interacts with the modal auxiliaries *harus* 'must', *tidak dapat* 'cannot', *akan* 'will', *perlu* 'need'. With the modal auxiliaries the present and future time reference may also be expressed. The distant past time reference is explicitly used to compare the present situation and the past one. The interviewee uses *Itu semua, pada zaman lampau belum diperlukan* (Lit: These all were not needed in the distant past times). Explicit present time reference marker *sekarang* 'now' is also used to emphasize the temporal contrast: *Tapi sekarang amat diperlukan* (Lit: But now (they are) urgently needed). The *belum* 'not yet' or non-performed situation/s is used, as in *Itu semua, pada zaman lampau belum diperlukan* (These all were not needed in the distant past times) and *Itu semua, sampai sekarang ini di Indonesia belum ada tradisinya* (These all, up to the present time in Indonesia, have not been/are not yet conventionalized or have not had any tradition yet). 'Before-and-up-to the moment of speech' is expressed here.

T: *Lalu dalam konteks pengembangan bahasa, unsur apa saja yang kita perlukan?*
(Lit.: Then, in the context of language development, what elements do we actually need?)
J: *Untuk pengembangan bahasa itu diperlukan dua hal: pertama kosakatanya harus diperluas. Dan kedua, berbagai ragam yang memakai bidang-bidang yang saya sebutkan di atas harus dimantapkan. Saya tidak dapat menuliskan laporan teknis dengan "gaya obrolan". Sidang parlemen misalnya, tidak dapat berlangsung dengan gaya yang sama seperti dalam khotbah. Itu semua, pada zaman yang lampau belum diperlukan. Tapi sekarang amat diperlukan. Sebab kalau tidak, maka kita akan berlari ke bahasa lain. Bahasa Inggris, bahasa Jerman, bahasa Belanda, bahasa Prancis, serta bahasa apa pun yang kita anggap lebih siap untuk*

menjalankan fungsinya.
(Lit.: To develop and expand language, two things are required: first, the vocabulary must be expanded. And secondly, different varieties in the different fields I have indicated above must be consolidated/put on a solid footing. I cannot write a technical report by using colloquial language/'everyday language'. The sessions in the parliament, for example, cannot be carried out using a sermon style. All these were not needed in the distant past. But now they are urgently needed. Because if they are not, i.e., if we assume that they are not, we will run to another language: English, German, Dutch, French and any other languages which we assume to be more ready to do the function.)

Jadi, untuk itu perlu adanya kamus yang besar. Perlu ada juga buku tata bahasa. Perlu ada juga pedoman bagaimana menulis karangan. Perlu ada juga pegangan bagaimana kita menulis laporan, surat resmi, undangan, lamaran dan sebagainya. Itu semua, sampai sekarang ini di Indonesia belum ada tradisinya. Nah, inilah sebenarnya yang harus kita hadapi bersama.
(Lit.: Thus, for this purpose, there needs to be a large dictionary. There is a need for a grammar book, too. There is also a need for a guideline on how to write an essay. There is also a need for a manual showing how to write a report, a formal letter, an invitation, an application, etc. These all, up to the present time in Indonesia, have not been/are not yet conventionalized or have not had any tradition yet. Well, this is precisely what we have to face together.)

Q/A6: The interviewer uses *pernah* 'once + perfect' to express a past situation explicitly and the PERNAH or perfect meaning. In reply, the interviewee uses present time reference explicitly *sekarang ini* 'this time/now' to interact with modal auxiliaries *boleh* 'may', *harus* 'must', *dapat* 'can', *perlu* 'need' which may implicitly express both present and future time reference or undefined time reference.

T: *Tapi apa pernah dibuka forum dialog yang khusus membicarakan tetang itu? Yang sampai menghasilkan konsensus?*
(Lit.: Had there been any open discussion which especially discussed it? . . . which has resulted in a consensus?)
J: *Secara lambat laun harus ada satu kesepakatan di dalam pedoman yang mengumpulkan kaidah-kaidahnya. Syarat apa yang harus dipenuhi agar tulisan itu dapat disebut esei, dapat disebut*

cerita pendek, dapat disebut roman, dapat disebut sajak. Sekarang
ini, setiap orang boleh saja mengatakan larik-larik yang saya
susun, yang kelihatannya miri-mirip sajak, maka lalu disebut
sajak. Itu bidang kesusasteraan yang perlu mengembangkan daya
ungkap di dalam bahasa Indonesia. Sehingga, tidak setiap tulisan
dengan sendirinya harus dimasukkan dalam kategori
kesusasteraan.

(Lit.: Gradually there must be an agreement reached in formulating the guidelines which bring together the conventions/norms. What criteria are needed to be met so that a piece of writing may be called an essay, a short story, a novel, a verse. At present, every one may just call the lines he composes which look like a verse to be called a verse. That's the field of literature which needs to develop the creative power in the Indonesian language. So that, not every writing automatically must be entered in a literary category.)

Q/A7: The interviewer uses an implicit future time reference either alone or with *harus* 'must'. He also uses a situation with present and future time reference which interacts with *harus* 'must'. The interviewee's reply, which expresses implicit present time reference or undefined time reference, interacts with the modal auxiliaries *harus* 'must', *boleh* 'may', *akan* 'will', *pasti* 'definitely'

T: *Jadi secara lambat laun harus ada satu kesepakatan dalam*
pedoman yang mengumpulkan kaidah-kaidah. Bukankah yang harus
kita perhatikan adalah pemakai bahasa itu sendiri? Lalu dari
mana pedoman itu muncul?
(Lit.: Thus, gradually there must be an agreement reached on the guidelines which gather the principles (of the Indonesian language). Is it not the case that we must pay attention to the language user individually? Then, where do the guidelines come from?)
J: *Ini sebetulnya adalah aspek bahasa yang harus diserasikan*
dalam aneka fungsi yang dijabatnya, disamping kita juga harus
memperhatikan pemakai bahasa. Sebab kita boleh menyusun
berbagai pedoman, aturan atau kaidah yang tergali dari daya
ungkap bahasa itu sendiri. Tapi bisa jadi pemakai bahasa Indonesia
yang tidak terlatih di dalam tradisi baru itu, tidak ditatar. Maka
akan sia-sia usaha ini. Boleh saja kita kumpulkan enam puluh ribu
kata misalnya, yang ada di dalam kamus. Tapi jika orang tidak

memakai bahasa itu, maka daya kemahiran berbahasanya <u>pasti</u>
lemah.
(Lit.: This is a linguistic aspect which has to be matched with the various functions of the language, and in addition we must pay attention to the language user. Because we may arrange various guidelines, rules or norms which have been uncovered from the creative power of the language itself. But perhaps the Indonesian language users who are not trained in the new tradition have not been upgraded. Therefore, these efforts will be useless. We may compile sixty thousand words, for example, which are available in the dictionary. But if the people do not use the language, their skill in using the language will certainly be weak.)

Q/A8: The interviewer uses implicit present time reference. The interviewee's reply expresses undefined time reference for the past, present and future, which interacts with *dapat* 'can', *bisa* 'be able to/can', *boleh* 'may'. Aspect of persistence or permanence *tetap* 'PERS' is used. A conditional clause is also used.

T: *Tapi bagaimana dengan bahasa Inggris? Tampaknya mantap dan lengkap?*
(Lit.: But what about English? To me English seems to be firmly established and complete?)
J: *Bahasa Inggris umumnya memang disebut sebagai bahasa yang*
<u>sudah</u> mantap. Tapi jika kita tidak mengajar orang menggunakan
bahasa Inggris dengan baik, maka seindah-indah atau sebaik-baik
serta selengkap-lengkap bahasa Inggris, orang Indonesia <u>tetap</u>
juga tidak <u>bisa</u> berbahasa Inggris dengan baik. Itu kenyataan. Jadi
sama juga dengan bahasa Indonesia. Bahasa Indonesia <u>dapat</u>
dilengkapi, tapi jika orangnya tidak <u>dapat</u> dimahirkan lewat
berbagai usaha, maka kita <u>tidak dapat</u> mengharapkan bahwa warga
masyarakat bangsa Indonesia <u>dapat</u> memakai bahasa Indonesia
dengan baik. Jadi itulah yang disebut pembinaan.
(Lit.: English in general is considered to be an already established language. Therefore if we do not teach people to use English well, however beautiful or good and however complete the English language is, the Indonesian people will continue to be unable to use English well. This is a fact. Thus, it is similar to the Indonesian language. <u>BI</u> may be fully supplemented, but if the people cannot be taught through various efforts, we cannot expect that the people in the wider community of the Indonesian nation can use the Indonesian language well. And that is what we call (language) cultivation.)

*Kami dari Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa dapat
memberikan penyuluhan dan latihan seperti ini, sebenarnya juga
termasuk — tentu saja — sistem pengajaran bahasa. Jadi di
Indonesia, sistem pengajaran bahasa itu diatur oleh satu unit
dalam departemen, yang ada di luar lembaga Pusat Pembinaan dan
Pengembangan Bahasa. Saya pribadi tidak bertanggung-jawab atas
pengajaran Bahasa Indonesia. Pembinaan bahasa itu bukan
semata-mata berarti mendatangi orang, lalu menyatakan ini yang
boleh disingkatkan atau tidak. Tetapi pembinaan bahasa ini
mencakupi pengajaran bahasa di lembaga pendidikan formal
seperti sekolah atau universitas-universitas. Sehingga apa yang
sebenarnya dimungkinkan oleh bahasa Indonesia yang clean,
memang akhirnya dimiliki si pemakai bahasa.*
(Lit.: We (exclusive), from the Language Cultivation and Develop-
ment Centre, can give guidance and training in these things, which
actually also includes — of course — the system of language
teaching. So in Indonesia the system of language teaching is
regulated in one unit in a department which is outside the
Language Cultivation and Development Centre. I am personally not
responsible for the teaching of BI. Language Cultivation does not
only mean visiting people, then tell people which ones can be
abbreviated and which ones cannot. The Language Cultivation here
covers language teaching in formal education facilities like
schools or universities. So that is what is actually possible in
clean BI which subsequently may be owned by the language user).

*Kita tentu dapat memanfaatkan berbagai sarana: buku
pelajaran, siaran radio, siaran televisi, surat kabar, majalah, dan
lain-lain yang itu semua termasuk di dalam pembinaan bahasa.*
(Lit.: We can certainly make use of various means: textbooks, radio
broadcasts, television programmes, newspapers, magazines, and
so on which are all included in the Language Cultivation).

Q/A9: The interviewer uses *masih* not to express progressive
aspect but the state of the situation 'still', with present time
reference. The use of *masih* here seems to explicitly express
present time reference. The interviewee's reply uses the modal
auxiliaries *harus* 'must', *mau* 'will, want', *bisa* 'be able to/can'
,*pasti* 'definitely', *akan* 'will' to express the situations with modal
meanings and present/future time reference. The conditional
clause with *kalau* . . . 'if . . . ' and *jika* . . . 'if . . .' is used to express
either present or future time reference. Present time reference

which implicitly extends to the past is expressed in *Seingat saya,*
tidak ada staf dari Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa
yang membuat kesalahan dalam melakukan penyuluhan di Televisi
(Lit: As far as I remember, no staff of the Language Cultivation
and Development Centre made a mistake in the television
presentation).

T: *Tapi tampaknya bahasa TV sendiri masih kurang baik?*
(Lit.: It seems that the language in TV itself isn't good enough?)
J: *Yang harus kita bedakan ialah bahasa yang dipakai oleh Telivisi*
dan bahasa di dalam siaran Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan
Bahasa. Mungkin yang saudara maksudkan, yaitu tidak kelihatan
keserasian antara bahasa yang dipakai para penyuluh dan bahasa
yang dipakai di dalam Televisi. Bahasa Telivisi bukan
tanggung-jawab saya, meskipun Telivisi juga merupakan sasaran
Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa. Tetapi kalau orang
televisi tidak mau disuruh atau diperbaiki, maka Pusat Bahasa
tidak bisa berbuat apa-apa.
(Lit.: What we have to differentiate is that between the language
used in television and the language used in the TV programmes
prepared by the Language Cultivation and Development Centre.
Perhaps what you mean is that there does not seem to exist a
harmony between the language used by the speaker from the
Language Cultivation and Development Centre and the language
used in the television programmes. The language in the television
programmes is not my responsibility, although television is one of
the target of the Language Cultivation and Development Centre. If
the people in television programmes cannot be instructed or
improved, the Language Cultivation and Development Centre
cannot do anything.)
Kami cukup banyak berusaha untuk meyakinkan agar diadakan
perbaikan. Tapi usaha pemeliharaan bahasa itu tidak ada sanksi
dendanya. Tidak ada sanksi pidananya. Itulah bedanya aturan hukum
dengan aturan bahasa. Kalau misalnya saya menyalahi
undang-undang dalam hukum, maka saya pasti terkena denda atau
di pidana. Dipenjara atau harus membayar denda. Tapi jika saya
menyalahi kaidah-kaidah bahasa, maka sanksinya itu sangsi sosial
kemasyarakatan. Paling-paling saya akan dicemooh atau
ditertawakan masyarakat. Tapi kalau lingkungan yang saya
tempati juga sama bodohnya, atau sama tidak mahirnya, maka
kesalahan itu pun tidak akan terkena sanksi apa-apa.
(Lit.: We [exclusive] have done quite a lot to inspire that there
needs to be some means of improvement. But efforts in looking

after the language do not have the sanctions to pay for the fines. There is not any sanction in legal punishment. That is the difference between legal rules and language rules. If I break a certain rule of law, I will definitely pay for the fine or get the punishment. Being put in jail or pay for the fine. But if I break the rules of language, the sanction will therefore be social, i.e., from the society. At most I will be ridiculed or laughed at by the society. But if the people in the environment in which I live have the same stupidity as mine, or the same unskilled use of language, therefore, the mistakes will not also be subject to any sanction.)

Seingat saya, tidak ada staf dari Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa yang membuat kesalahaan dalam melakukan penyuluhan di Televisi. Dan, kalau toh pun ada salah seorang penyuluh yang melakukan kekeliruan, maka saya dengan terus terang akan menyatakan bahwa itu salah.

(Lit.: As far as I remember, no staff of the Language Cultivation and Development Centre made a mistake in the television presentation. And, after all, even if, there is a speaker of the Language Cultivation and Development Centre who makes a mistake I will openly state that he is wrong).

Q/A10: The interviewer questions the interviewee about the present widespread foreign language influence to BI. The present time reference is expressed implicitly. The interviewee's reply expresses present and future time reference. The past time reference is also explicitly expressed to acknowledge the existence of (foreign language) influences since the beginning of AD. Indonesia has not rejected but received and accepted the influence from India, Portugal, Islam, the Dutch and the English. A conditional clause is used by the interviewee. The modal auxiliaries used are *tidak dapat* 'cannot', *dapat* 'can'.

T: *Sepertinya pengaruh bahasa asing tampak sekali dalam bahasa Indonesia.*
(Lit.: Fittingly, foreign language influences are very visible in BI.)
J: *Pengaruhnya saya kira tidak dapat ditahan begitu saja. Tapi kita juga mempunyai sikap budaya yang sama, bahwa, kebudayaan Indonesia itu terbuka dan menerima pengaruh sebagaimana sudah menjadi adat sejak awal tarikh Masehi. Kita dari awal tarikh Mashehi itu terbuka terhadap pengaruh India, pengaruh Portugis, pengaruh Islam, pengaruh Belanda, pengaruh Inggris, dan*

sebagainya. Jadi kalau sekarang arus bahasa Inggris dan
unsur-unsur budaya Inggris masuk ke dalam bahasa Indonesia,
secara umum kita dapat melihat bahwa bangsa Indonesia tidak
dapat menunjukkan ketahanan budayanya.
(Lit.: The influences, I think, cannot just simply be witheld. But we also have a similar cultural attitude in that the Indonesian culture is open and accepts cultural influences which has been the tradition since the beginning of AD. Since the beginning of AD we have been open to the influences of Indian, of Portugese, those of Islam, Dutch, English, and so on. So now if the flow of the influences from the English language and the elements in English culture enter into BI in general we can say that the Indonesian people cannot show cultural resistance.)

Q/A11: The interviewer states that the Language Cultivation and Development Centre has the tendency to limit the influence of foreign language loan words which are already common in BI. The situation implicitly expresses present time reference which interacts with *telah* 'already'.*Telah* can be taken to explicitly express past time reference. In reply the interviewee implicitly expresses a situation with present time reference which interacts with the modal auxiliaries *boleh* 'may' and *akan* will'. A conditional clause which interacts with *akan* 'will' is used.

T: *Saya rasa memang ada kecenderungan dari Pusat Pembinaan dan*
Pengembangan Bahasa untuk membatasi bahasa asing yang sudah
lazim di pakai dalam Bahasa Indonesia. Monitor misalnya?
(Lit.: I think there does exist a tendency from the Language Cultivation and Development Centre to restrict foreign language influences which have already been commonly used in BI. *Monitor*, for example?)
J: Siapa yang membatasi? Artinya, memang dianjurkan, jika ada
bahasa Indonesianya, berbanggalah bahwa kata Indonesia itu ada.
Dan, utamakanlah memakai istilah Indonesia. Tidak berarti bahwa
saudara tidak boleh memakai bahasa asing. Sebab, semakin banyak
kata-kata yang masuk di dalam bahasa Indonesia, itu makin banyak
kata-kata yang masuk di dalam bahasa Indonesia, itu makin baik.
Jadi boleh saja memakai kata evaluasi disamping penilaian. Yang
tidak ada adalah, kebanggaan berbahasa Indonesia. Sebagaimana di
bidang-bidang budaya umum, kita juga tidak berbangga atas
produksi Indonesia.

(Lit.: Who will restrict them? That is, it is actually recommended that if there is an expression in <u>BI</u>, be proud of the fact that there does exist an appropriate word in <u>BI</u>. And give top priority to the use of <u>BI</u>. It does not mean that you cannot use a word in a foreign language. Because the more foreign words enter into <u>BI</u>, the more foreign words will be found in <u>BI</u>. And that is better. So you may just use *evaluasi* in addition to *penilaian.* What is lacking is the pride to use <u>BI</u>. As in other general cultural aspects, we do not take pride in the product of Indonesia.)

Itu semua cerminan yang <u>bisa</u> kita tangkap. Mengapa rumah makan di kota Jakarta ini cenderung memakai bahasa Inggris? Apakah sajian atau menunya <u>akan</u> lebih lezat jika disebut secara Inggris? Mengapa dianggap lebih terhormat memakai berbagai nama Inggris untuk macam-macam barang yang ada di Ibukota Republik Indonesia itu?

(Lit.: That is all the reflection that we can perceive. Why do eating places in Jakarta have the tendency of using English words. Does it mean that the dish offered to the customers or the menu will be more delicious if they are written in English? Why is it considered more esteemed to use English words for different varieties of goods which exist in the capital of the Republic of Indonesia?)

Q/A12: The interviewer uses implicit present time reference to express the problem exposed by the interviewee. The interviewee's reply is with present time reference which is implicitly expressed. He uses a cause and effect clause which interacts with *akan* 'will', the perfect *sudah* 'already' which interacts with *dapat* 'can'. *Sudah* and *dewasa ini* 'at present' can be taken to explicitly express past time reference for the former and present time reference for the latter.

T: *Pertanyaan-pertanyaan seperti itu apa bukan sikap fanatik?*
(Lit.: These questions do not reflect a fanatic attitude, do they?)
J: *O, tidak. Saya bukan orang fanatik. Tetapi masalahnya, tidak ada kebanggaan sedikit pun bangsa ini sebagai bangsa Indonesia. Oleh karena saya bangga atas apa yang saya miliki, tentu itu semua <u>akan</u> saya pakai. Tapi kalau merasa bahwa saya ini tidak mempunyai barang atau hal yang pantas dibanggakan, ya saya <u>akan</u> meminjam barang orang lain.*
(Lit.: No. I am not a fanatic. But the problem is that there is no pride whatsoever that this nation is an Indonesian nation. Because

I am proud of what I own, I will certainly use them all. But if I feel I do not have the things or the goods that I can take pride in I will borrow other people's gear).

    Permasalahannya bukan banyak atau sedikitnya pengaruh bahasa asing ke dalam bahasa Indonesia. Juga sikap fanatik atau bukan. <u>Dewasa ini</u> <u>sudah</u> <u>dapat</u> dihitung bahwa, jumlah masukan bahasa Inggris sudah mengatasai jumlah kata dari bahasa Arab, bahasa Sansekerta, bahasa Jawa kuno, dan sebagainya. Saya kira tidak menjadi masalah.

(Lit.: The problem is not many or few foreign language influences in <u>BI</u>. Also not being fanatic or unfanatic. At present we may have been able to calculate that the number of the English words taken in <u>BI</u> has already exceeded the number of Arabic words, Sanskrit, Old Javanese, and so on. I do not think this is the problem).

Q/A13: The interviewer uses a question with implicit present time reference. The reply of the interviewee expresses a similar implicit present time reference expressed by the interviewer.

T: *Menurut pak Anton sendiri, lalu apa yang menjadi substansi permasalahannya?*
(Lit.: According to Pak Anton alone, what is the real substance of the problem?)
J: *Yang menjadi masalah besar ialah, kalau kita menamakan diri kita dengan bahasa yang bukan bahasa kita, itu menunjukkan bahwa bangsa kita manusia Indonesia kurang menghargai martabatnya sendiri.*
(Lit.: The major problem is that we name our own items with a language which is not our own; that shows that the people in the Indonesian nation respect their own prestige less.)

Q/A14: The interviewer uses *sekarang* 'now' not as a present time reference marker but as a discourse marker: <u>*Sekarang*</u> *mengenai istilah* (Lit: Now what about the term). Even so, the present time reference is still expressed. He uses *before-and-up-to the moment of speech S* with *sudah* 'already' or perfect. The interviewee replies the question by using present time reference which interacts with *tidak pernah* 'never' or perfect. *Sekarang ini* 'now, at this time' is used explicitly for the present time reference. A conditional Clause using *kalau* . . . 'if . . .' , *jika* . . . 'if . .

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.' to express a situation with present time reference is used. A clause using *Demikian itulah . . .* 'in that way . . .' to express present time reference is also used. *Masih* is used not to express progressive aspect but to express the state of the situation 'still':

Kalau saudara tanya orang Malayu, mereka <u>masih</u> kenal dengan istilah semacam itu (Lit: If you ask a Malay person (i.e., an Indonesian Malay), he still recognizes such a word).

T: <u>Sekarang</u> mengenai istilah. Begini pak Anton, ada beberapa
kalangan yang merasa keberatan dengan istilah yang dikeluarkan
oleh Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa. Sepertinya ada
kecenderungan dari lembaga ini untuk menggunakan istilah yang
sebenꞓ ˜nya <u>sudah</u> tidak terpakai di tengah masyarakat. Kata
mangku misalnya. Nah, apa sebenarnya yang pak Anton harapkan
dengan memakai istilah lama itu?

(Lit.: Now about the technical terms. Like this Pak Anton; there are some circles which object to the use of technical terms issued by the Language Cultivation and Development Centre. It seems that there is a tendency from the centre that advises people to use the technical terms which have not actually been used in the wider society. The word *mangkus,* for example. See! What do you (Pak Anton) actually expect by using an old technical term like that?)

J: *Ini satu eksperiman. Ada satu khazanah yang terselubung di
dalam bahasa — dalam kamus umum bahasa Indonesia. Suatu
gugusan kata-kata yang berasal dari zaman yang lampau. Tapi
karena kata itu <u>tidak pernah</u> dipakai oleh orang Indonesia yang
bukan Melayu, maka bahasa itu lalu seakan mati. Tapi itu tidak
berarti bahwa bahasa semacam itu ditolak masyarakat.*

(Lit.: This is an experiment. There exists a treasure which is covered up in language — in the general dictionary of <u>BI</u>: a row of words which came from the distant past (times). But because these words have never been used by the people in Indonesia are not of Malay stock, therefore, the words seem to die. But that does not mean that these words in the language are rejected by the society.)

*Kalau saudara tanya orang Melayu, mereka <u>masih</u> kenal
dengan istilah semacam itu. Nah, <u>sekarang ini,</u> maksud Pusat
Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa, yaitu mengfusionalkan atau
mengaktifkan kembali kata-kata seperti itu. Sebagaimana perwira
cadangan yang diperlukan untuk diaktifkan menjadi perwira. Jika
ada cadangan mobil misalnya, maka jika diperlukan <u>akan</u>*

diaktifkan.
(Lit.: If you ask Indonesian Malay people, they still recognise these types of technical terms. Now then the purpose of the Language Cultivation and Development Centre is to functionalize or reactivate these kinds of words. Just like a reserve officer who requires to be reactivated as a full officer. If there is a reserve car, for example, when required it will be reactivated.)

Kalau khazanah itu ada, tetapi karena pengajaran bahasa Indonesia itu sendiri kurang sempurna, dengan sendirinya kata-kata itu tidak terpakai. Maka atas dasar itulah Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembaigan Bahasa mengambil inisiatif, jaitu daripada mencari-cari dan membentuk kata baru yang berasal dari bahasa asing, lebih baik memfungsikan kembali kata-kata lama itu. Demikian itulah salah satu usaha dari Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa, yang pada hemat saya efisien sekali.
(Lit.: If the treasure exists, but because the teaching of BI is not good enough, automatically those technical words are not used. On that basis, therefore, the Language Cultivation and Development Centre takes the initiatives, that is, rather than looking for and forming new words derived from foreign languages, it is better to refunctionalize those old words. Thus, that is one of the efforts of the Language Cultivation and Development Centre, which, in my opinion, is very efficient.)

Q/A15: The interviewer uses the present time reference which interacts with *pernah* 'once'. *Pernah* also explicitly expresses past time reference. The interviewee replies by using *pernah* and *sejak tahun 1972.* 'since 1972'. The use of *sejak tahun 1972* 'since 1972' explicitly secures *before-and-up-to* S time relation. The perfect *sudah* ' already' is also used. Aspect of continuation *terus* 'CONT' is used. Explicit present time reference marker *sekarang* 'now' is used. Situations express timeless propositions are used with clauses *jadi* . . . 'so . . .', *karena itu* . . .'because of that . . .' . The 'modal auxiliary' used is *perlu* 'need'. These situations may be taken to express implicit time reference.

T: *Lalu apa gagasan seperti itu pernah dibicarakan dengan negara-negara lain yang masih satu rumpun Melayu?*
(Lit.: Then, has the idea/concept been discussed with other countries which are of the same Malay language family?)

J: _Pernah_. Sejak tahun 1972 _sudah_ ada kerjasama antara Malaysia
dan Indonesia. Dan itu _terus_ berkembang. Sekarang ada kerjasama
antara Malaysia, Brunei dan Indonesia. Bahkan Singapura juga
bergabung sebagai pemersatu.
(Lit.: Yes, it has. Since 1972 there has been cooperation between
Malaysia and Indonesia. And it still continues flourishing. Now
there is cooperation between Malaysia, Brunei and Indonesia. Even
Singapore joins as a unifier.)

Jadi ada keinginan untuk memelihara bahasa. Bahasa resmi,
atau bahasa negara, atau bahasa kebangsaan yang dipakai di
tempat negara berdaulat itu. Dan tentu saja kita tidak berhak
menilai usaha yang baru tumbuh 15 tahun, untuk melihat hasilnya.
Bahasa itu tidak hanya berusia 25 tahun saja. Tapi berumur
beratus-ratus dan bahkan beribu-ribu tahun.
(Lit.: So there is a desire to look after the language: an official,
state, or national language which is used in the sovereign country.
And certainly, we have no right to evaluate the efforts which
have only been growing for 15 years in order to see the results.
The age of language is not only 25 years. But it is in hundreds or
even thousand of years.)

Karena itu, bahasa juga menunjukkan segi kebiasaan.
Kebiasaan lama tidak mudah di ganti dengan kebiasaan baru. Oleh
karena itulah proses perubahan bahasa juga terjadi dengan lambat
sekali. Seandainya masyarakat Indonesia menyadari perlunya
bahasa yang lengkap, menyadari perlunya memahiri bahasanya
dengan baik, Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa
sebenarnya _tidak perlu_ ada. Tapi nyatanya, kita ini
membengkalaikan keperluan untuk berbahasa dengan rapi. Juga,
untuk mengungkapkan pemikiran dengan secermat-cermatnya.
(Lit.: Therefore, language also shows customs. Old customs cannot
be easily replaced by new customs. That is why the processes in
language change move very slowly. If the Indonesian society is
aware of the need for a complete language, aware of the need to
master the language well, the Language Cultivation and Develop-
ment Centre does not necessarily need to exist. The fact is, we
neglect the need to use the language appropriately. Also, [we
ignore] the need to express our thoughts as accurately as
possible).

Jadi memang dirasakan _perlu_ ada usaha untuk memberikan
bimbingan. Kalau memang masyarakat _sudah_ memiliki semangat
kebahasaan yang baik, _tidak perlu_ dibimbing lagi saya kira. Dan
perlu saudara ketahui, bahwa tidak setiap negara mempunyai
lembaga Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa.
(Lit.: So we really feel that there is a need to make every effort in
providing guidance in language cultivation for the people in the
society. If the society already had the spirit to use the language

appropriately, I think the need to cultivate the language would not be required. And you should know that not every country has an institution for the Language Cultivation and Development Centre).

Q/A16: The interviewer asks a question which uses present time reference implicitly: *Kira-kira negara mana saja pak yang mempunyai lembaga seperti yang pak Anton pimpin ini?* (Lit: What countries do you think have the same insititute like the one you [Pak Anton] are the head of? The interviewee uses the reply with the implicit present time reference which interacts with the modal auxiliaries *mungkin* 'may', *bisa* 'be able to/can', *mau* 'will, want', *pasti* 'definitely' and the perfect *sudah* 'already'.

T: *Kira-kira negara mana saja pak yang mempunyai lembaga seperti yang pak Anton pimpin ini?*
   (Lit.: What countries do you think have the same insititute like the one you [Pak Anton] are the head of?)
J: *Saya katakan, justru tidak setiap negara punya Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa, jika oleh masyarakat yang bersangkutan tidak dirasakan perlunya suatu Pusat Pembinaan and Pengembangan Bahasa. Karena kemahiran bahasa itu disyaratkan oleh masyarakatnya. Sebagai ciri keadaan. Jadi barangsiapa tidak mahir bahasanya itu, maka orang itu tidak mungkin mencapai karier di dalam masyarakatnya.*
(Lit.: I have said that in fact not every country has the Language Cultivation and Development Centre, if the wider society concerned does not feel the need for a language cultivation and development centre. Because the skill in using language is the requirement of the society. As a distinctive feature of the situation. Thus, anyone who does not have the skill of using language, that man, therefore, cannot possibly attain career in the society in which he lives.)
   Tidak bisa dibayangkan, ada seorang menteri di Eropa Barat yang tidak bisa berbahasa nasionalnya dengan baik. Tidak mungkin dia mencapai tingkat semacam itu. Karena orang seperti itu pasti sudah lebih mapan di dalam pengajaran bahasa di sekolahnya. Jadi kalau mereka lulus, tentu mereka sudah fasih menggunakan sistem bahasa nasionalnya dengan baik. Dan setiap kali mereka mau naik pangkat dalam jenjang birokrasinya, mereka diuji kemahiran bahasanya.
(Lit. : We cannot imagine if there is a minister in West Europe that cannot use his national language well. It would be impossible for

him to reach that level. Because this type of man must have received an established language teaching practice at his school. So if he passes the school examinations, he has certainly already been skillful in using the system of his national language well. And each time he wants to raise the rank in the level of his bureaucracy his skill in using the language will be tested.)

Q/A17: The interviewer explicitly uses recent past time reference marker *tadi* 'recent past'. The situation expressed interacts with the modal auxiliaries *perlu* 'need', *bisa* 'can'. Aspect of continuation *terus* ia also use. Implicit time reference is expressed. The interviewee replies the question by using implicit time reference which may refer to present or future. Explicit present time reference marker *sekarang* 'now' is also used. A conditional clause *kalau* . . . 'if . . .'is used to express either present or undefined time reference implicitly. A *belum* 'not yet' or non-performed situation and perfect *sudah* 'already' is expressed. The word *masih* is used not to express the progressive aspect explicitly but the state of the situation or proposition 'still',: *Karena kita masih cukup punya budaya: "Pokoknya asal jadi"* (Lit: Because we still have the culture: "as long as it works/the important thing is that it works").

T: *Tadi pak Anton mengatakan, bahwa kita perlu mengfusionalkan atau mengaktifkan kembali kata-kata yang berasal dari khazanah lama. Dengan usaha begitu apa bisa diharapkan adanya kesempurnaan bahasa Indonesia nantinya? Lalu apa terus selesai?*
(Lit.: Earlier you (Pak Anton) said that we needed to refunctionalize or reactivate the words that came from the old treasure. With these efforts, can we expect that there will be improvement in perfection in BI in future? Then does it end straight away?)
J: *Kalau semuanya serba selesai atau serba sempurna, yah terpulang pada prakarsa pribadi dan prakarsa negara dalam mengeluarkan kamus. Tapi nyatanya, ini semua perlu diatur. Perlu direncanakan. Perlu ada program juga. Nah, persoalannya sekarang, siapa yang mempunyai uang? Negara yang punya. Kalau diserahkan pada hasrat dan minat orang perorang, tentu tidak kita persoalkan.*

Apakah kamus sekarang sudah mencukupi atau belum. Sebab, kalau
kita melihat di negeri Belanda, di negeri Inggris, di negeri
Prancis, serta di negara Jerman, maka kegiatan semacam ini
dilakukan oleh pihak swasta. Tapi semua itu dimungkinkan. Dan
penjualannya juga laris, karena anggota masyarakat di sana
memang melihat kemahiran berbahasa sebagai salah satu nilai
budaya.

(Lit.: If all are fully finished or fully perfect, . . . Um . . . it depends on the personal initiative and the state initiative in issuing the dictionary. But the fact is all of these need to be regulated. They need to be planned. They need to be programmed. Now, the problem at present is who has the money? The state does. If it is left to the interest and intention of an individual, we certainly would not discuss it. Has the current dictionary already met the needs or not. Because if we look at the Netherlands, England, France and Germany, these types of activities are carried out by private sectors. But all of these have been made possible. And the sale is also well because the members of the wider society there actually believe that the skillful use of language is one of the cultural values.)

Di Indonesia sendiri saya pikirkan belum ada kesadaran
seperti itu. Karena kita masih cukup punya budaya: "Pokoknya asal
jadi!" Kalau di dalam dunia bahasa, bunyinya: "Pokoknya asal
pahamlah!" Tidak perlu memikirkan bentuk dan kerapiannya. Kita,
bangsa Indonesia ini belum sampai menuntut, disamping ada nya
barang, harus ada juga mutu barang. Kita belum sampai di situ.

(Lit.: In Indonesia itself, I do not think, there exists yet such awareness. Because we still have the culture: "as long as it works/the important thing is that it works". In the world of language, it says : "As long as it is understood". There is no need to think about the form and its tidiness. We, the Indonesian people, do not yet demand, in addition to the availability of the goods, also their qualities. We have not yet reached that point.)

Q/A18: The interviewer explicitly uses *before-and-up-to the moment of speech* S time relation: *sejauh ini* 'thus far, so far', to ask the present results achieved by the Language Development Centre. The interviewee replies the question using situations with implicit present time reference which interacts with the modal auxiliaries *harus,* 'must', *boleh* 'may', *mau* 'will, want'. Aspect of continuation *terus* CONT is expressed, as in *Jadi, menurut saya, jangan kok terus menyalahkan ketiadaan kemahiran itu pada Pusat*

Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa saja, meskipun dalam hal ini bukan berarti saya tidak mau menerima tanggung jawab 'Thus, in my view, do not persistently blame the failure of the mastery of the use of the language to the Language Cultivation and Development Centre only, although in this regard it does not mean that I do not want to accept responsibility'. A conditional clause using *kalau . . .* 'if . . . ' is used.

T: *Kemudian pak Anton, sejauh ini, peran apa yang berhasil dicapai Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa memberikan penyuluhan.*
(Lit.: Now then, Pak Anton, so far, what roles have been achieved by the Language Cultivation and Development Centre in giving information.)
J: *Saya selalu mendapat kesan, kalau orang bertanya, bahwa masyarakat mengharapkan keajaiban — sim salabim — Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa bekerja lalu harus jadi. Tidak mungkin. Harus ada usaha dari warga masyarakat pribadi.*
(Lit.: I am always under the impression, when people ask, that the society expects a miracle - *sim salabim* - Language Cultivation and Development Centre works and must produce results. Impossible. There must be efforts from the individual member of the society itself.)

Hal semacam ini tidak sama dengan misalnya kita mengolesi wajah dengan salah satu jenis cream tertentu, lalu wajah menjadi halus. Tidak mungkin. Jadi boleh saja Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa berperan, tapi jika dianggap: "Ah, biarkan saja Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa mengobrol," atau "Pekerjaan Pusat Bahasa terlampau remeh dan sepele," maka ya sia-sia usaha ini.
(Lit.: These things differ, for example, from smearing oily substance on the face by using one type of beauty cream, then the face becomes smooth. Impossible. So the Language Cultivation and Development Centre may have a role, but never say: "Ugh. Let the Language Cultivation and Development Centre gossip," or "the work of the Language Cultivation and Development Centre is too simple," so the efforts are useless.)

Kita, di dalam banyak hal tata-bahasa itu, untuk kebudayaan atau bahkan wadah kebudayaan tinggal melihat di sekitar kita. Dalam kehidupan sehari-hari saya rasakan, orang Indonesia itu terlalu banyak dihujani dengan beraneka ragam peraturan begitu; diarahkan ke sana; dan lain sebagainya. Tapi apa hasilnya?

(Lit.: We, in many things concerning the language structure [grammar] for the culture, or even for the container of the culture we only need to look around us. In every day life, I feel, the Indonesian people too often are bombarded with different varieties of rules and regulation, are directed to go somewhere, and so on. But what are the results?)

Jadi, menurut saya, jangan kok terus menyalahkan ketiadaan kemahiran itu pada Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa saja, meskipun dalam hal ini bukan berarti saya tidak mau menerima tanggungjawab. Tapi kalau sesuatu itu tidak berhasil, tidak selalu yang memikul kesalahan sang pembimbing. Ada hukum misalnya, yang menyatakan tidak boleh korupsi. Dan bagi yang melanggar akan diancam dengan pidana atau dipenjarakan. Tapi apakah dengan adanya peraturan-peraturan semacam itu lantas tidak ada korupsi?

(Lit.: So, I think, do not directly blame the Language Cultivation and Development Centre only for the lack of the skill use of language although in this respect do not consider that I do not want to accept responsibility. But if something is not always successful it does always mean that the supervisor is responsible for the mistakes. There is a rule of law, for example, which states that nobody must corrupt. And those who break it will be punished or put in jail. But does it mean because of the existence of the rule of law, that no corruption takes place?)

Memang, sikap budaya bangsa Indonesia begitu. Yaitu kebal terhadap kaidah-kaidah dan aturan-aturan.

(Lit.: It is true that the cultural attitude of the Indonesian people is like that, isn't it? That is, immune to rules and regulation.)

Q/A19: To conclude the interview, the interviewer asks *Lalu apa sebenarnya fungsi Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa itu sendiri?* (Lit: Then, what is actually the function of the Language Cultivation and Development Centre itself? The question expresses implicit present time reference. The interviewee's replies the question by using the same implicit present time reference to describe the present function of the Language Cultivation and Development Centre. The modal auxiliaries *mau* will, want', *bisa* 'be able to/can' are used in the situations to express present and/or future time reference.

T: *Lalu apa sebenarnya fungsi Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa itu sendiri?*

(Lit.: Then, what is actually the function of the Language Cultivation and Development Centre itself?)

J: *Pusat Pembinaan dan Pengembangan Bahasa itu semacam produsen yang memasarkan barang dagangannya. Yah, terpulang pada masyarakat sendiri. Mau membeli atau tidak. Kita tidak bisa memaksakan.*

(Lit.: The Language Cultivation and Development Centre is a kind of producer that is marketing its products. . . . Um. . ., it is up to the society itself. [Do they] want to buy or not. We cannot force them.)

Table 4 summarizes the description of the interaction of time reference/aspectual reference, 'perfect', modal auxiliaries and time. Explicit and implicit time reference are explored.

Of the 38 Q/A exchanges, 19 Q/A exchanges, i.e., 50%, use explicit time reference and 33 Q/A exchanges, i.e., 87%, use implicit time reference.

Of the 19 Q's, explicit time reference is expressed in 9 Q's, i.e., 47%; and of 19 A's (responses), explicit time reference is expressed in 11 A's, i.e., 58%. Of the 19 Q's, implicit time reference is expressed in 14 Q's, i.e., 74%; and of the 19 A's, implicit time reference is expressed in all of the 19 A's, i.e., 100%.

An interaction between temporal-aspectual complexes and time is found in all of the 19 Q/A exchanges.

5.7 Summary and Conclusions

BI expresses aspectual distinctions mainly by means of lexical items coupled with the individual aspectual character of the verb or the word. There is, however, one aspectual distinction in BI which is expressed grammatically: the iterative aspect which is expressed by prefixes and suffixes or reduplication of the word-base. Lexicalised iterative aspect by using *berkali-kali berturutan* 'repeatedly . . . in succession' is not found in the data. The study has supported the hypothesis expressed in Fig. 14c. That is, BI shows both grammaticalised and lexicalised aspectual reference.

Table 4: A summary of the description of the interaction of time reference, aspectual reference, 'perfect', 'modal auxiliaries' and time in BI

Q/A	Time Reference		Interaction
---	Implicit	Explicit	
1 Q		✓	✓
A	✓	✓	
2 Q		✓	✓
A	✓		
3 Q	✓		✓
A	✓	✓	
4 Q	✓		✓
A	✓	✓	
5 Q	✓		✓
A	✓	✓	
6 Q		✓	✓
A	✓	✓	
7 Q	✓		✓
A	✓		
8 Q	✓		✓
A	✓		
9 Q	✓	✓	✓
A	✓		
10 Q	✓		✓
A	✓	✓	
11 Q	✓	✓	✓
A	✓		
12 Q	✓		✓
A	✓	✓	
13 Q	✓		✓
A	✓		
14 Q	✓	✓	✓
A	✓	✓	
15 Q		✓	✓
A	✓	✓	
16 Q	✓		✓
A	✓		
17 Q	✓	✓	✓
A	✓	✓	
18 Q		✓	✓
A	✓		
19 Q	✓		✓
A	✓		

Note: Q/A stands for Question *T(anya)* and Answer *J(awab)*

I have shown that several essential aspectual distinctions in BI cannot be analysed in terms of perfective/imperfective opposition. While it is true that the progressive aspect in BI and habitual aspect are instances of imperfectivity there are such

aspectual distinctions such as iterative, inchoative, "durative", accidental, simulfactive as well as aspects of presence, instantaneity or immediacy, continuation, persistence or permanence, etc., which can either be perfective or imperfective'.

A separate account of 'perfect' in BI by using *sudah/telah* and *belum* or non-performed situation in BI has been attempted.

An illustration of the hypothetical interaction of time reference, aspect/aspectual reference, 'perfect', modal auxiliaries and time in BI is presented. A description of an actual interaction is presented. The study has shown and proved that the use of the terms 'aspect', 'aspectual reference', 'time or temporal reference', 'perfect', and 'tense' in BI seems to be viable and legitimate metalinguistically if an accurate account of the language is attempted.

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[1] IN. stands for Indonesian, as used by Gonda (1954).

[2] *sudah, telah* may also have aspectual meanings.

[3] *kemarin malam* can also be replaced by *tadi malam,* and the English gloss 'last night' fits both time adverbs.

[4] Kaswanti Purwo (1984, p. 230) concedes that *sudah* and *telah* are past time reference markers in BI.

[5] *datang sudah* used to achieve a stylistic effect such as used in songs is acceptable.

[6] Note that *nanti* in this respect can be subjectively interpreted either referring to immediate/not immediate future time reference, i.e., undetermined futurity.

[7] Kaswanti Purwo (1984, p. 253) shows that in modern BI (158b) and (159b) *dia kerjakan* or *dia ancam* 'he - threaten' are examples of 'zero passive'. There is no *di-* passive prefix in (158b), (159b) and in *dia ancam.* (Verhaar, 1984b, pp. 54-55) describes *dia kerjakan* as "zero" construction. The following example with its

literal translation is quoted by Verhaar (1984b, p. 55).

> *Hal   itu   harus   <u>dia   kerjakan</u>   sekarang*
> thing that have to   he   do   now
> 'That thing he has to do right now'

[8]Kridalaksana (1984, p. 18) also uses the term 'simulfactive aspect' to refer to *aspek yang menggambarkan perbuatan berlangsung serentak* (Lit.: an aspect category which describes actions which are simultaneously taking place). Kridalaksana's use of the term 'simulfactive' is not basically different from the use of the term 'simulfactive' in this study. The difference is on the use of the cover-term terms *perbuatan* in Kridalaksana's and 'situation' in this study, to describe the same phenomenon. Literally *perbuatan* means 'action, act, deed, performance, conduct, behaviour' in <u>BI</u> or Malaysian (See Echols and Shadily, 1963, p. 63, 1989, p. 90; Masri, 1973, p. 65).

[9]*sambil, seraya* and *sembari* all share the same English gloss 'while' in addition to other nuances expressed.

[10]Note that <u>once</u> cannot be used in the English gloss of (172a) either.

Chapter VI

Linguistic Contrasts in English and BI Time Concepts

6.0   Introduction

This chapter attempts to bring together the findings from Chapters IV and V. The linguistic contrasts in the English and BI time concepts as reflected in 'tense-aspect complexes' are examined. 'Common Denominators' in the time concepts of the two languages are established to form the basis on which the suggestions for the teaching of tense-aspect complexes in the English Department of IKIP/FKIPs will be based. Significant differences between the English and BI 'tense-aspect complexes' are also discussed.

6.1   Linguistic Contrasts

Any language can be viewed as a system of contrasts. Linguists use 'this most universal and fundamental feature of language' (Sole, 1980, p. 3) to isolate and identify items and structures in language description (p. 3). Such a system of contrasts, however, "has not been incorporated systematically nor coherently [into] FL teaching methodology" (p. 3). Sole (1980) reasons that within pedagogical contexts the recognition of linguistic contrasts in foreign language teaching methodology involves the employment of contrastive analysis of the target language and the native language. However, contrastive analysis itself has, during the past decades, been subjected to considerable criticism. In the light of some uncertainties with regard to the principles and assumptions which underlie contrastive analysis it is proper to seek alternatives elsewhere.

Uncertainties over contrastive analysis concern the predictions it makes. Several experiments, for example, disconfirm the prediction that a mismatch between L1 and L2 always results in interference. That the surface match between L1 and L2 does not

always facilitate learning is also widely accepted. Furthermore, contrastive analysis relies heavily on the assumption that any two languages can be compared. The danger of this assumption is that the researcher may be mapping out patterns which are applicable in L2 but not actually so in L1. The researcher might not be aware that what he is comparing are not really true correspondences. Nevertheless, apart from these shortcomings, contrastive analysis shows that L1 experience in some way affects L2 acquisition (Flynn, 1987, p. 24). Fisiak (1991, pp. 7, 59) states that L1 is one of the sources to which an L2 learner has recourse in an attempt to use and understand the target language. In contrast with studies which have been justly criticised for focusing on surface features without reference to the semantic relationship between languages, this study attempts to compare English and BI expressions of time concepts in a semantically based framework. It utilizes intra-language contrasts present in each of the languages being compared.

Intra-language contrasts are perceived by speakers of a language both consciously and unconsciously, and are presumed to assist them to communicate effectively. It is thanks to the employment of such means that they can presumably put across their messages effectively. These systems of contrasts can be found in phonology, syntax and semantics as well as in discourse (See Crystal, 1985, pp. 73-74; Hartmann and Stork, 1972, p. 53).

Language is "actualised through the observance of a set of opposing and contrasting structures, which are rearranged by a finite set of rules" (Sole, 1980, p. 2). The systems of contrasts of a language can be viewed to represent a set of patterns common to an indefinite number of different utterances (Sole, 1980, p. 3). As these systems of contrasts may differ from language to

language, one cannot completely match the contrasts available in one language to those available in another. Nonetheless, semanticists have postulated the existence of a 'natural semantic metalanguage' (See Wierzbicka, 1991, p. 335), and thus similarities of some sort can be gleaned for English and BI. Wierzbicka (1991, pp. 337-38), for example, treats 'time' as one of the roughly comparable elements of the same conceptual set in English, Latin, Russian and Japanese (Also see Garret, 1991, p. 81).

Proper understanding of linguistic contrasts within any two languages may help an analyst to see what is common in both languages. If a foreign language learner requires the mastery of such L1/L2 linguistic contrasts, these commonalities may be helpful. And to master certain types of L1/L2 contrasts, attention to form is necessary (See Long, 1990, p. 658).

Butterworth, et al., (1984, p. 2) show that commonalities in semantics cross-linguistically can be identified as "independently verifiable properties of human conceptualisation". Alternatively, these commonalities can be described as "commonsense consensus" about some aspects of the world that adults perceive (Gopnik, 1984, p. 176). This may lead to the belief that such commonalities and commonsense consensus may have a role to play in helping Indonesian EFL learners come to grips with grammatical contrasts in English. Gopnik (1984) believes that a commonsense consensus may be viewed to reflect "the particular theory that most people come to accept for most purposes" (p. 176).

6.2 Linguistic Contrasts in English and BI Time Concepts as Reflected in Tense-Aspect Complexes

As discussed in earlier chapters, both tense and aspect are related to time albeit in a different manner. It was stated that tense is a grammaticalised location of a situation in time which

is basically deictic and hence it is externally determined. Aspect, by contrast, is non-deictic: it is internally determined. Aspect concerns the different ways of viewing the internal structure or constituency of a situation. In terms of nomenclature, unfortunately, unlike tense, the term 'aspect' is often used to refer to both grammaticalised and lexicalised aspectual characteristics or aspectual reference.

The contrast between tense and aspect while useful for descriptive purposes, in practice is often blurred as both tense and aspect interact in such a subtle manner that unless an attempt is made to characterise each of the two categories separately, tense-aspect complexes seem to merge. This is perhaps due to the fact that both tense and aspect complexes are conceived as existing in time.

Although the surface realizations of both tense and aspect are far from uniform across languages of the world, Chapters IV and V show that there are certain elements in both English and BI which are comparable. English shows systematic contrasts in tense and aspect while BI, which does not, strictly speaking, have tense, can be shown to express aspectual characteristics in addition to deictic time reference. The range of aspectual characteristics and time reference in BI differs from that of English, nonetheless there are points which seem to indicate some kind of commonalities which can be postulated as "independently verifiable properties of human conceptualisation" (Butterworth,1984, p. 2) of time concepts in terms of 'tense-aspect complexes'.

6.2.1 Linguistic Contrasts in the English Time Concepts: Past, Present and Future

6.2.1.1 The English Tense System

The English tense system seen as a deictic category is basically related to the deictic centre, the here-and-now of

speech. While the English tense system is peripherally used in cases which do not concern deictic time, in non-peripheral cases contrasts can be systematically described in terms of intra-language contrast.

The most basic distinction in the English tense system is that between absolute tenses and absolute-relative tenses. Absolute tenses are the kinds of tenses which are determined with respect to the deictic centre, the moment of speech or the here-and-now of speech S. Within absolute tenses English distinguishes past tense, present tense and future tense. The English Present Tense is basically used to indicate a situation which obtains at the present time; that is, the situation is understood to be simultaneous with the moment of speech. The English Past Tense is used to indicate a past time reference; that is, the situation expressed in the past tense is located at some time before the moment of speech S. The English Future Tense basically locates a situation after the moment of speech S (See Chapter IV).

The three absolute tenses, the past tense, the present tense and the future tense do not overtly require a reference point. This absence of a reference point or according to Reichenbach (1947, p. 297) a coincidence between E and R in his SRE configurations, has led some to the use of the term 'simple' to distinguish them from other tenses. Apart from their different meanings, these three tenses have one thing in common; that is, the location of a situation in time is determined with respect to the present deictic centre S.

Absolute-relative tenses are described on the basis of the notion of absolute-relative time reference which determines the location of a situation in time with respect to a reference point which is itself located in terms of the deictic centre S. That is,

the temporal location in this tense is determined in terms of relative time reference and absolute time reference. This produces four contrasting tenses in English: the Pluperfect Tense, the Future Perfect Tense, the Future-in-the-past Tense and the Past Future Perfect Tense.

In the Pluperfect Tense the situation is located before a reference point which is itself located before the moment of speech S. Hence, the name of past-in-the-past tense is often designated for this tense. In the Future Perfect Tense the situation is located before a reference point which is itself located after the moment of speech S. In the Future-in-the-past Tense the situation is located after a reference point R which is in turn located before S. In the Past Future Perfect Tense the situation is located with respect to two reference points and the moment of speech S. Here the situation is located before a reference point which is itself located after a past reference point. What is common among these tenses is the fact that the location of a situation in these tenses requires R with respect to which the situation in question is ultimately located.

English does not use auxiliary-like particles to express the notions of distant past, distant future, recent past and immediate future explicitly.

6.2.1.2   The English Present Perfect

The English Present Perfect is known to resist rigid characterisation. There is much confusion over whether to include perfect under the category of tense or aspect (Bauer, 1970, p. 197; Comrie, 1976, p. 52; Hyman, 1984, p. 81; Salkie, 1987, p. 136). For example, if the accomplished nature of the situation is emphasized, the English Present Perfect can be considered under aspect. But if the emphasis is on the *before-and-up-to* S relation, which

is deictic, the English Present Perfect can equally be considered under grammaticalised time reference or tense (See Chapter III Section 3.7.2; Chapter IV Section 4.3.2).

In contrast to the Past Tense which locates a situation *wholly before* the moment of speech *S,* the English Present Perfect Tense locates a situation *before-and-up-to* the moment of speech. This *before-and-up-to* relation seems to characterise the basic meaning of the English Present Perfect. Comrie (1976, pp. 56-61) speaks of four types of perfect: perfect of result, experiential perfect, perfect of persistent situation and perfect of recent past. In each of these types, the *before-and-up-to S* relation seems to be expressed *in addition to* the respective 'perfect' meanings. It seems thus to be the case that the *before-and-up-to S* relation is indeed the common characteristic among the 4 different kinds of English (present) 'perfect'. Besides, the *before-and-up-to S* relation clearly distinguishes the English Present Perfect from either absolute tenses or absolute-relative tenses.

6.2.1.3 The English Aspect

A well-known contrast pervading the English aspectual system is between that of progressive and non-progressive. While the full range of uses of the English Progressive Aspect is very complex, for the purpose of introducing foreign learners of English to the Progressive Aspect it should suffice to say that the English Progressive Aspect basically expresses progressive meaning and nonstativity. In this sense, potentially all the absolute tenses, absolute-relative tenses and the present perfect in English can interact with progressive aspect when progressive meaning and nonstativity are expressed. Thus, the 16 (sixteen) forms of tense-aspect complexes in English in which 8 (eight)

forms represent the progressive aspect while the other 8 (eight) forms their non-progressive counterparts, may hypothetically be constructed.

The English Progressive Aspect has such a wide range of uses that it is impossible to provide a simple rule which operates across the board. To solve this problem Bache (1985a, 1985b) has devised a substitutional relation which determines the meanings of grammatical aspect. This enables an analyst to account for certain problems encountered, for example, in explaining the difference between the hypothetical English examples such as *I have lived here for two years* versus *I have been living here for two years* and *You look well* versus *You are looking well.* According to Bache, these exemplify the /-distinctive/ constructions. That is, these constructions are substitutable and the change of form does not really bring about a different meaning. They refer to potentially the same situation. *You seem well* versus **You are seeming well* exemplify /-opposed/ constructions. These constructions do not take progressive aspect. In *He writes a letter everyday* versus *He is writing a letter now* there is a real contrast between these constructions. According to Bache, they exemplify /+distinctive/ constructions.

The progressive meaning and nonstativity of the English Progressive Aspect impinge on the tenses (including the present perfect) as well as on the aspectual character of certain lexical verbs. In some verbs the use of progressive aspect is ruled out as in one particular instance the lexical verb expresses stativity. When the same lexical verb is used nonstatively, the use of progressive aspect is not ruled out, as in **Yes, I am understanding you* and *I'm understanding more about quantum mechanics as each day goes by* (See Comrie, 1976, p. 36). All these indicate that

there is no simple rule which can be used to account for every single use of progressive aspect in English. But for the purposes of teaching basic meanings in ESL/FL, the simple rule stated above can be helpful.

English is also known to have a past habitual aspect which is expressed by *used to* + *V*. The meaning of this aspect is that of a characteristic situation which obtained in the past. That the habit no longer holds at present is not the meaning of the past habitual aspect but an implicature (See Chapter IV, Sections 4.3 and 4.3.3).

6.2.2 Linguistic Contrasts in the BI Time Concepts: Past, Present and Future

6.2.2.1 Time Reference in BI

BI does not grammaticalise its deictic time reference. These kinds of time concepts in BI are realized either explicitly using time adverbs, auxiliaries or particles to convey past, present and future time references as well as recent/distant past and immediate/distant future time references, or implicitly being understood regardless of the absence of formal time reference indicaitors/markers in the utterance-act or in the discourse.

The linguistic contrasts of time concepts as expressed by the temporal-aspectual complexes in BI can be described in terms of past time reference, present time reference and future time reference (absolute time reference), as well as in terms of recent/distant past time reference and immediate/distant future time reference, that is, the kinds of time reference which take into account the distance in time between the situation and the moment of speech. BI also shows absolute-relative time reference by the employment of the notions absolute time reference in combination with relative time reference. Absolute time reference is both implicitly and explicitly expressed in BI whereas absolute-relative, recent/distant past and immediate/distant

future time references are explicitly expressed in this language.

When expressing explicit absolute time reference, BI makes a contrast between present time reference, past time reference and future time reference which roughly correspond to the basic meanings of the English present tense, past tense and future tense respectively. As BI does not grammaticalise its time reference, lexical items including particles, auxiliaries and time adverbs, etc., are used to express the intended time reference. Appropriate lexical items used correspond to the prototypical uses of the English present tense, past tense or future tense respectively.

English Pluperfect Tense, Future Perfect Tense and Future-in-the-past Tense (but not, strictly speaking, the Past Future Perfect Tense) can be explicitly rendered in BI also through lexical means and implicit time reference.

Observe the following. (1a, b, c) can be taken to exemplify the use of Future Perfect Time Reference in BI; (2) Pluperfect Time Reference; (3) Future-in-the-past Time Reference.

(1) a. _Besok   jam sepuluh pagi   pekerjaan ini sudah selesai_
    tomorrow hour ten morning work   this SUDAH finish
    'I will have finished the work by 10 a.m. tomorrow'
  b. _Besok jam sepuluh pagi pekerjaan ini sudah akan selesai_
    tomorrow hour ten morning work this SUDAH will finish
    'I will have finished the work by 10 a.m. tomorrow'
  c. _Tetapi ia   yakin,   bahwa paling   lama dalam_
    but   he confident   that most/-est long in
    duapuluh tahun kita   sudah akan menyamai mereka
    twenty year   we (incl.) SUDAH will   match   them
    (Kaswanti Purwo,1984, p. 230)
    'But he is confident that at the longest (duration) within 20
    years we will have matched them'
 (2) _Tidak sampai satu jam perjalanan, kami telah_
    not   until   one hour walk   we (incl.) TELAH
    sampai . . . . Petani-petani lain sudah duluan tiba
    reach   farmer RED   other SUDAH first arrive
    di sawahnya   masing-masing
    at rice-field-NYA   respective(ly) RED
    (Horison, February, 1987, p. 62)

'In less than one hour walk, we had already reached . . . .(the place). Other farmers had arrived earlier at their respective rice-fields'

(3) John left for the front. He would never return (Comrie, 1985, p. 75)

John berangkat (waktu itu) ke medan perang.
John leave for time that to field battle
Dia tidak akan kembali'
he not will return

In (3) the <u>BI</u> gloss' *John berangkat (waktu itu) ke medan perang. Dia tidak akan kembali'* can be taken to express Future-in-the-past time reference. The *R,* i.e., *John berangkat (waktu itu) ke medan perang* i.e., the past reference point, is located before *S* by using the lexical expression *(waktu itu)* or when it is not explicitly expressed, the past reference point *R* is assumed to be understood by the speaker and the hearer. The situation expressing Future-in-the-past time reference, i.e., *Dia tidak akan kembali* must be located after this past reference point *R.*

The English *will + have + past participle* which, in Comrie's terms (1985) expresses *E before R after S,* seems to be expressed lexically by the expressed situation along with *besok, at ten a.m.,* and *sudah* in (1a); *besok, at ten a.m., sudah akan,* in (1b); *dalam dua puluh tahun, sudah akan* in 1(c). (1a, b, c) can be described as expressing *E before R after S.* That is, the situation in (1a, b) is located *before R (jam sepuluh pagi)* which is *after S (besok).* The use of *akan* as shown in (1b) and not in (1a), seems to be optional. Even without *akan* the accomplished nature of the situation can still be expressed and the *after S* notion is lexically expressed by the use of *besok;* the situation in (1c) is located *before R after S :dalam dua puluh tahun (mendatang)* 'within twenty years (to come)'. The *R* here is the reference point within twenty years to come, and the situation expressed will have been finished by then. The *after S* notion seems to be only implicitly expressed in (1c).

The English *had + past participle,* which expresses *E before R before S, past-in-the-past* time reference, is also expressed in (2, 4a and 5).

In (4) and (5) the writer recounts the day when he leaves the city to go back to his home town.

(4) a. *Bagai seorang prajurit kalah perang, aku pulang*
      like   a   soldier lose war   I   return
      ke kampung halaman.   Meninggalkan seluruh
       to native village   leave   all
      perjoangan hidup yang <u>pernah</u> kupertaruhkan
      struggle for life   LIG   ever   I-risk
      dan semua berakhir dengan pahit dibanting
      and all   end   -ly   bitter smashed
      nasib dan kekerasan kota Jakarta
      fate and harshness city Jakarta
      (<u>Horison</u>, 1987, February, p. 61)
      'Like a soldier losing the war, I returned to my native
      village. Leaving all my struggle for life which I had risked
      and all ended up bitterly smashed by the fate and
      harshness of Jakarta city'.

   b. *Kuliah   sambil bekerja di sebuah perguruan tinggi*
      attend lectures SIM/and work   at a   learning   higher
      swasta   rontok   di tahun ketiga. Buruh   kasar
      private   drop out in year third   worker manual
      di sebuah pabrik limun, akhirnya hanya memperoleh
      in a   factory lemonade finally only   gain/get
      penyakit rematik. Jadi   pedagang kaki   lima, tak
      disease rheumatic become hawker/trader leg five   not
      pernah untung. Terakhir, semua barang dagangan
      ever   profit   in the end all   merchandise/goods
      disita   petugas yang mengadakan pembersihan
      be confiscated worker LIG to carry out cleaning
      pedagang kaki lima. Bekerja lagi sebagai pengawas
      hawker   leg   five   work   again   as   supervisor
      pada pembangunan sebuah gedung   bertingkat
      in   construction a   building multistoried
      baru seminggu aku <u>sudah</u> mengalami nasib sial,
      only one week I SUDAH experience luck bad/unfortunate
      jatuh terpeleset   dari tingkat tiga   bangunan.
      fall   slipped away from floor   third   building
      Aku luka berat pada bagian kaki. Sesudah sembuh,
      I   hurt badly on   part   leg   after   recovery
      kakiku sedikit pincang. Sungguh menyakitkan.

leg-my   a little crippled   really   hurt
Sudah   jatuh ditimpa tangga,   digigit   monyet pula.
SUDAH   fall   be struck ladder be bitten monkey too
Selamat tinggal Jakarta
Good bye   Jakarta
(Horison, 1987, February, p. 61)
'While working and attending lectures in a private
university I dropped out in the third year. As a manual
worker in a lemonade factory, only to find that I got a
rheumatic disease. Becoming a street hawker/trader,
I never made any profit. In the end the merchandise were
confiscated by the authority (worker) who carried out
the street traders cleaning operation. Working again as
a construction supervisor in a multistoried building in
only one week I had had a bad luck — I fell off slipping away
from the third floor of the building. I hurt badly on my
leg. After recovery, my leg was a little crippled. It
really hurt. Having fallen off I was struck by the ladder
and was bitten by a monkey, too. Good bye Jakarta'.

Although the writer does not explicitly use any past time ref-
erence marker in (4), a speaker of BI knows that the situation
expressed in (4) has past time reference including past-in-the-
past time reference. The past time reference is explicitly
expressed in (5) but not in (4). (5) is another paragraph that
follows (4). In itself (4) does not explicitly express past time
reference, and yet the R for the past-in-the-past time relation is
established on basis of this explicit past time reference and other
past time during which the writer's activities occurred. The R is
the arrival of the writer to his hometown or native village which
is explicitly expressed in (5).

(5) *Malam aku tiba di kampung halaman   yang sudah*
     at night I   arrive at native village   LIG   SUDAH
     enam tahun aku tinggalkan setelah menempuh perjalanan
     six   year I   leave   after   take   journey
     laut dan darat yang melelahkan. Kuketuk pintu rumah
     sea   and land LIG tiring   knock-I door   house
     kami,   rumah sederhana yang terbuat dari kayu
     our (excl.) house simple   LIG   made   of wood
     peninggalan almarhum ayahku. Gelap di dalam.
     inheritance the late father-I dark inside

Masih adakah ibu?
Is Mum still here?
(Horison, 1987, February, p. 61)
'At night I arrived at my native village. I have been away for
six years. I had done some land and sea travelling which was
very tiring. I knocked at the door of our old simple house
which was made of wood inherited from my late father.
(It was) dark inside. Is Mum still here?'

The explicit past time reference in (5) is expressed by *yang sudah enam tahun aku tinggalkan* 'which has been six years since I left', i.e., six years before the moment of speech *S*.

That BI does not have past future perfect tense (form) does not imply that it cannot express the idea of the past future perfect time reference. Confronted with, for example, such an English construction as (6)

(6) *John left for the front; by the time he should*
John berangkat DEF medan perang pada saat dia seharusnya
return, the fields would have been burnt to
kembali DEF ladang akan TELAH/SUDAH terbakar tinggal
stubble
tunggul/tunggak
(Comrie, 1985, p. 76)

a speaker of BI would express the idea of the past future perfect time reference in (6) by using the perfect particle *sudah (akan)*, as in (7).

(7) *Jon berangkat ke medan perang, saat dia kembali,*
John leave to field war by the time he return
(tanaman di) ladang itu sudah (akan) terbakar tinggal
(plant in) field the SUDAH (will) be burnt leave
tonggak-tonggak (tunggul-tunggul)nya
stubble -NYA
'John left for the front; by the time he should return
the fields would have been burnt to stubble'

There is a similarity in meaning between the English Past Future Perfect Tense and the BI 'Past Future Perfect Time Reference' as expressed in (7). In Comrie's framework (1985), the English Past Future Perfect Tense basically expresses *E before R_1 before R_2*

before S. The use of *sudah* refers to the accomplished nature of the situation by the time *John returned.* The use of *sudah* seems to be obligatory like the use of the Past Future Perfect Tense form *would have been burnt* as in (6). Unlike in English, however, to emphasize the idea of posteriority of the situation, BI can optionally use *akan.* The notion of posterioty in (7) seems to be expressed implicitly. Intuitively without *akan* as in (7a) the idea of past future perfect time reference can still be expressed. In (7) the *before R_1* and *after R_2* notions are explicitly expressed, but *before S* is only implicitly expressed. *Jon berangkat ke medan perang* establishes a past reference point R_2; *saat dia kembali* establishes the reference point R_1 which is posterior to *R2.* This situation: *(tanaman di) ladang itu sudah (akan) terbakar tinggal tonggak-tonggak (tunggul-tunggul)nya* is located in the past with respect to R_1. The *before S* notion is not at all explicitly expressed in (7). *Jon berangkat ke medan perang* does not express the past time reference explicitly, but if required, a speaker of BI may use *pada waktu itu* 'at that time' or *pada Perang Dunia II* 'in Second World War' to express the explicit past time reference as in (7a). Both English and BI as in (6) and (7), express the notions of R_1 and R_2 .

(7) a. *Jon berangkat ke medan perang pada waktu itu;*
    John leave to field war   at   time   that
    saat   dia kembali, (tanaman di)
    by the time he return   (plant   in)
    ladang itu sudah terbakar tinggal
    field the SUDAH burnt   leave
    tonggak-tonggak (tunggul -tunggul)nya
    stubble   -NYA
    'John left for the front at that time; by the time he should
    return the fields would have been burnt to stubble'

The linguistic contrasts of absolute time reference can be implicitly expressed in BI. For the discussion of implicit time

reference in <u>BI</u> see Section 5.3.1.2 in Chapter V. Such implicit time references are worked out on the basis of context. In particular, they can be worked out on the basis of:

i. the available explicit temporal information which is discoverable outside the utterance-act or discoverable in the earlier discourse in question.

ii. the speaker-hearer's shared knowledge which can be manifested in the form of previous experience which is formally absent from the utterance-act or discourse, or the information presently acquired by the speech participants, knowledge of the individual verbs, nouns, etc.

6.2.2.2   Aspectual Reference in <u>BI</u>

<u>BI</u>, apart from one or two instances, does not grammaticalize its aspectual distinctions as they are mostly lexicalised. That is, to express certain aspectual characteristics or aspectual reference <u>BI</u> uses meaningful aspectual particles in addition to the use of a number of grammatical aspectual devices.

<u>BI</u>, like English, seems to express progressive aspect (progressive meaning and nonstativity) by using a particle or an auxiliary. These cannot be used with verbs which have stative meaning. In the ungrammatical item (8b), the use of progressive aspect particle *sedang* is rendered inappropriate as there is stativity expressed by the lexical verb *mengerti* 'understand', as in (8).

(8) a. *Dia <u>mengerti</u> masalah itu*
       'S/he understands the problem'
   b. **Dia <u>sedang mengerti</u> masalah itu*
       '*S/he is understanding that problem'

There are five different particles or auxiliary words which can be used to express progressive aspect in <u>BI</u> depending on the different shades of meaning intended. These include *sedang,*

tengah, lagi, masih dan *baru.* For the discussion of these particles see Section 5.5.1 in Chapter V.

Other aspectual characteristics in <u>BI</u> include inchoative aspect expressed by using *mulai + meN + V, -lah* and *-pun* post-position, *meN + V;* iterative aspect expressed by using *meN + V + i, ber + V -an,* and reduplication of the word-base; durative aspect expressed by using *ada + V;* habitual aspect expressed by using such particles as *selalu, biasa, sering-sering, berkali-kali, kerap kali, acap kali, jarang,* etc.; accidental aspect expressed by using *ter + V;* aspect of presence expressed by using *zero passive;* simulfactive aspect expressed by using *sambil, seraya, sembari;* aspect of instantaneity or immediacy expressed by using *langsung* and *terus;* aspect of continuation expressed by using *terus;* aspect of persistence or permanence expressed by using *tetap.*

6.2.2.3 Perfect in <u>BI</u>

Various types of perfect in <u>BI</u> are expressed by the use of three lexical items or auxiliaries *sudah, telah* and *pernah. Telah* and *sudah* express the sense of perfect of result: the result of some past action or situation. In this sense *telah* and *sudah* are interchangeable. In other respect, however, *telah* and *sudah* are syntactically and semantically different. Syntactically, *sudah* can be followed by *-kah* but not *telah; sudah* can also be followed by *-lah* particle to express an emphasis but not *telah; sudah* can stand alone to function as a clause. Semantically, *telah* and *sudah* can be shown to be different. *Sudah* contrasts with *belum* while *telah* contrasts with *akan.* In addition, *telah* has the function of foregrounding but *sudah* does not (See Chapter 5, Section 5.5.9).

Pernah is distinct from *telah* and *sudah* in that it expresses experiential perfect, that is, a given situation has obtained at least once during the past time. The experiential perfect *pernah* is

different from the English experiential (present) perfect in that *pernah* can be related to a definite (distant) past time reference whereas the English experiential (present) perfect never collo- cates with definite past time adverbs — only with present time adverbs.

There are two important observations in this study in regard to the contrast between the English (present) perfect and the BI perfect. Chapter IV (Section 4.3.2) argues that the four different meanings of the English (present) perfect: perfect of result, experiential perfect, perfect of persistent situation, perfect of recent past, share the *before-and-up-to S* relation. Interestingly, this relation is not explicitly expressed in the perfect particles *telah, sudah* and *pernah.* These 3 perfect particles can collocate with past time reference markers such as *kemarin* 'yesterday', *minggu yang lalu* 'last week', *tahun yang lalu* 'last year', etc. The use of the BI perfect seems to express the accomplished nature of the situation. Another unique characteristic of perfect in BI, unlike the English present perfect, is that, the BI perfect never interacts with the BI progressive aspect.

6.2.2.4 *Belum* or non-performed situation(s) in BI

In contradistinction with *sudah,* BI uses *belum* to indicate that the situation in question is anticipated to obtain, that is, *sudah* emphasizes the accomplished nature of the situation while *belum* its non-accomplished or non-performed nature. *Belum* anticipates that the situation in question may obtain given the right circumstances. The English gloss of *belum* would roughly be 'not yet'. A situation with *belum* is very productive in BI in the sense that any situation which is anticipated and non- accomplished or non-performed regardless of the time reference expressed uses a particle *belum* which is placed before the verb

or the situation in question. *Belum* like *sudah* can stand alone to function as a clause.

6.3 "Common Denominators" in the English time concepts and those of BI as reflected in 'tense-aspect complexes'

In accounting for the tense-aspect complexes in English and BI, the framework proposed can serve to compare the relevant phenomena in two languages, in particular if the account is given in terms of *basic* meaning rather than including all the peripheral meanings. Because BI is known to be 'tenseless', the term 'tense-aspect complexes' is not applicable to BI. Various lexical items have been shown to express temporal and aspectual reference and it has been pointed out that aspect is only partially grammaticalised. Thus, the model for the description of BI contains the term 'temporal-aspectual complexes' corresponding to 'tense-aspect complexes' of English.

BI and English share the feature of expressing deictic time reference. However, English has mainly grammaticalised time reference in addition to lexical items with deictic meanings which are used in combination with tense while BI has almost nothing in the way of the English grammaticalised time reference but has lexicalised time reference. In addition, unlike English, BI makes use of implicit time reference which is basically worked out on the basis of "context". The implicit time reference allows BI to be seemingly indifferent to time reference. This does not mean that time reference does not play any role in BI. The fact that time reference is understood by speakers of BI shows that time reference in BI is not unspecified: it can be worked out automatically. Both BI and English employ the notion of deictic time to express time reference. If a speaker of BI assumes that the notion of time reference needs to be expressed to avoid

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ambiguity, he will intuitively use explicit time reference mark-
ers.

In terms of aspect both English and <u>BI</u> express non-deictic
time. Although the two languages differ in ways of expressing
this internal structure of a situation, they can be shown to oper-
ate aspectual distinctions on the basis of internal consideration.
Unlike English with its grammaticalised progressive versus non-
progressive aspect, <u>BI</u> mostly lexicalises its aspectual distinc-
tions. Both <u>BI</u> and English have their respective lexical verbs with
their aspectual characters which interact with progressive
aspect. English potentially allows progressive aspect to interact
with absolute tenses, absolute-relative tenses and the present
perfect. <u>BI</u>, by contrast, does not allow free interaction of the
progressive aspect with (present) perfect. It does, however, allow
interaction of progressive aspect with absolute time reference.

In the case of the present habitual and past habitual aspect,
<u>BI</u> and English show great differences. English distinctly gram-
maticalises both the present habitual and past habitual aspect.
Grammatically, <u>BI</u> does not show these aspectual characteristics.
This does not mean that <u>BI</u> expresses neither past nor present
habitual aspect. Depending on the time reference, <u>BI</u> expresses
habitual aspect by using a lexical item such as *setiap hari* 'every
day', *selalu* 'always', etc., which expresses a feature which is
characteristic of an extended period of time or a whole period of
time. This shows that the idea of the English Present and Past
Habitual Aspect can still be expressed in <u>BI</u>.

As regards the (present) perfect, unlike English which gram-
maticalises the notion of perfect, <u>BI</u> uses three different
particles. The English Present Perfect differs from the <u>BI</u> Perfect
in that the *before-and-up-to* S relation in the <u>BI</u> Perfect does not

constitute its defining characteristic. What is emphasized in the BI Perfect is the accomplished nature of the situation expressed regardless of whether it is related to the moment of speech S or not. In addition, along with perfect, BI uses *belum* productively to indicate that a situation is anticipated to obtain, or that it is not yet accomplished or performed. The English Present Perfect which shows a *before-and-up-to* S relation expresses different shades of meanings, such as perfect of result, experiental perfect, perfect of persistent situation and perfect of recent past. There is, thus, little in the way of commonalities between the English Present Perfect and the BI Perfect by comparison with the commonalities that obtain between the English absolute tense and the BI absolute time reference.

6.4 Interaction between tense/time reference, aspect/aspectual reference, perfect, 'modal auxiliaries' and time in English and BI

English is assumed to grammatically express the basic meaning of tense:

$$E \ (rel \ R)^{\ n} \ (rel \ S)$$
$$magn. \quad magn.$$

BI, by contrast, expresses E, minus the grammaticalisation of locating situations in time. In terms of time reference, however, BI may also express:

$$E \ (rel \ R)^{\ n} \ (rel \ S)$$
$$magn. \quad magn.$$

In other words, the existence of tense as a grammatical category in the fullest sense of the term is found in English. BI only uses partly grammaticalised and lexicalised future time reference. The use of *akan* to express future time reference, for example, is partly grammaticalised and lexicalised (See Chapter V, Section 5.3.1.1.5). In terms of meaning, however, BI expresses the basic meanings of absolute tenses, absolute-relative time tenses, and

the time reference with temporal distinction. In expressing these basic meanings the tripartite time division of past, present and future is expressed in both English and B̲I̲. The existence of aspect as a grammatical category, though not isomorphic, is found in both English and B̲I̲. The existence of perfect with different characteristics is found in both English and B̲I̲. These temporal-aspectual complexes will be used to assist an Indonesian EFL student to notice an individual English tense-aspect complexes cognitively when there is a need to focus on these complexes in the classroom. An Indonesian English teacher trainee needs the means to develop such activities.

6.4.1 Significant differences

In spite of the foregoing commonalities, there are differences to be noted. Formally tense-aspect complexes are found in English but not in B̲I̲. Different language specific characteristics must be taken into account in developing appropriate teaching strategies of the English tense-aspect complexes in the Indonesian EFL teacher education.

Figs. 9, 10 and 11 (Chapters III and IV) show how tense, aspect, aspectual reference, time/temporal reference, (present) perfect are interrelated in terms of 'situation/s', 'tense-aspect' complexes and 'modal and pragmatic complexes'. Intralingually the terms 'situation' and 'tense-aspect complexes' apply to English. As indicated in Chapters III and IV, the dotted lines in Fig.11 (Chapter IV) show that the interaction of tense, aspect, (present) perfect, time, 'mood/modality' and 'pragmatic issues' overrides the one-form-one-meaning relationship shown in Fig. 10 (Chapter III).

The description of the basic meanings of the English Present Tense, Past Tense, Future Tense, Pluperfect Tense, Future-in-

the-past Tense, Future Perfect Tense, Past Future Perfect Tense, Present Perfect, Progressive Aspect is in the 'grammatical dimension' Fig. 10 (Chapter IV). When these categories interact to express different shades of meanings, i.e., secondary meanings, the description is in terms of 'situation/s', 'tense-aspect complexes' and 'modal and pragmatic complexes' (For detailed explanation of terms see Chapter IV, Section 4.4.1.3).
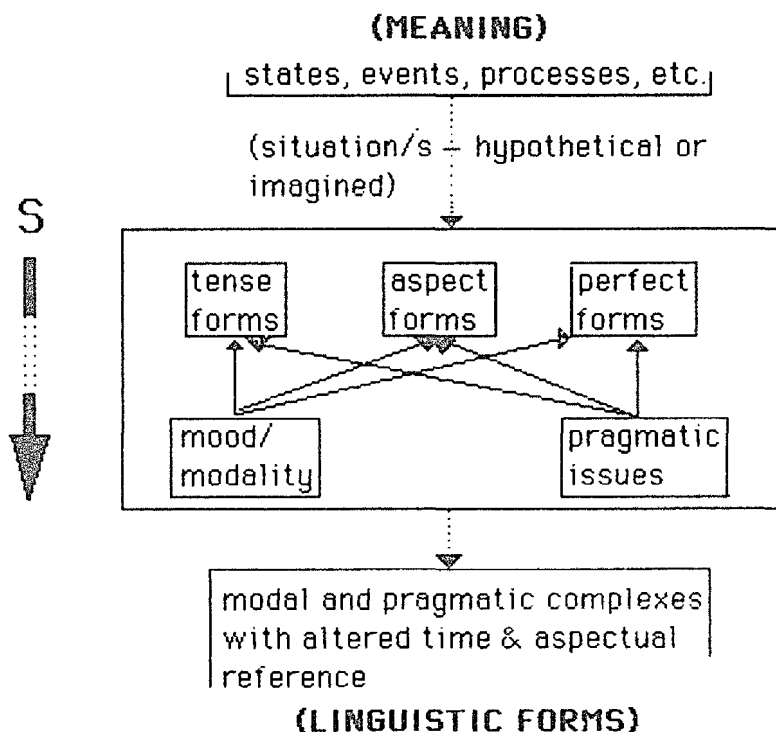
(MEANING)

| states, events, processes, etc.|

(situation/s – hypothetical or imagined)

S

tense forms   aspect forms   perfect forms

mood/ modality   pragmatic issues

modal and pragmatic complexes with altered time & aspectual reference

(LINGUISTIC FORMS)

Fig.11: A representation of peripheral (non-protoypical) meanings of tense, aspect, (present) perfect in English (See Chapter IV)

A similar model with some modifications has been developed to describe the BI time/temporal reference, aspectual reference, 'perfect' (Figs. 14b and 14c, see Chapter V). In contrast with the English model the term 'tense-aspect complexes' is not used directly in referring to BI. Instead, the term 'temporal-aspectual complexes' is used. An interaction between time reference, aspectual reference, aspect, perfect, 'modal auxiliaries' and time

in BI is presented in Fig. 14d. The interaction is described in terms of 'situation/s', 'temporal-aspectual complexes' and 'modal and pragmatic complexes'. The one-form-one-meaning relationship is not established in both of the description of BI temporal-aspectual complexes and their interaction.
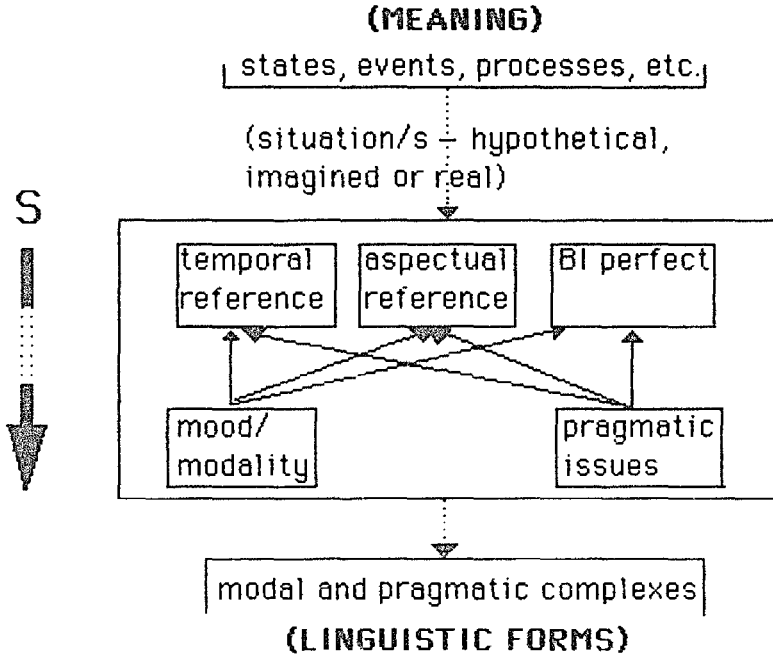
(MEANING)

| states, events, processes, etc.|

(situation/s - hypothetical, imagined or real)

S

| temporal reference | aspectual reference | BI perfect |

| mood/ modality | pragmatic issues |

| modal and pragmatic complexes|

(LINGUISTIC FORMS)

Fig. 14d: A model to describe the proposed interaction between time reference, aspectual reference, aspect, perfect, 'modal auxiliaries', time and other related phenomena in BI (See Chapter V)

For both English and BI, the terms 'time reference', 'aspectual reference' and 'situation' are used to describe the interaction between tense-aspect complexes, modal auxiliaries and time. The term 'tense' is fully used in the description of the English tense-aspect complexes but not in the BI temporal-aspectual complexes. The term 'future tense' is used in the description of the future time reference in English as well as in BI. The term 'aspect' is used in both English and BI though not isomorphically. The term 'time reference' can be used both in the description of the English tense-aspect complexes and the related phenomena in BI, i.e.,

temporal-aspectual complexes.

In the proposed models, the interaction of tense-aspect complexes or temporal-aspectual complexes with or without time in English and <u>BI</u> can be described.

6.5 Summary

English and <u>BI</u> show different systems of temporal and aspectual reference. This does not imply, however, that the systems in the two languages cannot be related at all. In terms of deictic time it turns out that the two systems are not unrelated. Irrespective of the differences in their surface realizations, conceptually the English tense and the <u>BI</u> time reference systems can be shown to have certain properties in common: both languages employ the here-and-now of speech S. Within the English tense system, two contrasts can systematically and formally be described: absolute tenses versus absolute-relative tenses. Within the <u>BI</u> time reference system, these contrasts are lexically expressed. Lexically expressed <u>BI</u> time reference is found within absolute time reference and in certain cases absolute-relative time reference, in addition to the contrasts found in recent/distant past and immediate/distant future time reference. The contrasts in the absolute-relative time reference in <u>BI</u> differ from those of English in that <u>BI</u> lexically combines the absolute time reference with relative time reference. It is basically semantic rather than syntactic expression of time reference. In addition, <u>BI</u> does not seem to possess formal means with which to express the meaning of past future perfect tense.

Another major difference in terms of time reference between English and <u>BI</u> is that <u>BI</u> can express time reference both explicitly and implicitly while English has obligatory explicit expression by means of a tense category. It has been shown that

the English tense-aspect system prototypically has one form-one-meaning relationship where the <u>BI</u> temporal and aspectual system does not.

On the comparison between the English Present Perfect and the <u>BI</u> Perfect, the English Present Perfect is shown to be different from the <u>BI</u> Perfect in that the English Present Perfect is basically characterised by the *before-and-up-to S* relation unlike the <u>BI</u> Perfect which is characterised by the accomplished nature of the situation. The English Present Perfect never collocates with a definite past time adverb whereas the <u>BI</u> Perfec. interacts freely with a definite past time adverb.

With the progressive aspect, basically both English and <u>BI</u> progressive aspect are characterised by progressive meaning and nonstativity. There are English and <u>BI</u> verbs which do not interact with progressive aspect if stativity is expressed. While potenttially all the English tenses and Present Perfect can interact with progressive aspect there are heavy restrictions on the <u>BI</u> Progressive Aspect. In <u>BI</u>, the Perfect never interacts with the progressive aspect but such interaction is not ruled out with the <u>BI</u> absolute time reference.

With the habitual aspect, conceptually <u>BI</u> and English express the same past and present habitual aspect. But on the surface, English and <u>BI</u> show great differences. English distinctively grammaticalises present and past habitual aspect. <u>BI</u>, by contrast, mainly uses the same lexical items which express habitual meaning for both past and present habitual aspect. The past and present habit in <u>BI</u> are shown by the presence of the expressed time reference either explicitly or implicitly.

Interaction between tense-aspect complexes, perfect, 'modal auxiliaries' and time in both English and <u>BI</u> has been explored.

Point of convergence between English and <u>BI</u> has been shown in the proposed models: intra-lingually 'situation' and 'tense-aspect complexes' apply to English whereas 'situation' and 'temporal-aspectual complexes' apply to <u>BI</u>. The proposed models attempt to converge the description of the English and <u>BI</u> time concepts as reflected in different linguistic expressions of temporal and aspectual complexes. Implications of the study on how to use the models will be presented in Chapter VIII.

Chapter VII

The Teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes in Indonesian EFL Teacher Education in the English Department in the Institutes/Faculties of Teacher Training and Pedagogy 'IKIP/FKIPs' in Indonesia

7.0 General problems in the teaching of English as a Foreign Language in Indonesia

The teaching of English as a foreign language in Indonesian schools and universities is not proving successful. Different reasons have been offered as to the cause of the failure of the teaching of English in Indonesian schools and universities. Low student motivation in learning EFL is one of these, and may be related to the difficulty students experience with some features of English. The belief that learning the English tense-aspect complexes for Indonesian EFL students is too difficult needs to be explored.

Foreign language learners, including Indonesian EFL learners, are deprived of the rich linguistic environment necessary for the acquisition of the language being studied. This is not to say that foreign language teaching is always a total failure. Foreign language teachers know that some learners of a foreign language attending 'normal foreign language classes', i.e., 'formal learning situation' (See Pienemann, 1987, p. 146) do attain a reasonable degree of fluency despite the lack of the rich linguistic environment found in a first language acquisition setting. But as the majority of foreign language learners, including Indonesian EFL learners, cannot be described as attaining the expected 'fluency' (cf. Alisjahbana, 1990, pp. 320-22; Grow, 1987, p. 81; Ramelan, 1988, p. 8), there is a need to find ways of solving the problem.

It is commonly believed that the right teaching method is the key to success in teaching foreign languages. But Prabhu (1990)

argues that "there is no best method" (p. 161) in language pedagogy. In reference to EFL Indonesian secondary education, Tomlinson (1990, p. 36) believes that the actual methodology adopted by an EFL teacher in an Indonesian EFL classroom is not a crucial factor in achieving successful language learning (See Chapter 2, Section 2.1). Also, Long (1989, p. 4) shows that ". . . there really seems to be very little justification for the continuing debate about methods, let alone for the hunt for the single correct one".

Nationwide research on the teaching of English in Indonesian Junior and Senior Secondary Schools (SMP/SMA) by the Education Department concluded that failure in the teaching of English as a foreign language in Indonesian Junior and Senior Secondary Schools was due to the English teachers' limited proficiency in addition to inadequate teaching hours (Tempo, 5 Desember 1987). Ramelan (1988, pp. 27-28) states that the results of teaching English in Indonesian schools, universities, and English Departments at IKIPs are unsatisfactory because of, among others, low student motivation, low teacher competencies, big class size, lack of exposure to the use of English, inadequate English textbooks, wrong teaching methods and 'lack of supervision'. Ramelan (1988) notes that because the present school examination system for the teaching of English in Indonesia is structure-oriented, Indonesian SMP/SMA English teachers "feel compelled to deal more with them [i.e., English sentence structures] in the classroom". Because of this, Indonesian students learn the English structures and do not acquire communicative competence (p. 26).

There seems to exist a backwash effect of examinations (Cunningsworth, 1984, p. 24) in teaching and learning English in Indonesian secondary schools. English is a compulsory subject in

the tertiary entrance examination in the Social Sciences[1].
Because of this, in general, secondary school students and Indo-
nesian EFL teachers alike are serious about passing the English
written tertiary entrance examination which is partly structure-
oriented. To prepare for the present English tertiary entrance
examination both the students and the EFL teachers require form-
focused classroom activities.

Talking about the results of the teaching of English in Indo-
nesian schools usually results in a vicious circle. When asked
about the inability of the new students at the university to use
English, the university lecturers refer to the SMA English teach-
ers who are responsible for English at SMA level. When the SMA
English teachers are asked about the inability of the SMA
graduates to use English, they reason that the incoming SMA first
year students do not have the basic knowledge of English taught at
the SMP. They state that the SMP English teachers are responsible
for this failure.

In addition to the problems already outlined, a negative force
works against the successful acquisition of communicative
competence in English in Indonesian schools. There is a negative
attitude in the society towards English that needs to be addressed
in Indonesia. A positive attitude towards English needs to be
fostered to increase students' motivation to learn English (Prof.
Dr. H. Achmad Djunaedi, MSc., in Kompas, 18 Desember 1990). In
this thesis an attempt will be made to establish the means by
which a positive attitude towards the learning of the English
tense-aspect complexes can be developed and fostered in Indo-
nesian schools. It is hoped that this study can facilitate further
work which may lead to a clear presentation of the English tense-
aspect complexes applicable to the teaching of Structure I and

<u>Structure II</u> in Indonesian EFL teacher education.

An EFL teacher trainer teaching <u>Structure I</u> and <u>Structure II</u> at IKIP/FKIPs requires adequate materials to be able to equip EFL teacher trainees with the required metalinguistic awareness so that they can, in turn, become effective teachers of English with the capacity for clear presentation of the English tense-aspect complexes. Directly related to this will be the teacher trainers' own assumptions about these tense-aspect complexes and the assumptions which are implicitly or explicitly expressed in the textbooks set for the teacher trainees.

In order to explore currently available materials as well as the teacher trainers' assumptions, two additional inquiries have been carried out. These were textbook analysis and a mail questionnaire study. The textbooks used for the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes at the S1 EFL teacher education at IKIP/FKIPs have been analysed. The mail questionnaire study has yielded information on the assumptions adopted by the teacher trainers in teaching the English tense-aspect complexes to S1 EFL teacher trainees.

7.1 **Analysis of the textbooks used in the current situation of the teaching of English tense-aspect complexes in Indonesian EFL teacher education in the English Departments at the Institutes/Faculties of Teacher Training and Pedagogy 'IKIP/FKIPs'.**

The curriculum content for the teaching and learning of the English tense-aspect complexes in Indonesian English teacher education in IKIP/FKIPs is put together and formally organized in <u>Structure I</u> and <u>Structure II</u>. According to the <u>Pedoman . . .</u>, 1982, <u>Structure III</u> is intended to train the student to study in depth the grammatical patterns in the English Grammar including the English tense-aspect complexes which are taught and learnt in <u>Structure I</u> and <u>Structure II</u>.

For the teaching of <u>Structure I</u> in S1 Indonesian English teacher education, the 1982 Handbook for the Implementation of the Renewal Model of the System of Teacher Education (<u>Pedoman</u> . . ., 1982) contains *Pengenalan pola-pola dasar Tata Bahasa Inggris (Permulaan). Perbedaan-perbedaan utama antara pola-pola Tata Bahasa Inggris dengan pola-pola Tata Bahasa Indonesia* (<u>Pedoman</u> . . ., 1982, p. 11) 'Introduction to the basic grammatical patterns[2] in English Grammar/Elementary. The focus is on the main differences between the basic grammatical patterns of English and <u>BI</u>'. For the teaching of <u>Structure II</u> it contains *Pengluasan pola-pola dasar tata-bahasa Inggris (Menengah)* (<u>Pedoman</u> . . ., 1982, p. 12). 'Elaboration of the basic patterns in English Grammar (Intermediate)'. For the teaching of <u>Structure III</u> it contains *Pendalaman pola-pola tata-bahasa Inggris* (<u>Pedoman</u> . . ., p. 1982, p. 12). 'A study in depth of the grammatical patterns in the English Grammar'.

Several textbooks are used by individual teacher trainers or lecturers in the teaching of <u>Structure I</u> and <u>Structure II</u> in the four Indonesian English Teacher Training Departments at IKIP/ FKIPs. Information about the textbooks used for the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes in <u>Structure I</u> and <u>Structure II</u> was obtained in response to a mailed request to each Head of Department of English Teacher Education, <u>Jurusan Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris</u>, at <u>IKIP Jakarta</u>, <u>IKIP Bandung</u>, <u>IKIP Malang</u>, <u>IKIP Surabaya</u>, <u>IKIP Yogyakarta</u>, <u>IKIP Semarang</u>, <u>FKIP Universitas Katolik Widya Mandala</u>, and other lecturers known to the researcher at these IKIP/FKIPs in December 1989. Only <u>IKIP Bandung</u>, <u>IKIP Malang</u>, <u>IKIP Surabaya</u> and <u>FKIP Universitas Katolik Widya Mandala</u> responded. The study analyses the textbooks used at the S1 English Department programme at these four IKIP/FKIPs from the

point of view of the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes. Table 5 lists the textbooks analysed.

In a foreign language teaching classroom materials are often developed to substitute for the natural linguistic environment. Such a replacement, however, does not always succeed. language acquisition fails to take place such a failure can in many cases be attributed to lack of appropriate materials. Or perhaps the language teacher is not aware of the assumptions embodied in the textbook and thus the way the teacher uses the textbook in the classroom is incompatible with the expected outcomes. Hutchinson (1987) notes that "materials evaluation plays . . . an important role in language teaching [and] its potential for influencing the way teachers operate is considerable " (p. 37).

One of the possible positive benefits of the present textbook analysis is that it spotlights the strengths and weaknesses of each textbook assessed. The results will enable teacher trainers to identify areas of the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes which require additional grammatical explanation (See Cunningsworth, 1984, p. 18).

The literature of EFL textbook evaluation is not very extensive. Sheldon (1988) advances a set of 'common core' qualitative criteria one of which is 'Selection/grading'. Under this criterion, he addresses the following questions.

> -Does the introduction, practice, recycling of new linguistic items seem to be shallow/steep enough for your students?
> -Is there a discernible system at work in the selection and grading of these items (e.g., on the basis of frequency counts, or on the basis of useful comparisons between the learner's mother tongue and English?
> -Is the linguistic inventory presented appropriate for your purpose, bearing in mind the L1 background(s) of your learners? (p. 243).

The proposed evaluative criteria in this study do not address the

above questions fully. Rather, they are concerned with certain specialised dimensions relevant to theoretical and pedagogical adequacy in the presentation of tense-aspect complexes for Indoesian EFL teacher education. The evaluative criteria are developed on the basis of Comrie's unified theory of tense (1985) and the 'theory' of aspect (1976) which are assumed to be applicable across languages. Because of this the belief that learning English tense-aspect complexes is difficult because <u>BI</u> is assumed to be a tenseless language needs to be explored. It has been shown that English tense-aspect complexes can be related to <u>BI</u> temporal-aspectual complexes though not in one-to-one correspondence (See Chapters III, IV and V).

7.1.1 Scope of the Analysis

The analysis is mainly concerned with the textbooks used for teaching the English tense-aspect complexes in <u>Structure I</u> and <u>Structure II</u> in the four English Departments at the four <u>IKIP/ FKIPs,</u> i.e., <u>IKIP Bandung, IKIP Malang, IKIP Surabaya</u> and <u>FKIP Universitas Katolik Widya Mandala</u>. An additional textbook, i.e., Textbook 1 (<u>Creative English untuk Sekolah Menengah Pertama</u>), which consists of Books 1, 2, 3 (by Dr. J.C. Richards and Drs. Made Markus (1982, 1985). Jakarta: Pustaka Ilmu), is analysed together with Textbook 2. Textbooks 1 and 2 are used in the teaching of English in the Indonesian secondary schools (SMP/SMA). Only Textbook 2 is used in <u>IKIP Bandung</u> for the teaching of <u>Structure I</u>. In these two textbooks the teaching of tense-aspect complexes is consecutively presented.

The textbooks analysed are:

1. <u>Creative English untuk Sekolah Menengah Pertama:</u> Book 1, 2, 3 by Dr. J. C. Richards and Drs. M. Markus. (1985). Jakarta: Pustaka Ilmu.
2. <u>Creative English untuk Sekolah Menengah Atas:</u> Book 1, 2, 3 by

Dr. J. C. Richards and Drs. M. Markus.(1984). Jakarta: Pustaka Ilmu.

3. English Sentence Structure by R. Khron. (1971). Michigan: The University of Michigan.

Table 5: Textbooks used in Structure I and Structure II in IKIP Bandung, IKIP Malang, IKIP Surabaya and FKIP Universitas Katolik Widya Mandala

No.	Structure I				Structure II			
	B	M	S	WM	B	M	S	WM
1								
2	+							
3		+	+					
4	+							
5					+			
6					+			
7			+				+	
8		+	+	+		+	+	+
9	+							
10		+		+		+	+	+
11					+			
12	+							
13				+				+
14		+	+	+		+	+	+

(B stands for 'IKIP Bandung'; M 'IKIP Malang'; S 'IKIP Surabaya'; WM 'FKIP Universitas Katolik Widya Mandala'. Textbook 1 is not formally used in the four IKIP/FKIPs)

4. Graded Exercises in English. R. J. Dixson (1971). U.S.A: Regents Publishing Company, Inc.

5. An Intermediate English Practice Book. S. Pit. Corder (1978). Hong Kong: Longman Group (FE) Ltd.

6. Let's Write English: Revised Edition by G. E. Wishon and J. M. Burks. (1980). New York: American Book Company.

7. Living English Structure by W. S. Allen. (1974). London: Longman.

8. Mastering American English: Handbook-Workbook of Essentials by R. E. Hayden, D. W. Pilgrim, A. Q. Haggard. (1956). Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc.

9. Objective English Tests by A. R. B. Etherton (1975). Yogyakarta: Kanisius.

10. A Practical English Grammar by A. J. Thomson and A. V.

Martinet. (1980). London: Oxford University Press.

11. Practical English Usage by M. Swan. (1980). Oxford: Oxford: University Press.

12. Practice and Progress by L. G. Alexander. (1984). Singapore: Longman Singapore Publishers Pte Ltd.

13. A Remedial English Grammar for Foreign Students by F. T. Wood (1965). Hong Kong: Macmillan Publishers, Ltd.

14. Understanding and Using English Grammar: Second Edition by B. S. Azar (1989). New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc.

7.1.2   Evaluative Dimensions

Cunningsworth (1984, p. 43) notes that there must be some kind of "relative proportion of material for **presentation, practice and free production"**. There must be a well-reasoned balance to prepare an EFL student for "the real world" with "clear presentation of grammar" in order to "get a firm grounding in the basics of English". As the study attempts to develop a clear presentation of the English tense-aspect complexes to be used in the teaching of Structure I and Structure II English Department, S1 programme, IKIP/FKIPs, the 14 textbooks listed are evaluated from the point of view of their presentation of the English tense-aspect complexes both theoretically and pedagogically. To achieve this goal, four evaluative dimensions along with the criteria of theoretical and pedagogical adequacy have been developed for the assessment of the textbooks.

The teacher trainer in charge of the teaching of Structure 1 and Structure II, including the English tense-aspect complexes, has the choice of presenting the language as form *per se* (i.e., 'presented as a closed grammatical system') or of integrating the tense-aspect complexes into other language activities, (i.e., 'presented as a communicative system in a context of use', See Cunningsworth, 1984, p. 15). Because the presentation of the English tense-aspect complexes in the textbooks is assessed in terms of Comrie's unified theory of tense which is characterised

in terms of a prototype (See Comrie, 1985, p. 22), the following proposed evaluative criteria do not take into account the two types of presentation. Neither do they take into account the distinction between deductive and inductive presentation of the English tense-aspect complexes. Alexander (1990, p. 381) claims that "There is only one (and there only ever was one) method for teaching grammar and that is through explanation. The explanation might be direct, or induced, but explanation is the only method available". He further notes, hence, that "The essence of grammar teaching is appropriate explanation" (p. 381). The four evaluative dimensions are as follows.

i. Dimension 1: Definitions
Are explicit, theoretically adequate, definitions of the English tense-aspect complexes presented?

ii. Dimension 2: System Presentation
Is an analysis of the categories of the English tense-aspect complexes as a system, that is, comparison of the different categories with one another within the system, provided?

iii. Dimension 3: Time Relation
Are illustrations of tense, aspect, (present) perfect, 'modal auxiliaries', and the interaction of these categories with time and other phenomena presented?

iv. Dimension 4: Contrastive
Is a contrastive analysis of the English tense-aspect complexes and those of BI provided?

In this analysis the following assumptions are adopted: that although in its central function tense is deictic, in its peripheral sense tense may/may not be related to time; aspect, by contrast, is not directly related to time as in tense-time relationship, i.e., aspect is non-deictic (Comrie, 1985, p. 14; Lyons, 1977, p. 705;

Quirk, et al., 1985, p. 188). The description and discussion of aspect, (i.e., the internal structure of a situation) can be independent of its relation to any other time points. But a situation reported through tense and/or aspect did occur in time. The adoption of these assumptions is based on Comrie's work on tense (1985) and aspect (1976).

Results from the application of the four evaluative dimensions will be used to complement the base from which suggestions are proposed in an attempt to develop an effective teaching model of the English tense-aspect complexes in the S1 English Departments at the IKIP/FKIPs (See Chapter VIII).

7.1.2.1 Adequacy rating of the four evaluative dimensions in the textbook assessment

Adequacy rating of the textbooks being assessed will be provided along the four evaluative dimensions. The criteria of adequacy rating of each dimension are set up as follows.

7.1.2.1.1 Dimension 1: Definitions

Criteria of theoretical adequacy of <u>Dimension 1</u> are:

a. presence of definition(s).

b. explicitness of definition(s).

c. comprehensiveness in terms of the level of each textbook.

d. accuracy of grammatical description.

e. differentiation of related but different categories.

f. consistency. This term is used for the consistency in the use of the terms 'tense' and 'aspect' defined implicitly or explicitly in the description. If there is no attempt to separate the categories of 'tense' and 'aspect' the consistency criterion does not apply.

Criteria of pedagogical adequacy of <u>Dimension 1</u> are

a. explication of theoretical input.

b. cultural relevance of illustrative material and non-verbal support to presentation of concept.

c. consistency with theoretical statements.

d. principles of selection of materials treated.

e. principles of sequencing of materials treated.

7.1.2.1.2 Dimension 2: System Presentation

Criteria of theoretical adequacy of <u>Dimension 2</u> are

a. presence of system presentation.

b. comparative or separate category presentation.

c. consistency in the use of the terms 'tense' and 'aspect'.

The criteria of pedagogical adequacy of <u>Dimension 2</u> are similar to those of pedagogical adequacy of <u>Dimension 1</u>.

7.1.2.1.3 Dimension 3: Time Relation

Criteria of theoretical adequacy of <u>Dimension 3</u> are

a. presentation of tense-aspect complexes in terms of time.

b. explicit use of the tripartite time division past, present and future.

c. explicit use of the deictic centre, S, as one of the parameters of locating situations in time.

d. peripheral and basic meanings of the English tense-aspect complexes.

The criteria of pedagogical adequacy of <u>Dimension 3</u> are similar to those of pedagogical adequacy of <u>Dimension 1</u>.

7.1.2.1.4 Dimension 4: Contrastive

Criterion of theoretical adequacy of <u>Dimension 4</u> is

a. presence of a contrastive analysis of the English tense-aspect complexes and those of <u>BI</u>.

The criteria of pedagogical adequacy of <u>Dimension 4</u> are similar to those of pedagogical adequacy of <u>Dimension 1</u>.

7.1.3   Evaluation

To obtain a clear picture of how a textbook presents the English tense-aspect complexes, each textbook will be assessed

on the basis of the criteria of the four dimensions developed for the adequacy rating. Each textbook has been examined to determine the existence or otherwise of each criterion within each of the four evaluative dimensions. In order to enable the texts to be compared on the basis of the criteria which have been isolated, the judged adequacy or inadequacy of the text has been recorded for each sub-criterion and the overall level of adequacy on that criterion will be expressed as a percentage. No particular claims are being made as to the significance of these quantified expressions *per se:* the object is simply to facilitate the comparative evaluation of the texts on the criteria. The first assessment is in terms of theoretical adequacy and the second assessment is in terms of pedagogical adequacy.

7.1.3.1   Theoretical Adequacy
7.1.3.1.1   Dimension 1: Definitions

(Are explicit, theoretically adequate, definitions of the English

tense-aspect complexes presented?)

To assess each textbook on the basis of Dimension 1: Definitions, Criteria 7.1.2.1.1 are used.

Of the 14 (fourteen) textbooks analysed only in two textbooks, Textbook 8: Mastering American English (Hayden, et al., 1956) and Textbook 11: Practical English Usage (Swan, 1980), is there an attempt to define the term 'tense' in the presentation. Hayden, et al., (1956) state that "Tense rerers to the form of the verb used". Tense is a formal grammatical category (p. 71). Swan (198^ o. xxiii) defines tense as "a verb form which shows the time of an action or event". In Textbook 6: Let's Write English: Revised Edition, Wishon and Burks (1980) do not define the term 'tense' but use the term 'grammatical forms' to refer to 'tense', or more generally the tense-aspect complexes. Hayden, et al., (1956), Swan (1980) and Wishon and Burks (1980) use the term 'tense' to

refer to 'verb form' or 'grammatical form' or broadly speaking to the English tense-aspect complexes. Swan (1980), for example, provides three different verb forms that show past, present and future time, i.e., *saw, is sitting, will go.* Here he treats tense and aspect under the same framework, i.e., these verb forms are described in terms of 'tense'. That is, Swan (1980, p. xxiii) asserts implicitly that *is sitting* is a tense category. In the description Swan (1980) uses the terms 'past simple tense', 'present simple tense', 'perfect tenses', 'the future', and 'progressive tenses'. Similarly Hayden, et al., (1956, pp. 71-100) describe progressive aspect and present perfect under tense. Hayden, et al., (1956), use the term 'The Simple Present Tense', 'The Simple Past Tense', 'The Future Tense', 'The Perfect Tenses', 'The Progressive Tenses' to describe the English tense-aspect complexes (pp. 59-108). Wishon and Burks (1980) use the term tense to refer to time relationship, completion, and progressivity of the situation expressed (p. 192). In spite of the use of the definition of tense, Hayden et al., (1956), Swan (1980) and Wishon and Burks (1980) do not explicitly use the definition of tense in the description. For this reason the presentation is not explicit, accurate or consistent with the theoretical statements made. These three textbooks do not meet Criteria b, d and f, but meet Criteria a, c and e.

Other textbook writers, i.e., Textbook 1: Richards and Markus (1985), Textbook 2: Richards and Markus (1984), Textbook 3: Khron (1971), Textbook 4: Dixson (1971), Textbook 5: Corder (1978), Textbook 7: Allen (1974), Textbook 10: Thomson and Martinet (1980), Textbook 12: Alexander (1984), Textbook 13: Wood (1965), Textbook 14: Azar (1989) also use the term 'tense' but without defining it, to refer to the English tense-aspect complexes. They seem to use the folk or traditional definition of tense used as a

cover-term to subsume both tense and aspect. That is, the term 'tense' is used as a cover term to refer to grammaticalisation of locating situations in time relative to the deictic centre and/or other reference points, progressive aspect and present perfect in the course of the presentation. In other words, the writers of Textbooks 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 10, 12, 13 and 14 do not define the term 'tense' but differentiate tense-aspect categories in the presentation. Because of this failure, these textbooks do not meet criteria a, b, d and f. The only textbook writer who does not use the term 'tense' at all is Etherton (1975), Textbook 9: <u>Objective English Tests</u>. The textbook is not designed for the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes nor grammar practice. It meets Criterion c only. In terms of 'comprehensiveness' of the level of each textbook, the 14 (fourteen) textbooks meet Criterion c.

The rating of theoretical adequacy of <u>Dimension 1: Definitions</u> in terms of Criteria a, b, c, d, e and f is shown in Table 6. This table

Table 6: <u>Dimension 1</u> theoretical adequacy rating

Textbook	Rating of theoretical adequacy in %						Proportion of criteria met in %
	a	b	c	d	e	f	
1	–	–	✓	–	✓	–	33.3
2	–	–	✓	–	✓	–	33.3
3	–	–	✓	–	✓	–	33.3
4	–	–	✓	–	✓	–	33.3
5	–	–	✓	–	✓	–	33.3
6	✓	–	✓	–	✓	–	50
7	–	–	✓	–	✓	–	33.3
8	✓	–	✓	–	✓	–	50
9	–	–	✓	–	–	–	16.7
10	–	–	✓	–	✓	–	33.3
11	✓	–	✓	–	✓	–	50
12	–	–	✓	–	✓	–	33.3
13	–	–	✓	–	✓	–	33.3
14	–	–	✓	–	✓	–	33.3

shows that Textbook 6: (Wishon and Burks, 1980), Textbook 8: (Hayden, et al., 1956) and Textbook 11: (Swan, 1980) have 50% of the criteria included in <u>Dimension 1</u> theoretical adequacy rating. Other textbooks have only 33.3% <u>Dimension 1</u> theoretical adequacy rating, and Textbook 9 (Etherton, 1975) has only 16.7% <u>Dimension 1</u> theoretical adequacy rating. The term 'tense' is not used at all in Textbook 9. In this textbook certain tense-aspect complexes are directly presented in sample sentences or texts.

7.1.3.1.2 Dimension 2: System Presentation

(Is an analysis of the categories of the English tense-aspect

complexes as a system, that is, comparison of the different

categories with one another within the system, provided?)

To assess each textbook on the basis of <u>Dimension 2: System Presentation</u>, Criteria 7.1.2.1.2 are used.

All 14 (fourteen) textbooks except Textbook 9 meet Criterion a (33.3%). Each textbook shows some kind of system presentation of the English tense-aspect complexes. Although each textbook presents the English tense-aspect complexes in a different fashion, there is an attempt to relate the tense-aspect complexes to time. Similarly, of the 14 (fourteen) textbooks, 13 (thirteen) meet Criterion b in that there is an attempt to present and compare the tense-aspect categories in the description (33.3%). However, they are not consistent in using the terms 'tense' and 'aspect' in the presentation. All but one use the term 'tense' as a cover-term for tense, progressive aspect, and perfect categories. The only textbook writer who attempts to use the term 'aspect' distinctly from the term 'tense' is Swan (Textbook 11), but he is not consistent in applying the term 'aspect' in his description.

The rating of theoretical adequacy of <u>Dimension 2: System Presentation</u> in terms of Criteria 7.1.2.1.2 a, b and c is shown in

Table 7. The table shows that the only textbook without an attempt to present the English tense-aspect complexes systematically is Textbook 9. The other textbooks attempt to present the English tense-aspect complexes using their respective systems. None of these textbooks is consistent in using the terms 'tense' and 'aspect'. The theoretical adequacy rating of Dimension 2: System Presentation of the 12 (twelve) textbooks is similar (66.7%). Textbook 9 does not meet the criteria on Dimension 2 at all. If one textbook had attempted to present the 'tense' category separately from the 'aspect' category the theoretical adequacy rating of Dimension 2 of that textbook would have been 100%. In terms of Dimension 2: System Presentation that textbook would have been considered to be theoretically adequate in this analysis.

Table 7: Dimension 2 theoretical adequacy rating

Textbook	Rating of theoretical adequacy in %			Proportion of criteria met in %
	a	b	c	
1	✓	✓	–	66.7
2	✓	✓	–	66.7
3	✓	✓	–	66.7
4	✓	✓	–	66.7
5	✓	✓	–	66.7
6	✓	✓	–	66.7
7	✓	✓	–	66.7
8	✓	✓	–	66.7
9	–	–	–	–
10	✓	✓	–	66.7
11	✓	✓	–	66.7
12	✓	✓	–	66.7
13	✓	✓	–	66.7
14	✓	✓	–	66.7

7.1.3.1.3 Dimension 3: Time Relation

(Are illustrations of tense, aspect, (present) perfect, modal

auxiliaries', and the interaction of these categories with time and other phenomena presented?)

To assess each textbook on the basis of <u>Dimension 3: Time Relation</u>, Criteria 7.1.2.1.3 are used.

All 14 (fourteen) textbooks present the English tense, aspect, present perfect and 'modal auxiliaries' in terms of time and other phenomena through the use of these categories either at the sentence level or at the discourse level depending on the aim of the textbook. With the textbooks aiming at advanced learners of English (Textbooks 2, 5, 6, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14) the interaction of these categories with time is more complex than that found in the textbooks for elementary learners of English (Textbooks 1, 9). In Textbooks 3, 4, 7, 8, the interaction is graded and presented graddually from elementary to advanced levels. In other words all (14) fourteen textbooks meet Criterion a.

Of the 14 (fourteen) textbooks, only Textbook 8: Hayden, et al., (1956) and Textbook 14: Azar (1989) meet Criterion b. These books use the tripartite time division past, present and future explicitly in the description. The other textbook writers, i.e., the writers of textbooks 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 12 and 13 do not use this concept of time explicitly. They only use it implicitly as in the use of statements like ". . . an *ed* ending is used to indicate the past tense" (Khron, 1971, p. 26); "In the question pattern, use *did* in place of *do* or *does* to indicate the past tense" (p. 27); "If we wish to mention or imply an exact time for an action we use simple past tense" (Dixson, 1971, p. 81); "past tenses including the past and perfect tenses" (Thomson and Martinet, 1980, pp. 147-66) are "normally used for the relation of past events" (p. 148); Past Tense is used "to talk about the past" (Swan, 1980, Index number 469). Also see Wood, 1965, pp. 84ff. Alexander (1984),

Etherton (1975), Richards and Markus (1985), Richards and Markus (1984) directly present the use of past tense form through the reading text either at a sentence or discourse level.

The only textbook writers who use the notion of deictic centre *S* are Hayden, et al., (1956), Textbook 8, in that they use the moment of speaking in the description. This textbook meets Criterion c while other textbooks do not meet this Criterion.

None of the 14 (fourteen) textbooks meets Criterion d. They do not present the basic meanings of the English tense-aspect complexes as distinct from the peripheral meanings.

The rating of theoretical adequacy of <u>Dimension 3: Time Relation</u> in terms of Criteria a, b, c and d is shown in Table 8. The table shows that all 14 (fourteen) textbooks relate the tense-aspect complexes to time in the presentation. Each textbook meets Criterion a <u>Dimension 3</u> theoretical adequacy rating (25%).

Table 8: <u>Dimension 3</u> theoretical adequacy rating

Textbook	Rating of theoretical adequacy in %				Proportion of criteria met in %
	a	b	c	d	
1	√	–	–	–	25
2	√	–	–	–	25
3	√	–	–	–	25
4	√	–	–	–	25
5	√	–	–	–	25
6	√	–	–	–	25
7	√	–	–	–	25
8	√	√	√	–	75
9	√	–	–	–	25
10	√	–	–	–	25
11	√	–	–	–	25
12	√	–	–	–	25
13	√	–	–	–	25
14	√	√	–	–	50

Textbook 14 (Azar, 1989) presents the English tense-aspect

complexes in terms of the tripartite past, present and future time division but without explicitly using the moment of speech *S* as the deictic centre. Textbook 14 (Azar, 1989) has 50% Dimension 3 theoretical adequacy because it meets Criteria a and b. Textbook 8 (Hayden, et al., 1956) is the only textbook which attempts to relate the English tense-aspect complexes to time in terms of the tripartite time division past, present and future, and the deictic centre *S*. This textbook meets Criteria a, b, and c. This textbook has the highest rating of theoretical adequacy of Dimension 3: Time Relation (75%). One drawback of this textbook is the failure to present the basic meanings of the English tense-aspect complexes distinctly from the peripheral meanings. If textbook 8 met Criterion d, it would have 100% Dimension 3 theoretical adequacy.

7.1.3.1.4 Dimension 4: Contrastive

(Is a contrastive analysis of the English tense-aspect complexes and those of BI provided?)

To assess each textbook on the basis of Dimension 4: Contrastive, Criterion 7.1.2.1.4 is used.

None of the textbooks refers to the 'tense-aspect complexes' in BI in presenting the English tense-aspect complexes. Thus, an Indonesian EFL teacher trainer has to devise the means by which problem areas in English tense-aspect complexes for individual teacher trainees can be clarified as the need arises.

The rating of the presence of contrastive analysis between English tense-aspect complexes and those of BI is shown in Table 9. None of the textbooks is theoretically adequate in the Indonesian context in terms of Dimension 4: Contrastive.

Table 9: <u>Dimension 4</u> theoretical adequacy rating

Textbook	Rating of theoretical adequacy in % of the presence of CA ...	Proportion of criteria met in %
1	–	–
2	–	–
3	–	–
4	–	–
5	–	–
6	–	–
7	–	–
8	–	–
9	–	–
11	–	–
12	–	–
13	–	–
14	–	–

7.1.3.2 Pedagogical Adequacy

To assess whether the textbook is pedagogically adequate or not the following criteria are used (See 7.1.2.1.1).

a. explication of theoretical input.

b. cultural relevance of illustrative materials and

non-verbal support to presentation of concept.

c. consistency with theoretical statements.

d. principles of selection of materials treated.

e. principles of sequencing of materials treated

The criteria of pedagogical adequacy are developed on the basis of Dimensions 1, 2, 3, 4 and pedagogical considerations. To meet Criterion a the theoretical input presented in each textbook must be explicated for pedagogical purposes including the theory of tense-aspect complexes. To meet Criterion b illustrative materials and non-verbal support for the explication of the English tense-aspect complexes including the tripartite time division of past, present

and future, dates, days, weeks, months, years, and so on must be culturally relevant. To meet Criterion c the pedagogical presentation must be consistent with the theoretical statements. Criteria d and e deal with the use of appropriate principles of selection and sequencing of materials for pedagogical purposes in the textbooks. Table 10 shows how each textbook is assessed pedagogically in terms of Criteria a, b, c, d and e. Of the 14 (fourteen) textbooks analysed, Textbook 8 (Hayden et al., 1956), Textbook 11 (Swan, 1980), and Textbook 14 (Azar, 1989) are rated most pedagogically adequate, i.e, 80%. The three textbooks meet Criteria a, b, d and e but not Criterion c. None of the 14 (fourteen) textbooks is consistent with the theoretically adequate description of tense as a deictic category and thus none of them meets Criterion c.

Table 10: Pedagogical adequacy rating of <u>Dimensions</u> 1, 2, 3, 4

Textbook	Rating of pedagogical adequacy of Dimensions 1, 2, 3, 4 in %					Proportion of criteria met in %	Average proportion in %
	a	b	c	d	e		
1	-	√	-	√	√	60	15
2	-	√	-	√	√	60	15
3	-	√	-	√	√	60	15
4	-	√	-	√	√	60	15
5	-	√	-	√	√	60	15
6	-	√	-	√	√	60	15
7	-	√	-	√	√	60	15
8	√	√	-	√	√	80	20
9	-	√	-	√	√	60	15
10	-	√	-	√	√	60	15
11	√	√	-	√	√	80	20
12	-	√	-	√	√	60	15
13	-	√	-	√	√	60	15
14	√	√	-	√	√	80	20

7.1.4 Discussion
7.1.4.1 Theoretical and pedagogical adequacy

The theoretical and pedagogical adequacy of the 14 (fourteen)

textbooks assessed in terms the four dimensions developed is shown as follows:

Theoretical Adequacy:

Dimension 1: Definition

Of all 14 (fourteen) textbooks analysed none defines the term 'tense' in a manner as explicit as the definition of tense proposed in Comrie (1985). Textbook 8 (Hayden, et al., 1956), Textbook 6 (Wishon and Burks, 1980) and Textbook 11 (Swan 1980) define the term 'tense' in terms of the verb form or the grammatical verb form only. They do not explicitly relate the verb form to its meaning incorporated into the definition of 'tense'. These textbooks are rated 50% theoretically adequate in terms of Dimension 1. These textbooks do not explicitly use the definition of tense; their grammatical descriptions are not accurate and they are not consistent in using the term 'tense'. One textbook, i.e., Textbook 9, is only rated 16.7%, and the rest of the textbooks are rated 33.3%. The 14 (fourteen) textbook writers mainly use the folk or traditional definition of tense as a cover-term for tense, present perfect and progressive aspect. They are not consistent in using the term 'tense'.

Dimension 2: System Presentation

Of the 14 (fourteen) textbooks, one textbook, i.e, Textbook 9 (Etherton, 1975) does not present the description of the English tense-aspect complexes. Other textbooks are rated to have 66.7% theoretical adequacy on Dimension 2. The presentation of the English tense-aspect complexes varies from one textbook writer to another. There is, however, a common weakness among the 13 (thirteen) textbooks. They are not consistent in using the terms 'tense' and 'aspect' in the presentation.

Dimension 3: Time Relation

There seems to be an assumption that the term 'tense' can be related to time in all 14 (fourteen) textbooks. Unfortunately the relationship between tense and time is not established, i.e., the notion of deictic centre S is not used in describing the meaning of the English tenses except in Textbook 8 (Hayden, et al., 1956) which has 75% theoretical adequacy on Dimension 3. This textbook explicitly uses the tripartite time division past, present and future and the deictic centre S. Textbook 9 presents the tense-aspect complexes implicitly in terms of time. Textbook 14 has 50% theoretical adequacy and the other textbooks have only 25% theoretical adequacy of Dimension 3. Textbook 14 does not use the deictic centre explicitly but uses the term 'now' to refer to the moment of speech S. Neither does it present the distinction between the basic and ⌐ ripheral meanings of the English tense-aspect complexes.

Dimension 4: Contrastive.

A contrastive analysis of BI and English tense-aspect complexes is not provided. All 14 (fourteen) textbooks have 0% theoretical adequacy rating for Dimension 4. They have a rating but one of 0%.

Pedagogical Adequacy:

None of the textbooks assessed is 100% pedagogically adequate in the Indonesian context. Of the 14 (fourteen) textbooks assessed, 3 (three) textbooks (Textbooks 8, 11 and 14) are 80% pedagogically adequate, i.e., average proportion in %: 20%. The other 11 (eleven) textbooks are 60% pedagogically adequate, i.e., average proportion in %: 15%.

Table 11 summarizes the results from all the previous tables. The table shows that Textbook 8 has the highest average of theoretical and pedagogical rating, i.e., 34%; Textbook 14 has

28.75%; Textbook 11 has 27.71%; Textbook 6 has 25.21%. The other textbooks have 23.12% average of theoretical and pedagogical rating, and Textbook 9 has 9.58%. The 14 (fourteen) textbooks assessed do not meet the theoretical and pedagogical adequacy rating of the four evaluative dimensions adopted. The highest average theoretical and pedagogical adequacy rating is 34%, and the lowest average theoretical and pedagogical adequacy rating is 9.58%. The result of this analysis shows that there is a need to improve the presentation of the English tense-aspect complexes in terms of the proposed evaluative criteria in order to develop a clear presentation of the English tense-aspect complexes in the teaching of Structure I and Structure II in the English Departments S1 at IKIP/FKIPs.

Table 11: A summary of the theoretical and pedagogical rating

Textbook	Average proportion of		Average of theoretical and pedagogical rating in %
	theoretical adequacy criteria met	pedagogical adequacy criteria met	
1	31.25	15	23.12
2	31.25	15	23.12
3	31.25	15	23.12
4	31.25	15	23.12
5	31.25	15	23.12
6	35.42	15	25.21
7	31.25	15	23.12
8	48	20	34
9	4.17	15	9.58
10	31.25	15	23.12
11	35.42	20	27.71
12	31.25	15	23.12
13	31.25	15	23.12
14	37.5	20	28.75

7.1.5   Some further observations on the basis of the results of the foregoing textbook analysis

There are four questions addressed here:

a. The relation, if any between the date of the text and the theoretical adequacy.

b. The direction of change in text preference.

c. The interrelationship of adequacy on the various criteria.

d. The relation of popularity of text to the theoretical and pedagogical adequacy of the text.

a. There seems to be no direct relationship between the date of the text and the theoretical adequacy rating. Perhaps the reason

Table 12: The relationship between the date of publication of the text and the theoretical adequacy rating

Textbook	Date of Publication	Average proportion of theoretical criteria met in %
9	1975	4.17
1	1982,1985	31.25
2	1980,1984	31.25
3	1971	31.25
4	1943,1959,1971	31.25
5	1978	31.25
7	1959,1974	31.25
10	1960,1969,1980	31.25
12	1967,1984	31.25
13	1965	31.25
6	1980	35.42
11	1980	35.42
14	1989	37.5
8	1956	48

for this is the fact that Comrie's unified theory of tense (1985) as a deictic category is traditional in nature. Looking at Table 12, in the case of the most recent textbook published (Textbook 14, 1989), one would expect that Textbook 14 has the highest average

proportion of the theoretical adequacy rating, but it does not. The highest average proportion of the theoretical adequacy rating is Textbook 8: 48%. This textbook was published in 1956.

b. With respect to the four IKIP/FKIPs, a definite trend in textbook preference cannot be noted. Only IKIP Malang, IKIP Surabaya, FKIP Universitas Katolik Widya Mandala use Textbooks 8 and 14. The use of Textbook 8, having the highest total average proportion of theoretical adequacy rating, i.e., 48%, in three IKIP/FKIPs out of four seems to indicate text preference, but Textbook 10 although with only 31.25% total average proportion of theoretical adequacy rating, is used in IKIP Malang, IKIP Surabaya and FKIP Universitas Katolik Widya Mandala, as shown in Table 13.

Table 13: Textbook preference in four IKIP/FKIPs

Textbook	IKIP/FKIP			
	Bandung	Malang	Surabaya	Widya Mandala
1				
2	✓			
3		✓	✓	
4	✓			
5	✓			
6	✓			
7			✓	
8		✓	✓	✓
9	✓			
10		✓	✓	✓
11	✓			
12	✓			
13				✓
14		✓	✓	✓

c. Table14 shows that there seems to be no interrelationship between the various criteria. Each dimension assesses each textbook by using the proposed criteria. However, in terms of Comrie's theory of tense (1985) and aspect (1976) there seems to be some

kind of interrelationship. For example, in terms of Comrie's theory of tense and aspect, textbooks 6, 8 and 11 attempt to define the term 'tense'. Other textbooks do not do so. The 14 (fourteen) textbooks seem to use the folk definition of 'tense' as a cover term for 'tense-aspect complexes'.

Thus, because the 14 (fourteen) textbooks do not use Comrie's theoretical perspective, they do not attempt to separate tense-aspect categories.

In the time relation dimension, in terms of Comrie's unified theory of tense (1985), the deictic centre S and the explicit use of the notions of past, present and future are only used in Textbook 8. Textbook 14 does not use the deictic centre S. In terms of Comrie's deictic centre S and the tripartite time division past, present and future, Textbook 8 has 75% whereas Textbook 14 has 50% theoretical adequacy rating.

Table 14: Relationship between the theoretical adequacy criteria

Textbook	Definition	System Presentation	Time Relation	Contrastive
1	33.3%	66.7%	25%	-
2	33.3%	66.7%	25%	-
3	33.3%	66.7%	25%	-
4	33.3%	66.7%	25%	-
5	33.3%	66.7%	25%	-
6	50 %	66.7%	25%	-
7	33.3%	66.7%	25%	-
8	50 %	66.7%	75%	-
9	16.7%	-	-	-
10	33.3%	66.7%	25%	-
11	50 %	66.7%	25%	-
12	33.3%	66.7%	25%	-
13	33.3%	66.7%	25%	-
14	33.3%	66.7%	50%	-

None of the textbooks presents a contrastive analysis of the En-

glish and BI 'tense-aspect' complexes.

d. The relation of the popularity of a text to the theoretical and pedagogical adequacy of the text cannot be established. At this stage, it is not clear that a textbook with the highest average theoretical and pedagogical rating, i.e., 34% will be the most popular text. Although Textbook 8 has the highest average of theoretical and pedagogical rating, i.e., 34% and Textbook 10 has 23.12% average of theoretical and pedagogical rating, these two textbooks are used in three out of four IKIP/FKIPs (See Tables 11 and 13). It must be noted, of course, that the presentation of the tense-aspect complexes is only a part of the textbook and thus the general value of the books cannot be assessed on this basis.

7.1.6 Concluding remarks

To meet the criteria of the theoretical and pedagogical adequacy rating adopted in this analysis there is a need thus to develop a model that will show how tense, aspect, (present) perfect, modal auxiliaries and time are theoretically related for pedagogical presentation. The model should show the relationship between sentence-level, i.e., context independent, or discourse-level, (i.e., either context independent or context dependent) based description of the English tense-aspect complexes if such a relationship needs to be clarified for pedagogical purposes.

In conclusion, it is expected that a suitable textbook for the teaching of tense-aspect complexes in Structure 1 and Structure 2 in the English Departments of IKIP/FKIPs should meet most, if not all of the criteria in both theoretical and pedagogical adequacy rating of Dimensions 1, 2, 3, 4. If, however, such a textbook cannot be found to be immediately available, at least teacher trainers need to be given training and materials by which they can compensate for the inadequacies of the existing textbooks.

7.2   Report on the mail questionnaire study to teacher trainers of <u>Structure I</u> and <u>Structure II</u>, S1 programme, on the teaching of English tense-aspect complexes in the English Departments at IKIP/ FKIPs, Indonesia

The mail questionnaires were designed to elicit the assumptions adopted by the IKIP/FKIPs teacher trainers in the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes in the English Department S1 programme. The tense-aspect complexes are formally set in the syllabus and course requirements of <u>Structure I</u> and <u>Structure II</u>. The major aim of the survey was to establish whether there was an urgent need for adequate materials containing clear exposition of the English tense-aspect complexes in the English Department S1 programme at IKIP/FKIPs.

The survey's subsidiary aim was to see how <u>Structure I</u> and <u>Structure II</u> IKIP/FKIP teacher trainers compensate for the lack of theoretically-based grammatical explanations in some ELT textbooks. Sheldon (1987, p. 3) notes that "too often published materials simply fail to rest upon sound theoretical bases". Confronted with such textbooks used for the teaching of tense-aspect complexes in <u>Structure I</u> and <u>Structure II</u>, IKIP/FKIP teacher trainers require certain theoretical bases for pedagogical purposes. Comrie's work on tense (1985) and aspect (1976) was used as the theoretical basis for formulating the framework of the mail questionnaires.

The mail questionnaires were sent to the heads of departments of English at the selected IKIP/FKIPs, and certain lecturers in the English departments at IKIP/FKIPs known to the researcher (See Appendix 1) to be passed on to the teacher trainers of <u>Structure I</u> and <u>Structure II</u> (See Blackmore, 1990, p. 4).

The teacher trainers responsible for the teaching of <u>Structure I</u> and <u>Structure II</u> are S1 or S2 English Department IKIP/FKIP

graduates. A government teacher training college appoints S1 graduates (with thesis) or S2 graduates for a teaching position. The grade average of the appointed S1 or S2 graduate teaching at a government university or college must be 2.5 or over, i.e., 2.5 or over is equal to B or higher. The appointed teacher trainer for the teaching of Structure I and Structure II normally has a strong interest in English grammar.

A private IKIP/FKIP sets its own requirements in appointing teacher trainers of Structure I and Structure II. In this study no attempt was made to differentiate such requirements. Neither was any attempt made to differentiate between the types of teaching qualifications and the length of the experience of the teacher trainers in the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes in Structure I and Structure II.

7.2.1 Design of the questionnaire

Several process steps were taken to design the mail questionnaire.

Step1 : Comrie's theory of tense (1985) and the 'theory' of aspect (1976) were used as the basis to describe the English tense-aspect complexes and the related phenomena in BI. A comparative description of the English tense-aspect complexes and those of BI was attempted.

Step 2 : The textbooks used for the teaching of tense-aspect complexes in Structure I and Structure II, in the S1 English Department programme at IKIP Bandung, IKIP Malang, IKIP Surabaya, FKIP Universitas Katolik Widya Mandala were examined. Conclusions drawn and the models proposed in Step I were used as the framework to analyse the textbooks to identify the strengths and weaknesses of each textbook in presenting the English tense-aspect complexes.

Step 3 : The conclusions drawn and the suggestions proposed in Steps 1 and 2 were used to design the mail questionnaire. Three draft questionnaires had been prepared. The university's research consultant, a native speaker of English, was consulted to read through the three different draft mail questionnaires. Ten closed questions, one open-ended question and an information sheet were developed.

The 10 closed questions were designed to elicit the respondent's agreement or disagreement to the assumption(s) and proposition(s) expressed in each of the questions and in the one open-ended question. In the closed questions the respondent may select from a five-point-scale SA (strongly agree), A (agree), U (undecided), D (disagree) and SD (strongly disagree). The selection indicates the extent of the respondent's agreement or disagreement. The U point indicates that the respondent does not show agreement nor disagreement to the assumption(s) or proposition(s) expressed in the closed questions. In the open-ended question the respondent can express his own views or comments (See Appendix 9).

An information sheet was developed to avoid misunderstanding of the respondents to the 10 closed questions (See Appendix 8).

Before being sent to each respondent, the mail questionnaire and the information sheet were checked by an expert linguist.

Step 4 : The first batch of the mail questionnaire together with the covering letter were sent to the heads of departments of English at IKIP Bandung, IKIP Malang, IKIP Surabaya and FKIP Universitas Katolik Widya Mandala on 18th December 1991.

Step 6 : On 25th February 1991 the second batch of the mail questionnaire together with the covering letter were sent to

other ten IKIP/IKIPs including IKIP Bandung which did not return the first batch of the mail questionnaire.

Step 7 : A letter dated 18th June 1991 was written to the Indonesian Directorate General of Higher Education to obtain the permission to carry out the survey at the English Departments of IKIP/FKIPs.

7.2.2 Sample Description

There are 31 government universities including IKIPs in Indonesia at present. There are only 10 government IKIPs: IKIP Bandung, IKIP Jakarta, IKIP Malang, IKIP Medan, IKIP Manado, IKIP Padang, IKIP Semarang, IKIP Surabaya, IKIP Ujung Pandang and IKIP Yogyakarta (Direktori . . ., 1991). The 21 government universities do not all have FKIPs. Universitas Indonesia, Universitas Gajah Mada, Universitas Airlangga, Universitas Pajajaran, Universitas Brawijaya, for example, do not have FKIPs. Even those who have FKIPs do not all have an S1 English programme. But the 10 government IKIPs do have an S1 English programme. There are private or non-government IKIP/FKIPs with an S1 English programme but the precise number is not known.

In this survey, 13 government and non-government IKIP/FKIPs were non-randomly selected. Two batches of the mail questionnaire were administered. The first batch of the mail questionnaire consisted of 4 (four) IKIP/FKIPs whereas the second batch consisted of 9 (nine) IKIP/FKIPs and 1 (one) IKIP with a repeat mail questionnaire.

4 (four) English Departments at IKIP/FKIPs were selected, i.e., IKIP Bandung, IKIP Malang, IKIP Surabaya and FKIP Universitas Katolik Widya Mandala. Of these 4 (four) IKIP/FKIPs, 3 (three) are government teacher training colleges, i.e., IKIP Bandung, IKIP Malang, IKIP Surabaya, and 1 (one) is a faculty of teacher training

at a private university, i.e., FKIP Universitas Katolik Widya Mandala. IKIP Bandung is in West Java; IKIP Malang, IKIP Surabaya, FKIP Universitas Katolik Widya Mandala are in East Java, as shown in Table 15.

The selection for these 4 (four) IKIP/FKIPs was based on the result of the previous study which examined the textbooks used for the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes formally set in Structure I and Structure II at the S1 English Department

Table 15: 4 (four) selected IKIP/FKIPs in 1st batch

Institution	Government/ non-government	Location
IKIP Bandung	Government	West Java
IKIP Malang	Government	East Java
IKIP Surabaya	Government	East Java
FKIP Universitas Katolik Widya Mandala	non-government	East Java

at IKIP/FKIPs. Only these 4 (four) IKIP/IKIPs responded to the mailed request to the Head of Departments of English Teacher Education at IKIP Jakarta, IKIP Bandung, IKIP Semarang, IKIP Yogyakarta, IKIP Surabaya, FKIP Universitas Katolik Widya Mandala and IKIP Malang. The selected 4 (four) IKIP/FKIPs provided the information about the textbooks used in the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes formally set in Structure I and Structure II.

Permission from the Indonesian Directorate General of Higher Education to carry out the survey at IKIP/FKIPs was granted.

In the first batch of the mail questionnaires mailed on 18th December 1991, each head department of English at the four IKIP/FKIPs, i.e., IKIP Bandung, IKIP Malang, IKIP Surabaya and FKIP Universitas Katolik Widya Mandala was sent two mail questionnaires, two information sheets, two stamped envelopes, and a

covering letter. One mail questionna're, one information sheet and a stamped envelope were intended for one teacher trainer teaching either Structure I or Structure II or both. Since the course syllabus of Structure I and Structure II is structurally graded and interdependent there was no attempt to separate the mail questionnaires for the teacher trainers of Structure I and those for the teacher trainers of Structure II.

By March 1992, three English Departments of IKIP Malang, IKIP Surabaya, FKIP Universitas Katolik Widya Mandala returned the mail questionnaires. The English Department of IKIP Bandung did not return the mail questionnaires (See Table 16).

Table 16: Returns of the mail questionnaires in 1st batch

Institution(s) (names of IKIP/FKIPs)	Number of returned mail questionnaire
IKIP Bandung	-
IKIP Malang	2
IKIP Surabaya	2
FKIP Universitas Katolik Widya Mandala	4
Total :	8

The second batch of the mail questionnaire was mailed on 25th February 1991. A repeat mail questionnaire was sent to the head department of English IKIP Bandung. Other IKIP/FKIPs were IKIP Jakarta, IKIP Semarang, IKIP Ujung Pandang, IKIP Yogyakarta, FKIP Universitas Mataram, FKIP Universitas Udayana, FKIP Universitas Kristen Satya Wacana, FKIP Universitas Muhammadiyah Surabaya, and FKIP Universitas Wijaya Kusuma. These IKIP/FKIPs are in Bali, Lombok, Sulawesi and Java. Of these IKIP/FKIPs, six are government IKIP/FKIPs and three are private IKIP/FKIPs (See Table 17).

Table 17: 9 (nine) selected IKIP/FKIPs in 2nd batch

Institution	Government/ non-government	Location
IKIP Jakarta	Government	West Java
IKIP Semarang	Government	Central Java
IKIP Ujung Pandang	Government	Sulawesi
IKIP Yogyakarta	Government	Central Java
FKIP UNRAM	Government	Lombok
FKIP UNUD	Government	Bali
FKIP UK Satya Wacana	non-government	Central Java
FKIP UNMUH Surabaya	non-government	East Java
FKIP Universitas Wijaya Kusuma	non-government	East Java

(UNRAM stands for 'Universitas Mataram'; UNUD stands for 'Universitas Udayana'; UK stands for 'Universitas Kristen'; UNMUH stands for 'Universitas Muhammadiyah')

Out of ten in the second batch of IKIP/FKIPs, six returned the

Table 18: Returns of the mail questionnaires in 2nd batch

Institution(s) (Names of IKIP/FKIPs)	Number of returned mail questionnaires
IKIP Bandung	-
IKIP Jakarta	-
IKIP Semarang	2
IKIP Ujung Pandang	2
IKIP Yogyakarta	-
FKIP Universitas Mataram	2
FKIP Universitas Kristen Satya Wacana	2
FKIP Universitas Muhammadiyah Surabaya	2
FKIP Universitas Udayana	2
FKIP Universitas Wijaya Kusuma	-
10 IKIP/FKIPs Total :	12

mail questionnaires. These were the English Departments of IKIP

Semarang, IKIP Ujung Pandang, FKIP Universitas Mataram, FKIP Universitas Kristen Satya Wacana, FKIP Universitas Udayana, FKIP Universitas Muhammadiyah Surabaya (See Table 18).

7.2.3 Content of the mail questionnaires

10 closed questions were designed for this survey. Items 1 and 2 concern the assumption that the concepts of tense and aspect should be related to time when explication is required in teaching presentation. Item 3 concerns the assumption that the progressive aspect category can be separated from the tense category for explanatory purposes. Item 4 concerns the assumption that the Present Perfect category can be separated from the tense category. Item 5 concerns the assumption that modal auxiliaries are pedagogically best presented without relating the forms to the concept of time. Item 6 concerns the need to make an explicit distinction between the indicative mood, the imperative mood and the subjunctive mood in the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes. Item 7 concerns the need to relate the English conditional sentences to time in teaching presentation. Item 8 asks the respondent whether the teaching of English grammar including the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes in equipping an EFL teacher trainee is vital. Item 9 concerns the integration of explicit instruction of the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes to the teaching and learning of other subjects in reading, speaking, listening and writing. Item 10 concerns the need to focus on the meanings of the English tense-aspect complexes in teaching presentation.

One open-ended question, Item 11, was designed to accommodate the respondent's comment on any relevant issue pertinent to the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes in the S1 English Department programme at IKIP/FKIPs.

7.2.4 Attempts taken to overcome the weaknesses of the mail questionnaires.

Two serious drawbacks of mail questionnaire survey are 'lack of response' and 'the ability to check the responses given' (Kerlinger, 1973, p. 414). In this study to obtain larger numbers of returns of the mail questionnaires, two batches of mail question-naires were administered as described above.

The study did not attempt to recheck the responses given by the respondents but attempted to obviate misunderstandings by providing an information sheet. The information sheet[3] informed the respondent of the uses of the terms 'tense', 'aspect', 'present perfect', 'conditional sentences', 'mood', 'modal auxiliary' in this survey. With the provision of the information sheet for the respondent, an unbiased response to each of the questions posed was expected.

7.2.5 Collecting the data

There were in all 13 non-randomly selected IKIP/FKIPs in this study. It was expected that the survey would collect 26 mail questionnaires. Although in general it is about 50% or more of mail questionnaires which are not returned (Blackmore, 1990, p. 5; Kerlinger, 1973, p. 414), the present survey collected 76.92%, i.e., 20 mail questionnaires were collected (See Table 19). Some respondents made reference to their identity while others did not. In this study they are coded numerically and treated with confidentiality. The first batch are Subjects 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8; the second batch are Subjects 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, and 20. The subjects in the first batch had been collected by end of March 1992 whereas the subjects in the second batch had been collected by end of May 1992.

Table 19: Returns of the mail questionnaires in the survey

Institution(s) (Names of IKIP/FKIPs)	Number of returned mail questionnaires
IKIP Bandung	-
IKIP Jakarta	-
IKIP Malang	2
IKIP Semarang	2
IKIP Surabaya	2
IKIP Ujung Pandang	2
IKIP Yogyakarta	-
FKIP Universitas Mataram	2
FKIP Universitas Kristen Satya Wacana	2
FKIP Universitas Katolik Widya Mandala	4
FKIP Universitas Muhammadiyah Surabaya	2
FKIP Universitas Udayana	2
FKIP Universitas Wijaya Kusuma	-
13 IKIP/FKIPs Total :	20

7.2.6   Results and interpretation

A five-point scale — Strongly Agree or SA, Agree or A, Undecided or U, Disagree or D, Strongly Disagree or SD, is used (Fig.15).

```
     0      1      2      3      4      5

     |_____|_____|_____|_____|_____|

        SA     A      U      D      SD
```

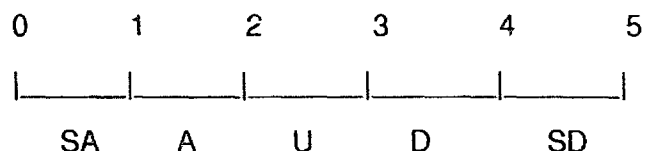Fig. 15: A five-point scale — SA, A, U, D and SD

The assumptions relating to the tense-aspect complexes which were adopted by the teacher trainers in the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes in Structure I and Structure II, S1 English Department, IKIP/FKIPs can be seen from how the subjects responded to the 10 closed and one open-ended questions. The percentage is counted in terms of SA/A, D/SD and U.

The ten closed questions

Item 1: tense and time relationship:

90% of the respondents assumed that it was desirable to relate the tense form to the concept of time in teaching presentation.

Item 2: aspect and time relationship:

85% of the respondents assumed that it was also desirable to relate the progressive aspect form to the concept of time in teaching presentation.

Item 3: tense and aspect relationship:

The issue in Item 3 was whether it was necessary to separate tense category and aspect category in teaching presentation. Responses to this issue were divided. There was no definite consensus on this issue. 55% of the respondents disagreed with the proposition that it was necessary to separate the tense category from the progressive aspect category. 35% of the respondents, however, agreed with the proposition. 10% of the respondents were undecided.

Item 4: the English Present Perfect category vs. the English tense category:

The issue in Item 4 was whether the English Present Perfect should be presented separately from the English tense category and the English progressive aspect category in teaching presentation. 70% of the respondents disagreed with the assumption of item 4; 25% agreed with the assumption whereas 5% of the respondents were undecided.

Item 5: the English modal auxiliaries and time relationship:

The issue in Item 5 was whether the teaching of the English modal auxiliaries were best presented to the students when the modal auxiliaries were not related to time. 70% of the respondents agreed; 25% of the respondents disagreed

whereas 5% of the respondents were undecided.

Item 6: the indicative mood vs. the imperative mood and the subjunctive mood:

The issue in Item 6 was whether it was necessary to make the distinction between the indicative mood, the imperative mood and the subjunctive mood salient in teaching presentation. 75% of the respondents agreed with the assumption; 10% of the respondents were undecided whereas 15% disagreed.

Item 7: the English conditional sentences should be presented in terms of time in the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes:

80% of the respondents agreed; 15% disagreed and 5% were undecided.

Item 8: the need of teaching English grammar including the English tense-aspect complexes is vital in equipping the Indonesian EFL teacher trainee:

The result of the responses to Item 8 was surprising. 95% of the respondents agreed with such a need. Only 5% disagreed.

Item 9: the need to integrate the teaching of the English:

tense-aspect complexes into the teaching and learning of other subjects in reading, listening, speaking and writing. 75% of the respondents agreed there was such a need; 20% disagreed and 5% were undecided.

Item 10: the need to explain the meanings of the English tense-aspect complexes in teaching presentation:

60% agreed there was such a need; 35% of the respondents disagreed whereas 5% of the respondents were undecided.

Table 20 summarizes the results of the 10 closed questions.

Table 20: Results of the 10 closed questions.

Question	Rating		
	SA : % : A	U : %	D : % : SD
Q1	9 :90%: 9		10%: 2
Q2	10:85%: 7		1 :15%: 2
Q3	2:35%: 5	2 :10%	10:55%: 1
Q4	:25%: 5	1 : 5%	12:70%: 2
Q5	1:70%: 13	1 : 5%	4:25%: 1
Q6	6:75%: 9	2 : 10%	3:15%
Q7	6:80%: 10	1 : 5%	2:15%: 1
Q8	11:95%: 8		1: 5%
Q9	3:75%: 12	1 : 5%	3: 20%: 1
Q10	4:60%: 8	1 : 5%	6: 35%: 1

(SA stands for strongly agree; A agree; U undecided;
D disagree and SD strongly disagree. Q stands for
'question' to represent each item of the closed
questions)

One open-ended question (Item II):

There were several comments from Subjects 4, 9, 10, 11, 15, 17,
19 and 20 for this open-ended question.

Subject 4, who agrees with the assumptions and propositions of
Items 1, 2, 5, 6, 7 and 8, and disagrees with the assumptions and
propositions of Items 3, 4 and 9, states that his responses are
based on his "knowledge of Structure I and Structure II in IKIP
Malang, which aim at students' proficiency/fluency, not accuracy".
They "still have Structure III where students discuss advanced
parts of English structure in both theory and practice" (See Table
21) .

Subject 9, who agrees with the assumptions and propositions
expressed in Items 1 to 10, states that "teaching tense form
should be related to meaning, as well as function. This can be
achieved through the presentation of situation of real language
use".

Table 21: Responses of Subjects 4, 9, 10, 11, 15, 17,
19 and 20 to the 10 closed questions

Item	Subject							
	4	9	10	11	15	17	19	20
1	A	SA	A	SD	SA	SD	A	A
2	A	A	A	D	SA	SA	SA	D
3	D	SA	U	U	SD	A	D	A
4	D	A	D	A	SD	D	D	U
5	A	A	A	D	SD	A	A	A
6	A	SA	A	U	SA	A	A	A
7	SA	A	A	SD	SA	SA	A	U
8	SA	A	A	D	SA	A	A	A
9	D	SA	A	D	SD	A	A	A
10	U	SA	SA	D	D	D	D	A

(1 : tense-time relationship
2 : aspect-time relationship
3 : separation of tense and aspect
4 : present perfect vs. tense vs. aspect
5 : modal auxiliaries-time relationship
6 : indicative mood vs. imperative mood vs. subjunctive
mood
7 : conditional sentences-time relationship
8 : grammar in EFL teacher education
9 : integration of the teaching of the English
tense-aspect complexes into the teaching and learning
of other subjects
10 : the meanings of the English tense-aspect
complexes in teaching presentation)

Subject 10, who agrees with the assumptions and propositions expressed in Items 1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10, and disagrees with the assumptions and propositions expressed in Item 4, and is undecided as to the assumptions and propositions expressed in Item 3, states that "in the teaching of tense of EFL to Indonesian learners the teacher should always relate form, meaning and function where situation of real language use is also very crucial".

Subject 11, who agrees with the assumptions and propositions expressed in Item 4, and disagrees with the assumptions and

propositions expressed in Items 1, 2, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10 and is un-decided as to the assumptions and propositions expressed in Items 3 and 6, states that "these answers are only true, for speakers of <u>Bahasa Indonesia</u> learning English as the target language".

Subject 15, who agrees with the assumptions and propositions expressed in Items 1, 2, 6, 7, 8, and disagrees with the assumptions and propositions expressed in Items 3, 4, 5, 9 and 10, states that

> we believe in integrated approach to teaching structure. In
> this case structure is not taught *per se,* but through
> speaking, listening, reading and writing. Hence, it is more
> descriptive rather than prescriptive (Subject 15).

Subject 17, who agrees with the assumptions and propositions expressed in Items 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and disagrees with the assumptions and propositions expressed in Items 1, 4 and 10, states that

> it is advisable to teach tense integrated with the reading
> text taken from foreign newspapers or magazines, and thus
> we explain (the tense form to) the students implicitly. Then
> if they do not understand we should explain (to) them
> explicitly (Subject 17).

Subject 19, who agrees with the assumptions and propositions expressed in Items 1, 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9 and disagrees with the assumptions and propositions expressed in Items 3, 4 and 10, states that "the English tense-aspect complexes should be presented in parallel. Students must be aware of what they are doing. Teachers' explicit explanation will be very useful when students need it" (Subject 19).

Subject 20, who agrees with the assumptions and propositions expressed in Items 1, 3, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10, and disagrees with the

assumptions and propositions expressed in Item 2, and is un-decided as to the assumptions and propositions expressed in Items 4 and 7, states that

> an English teacher who teaches students with their Javanese
> native tongue (mostly), she thinks that students have low
> awareness of using English subconsciously. Think in English
> for her students is something out of reach. She believes that
> activities mentally, as memorizing grammatical patterns
> and modals are the basic needs, followed by comprehension
> practice. However, as luck could have it, in communication
> active/pass   forms, form and meaning should go hand in
> hand (Subject 20).

There are additional comments on some of the ten questions. Subject 4 provides several comments. He agrees (A) with the assumption of Item 1 especially in its first presentation. He agrees with the assumption of Item 5 if meaning is the focus of discussion. He strongly agrees with the assumption of Item 8 for the second sentence only. He comments on Item 10 in that it really depends on the level of the learners, i.e., junior/senior secondary school, university, etc.

Subject 16 agrees with the need to integrate the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes into the learning and teaching of other subjects but not necessarily before.

Subject 20 notes that the assumption of Item 1 applies on certain conditions.

In short, the survey shows that there is a strong awareness of the need to present the English tense-aspect complexes as a deictic category. 90% of the respondents assume that the English tense form is related to time in teaching presentation. There is also evidence of a view that there is a need to present the English progressive aspect as a deictic category. 85% of the respondents assume that the English progressive aspect is related to time in

teaching presentation.

In relation to the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes, the survey has also found the following points.

a. When the respondents were asked how they presented tense and aspect, i.e., whether there was a need to present tense category separately from aspect category in teaching presentation, the responses were not conclusive. 55% of the respondents disagreed with the need; 35% agreed and 10% of the respondents were undecided.

b. Most of the respondents assumed that the English Present Perfect was a tense category. When the respondents were asked whether there was a need to present the English Present Perfect separately from tense in teaching presentation, 70% of the respondents disagreed with such separation; 25% agreed whereas 5% of the respondents were undecided. From these responses it is inferred that the English Present Perfect is assumed to be a tense category. Comrie (1976) shows that present perfect is neither tense nor aspect category (See Bauer, 1970, p. 197; Hyman, 1984, p. 81; Salkie, 1987, p. 136).

c. When the respondents were asked whether the English modal auxiliaries were best presented without relating them to time, 70% of the respondents agreed with the proposition, 25% disagreed and 5% of the respondents were undecided.

d. When the respondents were asked whether there was a need to distinguish the indicative mood, the imperative mood and the subjunctive mood, 75% of the respondents agreed with the need, 15% disagreed and 10% of the respondents were undecided.

e. When the respondents were asked about the need to present the English conditional sentences in terms of time 89% of the respondents agreed with such a need; 15% disagreed and 5% of the

respondents were undecided.

f. When the respondents were asked whether there was a need to teach the English grammar to the Indonesian EFL teacher-trainees, 95% of the respondents agreed with such a need. Only 5% of the respondents disagreed with such a need.

g. When the respondents were asked about the need to integrate the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes to the teaching and learning of other subjects 75% of the respondents agreed with the need; 20% disagreed whereas 5% of the respondents were undecided.

h. From the respondents' comments several additional points emerged.

i. One respondent (Subject 4) commented on the need to emphasize fluency rather than accuracy.

ii. Two respondents (Subjects 9, 10) commented on the need to relate form, meaning and function through language use in the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes.

iii. Five subjects (Subjects 9, 10, 15, 17 and 20) all endorsed the need to integrate the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes into the teaching and learning of other subjects, i.e., real language use is vital in the teaching presentation of the English tense-aspect complexes.

7.2.7   Discussion

Comrie's theory of tense (1985) and the 'theory' of aspect (1976) clearly distinguishes between tense and aspect in that the former is deictic while the latter is non-deictic. Comrie (1985) assumes that tense defined as grammaticalisation of locating situations in time is basically related to time. 90% of the respondents assume that in teaching presentation tense category is related to time. From this it can be inferred that the respon-

dents endorse the view that tense is a deictic category. It is also traditionally assumed that the tense category is deictic (Comrie, 1985).

Aspect, by contrast, is assumed to be non-deictic (Comrie, 1976, 1985; Lyons, 1977; Quirk, et al., 1985). Unfortunately, 85% of the respondents assume that the progressive aspect is related to time, i.e., progressive aspect is a deictic category. If clear presentation of the English tense-aspect complexes is taken to be dependent on the separation of tense and aspect categories, the respondents appear to be unable to provide clear explanations of tense and aspect. The responses are divided on the view of the need of initial separation of tense and aspect in the teaching presentation. 55% of the respondents disagree with the need of the separation while 35% agree and 10% are undecided.

Because in language use, tense and aspect interact, there is a valid reason to disagree with the need of separating tense and aspect initially during presentation. As shown in Table 20, Item 9 shows that 75% of the respondents endorse to the need of integrating the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes into writing, speaking, reading and listening. But if the focus of the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes on either the concept of tense or aspect *per se* is required there is a need to separate tense and aspect.

The survey shows that there is a confusion here as to how precisely the tense category and the progressive aspect category relate to time (See Table 20). The high percentage of the endorsement that aspect is a deictic category is inconsistent with Comrie's unified theory of tense (1985) and the 'theory' of aspect (1976). But the high percentage of the endorsement that tense is a deictic category is consistent with these. There is, then, a

problem here, in particular, responses to Items 1 and 2, in that Indonesian EFL teacher trainers in charge of teaching English tense-aspect complexes appear to lack a theoretical basis for distinguishing the functions of tense and aspect.

If the foregoing problems need to be solved, an EFL teacher trainer needs a model that provides clarification should the need arise for clarity in teaching presentation. The model constructed needs to take into account the traditional assumption of tense category and aspect category and that of the majority of the respondents. That is, 85% assume that the progressive aspect category is related to time; 90% assume that tense category is related to time, i.e., tense is a deictic category (See Table 20).

The model also needs to take into account the linguists' assumption that the aspect category is non-deictic (Comrie, 1976, 1985; Lyons, 1977; Quirk, et al., 1985). Particularly, if the tense category is related to time and aspect category is not, how can these two categories be pedagogically presented in the teaching of Structure I and Structure II? To answer this question, the relationship of the findings to the theory adopted and the proposed model is examined.

Table 22 shows the consistency of responses with Comrie's theory of tense (1985) and aspect (1976) along with the proposed model.

Responses to Item 1 are consistent with Comrie's theory of tense. 90% of the respondents agree with the assumption that tense is a deictic category. Responses to Item 2 are not consistent with Comrie's theory of tense and the 'theory' of aspect. 85% of the respondents agree with the assumption that aspect is a deictic category. Responses to Item 3 are not consistent with Comrie's framework and the proposed model. Only 35% of the respondents

agree with the need to separate tense and aspect in teaching presentation. Responses to Item 4 are inconsistent with Comrie's theory of tense and the 'theory' of aspect. Only 25% of the respondents agree with the need to separate the English Present Perfect

Table 22: Consistency of responses with Comrie's theory of tense (1985) and aspect (1976) along with the proposed model.

Item	Findings	Relationship of the findings to the theory and the proposed model
1	90% agreed 10% disagreed	agreement is consistent with Comrie's framework
2	85% agreed 15% disagreed	agreement is inconsistent with Comrie's framework
3	35% agreed 10% undecided 55% disagreed	agreement is consistent with Comrie's framework
4	25% agreed 5% undecided 70% disagreed	agreement is consistent with Comrie's framework
5	70% agreed 5% undecided 25% disagreed	agreement is consistent with the proposed model
6	75% agreed 10% undecided 15% disagreed	agreement is consistent with the proposed model
7	80% agreed 5% undecided 15% disagreed	agreement is consistent with the proposed model
8	95% agreed 5% disagreed	agreement is consistent with the assumption adopted
9	75% agreed 5% undecided 20% disagreed	agreement is consistent with the proposition adopted
10	60% agreed 5% undecided 35% disagreed	agreement is consistent with the proposition adopted

and tense category in teaching presentation. Responses to Item 5 are consistent with the proposed model. 70% of the respondents

agree with the proposition that 'modal auxiliaries' are best presented without relating them to time. Responses to Item 6 are consistent with the proposition expressed. 75% agree with the proposition that there is a need to separate the indicative mood, the imperative mood, the subjunctive mood and tense categories in teaching presentation. Responses to Items 7, 8, and 9 are consistent with the proposition adopted. Responses to Item 10 though only 60% are consistent with the proposition adopted.

In short, in terms of consistency, Item 1 has 90% consistency; Item 2 has 15% consistency; Item 3 has 35% consistency; Item 4 has only 25% consistency; Item 5 has 70% consistency; Item 6 has 75% consistency; Item 7 has 80% consistency; Item 8 has 95% consistency; Item 9 has 75% consistency and Item 10 has only 60% consistency. Thus, if high consistency is assumed to improve the pedagogical presentation of the English tense-aspect complexes, there needs to be a model to achieve higher consistency of Items 2, 3, 4 and 10 for the teacher trainers teaching the English tense-aspect complexes in Structure I and Structure II, S1 English Department programme at IKIP/FKIPs.

7.2.8 Concluding remarks

The result of the mail questionnaire study shows that there is a need

i. to develop a model of presenting the English tense-aspect complexes which is compatible with the traditional definition of tense as a deictic category.. The model is developed to provide the EFL teacher trainers teaching Structure I and Structure II at IKIP/FKIPs with a theoretical basis for distinguishing between the function of tense and aspect for pedagogical purposes.

ii. to develop a model that takes into account the fact that tense category, aspect category and present perfect category are each

in unique and complex relationships with time and related phenomena.

iii. to develop a model that takes account of 'modal auxiliaries', conditional sentences and mood in teaching presentation

iv. to develop a model that takes account of the integration of the the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes into other teaching and learning activities in reading, listening, speaking and writing.

v. to develop a model that takes into account of the need of presenting the meanings of the English tense-aspect complexes in teaching presentation.

vi. to develop a model that takes into account of the need of teaching the English grammar to equip an Indonesian EFL teacher trainee.

7.3   Indonesian EFL teacher trainees at IKIP/FKIPs

The English Departments at IKIP/FKIPs formally train EFL teacher trainees by means of a degree, i.e., S1 (assumed to be equivalent to a four-year bachelor of arts degree in an Australian university), S2 (assumed to be equivalent to a master degree in an Australian university) or with a teaching diploma, for teaching English at SMP/SMA 'Junior/Senior Secondary Schools. IKIP/FKIPs are called upon to solve the problems of the teaching of English in Indonesian schools. If IKIP/FKIP teacher trainers or university EFL lecturers blame SMA English teachers, and SMA English teachers blame SMP English teachers for the failure of the teaching English in Indonesian secondary schools, the problem is not solved. IKIP/ FKIPs have the onus to equip SMP/SMA teacher trainees adequately before they are launched into the classroom. IKIP/FKIPs must develop the means to equip the teacher trainees adequately for effective teaching and student learning. Improvement of the

teaching quality at IKIP/FKIPs that produce the future Indonesian EFL teachers is called for. Improvement in teaching standards obviously would result in the improvement of the products. In time this may entail improvement of the results of teaching when the graduates have started their teaching career. An EFL teacher trainee must have the means to clarify EFL students' difficulty in learning and acquiring the English tense-aspect complexes. Clarification may ultimately help to eliminate the negative attitudes towards English language studies. The common assumption that BI has no tense, and that learning the English tense-aspect complexes is 'too difficult' is likely to strengthen the negative attitudes. IKIP/FKIPs have the duty to enable an EFL teacher trainee to develop the means to eliminate the foregoing negative attitudes.

There are certainly diverse ways of improving the standard of language teacher training. Kaldor (1980) has pointed out that to be well-equipped a language teacher must possess proper understanding of the nature of communication, processes of child language development as well as "properties and functions of languages and language varieties" (p. 14). While it is unwise to over-concentrate on any one of these aspects, proper attention given to one aspect without necessarily reducing attention to the other will no doubt improve the overall understanding of these aspects. Certainly, if the aim is proper understanding of all the properties of a certain foreign language, all avenues towards this goal must be explored. Being a non-native speaker of English, the teacher will already have had concepts of contrasts between L1 and L2. To be able to better understand the concepts of contrasts in the foreign language studied, a trainee language teacher would be in a better position to develop an awareness of the contrasts if they

were viewed either from within the perspective of the foreign language studied or from within the perspective of his native language in so far as it is feasible. And to be able to do this, ". . . attention to form is necessary . . ." (Long, 1990, p. 650).

Edge (1988, p. 10) notes that TEFL trainees "need to be able to function as *analysts* of the language", i.e., "to talk about the language itself, to analyse it, to understand how it works and to make judgements about acceptability in doubtful cases". Grant (1987, p. 123) notes that " 'knowledge about the language' includes at least *some* basic 'rules of thumb' about its grammar".

7.4 An Indonesian EFL teacher trainer teaching English tense-aspect complexes in the English Departments at IKIP/FKIPs

An Indonesian EFL teacher trainer responsible for teaching the English tense-aspect complexes teaches either Structure I, Structure II, (or Structure III). This is done either through form-focus classroom activities or discourse-based tasks. Different grammar books, grammar practice books or integrated course books are chosen by the teacher trainer for the students. The textbook analysis in Section 7.1 in this Chapter shows that none of the textbooks meets the four evaluative criteria adopted for the purpose of clear presentation of the English tense-aspect complexes.

For the teaching of Structure I and Structure II the teacher trainer needs to present the distinction between the basic gram-matical patterns of English and BI including the English and BI tense-aspect complexes (See Pedoman . . . 1982, pp. 11-12). Unfortunately, a comparative study of English and BI tense-aspect complexes using Comrie's theory of tense (1985) and the 'theory' of aspect (1976) is not yet available. The present study attempts to provide the Indonesian EFL teacher trainer with such a means.

Both the teacher trainer and the teacher trainee need the means to clarify the meanings of the English tense-aspect complexes if there are difficulties in understanding them either through form-focused classroom activities or discourse-based tasks.

In the mail questionnaire study, responses from the 20 non-randomly selected EFL teacher trainers in charge of either teaching the English tense-aspect complexes in <u>Structure I</u> and/or <u>Structure II</u> showed that in terms of Comrie's framework (1976, 1985) there is a confusion of distinguishing the 'function' of tense and aspect. The present study attempts to provide the Indonesian EFL teacher trainer in charge of the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes with the theoretical basis for distinguishing tense and aspect for pedagogical purposes. The proposed model can be used by the teacher trainers of <u>Structure I</u> and <u>Structure II</u> to assist the Indonesian EFL teacher trainees to consciously notice the English tense-aspect complexes as part of 'learner's awareness' in learning and acquiring the English tense-aspect complexes, either in the form-focused classroom activities or discourse-based tasks. Both basic and peripheral meanings of the English tense-aspect complexes will be presented in Chapter VIII.

Sharwood-Smith (1991, p.121) shows examples of how both input enhancement created by the teacher and the student's learning mechanism as in Fig.16 may be interrelated. The model can be used as the means to create the salience of tense-aspect complexes for a particular teacher trainee who notices the English tense-aspect complexes but does not register the input in the learning mechanism or in teacher trainee's (learner's) awareness. Fig. 16 uses a question mark to indicate that externally created salience by the teacher does not necessarily bring about internally created salience in the teacher trainee's

(learner's) awareness.

EXTERNALLY CREATED SALIENCE
(e.g., by teacher)

INTERNALLY CREATED SALIENCE
(by learning mechanisms)

Teacher capitalises
plurals on the chalkboards/
colours them green, etc.

Learner automatically
pays attention to
end of words

? $\Rightarrow$ LANGUAGE INPUT $\Leftarrow$
as registered
by the learning mechanisms or,
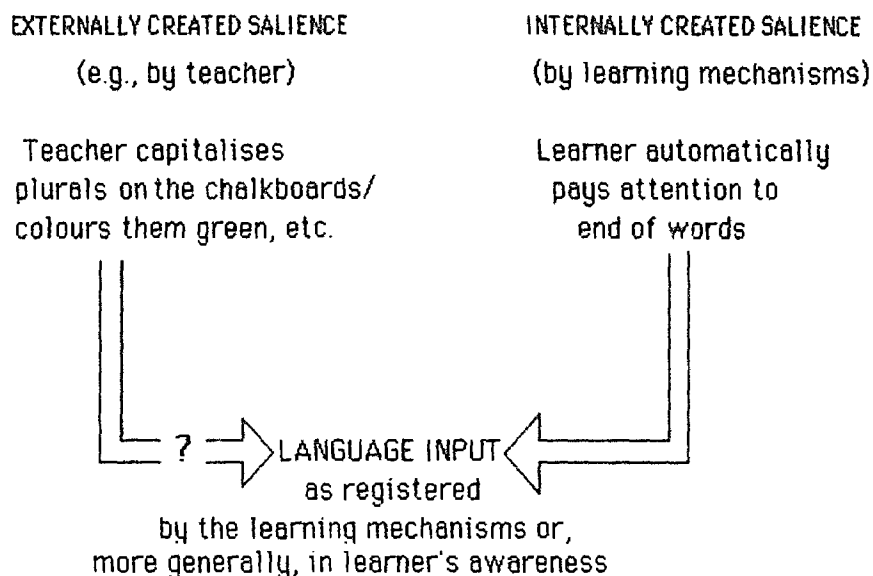more generally, in learner's awareness

Fig. 16: Sharwood-Smith's 'model' that shows the inter-relationship between input enhancement created by the teacher and the student's learning mechanism (1991, p.121)

An EFL teacher trainer needs to teach EFL teacher trainees both structures, i.e., forms, and functions. With the chosen textbooks used as coursebooks for the teaching of Structure I and Structure II the teacher trainer faces a crucial question. The language must be presented as 'a closed grammatical system' and as 'a communicative system in a context of use' (See Cunningsworth, 1984, p. 14). Cunningsworth also notes that "Coursebooks must teach language form because meaning and function are expressed through form and without form there could be no verbal communication" (1984, p. 14). There must be a well-reasoned balance to equip the teacher trainee adequately.

There is strong evidence that SL learners can benefit from form-focused classroom activities particularly 'focus on form' rather than 'focus on forms' (See Chapter II). For Indonesian EFL teacher trainees, however, they seem to require both 'focus on

form' and 'focus on forms'. The proposed suggestions aims at enabling EFL teacher trainers teaching the English tense-aspect complexes either to 'focus on form' or 'focus on forms'.

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[1] Also, as a secondary school subject English is compulsory.

[2] The term 'grammatical patterns' is used to refer to "the ways of combining words (or morphemes) into larger units with more complex structure and more complex meaning" (See Allerton, 1979, p. 105).

[3] I would like to thank Mr. Steve Simpson, Edith Cowan University Research Consultant, for his suggestion on the provision of the information sheet for the respondent.

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Chapter VIII
Implications of the Study

8.0 The following suggestions are based on the conclusions drawn in Chapter III, the findings and the proposed models in Chapters IV, V and VI, on the result of the textbook analysis and on the findings in the mail questionnaire study in Chapter VII. The suggestions aim at clear presentation of the English tense-aspect complexes in the teaching of <u>Structure I</u> and <u>Structure II</u> in Indonesian EFL teacher education at IKIP/FKIPs.

Briefly stated, the following facts must be recognised: English has a tense system. <u>BI</u> is a largely tenseless language but it does express time/temporal reference and aspectual reference which can be related to English time reference and aspectual reference.

The findings resulting from the mail questionnaire study show that there is some confusion in distinguishing the 'functions' of tense and aspect (See Section 7.2, Chapter VII). There is a need, thus, to develop a model that is compatible with the theoretical deictic category of tense and the implicit assumptions adopted by the textbook writers used for the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes in S1 English Departments at IKIP/FKIPs. The result of the textbook analysis (See Section 7.1, Chapter VII) shows that none of the textbooks assessed fully meets the criteria of theoretical and pedagogical adequacy which are developed on the basis of Comrie's unified theory of tense (1985) and the 'theory' of aspect (1976) and the proposed comparative framework. In terms of Comrie's framework, clear presentation of the English tense-aspect complexes in the textbooks is lacking.

In the course of detailed analysis of the English tense-

aspect complexes within the context of a unified theory of tense and the theory of aspect in this study it became clear (See Chapters III and IV) that there appeared to be a division between basic (prototypical) and peripheral (non-prototypical) form-meaning complexes. From a pedagogical point of view in the Indonesian context it seems highly desirable to recognise this division in both manner and sequence of presentation of the various tense-aspect complexes of English.

It will be argued in this Chapter that the basic (prototypical) form-meaning complexes can be presented as one-meaning-one-form-relationships based on a modified version of Comrie's unified theory of tense and the theory of aspect along the models developed earlier in this thesis (Figs. 9, 10 and 11). The peripheral (non-prototypical) uses, however, cannot be presented on the basis of the same model and the same explanations. It is therefore suggested that the two groups of complexes be taught separately, with basic meanings gaining priority in sequencing. The ways to achieve this will be presented in detail below. Before embarking on tackling the problems of the teaching English tense-aspect complexes, within the proposed model, clear definitions of individual terms are required.

8.1   Essential Terms Employed

The terms considered by the author as essential meta-linguistic vocabulary include 'situation/s', 'deictic centre', 'reference point', 'time/temporal reference', 'tense', 'aspect', 'aspectual reference', 'grammaticalisation', 'lexicalisation', 'absolute tense', 'absolute-relative tense', 'before, after, simul(taneous), before-and-up-to relations', 'absolute time adverbs', 'absolute-relative time adverbs', 'present perfect', 'tense-aspect complexes', 'temporal-aspectual complexes'. The

following is a list of explanations which teacher trainers may utilize:

i) The term 'situation/s' can be used as a cover-term to subsume states, processes, events, etc. In the notation, a situation(s) is abbreviated to *E*.

ii) The 'deictic centre' refers to the here-and-now of speech, the spatio-temporal location of or the zero point of speech, i.e., the (present) moment of speech. It is abbreviated to *S*. This zero time point with respect to which a situation is located is always implicitly required for absolute time reference.

iii) The term 'reference point' is a point in time to which a situation may be oriented. A reference point is abbreviated to *R*.

iv) The term 'time/temporal reference' refers to the deictic time during which a situation, which may subsume states, events, processes, etc., obtains or is imagined to obtain.

v) The term 'tense' refers to grammaticalisation of time/ temporal reference.

vi) The term 'aspect' refers to different ways of viewing the internal structure or constituency of a situation. That is, the situation may be completed, in progress, repetitive, habitual, persistent, etc.

vii) 'Grammaticalisation' refers to semantic distinctions including the expressions of time concepts being expressed through the grammatical system of a language.

viii) 'Lexicalisation' refers to semantic distinctions including the expressions of time concepts being expressed through the vocabulary of a language.

ix) 'Absolute tenses' refer to tenses which are determined

with respect to the moment of speech S. This includes the past tense, the present tense and the future tense. If a language does not express these contrasts grammatically, the term 'absolute time reference' needs to be introduced.

x) 'Absolute-relative tenses' refer to tenses the location of the situation of which is determined with respect to a reference point R or R's as well as a deictic centre S. If there is no grammaticalisation, such contrasts can be referred to as absolute-relative time reference.

xi) *Before* relation refers to precedence; *after* relation refers to 'posteriority'; *simul* relation refers to coincidence; *before-and-up-to* relation refers to *not-wholly before* relation, that is, before and necessarily related to some other time point'.

xi) 'Absolute time adverbs' are adverbs of time which are oriented with respect to a deictic centre S, such as, *yesterday, tomorrow, next week*, etc.

xii) 'Relative-time adverbs' are adverbs of time which are oriented with respect to some reference point given by the context, such as *the previous year, the week before, the next day, the following week,* etc.

xiii) 'Present Perfect' expresses *before-and-up-to-S* time relationship and 'perfect' meanings.

xiv) The term 'tense-aspect complexes' is mainly used as a cover-term to subsume different grammaticalised phenomena of 'tenses', progressive aspect, aspect, (present) perfect, etc.

xv) The term 'temporal-aspectual complexes' is mainly used as a cover-term to subsume different lexicalised phenomena expressing concepts similar to those expressed in grammat-

icalising language as 'tense', 'progressive aspect', aspect, (present) perfect, etc. This term is particularly relevant to the description of BI temporal/aspectual complexes.

8.2 The Primacy of the prototypical/basic meanings of English Tenses, (Present) Prefect, Progressive Aspect and Past Habitual Aspect

In the proposed framework, there are seven English tenses proper and one (present) perfect: three absolute tenses, four absolute-relative tenses and (present) perfect to be described **a)** prototypically, independent of context to express basic meanings, and **b)** non-prototypically in a textually-based description to express both basic and peripheral meanings. The absolute tenses which prototypically locate situation/s with respect to the moment of speech or the deictic centre S include Present Tense, Past Tense and Future Tense. The absolute-relative tenses which prototypically locate situation/s with respect to R or R's and S include Pluperfect Tense, Future Perfect Tense, Future-in-the-past Tense and Past Future Perfect Tense. English (Present) Perfect prototypically expresses *before-and-up-to-S* time relation in addition to the 'perfect' meanings conveyed.

The seven English tenses and (present) perfect interact with progressive aspect to prototypically express progressive meaning and non-stativity of the respective tense-aspect complexes.

The English Past Habitual Aspect prototypically expresses a characteristic situation which obtains at some period of time in the past.

The foregoing prototypical characterisation of these tense-aspect complexes is assumed to facilitate the learning and acquisition of the English tense-aspect complexes in an FL setting.

8.2.1 Present Tense

The English Present Tense can basically or prototypically be represented as *E simul S*. That is, the situation in the present tense can be thought to obtain simultaneously with *S*. It is realised by either *V+s* or *V+ø* depending on the concord of the subject-verb of the clause. Third person singular subjects take *V+s* otherwise *V+ø*; in the case of the verb BE, three different forms *is, am, are* are used. Functionally or prototypically, English present tense can be found in 'State Present', 'Instantaneous Present' and 'Habitual Present' (See Chapter IV, Section 4.2.1.1).

Because <u>BI</u> lexicalises this time concept, focus on the grammaticalised nature of this time concept is recommended, in particular the realization of the *V+s* as well as the contrast between *V+s* and *V+ø*, the three different forms of the verb BE. This is particularly relevant to highlight this tense form in teaching presentation. This grammatical concord is unknown in the <u>BI</u> grammatical system. Experience shows that Indonesian students experience problems in this area in learning English.

Collocation with present time adverbs can be employed to characterise the English Present Tense but attention should be paid to the occasional discrepancy between the present tense verb form and the present time adverbs. For example, *I went there every day* and *I go there every day* are both acceptable forms. Similarly, past time adverbs can collocate with present tense form in English. Both *Mr. Keating meets Emperor Akihito yesterday* and Mr. *Keating met Emperor Akihito yesterday* are acceptable in Australian English. *Mr. Keating meets Emperor Akihito yesterday,* seems to be unacceptable out of context but if this sentence is written as a caption under the picture of *Mr. Keating and Emperor Akinito* as it was in a newspaper (See <u>The Australian</u>, September

23rd, 1992, p. 1) then it becomes acceptable. This shows that collocation with time adverbs out of context is not a reliable indicator for the tense form used.

8.2.2   Past Tense

Past Tense can basically or prototypically be represented as *E before S.* That is, the situation in Past Tense is located *before* the moment of speech. The English Past Tense is realised by $V+ed_1$. Unlike Present Tense, Past Tense has no subject-verb concord except with the verb BE where there is a choice between *was* and *were.* BI either explicitly or implicitly captures the idea of past tense or more accurately past time reference. Thus it is helpful to emphasize this close correspondence before starting to deal with the next problem, that is, how to assist the student in actually performing obligatorily the $-ed_1$ element in the English finite verb phrases. This includes how to make the student aware of the contrast between the regular and irregular verbs. The regular verbs may not in general present difficulty except in cases which concern the spelling and pronunciation of some of these verbs. The irregular verbs seem to cause more problems but this does not mean that they cannot be tackled. To solve the problem of irregular verbs some classroom teachers use a paradigm and ask the student to memorize them. Others never ask the student to memorize but assign the student easy-reading materials which are graded in accordance with the student's current level of competence. These easy-reading materials are expected to supply the student with the irregular verbs he needs to master. In asking the student to memorize the list of the irregular verbs, the EFL teacher will be likely to be disappointed. If the list contains the most frequent irregular verbs which number about 120 it will only overburden the student. It will

certainly be more workable if the student is allowed to consult the list any time before the mastery is achieved. In other words the teacher is not asking the student to memorize the list but to use it whenever required, such as when the student is reading and is confronted with the regular-irregular verb problem. What is important is assisting the student to conceptualise the basic meaning of the English Past Tense and providing him with the means to experience how this time concept is realised in actual performance.

8.2.3   Future Tense

The basic or prototypical meaning of the English Future Tense is *E after S*. That is, the situation expressed in the Future Tense is located *after S*. In English, this future time reference is realised in five different ways: *will + V; to be going to + V; to be + V + ing; V+s/V+ø; will + be + V + ing,* each having the characteristic of *E after S*. As there are different shades of meaning among these five forms, it is suggested that *will + V* be adopted as the most neutral way of expressing *E after S*. Once the concept of *E after S* by using *will* or *'ll* is acquired different shades of meaning of the other forms can be discussed.

BI also conveys the concept of *E after S* realised either by an optional auxiliary *akan* and/or the future time adverb. As English uses different ways of expressing the concept of *E after S,* attention should properly be given to this contrast now and then until the student's mastery is attained.

The idea to be captured by the absolute tenses seems to be simple in terms of the BI absolute time reference which distinctly distinguishes the three past, present and future time divisions. Nevertheless, there are apparent problems when attempts are made to apply the BI three contrasts rigidly to the English three

absolute tenses. The first problem concerns the future tense. There are different ways of conveying future time reference in English. The second problem concerns the present tense. One cannot consciously apply the notion of *E simul S* every time one uses it for communication. Perhaps, conscious attention to the deictic time can only be maintained in the past tense. This is in accord with the observation that the English Past Tense is considered marked in opposition to the Present Tense form, which is seen by some grammarians as unmarked. The third problem is the absence of the obligatory English subject-verb concord in the B̲I̲ grammatical system. These problems show that there are no simple ways leading to the mastery of even these three absolute tenses by an Indonesian student. Continued practice, i.e., either focus on **forms** initially or **form** subsequently or vice-versa, is necessary before the real mastery takes place. Focus on **forms** can use the grammatical dimension to describe the prototypical meanings of tense, progressive aspect, past/present habitual aspect and (present) perfect (See Figs. 9 and 10). Focus on **form** requires interaction between these grammatical categories, 'mood/modality', 'pragmatic issues' and time (See Figs. 9, 10 and 11). An understanding of Absolute Tense and absolute time reference contrasts can make such practice more meaningful to the teacher trainees or Indonesian EFL learners. Current SL practitioners

> . . . are now paying more attention to comprehension. The focus on meaning-message comprehension and message structuring has become as important as the learning of grammatical structures. Form is seen as being a support for meaning, a vehicle for meaning and not vice-versa (Courchene, 1992, p. 1).

In the context of Indonesian English teacher education, the overall discussion of the three English absolute tenses may result in

better understanding than if a separate discussion of the meaning of the past, present and future tenses is given individually. Such practice is supported also by the fact that BI also captures the contrasts among the three time references albeit in a different fashion. That is, BI mainly shows lexicalised deictic time/temporal references unlike English which has both grammaticalised and lexicalised deictic time/temporal references.

The four English absolute-relative tenses, i.e., Pluperfect Tense, Future Perfect Tense, Future-in-the-Past Tense, Past Future Perfect Tense are not normally represented in BI and yet the time reference conveyed by the Pluperfect Tense, the Future Perfect Tense, the Future-in-the-past Tense and Past Future Perfect Tense can also be found in BI (See Chapter V). English (Present) Perfect differs from BI perfect in that there is no *before-up-to-S* time relation in BI perfect.

8.2.4   Pluperfect Tense

The English Pluperfect Tense which is realised as *had* + V_2 has the basic or prototypical meaning of *E before R before S*. The Pluperfect Tense expresses the *past-in-the-past* situation. This situation is located prior to a past reference point which is absolutely interpreted, i.e., it is located *before* the moment of speech *S*. The situation located prior to this past reference point is relatively interpreted. Hence the English Pluperfect Tense is an absolute-relative tense.

BI does not have this tense, but it does have abso ute-relative time reference to express past-in-the-past time reference. To express this, BI simply uses a lexical item such as *telah* and *sudah* with the appropriate past time reference indicator or a past time adverb with the relevant situation/s (See Chapter V, Section 5.3.2). Because of this it is assumed to be difficult at the early

stages of learning for Indonesian EFL teacher trainees to capture the idea of using English grammaticalised *past-in-the-past* time reference.

8.2.5 Future Perfect Tense

The English Future Perfect Tense which is realised as *will + have + V₂* basically or prototypically locates a situation before a future reference point. The basic use of this tense can be represented as *E before R after S.*

In BI, the Future Perfect Tense/Time Reference can be conveyed by using *sudah (akan) + V* with the appropriate future time adverbs. But as this is not grammaticalised in BI nor is it realised rigidly, the presence of *sudah,* a 'perfect' auxiliary word and a future time adverb is enough to convey the meaning of *E before R after S.* In the English Future Perfect Tense, the location of the situation *after S* is not its basic meaning but an implicature. As BI does not seem to distinguish between the basic meaning of the Future Perfect Time Reference and its implicature, this phenomenon needs to be brought to the student's attention. In terms of formal representation, the English Future Perfect, being composed of an auxiliary *will, have* and the *V₂* or the past participial form the verb, can be considered more complex than the other tenses. For Indonesian students including Indonesian EFL teacher trainees this complexity is likely to present problems if it is not handled properly.

8.2.6 Future-in-the-past Tense

A situation in the Future-in-the-past Tense is basically or prototypically located after a past reference point. This can be represented as *E after R before S.* That is, a situation in the Future-in-the-past Tense is located after a reference point which

is itself located *before* S. In English the Future-in-the-past Tense can be realised by *would* + *V* and in some cases by *was/were* + *to* + *V*. What is essential in the Future-in-the-past Tense is not the location of the situation *before* S but its location after a past reference point R. As indicated in 4.2.2.2.3 (Chapter IV) Future-in-the-past Tense in English can be expressed by using the Past Progressive Aspect.

In <u>BI</u>, the idea of Future-in-the-past Time Reference is conveyed by *akan* + *V* with the appropriate past time adverb, or *V* alone with the appropriate relative time adverbs.

8.2.7   Past Future Perfect Tense

Prototypically a situation in the Past Future Perfect Tense is located with respect to two reference points or R's and the deictic centre S. That is, a situation is located before a reference point which is itself located after another past reference point. This can be represented as E *before* R_1 *after* R_2 *before* S.

The English Past Future Perfect Tense is realised as *would* + *have* + V_2. Strictly speaking, the past future perfect time reference is not expressed formally in <u>BI</u>. But the <u>BI</u> gloss of the English Past Future Perfect Tense could be in the form of *sudah* + *(akan)* + *V* similar to that used to express future perfect time reference, but together with a relative time past time adverb. The use of *sudah* + *V* may at first sight create ambiguity between the *past-in-the-past* time reference and the past future perfect time reference. The use of *akan*, however, secures the *after* relation expressed by this time reference. But there is a problem here because the use of *akan* in this respect seems to be against the <u>BI</u> native speaker's intuitive judgement. In view of the fact that <u>BI</u> does not have a true corresponding past future perfect time reference marker, the discussion of this time concept can perhaps

be better captured in terms of contrasts found in the English tense-aspect complexes.

8.2.8   The English Present Perfect

The English Present Perfect differs from <u>BI</u> Perfect on several counts:

i. The English Present Perfect essentially involves the *before-and-up-to* S ¡elation; the <u>BI</u> Perfect has no such specification.

ii. The English Present Perfect has a uniform grammatical-ised realization *have/has* + V_2 to express different kinds of perfect meanings. <u>BI,</u> by contrast, has three different lexical items *sudah, telah* and *pernah* to express sometimes the same perfect meaning, i.e., the accomplished nature of a situation regardless of its time reference, and at other times different meanings such as foregrounding, experiential perfect, distant time reference, etc., (See Chapter V, Section 5.5.9).

Basically or prototypically the English Present Perfect can be characterised by E^1 *before-and-up-to* S. The term E^1 is used to refer to a situation with 'perfect' meaning.

The *before-and-up-to* S relation can be taken to mean the situation is related in some way with S, and that the effect of the situation is currently felt; it has present relevance; it is an experience in the past, etc.

As <u>BI</u> Perfect necessarily emphasizes the accomplished nature of the situation, it follows that accurately speaking the <u>BI</u> Perfect should belong to the category of aspect while the *before-and-up-to* S relation of the English Present Perfect indicates that it is more of the category of tense rather than of aspect.

In the teaching of the English Present Perfect several steps can be taken into consideration which may lead the student to

become familiarized with the following contrasts.

a. A contrast between *have* versus *has* which is required (i.e., grammatical concord).

b. A contrast between V versus V_2, i.e., the base form of the verb vs. its past participial form, as well as between V_1 versus V_2, i.e., the past tense form of the verb vs. its past participial form, in both *regular* and *irregular verbs*.

c. A contrast between the meaning of the English Past Tense and the meaning of the English Present Perfect.

d. A contrast between the English Present Perfect and the English Absolute Tenses.

8.2.9 The English Progressive Aspect

Basically or prototypically the meaning of English Progressive Aspect is that of progressive meaning and nonstativity. Potentially, the English Present Perfect and the seven tenses discussed previously can all interact with the progressive aspect. This systematic classification does not take into account the different aspectual characters of the individual verbs as well as their possible idiosyncrasies which may prevent the Progressive Aspect from occurring. In each of the following hypothetical English examples nonstativity and progressive meaning are conveyed.

(1)
He *is taking* a rest
He *was taking* a rest
He *will be taking* a rest
He *has been taking* a rest
He *had been taking* a rest
He *would be taking* a rest
He *will have been taking* a rest
He *would have been taking* a rest

Apart from the basic meaning of the English Progressive Aspect, there are a number of peripheral uses of the progressive form

when it interacts with Present Tense, Past Tense, Future Tense and Present Perfect, etc.

By contrast the interaction of the Progressive Aspect with other related phenomena in BI is realised only in the time/ temporal reference. The BI Perfect unlike English (present) perfect does not interact with the progressive aspect. Such a contrast between the behaviour of the English Progressive Aspect and the BI Progressive Aspectual Reference should be taken into consideration if a careful comparison between English and BI is to be made.

In terms of paradigm, the patterns exemplified by the English Progressive Aspect of each of the eight forms are systematic. In each of the following there is a BE element, a verbal element, and an -ing element as well as the element which seems to convey time reference as shown in (I, 1a).

(1a)

a. *is/am/are* + *V* + *ing*
b. *was/were* + *V* + *ing*
c. *will* + *be* *V* + *ing*
d. *has/have* + *been* *V* + *ing*
e. *had* + *been* *V* + *ing*
f. *would* + *be* *V* + *ing*
g. *will* + *have* + *been* *V* + *ing*
h. *would* + *have* + *been* *V* + *ing*

In the presentation of the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes, these patterns alone are not sufficient. The prototypical or non-prototypical meanings of these complexes need to be made salient when required, that is, to assist the students to notice the forms consciously in order to help the students to understand these complexes.

8.2.10   The English Past Habitual Aspect

The English Past Habitual Aspect is realised by *used to* + *V* to prototypically express a habitual occurrence which obtains at

some period of time in the past. B_l also expresses such a habit by employing a lexical item which conveys the idea of habit and a past time adverbs which is compatible with the characteristic of habit such as *last year, when he was young,* etc.

The teaching of this Past Habitual Aspect should focus on the contrast found in Past Tense, Present Perfect and Past Perfect Tense and that of Past Habitual Aspect as all these forms share one thing in common in that the situation in each is located *before S.* In addition, a contrast in form between a Past Habitual Aspect *used to + V* and the Present Habitual Aspect *V+s/V+ø* can be used to advantage to help Indonesian students conceptualise the distinction captured in English. This is relevant in view of the fact that B_l basically shows the same verb form in this respect except as realised in the contrast between the present time adverbs and the related past time adverbs.

In the foregoing discussion, the English tense-aspect complexes have been presented in terms of the grammatical dimension shown in Figs. 9 and 10 (Chapters III and IV). As discussed previously, there is one-form-one-meaning relationship which is assumed to be supportive of learning the English tense-aspect complexes in an EFL setting. It needs to be noted, however, that this assumption has not been empirically tested.

8.3 Peripheral Uses of the English Tense-Aspect Complexes

This study has only perfunctorily touched on these uses. These peripheral uses do not constitute a complete inventory of all the uses. They are presented in order to show the complexity of the tense-aspect forms used in communication in English. No attempt is made to systematise the contrasts other than to label the forms with the terms which originally show deictic time reference. There are different shades of meaning conveyed by the

which interact with tense, (present) perfect, 'mood/modality' and 'pragmatic issues', such as the Past Progressive form, the Present Perfect Progressive form, the Pluperfect Progressive form, the Future Progressive form, the Future-in-the-past Progressive form, the Future Perfect Progressive form, and the Past Future Perfect Progressive form are not discussed in this study.

8.4 A proposed general approach to the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes in the context of Indonesian EFL Teacher Education

The term 'clear presentation' in this study is used to refer to the need to distinguish between the two different uses of English tense, aspect and (present) perfect, i.e., prototypical vs. non-prototypical uses, for a pedagogically appropriate solution to the presentation of these verb forms (See Section 4.4.1, Chapter IV). As discussed in Chapters III and IV, prototypical uses express basic meanings whereas non-prototypical uses express peripheral meanings.

As indicated in Chapter IV, the prototypical uses of tense including the English tenses, aspect and (present) perfect can be characterised independent of context. Context-independent characterisation of tense, aspect and (present) perfect provides one-form-one-meaning relationship which is assumed to facilitate learning. As shown in Chapters IV and V, however, the interaction of these grammatical categories with 'mood/ modality', 'pragmatic issues' and time to express peripheral meanings overrides the one-form-one-meaning relationship, a fact which is assumed to present difficulties in learning. It has been shown in Chapters IV and V that the description of the interaction of these grammatical categories with the related phenomena involves contextual, i.e., discourse- or text-based,

characterisation. How can these context-dependent and context-independent characterisation of tense-aspect complexes be presented to EFL teacher trainees in the teaching of <u>Structure I</u> and <u>Structure II</u>?

EFL teacher trainers teaching <u>Structure I</u> and <u>Structure II</u> have the choice of presenting the English tense-aspect complexes either to focus on **form** or **forms**. To be able to do this, the teacher trainers need to provide EFL teacher trainees with both negative evidence, i.e., information about ungrammaticality of the English tense-aspect complexes, and positive evidence, i.e, grammatical utterances of the English tense-aspect complexes the EFL teacher trainees hear or read. As the teaching of <u>Structure I</u> and <u>Structure II</u> mainly concerns written materials, the means to provide negative evidence about ungrammaticality of English tense-aspect complexes must be presented formally to provide logical reasoning why a certain form is 'conceptually' wrong in terms of context-independent or dependent character-isation.

In providing positive evidence for the EFL teacher trainees, the teacher trainers can use texts which use the required tense-aspect complexes. As indicated in Chapter 2 (Section 2.2) that attention to form in a discourse increases rate of learning and the degree of second language attainment, the use of such a text is assumed to be beneficial for the EFL teacher trainees. But if there are difficulties experienced by the teacher trainees to understand the conceptual notions expressed by the English tense-aspect complexes, the teacher trainers need some means to solve these problems. Using the prototypical meanings suggested above, which are context-independently characterised, may be of help. When required, thus, context-independent characterisation,

i.e., one-form-one-meaning relationship, can be used in the context-dependent presentation of tense-aspect complexes which may involve both basic and peripheral meanings. It is clear here that the one-form-one-meaning relationship can only support but not guarantee the mastery of context-dependent English tense-aspect complexes. In other words, for the **focus on forms** approach, EFL teacher trainers may use the one-form-one-meaning relationship whereas for the **focus on form** approach, EFL teacher trainers cannot rely solely on one-form-one meaning relationship. They need to provide logical reasoning why the one-form-one-meaning is disrupted while yet the forms are grammatically correct. In the following, an overall problem solving approach is suggested.

a. If a problem concerning the concept of past tense arises attention should be focused on the past/present/future time reference contrast prototypically expressed in the absolute tenses. As BI can conceptually be shown to convey absolute time reference, the student's problem most likely would centre on the automatic use of the contrast, which is absent in BI, between $V+s$ versus $V+\varnothing$ for the Present Tense, $V + ed_1$ for the Past Tense and *will + V* and *other periphrastic particles + V* for the Future Tense. Prior to such explication, the student will need to have his attention drawn to the similarities in absolute time reference contrasts between English and BI. There is another problem in this regard, namely uses of the English Absolute Tenses which do not directly represent deictic time. To tackle the problem it is suggested that the deictic time reference in English as expressed by the Absolute Tenses is presented first prior to, and subsequently after the presentation of the peripheral uses of the English Absolute Tense. That is, a distinction between proto-

typical (Figs. 9 and 10) and non-prototypical (Fig. 11) uses of these tenses needs to be made.

b. Indonesian students including EFL teacher trainees are likely to face problems concerning the subject-verb concord. As BI does not possess this system, students' attention needs to be drawn adequately to this characteristic.

c. The Absolute-Relative Tenses are the tenses to be discussed after the mastery of the Absolute Tenses is ensured. Should a question relating to one of the Absolute-Relative Tenses arise, discussion should be based on the Absolute Tenses.

d. The discussion of the Present Perfect can be given separately but as a sytematic contrast obtains between the Past Tense and the Present Perfect, discussion of the Present Perfect should never precede the discussion of the Past Tense. Preferably, the discussion of the Present Perfect, if it is envisaged at all, should be given soon after the discussion of the Absolute Tenses.

e. The discussion of the Progressive Aspect should centre on the Present Progressive before the discussion of any other forms of the Progressive Aspect. The English Present Progressive Aspect has an important pragmatic function in communication. Based on this consideration, the current Student's Book of English for Secondary Schools in Indonesia discusses the English Present Progressive before introducing the student to any other English tense-aspect complexes (Richards and Markus, 1985). This evidently does not accord with the suggestion that the Absolute Tenses can be introduced earliest. Whether the former alternative is more justified that the latter is open to question. Whatever avenue is taken the emphasis should remain the same, i.e., tense has deictic time characteristic while aspect has the characteristic of viewing the internal constituency of a situation.

f. Other forms of progressive aspect, i.e., the interaction of progressive aspect with other English tenses and (present) perfect referred to in Section 8.2.9 in this Chapter, can be given as the need arises. This can be given in a paradigm.

g. The discussion of the peripheral uses of all the tense-aspect complexes can be given at any time the need arises, i.e, focus on **form** (highlighted TL structures in context), for the simple reason that they resist any systematic treatment so that attempts at characterising them will be incomplete and unavoidably complex. The prototypical uses of tense-aspect complexes, by contrast, have been shown to be systematic. The one-form-one-meaning relationship provides the EFL teacher trainers and teacher trainees with the means to focus on **forms** consciously should difficulties in tense-aspect complexes arise in the focus on **form** approach. To solve these difficulties it is clear that attention to individual relevant **forms** of the English tense-aspect complexes expressing both basic and peripheral meanings is certainly required by both the teacher trainers and teacher trainees.

h. The employment of the contrasts in the BI time concepts prototypically can be of some value in relation to absolute time reference. Beyond this, however, although BI may capture the English time concepts conveyed, contrasts may be better handled only within the English tense-aspect system rather than mapping out the English time concepts against those of the BI system.

i. The formula below slightly modified from Comrie (1985) can be suggested to capture the different characteristics of the English tense-aspect complexes E *(relative R)^n (relative S)*, where relative refers to *before, after, simul* and *before-and-up-to* relations.

With the Progressive Aspect, first and foremost, progressive meaning and nonstativity must be taken into account unless otherwise indicated. E^1 may also be used to represent the different meanings expressed by the English (present) perfect.

Appendix 1: List of names and Head Departments for the mail
questionnaire study

1. Ibu Dr. Wuri Soedjatmiko
Head of Department of English   FKIP
Universitas Katolik Widya Mandala
Jl. Dinoyo 42-44
SURABAYA   60265
I N D O N E S I A

2. Bapak Dr. Nuril Huda
Ketua Jurusan Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris
Fakultas Pendidikan Bahasa dan Seni
IKIP Malang
Jl. Surabaya 6
MALANG   65145
I N D O N E S I A

3. Bapak Drs. Santiko Budi, MA
FPBS IKIP SURABAYA
Kampus IKIP Ketintang
SURABAYA
I N D O N E S I A

4. Bapak Ketua Jurusan Bahasa Inggris
FPBS IKIP Bandung
Jl. Dr. Setiabudi 229
BANDUNG
I N D O N E S I A

5. Bapak Drs. Stefanus Laga Tukan, MPd
Head of PSP, FKIP
Universitas Katolik Widya Mandala
Jl. Dinoyo 42-44
SURABAYA   60265
I N D O N E S I A

6. Bapak Prof. Nababan
Jurusan Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris
Fakultas Pendidikan Bahasa dan Seni
IKIP Jakarta
Rawamangun
JAKARTA, INDONESIA

Appendix 1: List of names and Head Departments for the mail
questionnaire study

7. Bapak Ketua Jurusan Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris
Fakultas Pendidikan Bahasa dan Seni
IKIP Ujungpandang
UJUNGPANDANG, INDONESIA

8. Bapak Ketua Jurusan Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris
Fakultas Pendidikan Bahasa dan Seni
IKIP Yogyakarta
Karangmalang
YOGYAKARTA, INDONESIA

9. Bapak Prof. Ramelan
Fakultas Pendidikan Bahasa dan Seni
IKIP Semarang
Jl. Kelud Utara III
SEMARANG, 60232
INDONESIA

10. Bapak Ketua Jurusan Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris
 FKIP Universitas Kristen Satyawacana
SALATIGA, INDONESIA

11. Bapak Drs. Djoko Soeloeh Marhaen, MA
 u/p. Ibu Ketua Program Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris
FKIP, Universitas Muhammadiyah
(Kampus Pucang)
SURABAYA, INDONESIA

12. Bapak Ketua Program Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris
FKIP, UNIVERSITAS UDAYANA
DENPASAR, INDONESIA

13. Ibu Dra. Aliyah Abdullah
u/p. Bapak Ketua Program Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris
 FKIP, Universitas Wijayakusuma
 (Kampus Darmo Permai)
SURABAYA, INDONESIA

14. Bapak Drs. Wargono Adi Soewignyo, M.Sc.
 FKIP, Universitas Mataram
MATARAM, INDONESIA

Appendix 2: Sample Letter 1

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....   18.12.91

Dear ....,

Thank you very much for your letter from which I obtain the
reference of the textbooks used for the teaching of the English
tenses articulated in <u>Structure I</u> and <u>Structure II</u>. I would like
to get further information for the teaching and learning of the
English 'tenses'.

Could you please pass on the questionnaire (as enclosed) to the
lecturer(s) of <u>Structure I</u> and <u>Structure II</u>? I need the
information about the teaching of English 'tense', 'aspect',
'mood', 'modal auxiliaries', 'conditional sentences', etc., to
complement the data of my thesis.

Sincerely,

....

....

....

Appendix 3: Sample Letter 2

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....   18.12.91

Dengan hormat,

Kami ingin mengucapkan terima kasih kepada Bapak karena kami
telah memperoleh daftar buku-buku untuk Mata Kuliah Structure
I dan Structure II.

Untuk kelengkapan data, kami sedang mengumpulkan angket
mengenai pelaksanaan pengajaran 'tense' yang tertuang di dalam
Structure I dan Structure II. Dapatkah angket terlampir
disampaikan kepada Bapak dan Ibu pengajar Structure I dan
Structure II?

Hormat kami,

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Appendix 4: Sample Letter 3

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....   25.2.92

Dear ....,

Re my letter dated 18.12.91 to Ibu Dr. Wuri Soedjatmiko, I
would like to send again my questionnaires. I am sorry I did
make a mistake of having sent Ibu Wuri the questionnaires with
Australian stamped envelopes.

If the earlier questionnaires are not mailed yet, could you
please pass on the questionnaire (as enclosed) to the
lecturer(s) of Structure I and Structure II? I need the
information about the teaching of English 'tense', 'aspect',
'mood', 'modal auxiliaries', 'conditional sentences', etc., to
complement the data of my thesis.

Sincerely,

....

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PS. Enclosed is a copy of a short article about my current study
in the DIGEST, Vol. 3, No.2, May 1991, Edith Cowan University,
Perth, Western Australia.

Appendix 5: Sample Letter 4

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.... 25.2.92

Dengan hormat,

Untuk kelengkapan data penulisan tesis kami, kami sedang
mengumpulkan angket mengenai pelaksanaan pengajaran 'tense'
yang tertuang di dalam Structure I dan Structure II. Dapatkah
angket terlampir disampaikan kepada Bapak dan Ibu pengajar
Structure I dan Structure II, Program S_1 Jurusan Bahasa
Inggris, IKIP/FKIP? Kami ingin memperoleh keterangan
mengenai pengajaran 'tense', 'aspect', 'mood', 'modal
auxiliaries', 'conditional sentences', dsb., kepada mahasiswa
S_1 Jurusan Bahasa Inggris, IKIP/FKIP.

Kami mengucapkan terimakasih atas perkenan Bapak.

Hormat kami,

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PS. Terlampir adalah artikel pendek tentang studi (kami) di
dalam majalah DIGEST, Vol. 3, No.2, Mei 1991, Edith Cowan
University, Perth, Western Australia.

Appendix 6: Sample Letter 5

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....   25.2.91

Assalamu-alaikum wr., wb,

Untuk kelengkapan data penulisan tesis kami, kami sedang
mengumpulkan angket mengenai pelaksanaan pengajaran 'tense'
yang tertuang di dalam Structure I dan Structure II. Dapatkah
angket terlampir disampaikan kepada Bapak dan Ibu pengajar
Structure I dan Structure II, Program S_1 Jurusan Bahasa

Inggris, IKIP/FKIP? Kami ingin memperoleh keterangan
mengenai pengajaran 'tense', 'aspect', 'mood', 'modal
auxiliaries', 'conditional sentences', dsb., kepada mahasiswa S_1

Jurusan Bahasa Inggris, IKIP/FKIP.

Kami mengucapkan terimakasih atas perkenan Bapak dan Ibu
Ketua Program.

Hormat kami,

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PS. Terlampir adalah artikel pendek tentang studi (kami) di
dalam majalah DIGEST, Vol. 3, No.2, Mei 1991, Edith Cowan
University, Perth, Western Australia

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Appendix 7: Sample Letter 6

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....   18.6.92

Dengan hormat,

Karena kecelakaan yang kami alami pada tanggal 1 Mei 1989,
kami tidak dapat lagi melakukan penelitian lapangan untuk
program PhD Applied Linguistics kami di Edith Cowan
University, Perth, WA. Untuk mengganti penelitian lapangan ini
kami akan melakukan angket per surat 'Mail Questionnaire'
kepada Bapak/Ibu pengajar Structure I dan Structure II di
program S1 Jurusan Bahasa Inggris IKIP/FKIP, seperti
terlampir.
Untuk hal di atas kami mengajukan ijin kepada Bapak sehingga
kami dapat mengirim angket tersebut ke Bapak/Ibu pengajar
Structure I dan Structure II program S1 Jurusan Bahasa Inggris
di

IKIP Jakarta	IKIP Surabaya
IKIP Bandung	IKIP Ujung Pandang
IKIP Yogyakarta	FKIP Universitas Udayana
IKIP Semarang	FKIP Universitas Mataram
IKIP Malang	

Tujuan angket ini adalah untuk memperoleh gambaran jelas
asumsi para Bapak/Ibu pengajar Structure I dan Structure II
dalam mengajarkan tenses dan aspect dalam bahasa Inggris.
Asumsi ini akan kami gunakan bersama asumsi para ahli teori
tense dan aspect. Harapan kami, gabungan ini akan dapat kami
pakai untuk dapat menyusun langkah yang tepat untuk
pengajaran tense dan aspect dalam Structure I dan Structure II
program S1 Jurusan Bahasa Inggris IKIP/FKIP. Nama Ibu dan
Bapak pengisi angket tidak akan kami tuliskan dalam tesis
kami.

Hormat kami,

Suwono

AUSTRALIA

Appendix 8: Information Sheet

Information about the English 'tense', 'aspect', 'mood/modality' and present perfect, etc., referred to here as 'tense-aspect complexes, etc.'
Tense

In this questionnaire, the concept of 'tense' is related to the traditional or folk definition of 'tense'. In this definition, tense is understood to be expressed as 'verb forms' such as *wants, want, wanted, had wanted, will want, would want, will have wanted, would have wanted,* etc., along with the intended meanings expressed. For example the Past Tense verb form: *arrived* in *He arrived two minutes ago* shows that the event expressed is located before *the moment of speech,* or broadly speaking *now.* Precisely, the arrival is located two minutes before the moment of speech.

Aspect

The concept of 'aspect' is related to the English Progressive verb forms *is/am/are studying, was/were studying, will be studying, would be studying, has/ have been studying, had been studying,* etc. Although basically the English progressive aspect expresses 'progressivity' and 'dynamicity' or 'non-stativity' (Comrie, 1976, 1985), peripherally a verb in progressive form can be used to express different meanings, such as 'future time' as in *She is coming here tomorrow;* 'persistent state' as in *She is talking too much .*

The English past habitual aspect is expressed by *used to + V.*

Present Perfect

The English Present Perfect such as *has studied, have studied,* etc., is viewed as distinct from the English 'tense' because in terms of time-relationship it expresses *before-and-up-to-now* time -event /action relationship, as in *He has been here since last Monday ,* and 'perfect' meanings which can be 'perfect of result' *John has arrived,* 'experiential perfect' *Bill has been to America,* 'perfect of persistent situation' *We have lived here for ten years,* or 'perfect of recent past', *Bill has just arrived* (Comrie, (1976).

Mood/Modality

The term Mood/Modality is loosely used in this study. It is used to refer to the traditional terms: Indicative Mood, Imperative Mood, Subjunctive Mood, Modal Auxiliaries, etc.

Conditional Sentences

The term 'Conditional Sentences' is used to refer to *If you work hard, you will pass the test; If you worked hard, you would pass the test, If you had worked hard, you would have passed the test,* etc.

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Appendix 9

Questionnaire

In the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes, etc., articulated in the curriculum contents of the teaching of Structure I and Structure II, I would value your answers to each point by ticking the relevant box whether you strongly agree, agree, are undecided, disagree or strongly disagree with the following assumptions.

1 = STRONGLY AGREE
2 = AGREE
3 = UNDECIDED
4 = DISAGREE
5 = STRONGLY DISAGREE

_____

1. In the teaching of English 'tense', viz., *walk, walks, walked,* etc., to speakers of Bahasa Indonesia it is generally desirable to relate the tense forms to 'time'.

1   2   3   4   5
☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

2. In the teaching of the English 'aspect', viz., *is/am/are walking, was/were walking, has/have been walking, had been walking, will be walking,* etc., it is also desirable, when necessary, to relate the 'aspectual' forms to 'time'.

1   2   3   4   5
☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

3. In presenting the concept of 'tense' and that of 'aspect' it is necessary to separate initially the two categories for student's ease of learning.

1   2   3   4   5
☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

4. The English Present Perfect, viz., *has/have walked,* etc., should be presented separately from the presentation of the concept of 'tense' and 'aspect'.

1   2   3   4   5
☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

5. The English modal auxiliaries, *can, could, may, might, must, will, would, shall, should, ought to,* etc., are best presented without relating the respective categories to 'time'.

1   2   3   4   5
☐   ☐   ☐   ☐   ☐

6. The English mood, viz., *the indicative, imperative, subjunctive mood,* etc., should be made explicit in the teaching of the English tense-aspect complexes.

1 2 3 4 5

☐☐☐☐☐

7. The presentation of the English Conditional Sentences, viz., *If you work hard, you will pass the test; If you worked hard, you would pass the test; If you had worked hard, you would have passed the test* is related to the concept of 'time'.

1 2 3 4 5

☐☐☐☐☐

8. One cannot do without an explicit instruction in English tense-aspect complexes in Indonesian EFL education. That is, broadly speaking, the teaching of English grammar is vital in equipping an EFL teacher trainee.

1 2 3 4 5

☐☐☐☐☐

9. There is a need, however, to integrate the explicit instruction on tense-aspect complexes, etc., into the teaching and learning of other subjects in writing, speaking, reading and listening. That is, the presentation of *walk (s), walked, has/have walked, had walked, will walk,would walk, will have walked, would have walked, is/am/are walking, was/were walking, has/have been walking, had been walking, will be walking, would be walking,will have been walking, would have been walking,* etc., is initially made explicit before being subsequently incorporated into the teaching and learning of other subjects in writing, speaking, reading and listening.

1 2 3 4 5

☐☐☐☐☐

10. The English tense-aspect complexes, etc., should not be presented to Indonesian EFL learners without explicit explanation of their meanings.

1 2 3 4 5

☐☐☐☐☐

ANY FURTHER COMMENTS _____

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_____

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