

Table of Contents

ABSTRACT.....	VIII
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	X
ABBREVIATIONS.....	XII
CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1. RATIONALE OF THE STUDY.....	1
1.2. AIMS OF THE STUDY.....	3
1.3. RESEARCH QUESTIONS.....	4
1.4. SCOPE OF THE STUDY.....	4
1.5. METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION.....	7
1.6. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY.....	7
1.7. STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY.....	8
CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW.....	11
2.1. PREVIOUS STUDIES.....	11
2.1.1. <i>The studies concerning the translation of the English tenses and aspects into other languages.....</i>	<i>11</i>
2.1.2. <i>The studies concerning the translation of the English tenses and aspects into Vietnamese.....</i>	<i>12</i>
2.2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND FOR THE STUDY.....	16
2.2.1. <i>Translation theories.....</i>	<i>16</i>
2.2.2. <i>The concepts of tenses and aspects.....</i>	<i>23</i>
2.2.3. <i>Implicit factors affecting translation.....</i>	<i>46</i>
2.3. THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY.....	49
2.4. SUMMARY.....	53
CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION.....	55
3.1. RESEARCH APPROACHES AND METHODS.....	58
3.1.1. <i>Qualitative approach.....</i>	<i>61</i>



3.1.2. <i>Quantitative approach</i>	62
3.1.3. <i>Specific methods</i>	63
3.2. DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS PROCEDURE.....	63
3.2.1. <i>The procedure of collecting data</i>	63
3.2.2. <i>Data analysis procedure</i>	65
3.3. SUMMARY.....	70

CHAPTER 4: THE FINDINGS OF THE TRANSLATION OF THE ENGLISH SIMPLE TENSES AND ASPECTS INTO THEIR VIETNAMESE EQUIVALENTS..... 73

4.1. THE VIETNAMESE TRANSLATION OF THE ENGLISH SIMPLE TENSES BY T1.....	74
4.1.1. <i>The translation of the English simple present tense</i>	76
4.1.2. <i>The translation of the English simple past tense</i>	78
4.1.3. <i>The translation of the English simple future tense</i>	80
4.2. THE VIETNAMESE TRANSLATION OF THE ENGLISH SIMPLE TENSES BY T2.....	81
4.2.1. <i>The translation of the English simple present tense</i>	83
4.2.2. <i>The translation of the English simple past tense</i>	85
4.2.3. <i>The translation of the English simple future tense</i>	86
4.3. THE VIETNAMESE TRANSLATION OF THE ENGLISH SIMPLE TENSES BY T3.....	87
4.3.1. <i>The translation of the English simple present tense</i>	89
4.3.2. <i>The translation of the English simple past tense</i>	91
4.3.3. <i>The translation of the English simple future tense</i>	93
4.4. THE IMPLICIT MEANINGS OF THE USE OR DISUSE OF THE VIETNAMESE LINGUISTIC MEANS IN THE TRANSLATION OF THE ENGLISH SIMPLE TENSES.....	97
4.4.1. <i>The meaning of the English simple past tense inferred from the time adverbial in Vietnamese</i>	97
4.4.2. <i>The perfective marker đã used as an emphasis rather than a means for translating the English tenses</i>	98
4.4.3. <i>The perfective marker đã cannot be used for translating past tenses</i>	100



4.4.4. <i>The progress marker đang and đương used for translating past, present and future tenses but not compulsory</i>	101
4.4.5. <i>The disuse of the Vietnamese markers under the view of idiomatic preferences</i>	102
4.4.6. <i>The disuse of the Vietnamese markers viewed from different referential equivalence</i>	103
4.5. SUMMARY	104

CHAPTER 5: THE FINDINGS OF THE TRANSLATION OF THE ENGLISH COMPLEX TENSES AND ASPECTS INTO THEIR VIETNAMESE EQUIVALENTS..... 106

5.1. TRANSLATION OF THE ENGLISH COMPLEX TENSES AND ASPECTS BY T1.....	106
5.1.1. <i>Translation of the English present tenses</i>	107
5.1.2. <i>Translation of the English past tenses</i>	113
5.1.3. <i>The translation of “be going to”</i>	118
5.2. TRANSLATION OF THE ENGLISH COMPLEX TENSES AND ASPECTS BY T2.....	120
5.2.1. <i>Translation of the English present tenses</i>	121
5.2.2. <i>Translation of the English past tenses</i>	127
5.2.3. <i>The translation of “Be going to”</i>	134
5.3. TRANSLATION OF THE COMPLEX ENGLISH TENSES AND ASPECTS BY T3.....	135
5.3.1. <i>Translation of the English present tenses</i>	136
5.3.2. <i>Translation of the English past tenses</i>	141
5.3.3. <i>The translation of “Be going to”</i>	148
5.4. THE IMPLICIT MEANINGS OF THE USE OR DISUSE OF THE VIETNAMESE LINGUISTIC MEANS IN THE TRANSLATION OF THE ENGLISH COMPLEX TENSES AND ASPECTS.....	149
5.4.1. <i>The meaning of the English simple past tense inferred from the prepositional phrases of time in Vietnamese</i>	150
5.4.2. <i>The disuse of Vietnamese markers under the view of idiomatic preferences</i>	150



5.4.3. <i>The disuse of the Vietnamese markers viewed from different referential equivalence.....</i>	151
5.4.4. <i>The use or disuse of Vietnamese markers caused by different pragmatic equivalence.....</i>	152
5.5. SUMMARY.....	153
CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS.....	155
6.1. CONCLUDING REMARKS.....	155
6.2. IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY.....	160
6.3. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY.....	162
6.4. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH.....	162
REFERENCE.....	164
<i>ENGLISH.....</i>	<i>164</i>
<i>VIETNAMESE.....</i>	<i>170</i>
APPENDIX 1: THE ENGLISH NOVEL AND ITS VIETNAMESE TRANSLATIONS.....	172
APPENDIX 2-11: THE ENGLISH TENSES AND ASPECTS TRANSLATED INTO THREE VIETNAMESE VERSIONS.....	172



LISTS OF TABLES

Table 2. 1: Vietnamese Linguistic Means Used in Translation of Simple English Tenses	52
Table 2.2: Vietnamese Linguistic Means Used in Translation of Complex English Tenses	52
Table 4.1: Vietnamese Linguistic Means Used in Translation of Simple English Tenses by T1	75
Table 4.2: Vietnamese Linguistic Means Used in Translation of Simple English Tenses by T2	81
Table 4.3: Vietnamese Linguistic Means Used in Translation of Simple English Tenses by T3	88
Table 5.1: Vietnamese Linguistic Means Used in Translation of Complex English Tenses and Aspects by T1	107
Table 5.2: Vietnamese Linguistic Means Used in Translation of Complex English Tenses and Aspects by T2	121
Table 5.3: Vietnamese Linguistic Means Used in Translation of Complex English Tenses and Aspects by T3	136

LISTS OF FIGURES

Figure 2. 1: The English Tense-Aspect System	29
Figure 2. 2: Tense And Aspect Combination	29
Figure 2. 3: Temporal features of the situation types	34
Figure 2. 4: Conceptual framework for constrasting English tenses and aspects with their Vietnamese equivalents	51



Figure 3.1: Concurrent designs	60
Figure 3.2: Steps in identifying means to translate English tenses and aspects into Vietnamese	69
Figure 4.1: Percentage of Vietnamese Linguistic Means Used by T1	75
Figure 4.2: Percentage of Vietnamese Linguistic Means Used by T2	82
Figure 4.3: Percentage of Vietnamese Linguistic Means Used by T3	89
Figure 5.1: Percentage of Vietnamese Linguistic Means of Translating Present Tenses and Aspects by T1	108
Figure 5.2: Percentage of Vietnamese Linguistic Means of Translating Past Tenses and Aspects by T1	113
Figure 5.3: “Be going to” Translated by T1	119
Figure 5.4: Percentage of Vietnamese Linguistic Means of Translating Present Tenses and Aspects by T2	122
Figure 5.5: Percentage of Vietnamese Linguistic Means of Translating Past Tenses and Aspects by T2	128
Figure 5.6 : “Be going to” Translated by T2	134
Figure 5.7: Percentage of Vietnamese Linguistic Means of Translating Present Tenses and Aspects by T3	137
Figure 5.8: Percentage of Vietnamese Linguistic Means of Translating Past Tenses and Aspects by T3	142
Figure 5.9: “Be going to” Translated by T3	148



CERTIFICATE OF ORIGINALITY

I, the undersigned, certify my authority of the dissertation report submitted entitled “The Translation of Tenses and Aspects from English into Vietnamese” in the fulfillment of the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy.

Except where the reference is indicated, no other person’s work has been used without due acknowledgements in the text of the dissertation.

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Nguyễn Đình Sinh



Abstract

This dissertation investigated how tense and aspect items were transferred into Vietnamese via the contrasting of the expressions of tenses and aspects. Practically, the main aim of the study was to find Vietnamese linguistic means or markers applicable to convey the English tenses and aspects. Then, the second aim of the study was to find out the implications of the Vietnamese linguistic means or markers used in translating English tenses and aspects. The data collected from the novel in the English language entitled the Great Gatsby by the U.S's famous novelist, Francis Scott Fitzgerald comprise of 2,493 English sentences. The rest of 7,479 Vietnamese translated sentences were taken from the three novels in Vietnamese namely “Con người hào hoa”, “Gatsby vĩ đại”, “Đại gia Gatsby” by three prominent Vietnamese translators namely Mặc Đỗ, Hoàng Cường and Trịnh Lữ respectively.

The research employed mixed methods of qualitative and quantitative strategy as a methodology approach. Besides, various research methods such as the descriptive and analytical methods and contrasting methods also used. The library research method was to collect related materials and data to construct a theoretical background for the study by reviewing related theories such as tenses, aspects and equivalence in translation. Moreover, qualitative approach was employed to assist the description, explanation, clarification and synthesis of the quantitative results of the research. Similarly, to analyze qualitatively the target texts, the research employed Vietnamese temporal and aspectual markers mentioned in the literature reviews.

The study discovered that the employment of overt linguistic markers indicating tenses and aspects was infrequent in translated texts in Vietnamese. In reality, locating temporal manner of a situation in Vietnamese is mostly deduced from the context of the situation itself. The information indicating aspects of a situation is mostly inferred from the context and situation types of the verbs.



Besides, it can be overtly identified through certain Vietnamese linguistic markers. Contrary to that, tense is a matter of the fact in all finite sentences and openly transfers the temporal manner of a situation.

The results of the research are of considerable significance helping solve the controversies over whether Vietnamese has tenses and aspects or not. Besides, translators of English may take these results as a practical reference assisting the translating work. Furthermore, teachers and learners of English can employ these results in their studying and educating and English in common and translation in specific.

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Abbreviations

BGT: be going to

CNHH: Con người hào hoa

ĐGG: Đại gia Gatsby

Fre: frequency:

Fut M: future marker

GVD: Gatsby vĩ đại

Per M: perfective marker

PP: perfect progressive

Pre: present

Pro M: progress marker

Pro: Progress

Perf: Perfect

PP: Perfect progress

R: reference

Sim: simple

SL: source language

S. Verbs: Situation types of verbs

TGG: The Great Gatsby

TL: target language

T1: Mặc Đỗ

T2: Hoàng Cường

T3: Trịnh Lữ

TT: target text



CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Rationale of the study

In communicating between two countries even between two tribes or ethnic groups within a country that speak different languages, translation is an indispensable element contributing to a successful information exchange. Translation has a very long history of development. Its history is normally said to date back to 3,000 B.C. Translators of different languages, however, still confront quite a lot of difficulties in their work, among them equivalence is the most popular one. Equivalence in translation is not very common whereas non-equivalence between any two languages exists as a matter of the fact. Even, two languages like English and French are considered to be members of the Indo-European family, non-equivalence does exist between them. Compare the two English and French sentences expressing the same information in the following example:

A: She is a student.

B: Elle est étudiante.

In the sentence (A) the word “student” need not be defined in female form as this is not a feature of English grammar rule, whereas in the sentence (B) the word “étudiante” is in female “form” and its male form is “étudiant” to be in consistent with the subject female “Elle”. Therefore, the Vietnamese, a language is believed to belong to the Mon-Khmer branch of the Austroasiatic language family, must possess a lot more non-equivalences than the French language in translating from English or vice-versa. One of the non-equivalences between the two languages is the recognition of tenses and aspects. English is a language in which tenses and aspects are compulsory whether tenses and aspects present in the Vietnamese language remain a controversial topic. Accordingly, in translating from English into Vietnamese the difficulties related to tenses and aspects cannot be avoided. One of the difficulties is the seeking for equivalence between the two languages in terms of tenses and aspects. When mentioning equivalence, Baker (2011) divided five levels



of equivalence including equivalence at word level, equivalence above word level, grammatical equivalence, textual equivalence and pragmatic equivalence. He details grammatical equivalence under five categories including number, gender, person, tenses and aspects, and voice. Thus, the non-equivalence as regards tenses and aspects between the English and Vietnamese languages is at grammatical level.

In reality, there have appeared several researches or articles arguing on the expressions of time between a foreign language and the Vietnamese language for hundreds of years. Such researches or articles are by Rhodes (1651), Aubaret (1864), Trần Trọng Kim (1940), Trương Vĩnh Ký (1883), later names as Panfilov (1979, 1993), Nguyễn Kim Thản (1997), Cao Xuân Hạo (1998, 2000), Đinh Văn Đức (2001), Hurinville (2007) or recent names as Phạm Quang Trường (2002), Nguyễn Đức Nam (2014) and Ngô Thị Minh Tuyết (2016) etc. These are just a few names to be listed. Some of these scholars state that Vietnamese has three tenses: The present tense, expressed by *đang*, the past tense conveyed by *đã* and the future tense indicated by *sẽ* etc., however, these Vietnamese adjuncts *đã*, *đang*, *sẽ* in practice, are not always used to translate English tenses and aspects from English into Vietnamese. The reasons explaining for this are many, yet one of the inevitable reasons is that in most of the cases, without using *đã*, *đang*, *sẽ*, the meaning of the information can still be reached in Vietnamese. How come that may happen in translation is a question that has inspired the researcher for such a long time. Although the scope of present thesis is limited, it is aimed at discovering how English tenses and aspects can be translated from English into Vietnamese basing on the analysis of the data collected from authentic sources which consist of the novel *The Great Gatsby* by Francis Scott Fitzgerald as the SL data and three translated versions namely *Con Người Hào Hoa* by Mặc Đỗ, *Gatsby Vĩ Đại* by Hoàng Cường and *Đại Gia Gatsby* by Trịnh Lữ as SL data.

1.2. Aims of the study

This study aimed at finding out how the English tenses and aspects could be translated into Vietnamese. The study was conducted as a research in the field of applied linguistics, one of the subfields of linguistics. The research material consists of English and Vietnamese. To facilitate the achievement of the aim, the following objectives are set out.

Firstly, contrasting the use of available linguistic means in each of the languages, English and Vietnamese to convey the information of the incidents or of the actions at different time points and their states i.e. have finished, are progressing or will happen as indicated by tenses and aspects. In other words, how the verbs in the English simple tense and complex tense sentences were translated into their Vietnamese equivalents.

Secondly, explaining why in some Vietnamese translation cases, explicit markers like *đã, rồi, đang, đang, sắp, sẽ* were not used, though the Vietnamese TL equivalents could convey English tense and aspect meaning. In other words, what implicitnesses there might be in cases where Vietnamese explicit markers were not used for translation. Therefore, the explanations were expected to be made by investigating the implicit meanings of the Vietnamese translated sentences.

There have been also studies or articles arguing if tenses and aspects exist in the Vietnamese language. There have even been some studies or articles discussing the means of expressing time points in the Vietnamese language. Nevertheless, comprehensive studies into investigating how to translate tenses and aspects from English into Vietnamese are almost unfindable. Thus, there might still exist confusion, obscurity or unexpected mistranslation in practice. The results were expected to be a reliable scientific reference basis for learners, teachers, translators and for those who are interested in translation.



1.3. Research questions

As indicated above, the aim of the study is to investigate the possible Vietnamese linguistic means that were used to translate the English temporal and aspectual elements. The English tenses and aspects discussed in the present study were categorized into the simple and complex tenses and aspects, pursuant to the division by Greenbaum & Quirk (1973). Basically, the investigation was carried out based on the contrasting results of the data collected in the novel “The Great Gatsby” as the English source language and its three translation versions in Vietnamese, namely “Con người hào hoa”, “Gatsby vĩ đại” and “Đại gia Gatsby”. Besides, the study is also aimed at discovering the differences of the translated sentences in which the Vietnamese linguistic means or markers are used or not used. Therefore, to achieve the above indicated aims, the following questions are set out.

- 1. How are the English simple tenses and aspects translated into Vietnamese?*
- 2. How are the English complex tenses and aspects translated into Vietnamese?*

1.4. Scope of the study

The present research aims at investigating the common linguistic means in expressing tenses and aspects both in English and Vietnamese and feasible translating means which can be employed to convey English tenses and aspects into Vietnamese. Therefore, tenses and aspects are the subjects of this research. Tenses and aspects are apparently the two categories of English grammar which determine not only the meaning of the verbs but also the forms of the verbs in the sentences regarding time, voice and mood. However, each language has its own rules in forming words, phrases, sentences etc. Thornburry (2002) claims grammar in English is “the rules that govern how a language sentence is formed” (p. 1). Grammar itself has some types. Normally, the studies on syntax, morphology (Greenbaum & Quirk, 2003; Thornburry, 2002) and on lexical (Thornburry, 2002) are seen as grammar. There are many rules of language for a grammar. Blum,



Johnson and Shell (1985) say that there are three types of grammar: traditional, structural and transformational ones. Firstly, traditional grammar includes parts of speech in every sentence. Eight parts of speech are: “nouns, verbs, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections” (p. 14). The second type of grammar, structural grammar is classified by Blum et.al., (1985). Structural grammar looks at “how sounds, words, forms and words positions affect meaning” (p. 15). The last type is transformational grammar. According to Blum et.al., (1985), transformational grammar refers to “the result of adding, deleting, or rearranging the words of a kernel sentences” (p. 16).

In this study, the author is merely going to select the first type of grammar, namely traditional grammar, among all the three types afore-mentioned. The explanation for this selection is that the study aim to discover equivalents expressing tenses and aspects between the two languages, English and Vietnamese. In English, tenses and aspects are partly recognized by forms of verbs, whereas verbs are among the subjects of study in traditional grammar.

Within the framework of study, the theories of equivalence in translation were examined and investigated through the English novel as the source language (hereafter referred to as SL) and its three Vietnamese translations as the target language (hereafter referred to as TL). The SL in English is from the novel “The Great Gatsby” (hereafter referred to as TGG). TGG was written by the American author Francis Scott Fitzgerald. The researcher was inspired to carry out the study by the fame of the novel as this novel was adapted into films and television, literature theatre, opera, radio, ballet or even computer games. Furthermore, Fitzgerald is now widely regarded as one of the greatest American writers of the 20th century. The TL in Vietnamese is the three Vietnamese translation versions namely “Con Người Hào Hoa” (hereafter called CNHH), “Gatsby Vĩ Đại” (hereafter called GVĐ), and “Đại Gia Gatsby” (hereafter called ĐGG) by Đỗ Mặc (hereafter referred to as T1), Hoàng Cường (hereafter called T2) and Trịnh Lữ (hereafter called T3) respectively. These Vietnamese translators are very famous in

the translation development in Vietnam. The analysis will be based on the data of all the sentences merely collected from the novel. These sentences were identified based on the sentence structures of such tenses as simple present, present progressive, present perfect, present perfect progressive, simple past, past progressive, past perfect, past perfect progressive, futurity expressed by the modal verb will or shall and “Be going to”. Notably, the study focused on only ten tenses found in SL texts while modal verb sentences like can, could, may, might, must, would or conditional sentences were not considered in the current study. Besides, other tenses like future progressive, future perfect, future perfect progressive and other grammatical structures affect the forms of verbs in sentences such as subjunctive was not the subject of the present study, either as partly the data of these found in the novel were so small, not sufficient enough and as mainly the scope of the study was limited. It would be impossible for the researchers to get data from other novels or sources as the corpus will be so huge and hard to analyze and the time for the study is restricted. Besides, it would be out of the researcher’s competency then the results would be unlikely to be precisely produced.

The data collected from the English novel under the forms of sentences, among which 2,493 sentences are from English and their 7,479 equivalents in Vietnamese. Some of the English sentences carry temporal meanings, however, almost all the sentences in English carry both tempo-aspectual meaning. The tempo-aspectual indicators in the English novel are present in forms of verbs and adverbs of time whereas tempo-aspectual indicators in the Vietnamese translations are either implicitly present or explicitly available in adverbials, expletives or markers. The forms of English verbs functioned as criteria helping recognize the types of tenses and aspects chosen for investigating in the present research. Then, the Vietnamese adverbials and expletives or markers are the indicators to locate the contrasting Vietnamese linguistic means in the translations of the English tenses and aspects.



1.5. Methodology and data collection

In fulfilling the task of the study, the research is intended to employ various research methods and techniques. The most frequently used method in the study is the contrastive analysis method which is contemplated to be implemented almost through all the parts and chapters of the study. This method helps describe varieties of notions ranging from tenses and aspects to translation, equivalence in translation etc. Then, the researcher plans to employ qualitative and quantitative analyses. With the qualitative method, the application of theories related to the thesis such as tenses, aspects, situation types of verbs, translation, translation in English and their equivalents in Vietnamese. Basing on those grounds, the researcher built up his own conceptual framework to for his study. The quantitative method, on the contrary, will be utilized to analyze data gathered in numeral forms. This research approach often used in pragmatics researches and is considered an effective research approach in validating the research results. Besides, specific methods of contrastive and comparative methods will also be used. This method will be mainly used in chapter 4 and 5 to contrast the use of English tenses and aspects to express the time of the action in a sentence and the use of different Vietnamese linguistic means to translate those English tenses and aspects.

1.6. Significance of the study

The findings of the study will redound to the research field in general and to learners, teachers, translators of English in particular as regards both methodological and practical benefits. Firstly, in respect of methodological benefits, the study has reviewed various viewpoints and studies about time, tense and aspect notions in not only English and Vietnamese but also in other different languages in the world from different grammatical type angles. Thus, a clear-cut among the notions of tense and aspect in English was made, which helped remove obscurities in differentiating them for foreign learners of English. Furthermore, as mentioned in the above part, there have not been enough comprehensive studies on how to



translate tenses and aspects from English into Vietnamese. Therefore, this study has found out feasible linguistic means in the Vietnamese language to translate tense and aspect items in the English language. Besides, the study has also helped settle controversies over the issue if Vietnamese has tenses and aspects. Though there have still existed different views over these controversies, they occur, in fact, purely among linguists or researchers. The results of the study have confirmed that the Vietnamese language does not have tenses and aspects. The reasons explaining for that confirmation can be based on the two main grounds. The first ground is that Vietnamese is normally regarded as a non-inflectional language as its verb forms keep unchanged in different tenses or aspects i.e., they are not inflected like other European inflectional languages. In the present study, not any cases of inflected Vietnamese verbs have been found. The second ground, according to Evans & Green (2005), “A language is only described as having tense if it has a distinct morphological verb form that indicates past/present/ future time” (p. 626).

Secondly, with regard to practical benefits, the findings help to investigate different linguistic means in Vietnamese that were employed to successfully translate tenses and aspects from English into Vietnamese. Then these Vietnamese linguistic means can also help to explain how and why English tenses and aspects can be translated into Vietnamese, though in reality there are no tenses and aspects in Vietnamese. Also, the ambiguities in translating English tenses and aspects into Vietnamese can be avoided. The study also succeeded in explaining the implicit meaning of the use or unuse of the linguistic means or markers in Vietnamese to translate the English tenses and aspects. Finally, the results of the present study are hopefully a useful reference for teachers, learners, interpreters and those interested in translation.

1.7. Structure of the study

To approach the aims of finding out the linguistic means in Vietnamese that the three translators applied to translating tense and aspect items from English into



Vietnamese, the current dissertation was divided into 6 chapters, they are in the following sequence.

Chapter 1: Introduction

It includes the exposition of the rationale, aims, research questions, scope of the study, methods of the study, significance of the study and the structure of the study.

Chapter 2: Literature review

This chapter is to review previous studies on translation of tenses and aspects. These studies are quite diverse as they can be about the translation of English tenses and aspects into other languages or from a foreign language to others. Besides, the systems of tenses and aspects in English were intensively discussed. Then, different views about the recognition of tense and aspect notions in Vietnamese, translation, and equivalence in translation were analyzed. Finally, factors affecting the translation were also assessed and stated.

Chapter 3: Methodology and data collection

This chapter presents different research approaches, which are used in the study, the mix of qualitative and quantitative. Besides, some specific methods are employed such as descriptive analysis, contrast and comparison used to explore the commonalities, differences and similarities between the SL and TL with respect to the expressions of tenses and aspects and prediction which is anticipated that different linguistic markers can be used for translating English tenses and aspect.

Chapter 4: The findings of the translation of the English simple tenses and aspects and the translation implications

It represents the analyses of the thesis. In this chapter, the contrast analyses of various means or expression of tenses between English and Vietnamese will be made basing on the conceptual frameworks proposed. The three English simple tenses will be examined including the simple present tense, the simple past tense and the simple future tense. Besides, the comparisons among the translated sentences by the three translators helped to discover the implicit meanings of the



use and disuse of the Vietnamese linguistic means or markers in translation of the English tenses and aspects.

Chapter 5: The findings of the translation of the English complex tenses and aspects and the translation implications

Chapter 4 completed the task of finding the Vietnamese linguistic means or markers to translate the three English simple tenses namely the simple present tense, the simple past tense and the simple future tense. The chapter 5 was carried out with the investigation into the contrast of the translation of the English complex tenses including the present progress tense, the present perfect tense, the present perfect progress tense, the past progress tense, the past perfect tense, the past perfect progress tense and “Be going to”. Similarly, the comparisons among the translated sentences by the three translators was aimed at discovering the implicit meanings of the use and disuse of the Vietnamese linguistic means or markers in translation of the English complex tenses and aspects.

Chapter 6: Conclusion and implications

This part represents the valid conclusions obtained from the analyses of the data in chapter 4 and chapter 5. This chapter also provides recommendations and suggestions for further studies.



CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Previous studies

2.1.1. *The studies concerning the translation of the English tenses and aspects into other languages*

A number of studies or articles have touched upon the translation of tenses and aspects from English into other languages, nonetheless very few of them from English into Vietnamese. It seems to be that the interests in how to translate tenses and aspects from English into Arabic and vice versa attracts researchers the most as a large number of theses concerning these kinds of topic. Such theses as the research by Rasul (1972) carried out to make a contrastive analysis between English and Arabic tenses and aspects under transformational grammar view with one of the aims is to help the interpretation between the two languages. In the case of Ouided (2008), she focuses on a comparison between English and Arabic tenses and attempts to seek the best method for translating the present perfect into Arabic in her master thesis entitled “Problems in Translating Tenses from English into Arabic - The Present Perfect: A Case Study”. It also emphasizes its use and it suggests appropriate translation in order to eliminate ambiguity in translation. With Moshref (2012), his study focused on the lexical, phonological and syntactic features of verb phrase morphemes and constituents in different tenses, aspects, moods. He collected a corpus of over 3,000 phrases from religious, political/economic and sports interviews on four Egyptian satellite TV channels. The computational analysis of the data shows that systematic and content morphemes from both varieties of Arabic incorporate in scrupulous ways. Syntactic considerations play a critical role with regard to the frequency and direction of code-switching between the negative marker, subject, or complement on one hand and the verb on the other.

Besides, Eriksson (2016) investigates how native speakers of British English and advanced Russian learners of English treat two types of tense-aspect mismatches: present perfect mismatches, where the present perfect form does not



match the preceding adverbial and past simple mismatches, where the past simple form does not match the preceding adverbial. Then Kiso (2012) describes and compares the tense-aspect systems found in three south-eastern Bantu languages, viz. Chichewa, Citumbuka and Cisena. For each language, an in-depth description of the tense-aspect categories and their use is given based on the analysis of different sources of data. They are audio recordings of arranged conversations and narratives, questionnaires in which native speakers of Chichewa, Citumbuka and Cisena translate English sentences into their own language and parallel corpora of Biblical texts as well as direct elicitation and consultation sessions.

In China, Dahui Dong (2014) aimed his study at examining verb tense and aspect choices in Chinese-into-English translation and compared the choices made by native Chinese-speaking translators with those made by native English-speaking translators. The study utilized a data-driven approach based on a parallel Chinese into English translation corpus to evaluate the relative importance of the factors affecting tense-aspect choices by three groups of translators: native Chinese-speaking novice translators, native Chinese-speaking professional translators, and native English-speaking professional translators. The factors that were examined to evaluate their effect on tense-aspect choices include: the tenses and aspects used in the Chinese source text; the lexical aspect of the English verb; the rhetorical structure of the Chinese source text; and the translator's language background and competence level.

2.1.2. The studies concerning the translation of the English tenses and aspects into Vietnamese

Comparing and contrasting two languages are very significant for learners, translators in particular and users in general, thus in the context of Vietnam in recent years there has some researches discussing the issues of similarities and differences related to tenses and aspects. In 2002, Phạm Quang Trường in his doctorate thesis “The contrast of past tense in French and methods of equivalent expressions in



Vietnamese”¹ (translation by the current writer), he asserts that his study is based on the real situation of 30 years of his learning and teaching French at University of Languages and International Studies. According to Phạm Quang Trường, Vietnamese people face difficulties in studying the French past tenses. He hopes his study results will be beneficial for the Vietnamese learners of French to predict errors and good for the training of interpreters of French. Another study is also aimed at contrasting time between French and Vietnamese by Nguyễn Đức Nam (2014). In his doctoral thesis “The contrast of time factor between French and Vietnamese: Applying the pragmatic and semantic approaches”² (translated by the current writer), he states the scope of his study is to contrast the two main items – tenses and aspects between French and Vietnamese. The research method applied in his thesis is a comparison method. The scope of research is the tense and aspect values in Vietnamese and in French. The object of the study is the verb forms in narration (indicatif) in French and the equivalent adverbs *đã*, *đang*, *sẽ* in Vietnamese. In the result part of his study, he states that a verb form in French narrative has many values in terms of tenses and aspects and can be used to express various meanings of time. The determination of temporal and aspectual values as well as the temporal meaning of a verb form of a statement must be made on the basis of determining the interaction with pragmatic information, which is mainly information related to the context of the speech. For Vietnamese, most of the adverbs express aspectual values. Therefore, identifying the meaning of a speech act must count on pragmatic information. Another point to note is that in Vietnamese, the use of adverbs referring to time is not mandatory, thus the pragmatic

¹Nghiên cứu đối chiếu thời quá khứ tiếng Pháp và những phương thức biểu đạt ý nghĩa tương đương trong tiếng Việt.

²Nghiên cứu đối chiếu tính thời gian trong tiếng Pháp và tiếng Việt: Áp dụng phương pháp tiếp cận ngữ dụng-ngữ nghĩa học.

information becomes more important in determining the meaning of tenses and aspects in particular and the meaning of time in general.

One year later, Phan Thị Minh Thúy (2003) successfully defended her doctorate thesis entitled “The expression of the meaning of time in Vietnamese compared to Russian”³ (The translation by the current writer). Phan aimed her study at contrasting means of expressing the meaning of time between Vietnamese and Russian languages to identify similarities and differences between the two languages, then suggested pedagogical instructions on how to translate tense and aspect information from Russian into Vietnamese and vice versa in teaching and translating work. The results of her research show that the meaning of time can be found in all languages but the expression by means of tense only found in some languages, including the language of transformations like Russian. When it comes to indicate time meaning, on one hand, it can be expressed in vocabulary like Vietnamese on the other hand, it can also be expressed in grammar means such as Russian language. Then Trần Kim Phượng (2005) with her thesis for PhD study: “Tense, aspect and means of expressions in Vietnamese”⁴ (The translation by the current writer), the main purpose of her thesis is to describe adverbs expressing the meaning of tenses and aspects in Vietnamese. By doing so, she hopes to find answers to the questions that have been the topics of controversy for several decades namely: Do tenses and aspects categories exist in Vietnamese or not? If so, what grammatical means do they represent for? And if not, in what ways can Vietnamese express the meanings of tenses and aspects? More specifically, she focuses on studying how to express ideas of tenses and aspects by means of grammar through the use of such adverbs as *đã, sẽ, đang, từng, vừa, mới, sắp, chừa* and “zero”. After presenting the research results, two systematic diagrams of these results of the adverbs denoting tenses and aspects have been created. Then, a quite intensive study by Phan Trang (2013) with her doctor thesis “Syntax of Vietnamese aspect”, partly fulfills the task of contrasting the systems of aspects as

³ Cách diễn đạt ý nghĩa thời gian trong tiếng Việt so sánh với tiếng Nga.

⁴ Thì, thể và các phương tiện biểu hiện trong tiếng Việt.



she discusses tense and aspect expressions in Vietnamese and she compares these expressions between Vietnamese and Chinese. As a result, her study is not a very good reference for Vietnamese learners of English. In reality, English has been widely used in Vietnam for decades, applied researches comparing and contrasting English and Vietnamese have not paid enough attention, especially the contrast of the use of tenses and aspects between these two languages. Fortunately, with the master thesis “Comparison of Expression of Verbal Tense and Aspect in English and Vietnamese”, Ngô Thu Phương (2016) gives a general comparison of the typology of tenses and aspects between English and Vietnamese. She concludes that “Vietnamese has no grammatical affixes, these are characteristic for English, despite some analytic expressions. English verbs can be inflected in some ways, while Vietnamese verbs do not change its form” (p. 47). According to her, the feature ‘past’ in English can be expressed by either past tenses or present tenses in combination with aspects, while in Vietnamese, *đã* or any other expressions with the feature of anteriority is sufficient and thus, they do not need to combine. Then just recently in 2018, Vu Thuy Nga in her dissertation titled “Aspects in Japanese and equivalent expressions in Vietnamese”, she discussed quite extensively the various possibilities of aspectual means in Vietnamese in compared with those in Japanese. She points out that though aspectual markers *đã*, *đang*, *sẽ* are not compulsory in the Vietnamese sentences, they contribute greatly to indicating aspectual information in Vietnamese.

Finally, Ngô Thị Thanh Tuyết (2011) carried out her doctorate research earlier than some of the above-said studies, though her research might be the present most out-standing researcher as regards tense and aspect translation. In her study, she examines how the temporal structure of a Vietnamese narrative is realized or whether the overt temporal and aspectual markers in Vietnamese behave similarly or differently in different discourse modes, such as narrative and deictic. The data for her study, however, were taken from different sources, thus it is impossible to compare how different translators convey the same tense and aspect information

from English into Vietnamese. The results of her study would not be highly appreciated as regards its validity and reliability. More importantly, not any of the above-mentioned studies discuss the factors that affect the translation of English tenses and aspects. It is very important and worth analyzing different translations from the same SL. By doing so, the implicitness in translating by each translator can be pointed out. Then best translation version can be chosen.

On the contrary, the current research got its data from one source language and its three target language translated versions, therefore the result would be more valid and reliable. Furthermore, this research also succeeded in finding out common factors that affect the translation of the English tenses and aspects into Vietnamese.

In finding out the expressing means of tenses and aspects between English and Vietnamese, quite many theories regarding tenses and aspects need to be taken into account and analyzed. Nevertheless, theories of translation and equivalence in translation also need considering and even it should be discussed first as it should be noteworthy that in comparing between English and Vietnamese is actually a process of finding out the similarities. Technically, that is to find out the equivalent types of indicators of tenses and aspects. As a result, the following section will bring up all the afore-discussed theories and how they can work as a conceptual framework for the current study.

2.2. Theoretical background for the study

2.2.1. Translation theories

2.2.1.1. Definitions of translation

Jakobson (1959) was among the first scholars in the twentieth century to provide a definition of translation. According to him, he states that "translation from one language into another substitute messages in one language not for separate code-units but for entire messages in some other language" (p. 233).

Throughout the history of world's translation, countless definitions of translation have been proposed. As Nida (1964) noted, "Definitions of proper



translating are almost as numerous and varied as the persons who have undertaken to discuss the subject" (p. 161). According to Nida & Taber (1969), translation is not merely the transference of meaning as they stated: "Translation consists in reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style" (p. 12). Thus, Nida and Taber considered translation as a TL product, which is as semantically accurate, grammatically correct, stylistically effective and textually coherent as the source text. In other words, the translator's main attention should not be focused only on the accurate semantic transference of SL message into the TL, but also on the appropriate syntax and diction in the TL, which are explicitly the translator's but not the source author's domain of activity which displays his true competence.

Indeed, according to Wills (1969), the notion of translation competence, "is aptly assessed in transfer situations that require at least some degree of adaptation to new and challenging textual demands" (p. 95). He described such situations as "accommodatory situations" which need "structural adjustment" and generally textual manipulation. In the point of fact, the competent translator performs multiple tasks with inevitable intricacies of performance. His approach to translating expressive, emotive or expository texts in particular is deemed to be creativity-oriented, that is, hermeneutic/ manipulation rather than routine-oriented. In the latter approach, SL words are mechanically replaced by their TL equivalents, albeit one-to-one equivalence rarely, if ever, exists between languages.

Prior to Wills (1969), in associating between translation and texts, Catford (1965) affirmed "Translation is the replacement of textual material in one language (SL) by equivalent textual material in another language (TL) (p. 20).

The above definitions emphasize the significance of equivalence, which stresses the following definitions proposed by Meetham and Hudson (1972) who stated "Translation is the replacement of a text in one language by a replacement of an equivalent text in a second language" (p. 713).



Bell (1991) appears to have persisted the same trend of emphasis on meaning and style in his translation of the definition given by the French theorist Dubois. According to Dubois (1974), (as cited in As-Safi, 2011) states that “Translation is the expression in another language (or the target language) of what has been expressed in another, source language, preserving semantic and stylistic equivalences” (p. 10).

In trying to widen the afore-said definitions, Sager (1994) retains that translation should reflect the environment in which the professional translation activity takes place, “Translation is an extremely motivated industrial activity, supported by information technology, which is diversified in response to the particular needs of this form of communication” (p. 293).

Also concerning the equivalence issue, Koller (1995) describes translation as a text-processing activity and at the same time highlights the significance of equivalence:

“Translation can be understood as the result of a text-processing activity, by means of which a source-language text is transposed into a target-language text. Between the resulting text in L2 (the target-language text) and the source text L1 (the source-language text) there exists a relationship which can be designated as translational, or equivalence relation” (p. 196).

While viewing translation under the angle of form and meaning, Larson (1998) states “Translation is basically a change of form. When we speak of the form of a language, we are referring to the actual words, phrases, sentences, paragraphs etc., which are spoken or written” (p. 3).

Munday (2001) viewed translation from a broader perspective and proposes a more comprehensive definition, as follows.

The term translation itself has several meanings: it can refer to the general subject field, the product (the text that has been translated) or the process (the act of producing the translation, otherwise known as translating). The process of translation between two different written languages involves the translator changing

an original written text (the source text or ST) in the original verbal language (the source language or SL) into a written text (the target text or TT) in a different verbal language (the R or TL) (p. 4-5).

On the contrary, functionalists observe translation poles apart. Such cases as Nord, in Shuttleworth and Cowie (2007) stated that "Translation is seen as the production of a functional target text maintaining a relationship with a given source text that is specified according to the intended or demanded function of the target text" (p. 182). Besides, Nord (2007) differentiated between two senses of translation: wide and narrow. Translation is, in a narrow sense, any translational action where a source text is transferred into a target culture and language. According to the form and presentation of the source text and to the correctability of the target text, we distinguish between oral translation or interpreting and written translation or translation in the narrow sense. In a wide sense, translation is considered as an industrial activity extremely motivated and reinforced by information technology, which is diversified on account of the particular needs of this communication form.

One of the major aims of the current thesis paper is to investigate the linguistic means which can be used to convey the English tenses and aspects. Technically, the aim is to find the Vietnamese equivalents to express the meaning of the English tenses and aspects. Hence, the issue of equivalence in translation will be the focus of the subsequent analysis.

2.2.1.2. Equivalence in translation

2.2.1.2.1. Equivalence definitions

The concepts of equivalence are often the focus of the studies in translation. Jakobson (1959) was considered as the pioneer scholar to initiate the notion of translation equivalence. He locates equivalence in a very close relationship with the meaning in linguistics. Munday (2001) stated that his naming "equivalence in meaning" concentrates on "differences in the structure and terminology of



languages" instead of on the untranslatability of information from one language to another (p. 37). Venuti (2000) said, "equivalence has been understood as 'accuracy', 'adequacy', 'correctness', 'correspondence', 'fidelity', or 'identity'; it is a variable notion about how the translation is connected to the foreign text" (p. 5). Translation equivalence used to be a dominant theme of concerns in translation studies (Munday, 2001). Kenny (1998) stated that it is a central concept, though it is a controversial one as well.

There are significant differences to the approaches to the question of equivalence. Definitions in terms of equivalent relations in translation were made by Catford (1965); Nida and Taber (1969); Toury (1980); Pym (1992, 1995) while the theoretical notion of equivalence was rejected by others as they claimed it to be either irrelevant (Hornby, 1988), to translation studies (Kenny, 1998, p. 77) or damaging (Gentzler, 1993).

Baker (1992), in her monograph discussing various kinds of equivalence, affirmed that she used the equivalence notion "for the sake of convenience - because most translators are used to it rather than because it has any theoretical status" (p. 5-6). Yet, equivalence is taken as a "necessary condition for translation" (Kenny, 1998, p. 77). It is normally described as the "relationship between a source text (ST) and a target text (TT) that allows the TT to be considered as a translation of the ST in the first place" (Kenny, 1998, p. 77). Nevertheless, Pym (1992) observed from the best of the definitions of equivalence, the bond between translation and equivalence is extremely circular: "equivalence is supposed to define translation, and translation, in turn, defines equivalence" (p. 37).

The controversy about the nature of translation equivalence would continue to be a central concept in translation theory. Baker (1992); Bassnett (1990); Munday, (2001) to name but a few, contemporary theorists, are still devoting substantial studies to translation equivalence.



2.2.1.2.2. Equivalence types

Catford (1965) belonged to one of the first scholars who distinguished two different equivalence types: "formal correspondence" and "textual equivalence". He depicts formal correspondence as "any TL category: unit, class, structure, element of structure, etc... which can be said to occupy as nearly as possible the same places in the economy of the TL. As the given SL category occupies in the SL and textual equivalent as any TL text or portion of text which is observed on a particular occasion to be the equivalent of a given text or portion of text" (p. 27). Then, he continues to present his discussion with very simple, decontextualized illustrations then leads to a conclusion that "formal equivalence can only be established ultimately on the basis of textual equivalence at some points" (p. 32). Hornby (1988) regards Catford's viewpoint as a "circular definition which leads nowhere" (P. 20).

Nida (1964) looks at the problem of translation equivalence from a scientific perspective, proposing two different kinds of equivalence: "formal equivalence" and "dynamic equivalence". "Formal equivalence focuses attention on the message itself, in both form and content. In such a translation, one is concerned with such correspondences as poetry to poetry, sentence to sentence, and concept to concept... One is concerned that the message in the receptor language should match as closely as possible the different elements in the source language" (P. 159). Hence, the strategy of formal equivalence is focused on the ST structure, which emphasizes accuracy and correctness of both content and form of the ST language. Put it differently, Nida's "formal equivalence" touches upon both linguistic and cultural features of the SL text. Nida (1964) stated that "Dynamic equivalence", just the opposite, "is not so concerned with matching the receptor-language message with the source-language message, but with the dynamic relationship that the relationship between receptor and message should be substantially the same as that which existed between the original receptors and the message" (p. 159). In such a kind of translation,, according to Munday (2001), the source message "has to be tailored to



the receptor's linguistic needs and cultural expectations" (p. 42). Thus, the target reader can still understand the source message and respond in substantially the same manner as the source text reader in spite of having not much knowledge of the source language culture. Nida (1964) stated that "Dynamic equivalence" thus "aims at complete naturalness of expression" (p. 159); the translator is expected to look for "the closest natural equivalence to the source-language message" (p. 166).

Munday (2001) stated that Nida's approach to translation has been influential (p. 43). There have arisen some other discussions of the types of equivalence around his two types of equivalence with more or less similar definitions despite different terms. The 'formal equivalence', for instance, has been referred to as 'semantic equivalence' by Newmark (1981) and as 'formal equivalence' by Koller (1979/1989), while the 'dynamic equivalence' has been called as 'communicative equivalence' by Newmark (1981) and as 'pragmatic equivalence' by Koller (1979/1989).

Although different types of equivalence at all levels of the texts have been proposed, overall, they can be classified into two main types, "formal equivalence" and "dynamic equivalence". Venuti (2000) indicated "the binary oppositions are basically synonymous, despite the variations among them" (P. 22). The opposition towards "formal equivalence" is concerned with matching as closely as possible the SL elements including semantic and syntactic with the TL elements i.e. communicating linguistic and cultural features of the source text, while the "dynamic equivalence" opposition deals with the effect of a text on its reader i.e. . This helps to establish a relationship between the TL text and its reader, which is the same as that existence between the SL text and its reader in translation.

Back to the time of Baker (1992) who categorized five levels of equivalence namely equivalence at word level, equivalence above word level, grammatical equivalence, textual equivalence and pragmatic equivalence. She further subdivided the grammatical equivalence into five types including number, gender, person, tenses and aspects, and voice. Therefore, the non-equivalence as regards tenses and



aspects between the English and Vietnamese languages that will be discussed in the present research is at grammatical level.

2.2.2. The concepts of tenses and aspects

2.2.2.1. Tenses and aspects in English

English, a language is said to belong to the Indo-European family like French, Spanish, Portuguese, Russian or German which have tenses. In defining tenses, linguists and scholars possess various viewpoints. Apart from that, the recognition between tense and time is not always explicit. Therefore, prior to reviewing different definitions of tense, the researcher supposes it is necessary to distinguish tense and time notions clearly. Firstly, tense is different from time. Jespersen (1924) believes that time 'a natural or notional concept which in many languages is expressed in tenses'. Besides, Quirk & Greenbaum (1973) affirmed that time is considered to be "a universal, non-linguistic concept with three divisions: past, present and future; by tense we understand the correspondence between the form of a verb and our concept of time" (p. 40). Furthermore, according to Crystal (1977), "Tense and time do not always correspond". He takes the following newspaper headline as an example:

The Minister dies.

In that sentence "Tense" is in present form while time belongs to the past. Time is not correspondent with tense can also be clearly seen in the example below: If I were you, I would marry her.

In the above example, it is a type 2 conditional sentence, thus the verb in if clause is in past form whereas time is in present. Subsequently, the wonder of what tense is really like will be made clear in the following part.

According to the International Encyclopedia of Linguistics (1992, entry 'Tense, aspect and mood'), tense is viewed as follows:

TENSE "refers to the grammatical expression of the time of the situation described in the proposition, relative to some other time. This other time may



be the moment of speech: e.g., the PAST and Future designate time before the moment of speech, respectively TENSE is expressed by inflections, by particles, or by auxiliaries in connection with the verb”.

Klein (1994) states "time and space are basic categories of our experience and our cognition... Therefore, all natural languages we know of have developed a rich repertoire of means to express temporality and spatiality". Then, he stated that "the verb not only expresses an event, an action, process, etc., but it also links whatever it expresses to particular times. Three such times are normally distinguished, according to their relation to the present moment: past, present, future.

In practice, tenses and aspects are two different categories. Tense relates the time of the context referred to some other time, normally to the moment of speaking. The commonest tenses often seen in languages - though not all languages distinguish these three tenses, or indeed distinguish tense at all - are present, past, and future. A situation described in the present tense is identified temporally as simultaneous with the moment of speaking (e.g. John is singing). One described in the past is located prior to the moment of speaking (e.g. John sang, John was singing). The other described in the future is located subsequent to the moment of speaking (e.g. John will sing, John will be singing). Since tense locates the time of a situation relative to the situation of the utterance, we may describe tense as deictic (Comrie, 1976).

Tenses and aspects are seen as a matter of fact in English; however, confusion in distinguishing them may arise elsewhere. Thus, they will be further discussed in the subsequent sections.

Concerning the notions of tense, the following various definitions will be touched upon. The definitions will be either mentioned with regard to chronological order of time or to groups of similar point of views towards tenses by linguists. Generally, tense is considered to be widely viewed as a grammatical category. While Rodney Huddleston et al (2002) state that tense is “the general term applied to a system where the basic or characteristic meaning of the term is to locate the



situation, or part of it, at some point or period of time". In addition, in viewing tense as a grammatical category Comrie (1985) meant that it has to be "integrated into the grammatical system of a language" (p. 10). This integration is done by means of either bound morphemes (i.e., inflection on the verb morphology) or by grammatical words in line with the verbs such as the auxiliaries. Hence, this definition which is widely accepted as Comrie (1985) himself points out "permits a highly constrained theory of tense" (p. 10). This does not recognize lexicalization of temporal location itself as tense. But it requires that tense is a grammatical category. Therefore, this necessary criterion can distinguish tensed and non-tensed languages, i.e. languages that do not have tense. Confirming 'tense' as a purely grammatical category, more importantly, reflects a long tradition in linguistics of a fundamental division between grammatical and lexical or other categories regardless of any semantic interrelation. The distinction is also shared by Finch (2005) when he states that "tense refers to the grammatical changes made to the form of a verb, as opposed to time, which refers to the semantic functions such changes signal" (p. 113).

Taking the grammatical category into account, Trask (1999) claims tense is "the grammatical category which relates to time". It is likely that a language can be built basing on a few of these time distinctions into its grammar, and a language which is so should have the category of tense... whereas the other languages lack tense entirely. Taking Chinese as an example as it has nothing corresponding to the I go/I went contrast of English, (Trask, 1999, p. 294). Baker (2012) seems to have the same view as stating tense is that "a grammatical category which involves changing the form of the verb to reflect the location of an event in time. The usual distinction is between past, present and future" (p. 304). He also asserts that beyond the verb and time relationship the location of an event is also taken into account as (Baker, 2012).

When mentioning the relationship between time of the action and the verb, Shaw (1986) asserts that "Tense shows the time of the action or state being expressed by a verb". Then, Cowan (2008) also states that tense refers to time, and



time is related to 'when' an action takes place. It exhibits the time that an action occurs in relation to the moment of speaking. Besides, according to (Richards & Schmidt, 2002), tense is "the relationship between the form of the verb and the time of the action or state it describes. In seeking for the origin of the word tense, Jarvie (1993) states that "the word tense is from Latin tempus, 'time' and it is used to show the time when the action of a verb takes place" (p. 37). According to Simpson (1984), "Tense is a factor in conjugation which refers to the time of an action described relative to the moment of description... the system of tenses and aspects vary greatly from language to language" (p. xvi).

Furthermore, in specifying identity, spatial or temporal location from the perspective of a speaker, Salaberry & Shirai (2002) posited "tense is a deictic category that places a situation in time with respect to some other time, usually moment of speech" (p. 2). Besides, Matthews & Mathews (2007) declares that tense is the "inflectional category whose basic role is to indicate the time of an event, etc. in relation to the moment of speaking" (p. 404).

Finally, under the view of cognitive linguistics by Evans and Green (2005), they focus on the morphological characteristic of the English verbs as saying that "Tense is a feature of the closed-class system, usually marked morphologically on verbs or independent inflection words. Tense marks a sentence with information concerning the time of the event described relative to the moment of speaking"(p. 387).

As regards aspect, the first to count is Jarvie (1993) as he affirms "Aspect is a category indicating the point from which an action is seen to take place. Two contrasts of aspect are marked in English: progressive aspect and perfect (or perfective) aspect" (p. 37).

In fact, the difference between *he read*, *he was reading*, and *he used to read* in English is actually a distinction of aspect, thus aspect is a category even in a familiar language like English (Comrie, 1976). Particularly in view of this terminological, and conceptual, confusion of tenses and aspects, it is worth ensuring



now that the meaning of the more familiar term 'tense' is understood, before embarking on discussion of the less familiar term 'aspect'.

As the general definition of aspect, we may take the formulation that 'aspects are different ways of viewing the internal temporal constituency of a situation'. We may illustrate this definition briefly, returning to more detailed exemplification in the body of the book, by considering one of the differences between the aspectual forms given above as examples of aspectual distinctions in various languages.

Tenses and aspects are both believed to be concerned with time though they express temporal situations in different ways. Comrie (1985) states that tense is a deictic category, i.e. it relates the time of the situation (E) to another time point, normally S or R. Aspect, on the other hand, is not related to the time of utterance. It serves to indicate the internal temporal structure of the situation itself, such as describing whether a situation is ongoing or complete. Comrie (1976) defines aspect as "different ways of viewing the internal temporal constituency of a situation" (p. 3). There have existed many different views of what aspect is. A fairly detailed definition of aspect is given by Brinton (1998) as she stated:

"Aspect is a matter of the speaker's viewpoint or perspective on a situation. The speaker may choose to portray an event as completed (Perfective aspect), or as ongoing (imperfective aspect), or as beginning (ingressive aspect), continuing (continuative aspect), ending (egressive aspect), or repeating (iterative or habitual aspect)" (p. 3).

Smith (1997) confirms that "aspect traditionally refers to grammaticalized viewpoints such as the perfective and imperfective" (p. 1). She views the grammatical aspect as 'viewpoint aspect'. A situation can also be considered as static or dynamic, bounded or unbounded, punctual or durative, continuous or iterative. The temporal properties of a situation are decided by the inherent lexical meaning of the situation displayed. Aspects defined in this way have been seen as 'lexical aspect', "aktionsart", or 'situation type', the last term cast by Smith (1997). In Smith's view, aspectual meaning of a situation springs from interaction between



situation types and viewpoints. Viewpoint is generally shown morphologically and gives a full or partial view of the situation talked about. In practice, situation type is conveyed by the verb and its arguments, or verb constellation, and indirectly classifies the event or state talked about according to its temporal properties.

From the observation of cognitive linguistics, Evans and Green (2005) affirm that tenses and aspects are clearly distinguished, unlike tense, aspect does not refer to the time of the event described relative to the moment of speaking, but instead describes whether the event is viewed as completed or ongoing. The traditional term for a completed event is perfect aspect and traditional terms for an ongoing event includes the terms imperfect or progressive aspect (p. 388).

2.2.2.1.1. Classifications of tenses and aspects

For many foreign learners of English, when they study this language, the question of how many English tenses there are is quite popular. Although there have been quite various studies discussing tenses and aspects in English, the following sections will discuss some popular divisions of English tenses. The divisions are the combination of both tenses and aspects. There are quite a lot of studies discussing the English tenses and aspects. Vietnamese learners are fairly familiar with practical grammar books and university grammar books. One of the most popular grammarians presented was Raymon (1985). His book entitled 'English Grammar In Use' had been reedited four times up to 2015. He divided the English tenses and aspects into such tenses as present simple, present continuous, past simple, past continuous, present perfect, present perfect continuous, past perfect and past perfect continuous. Future meaning can be expressed in 'be going to' or the auxiliaries will/shall with a verb. Murcia and Freeman (1999) states that "English has been said to have 12 tenses" (p. 110).

Then, in mentioning the tense-aspect system and tense-aspect combination, Murcia and Freeman (1999) combined the two tenses, present and past. Though, no verb inflection is seen for the future time, according to them, the future is also listed



as a tense. As they said “Although there is no verb inflection for future time, any description of the English tense-aspect system needs to account for what form-meaning combinations *do* exist that relate to time” (p. 110). The combination of tense and aspect system can be seen in the below figure.

Figure 2. 1: The English Tense-Aspect System

	Simple	Perfect	Progressive	Perfect Progressive
	0	Have + _en	Be + _ing	Have + _en be + _ing
Present	Write/writes	Has/have written	Am/is/are writing	Has/have been writing
Past	wrote	Had written	Was/were writing	Had been writing
Future	Will write	Will have written	Will be writing	Will have been writing

(Adapted from Murcia and Freeman 1999, p. 110)

Finally, the Vietnamese students of English linguistics at university are very familiar with a course-book ‘A University Grammar of English’ by Quirk and Greenbaum (1973). They considered tense to be the correspondence between the verb form and our concept towards time. Time is a universal concept with three division namely past, present and future, whereas “Aspect concerns the manner in which the verbal action is experienced or regarded” (p.40). The classification of tenses and aspects can be seen in the below adapted figure with the illustrated sentence: Iwith a a special pen.

Figure 2. 2: Tense And Aspect Combination

	Simple	Complex



Present	write	Progressive	
		am writing	Present
Past	wrote	was writing	Past
		Perfective	
		have written	Present perfect
		had written	Past perfect
		Perfect progressive	
		have been writing	Present
		had been writing	Past

(Adapted from Quirk and Green Baum, 1973, p. 41)

As a result, there are at least twelve main tenses in English in the English linguistic research. The first tenses are the present tenses that are divided into four tenses, namely simple, continuous, perfect, and perfect continuous. The present simple is represented by the form (I do) like the example below:

(1) I work in a bank.

The present continuous is represented by the form (I am doing) like:

(2) Please, don't disturb me. I'm working.

The present perfect simple is represented by the form (I have done) such as:

(3) I've lost my key.

The present perfect continuous is represented by the form (I have been doing) like the example below:

(4) I'm tired. I've been working all day

Secondly, the past tenses which include the four following tenses: The past simple which is represented by the form (I did):

(5) The parcel arrived last week.

The past continuous takes the form (I was doing):

(6) I was feeling ill.

The past perfect simple is represented as (I had done):



(7) I had read his books before I met him.

The past perfect continuous is represented as (I had been doing):

(8) It had been raining, and the streets were still wet

Lastly, although there is no clear future tense in English similar to that of the present and past, yet there are several means of expressing future time. Futurity is often rendered via modals, semi modals, simple present, or progressive forms because futurity, modality, and aspect are closely related in English as follows: Future simple is expressed by several means: Using the modal verbs 'will' and 'shall' - a way of expressing future and takes the form (I will or 'll/shall + infinitive):

(9) I will/shall arrive tomorrow.

It is also expressed by some other auxiliaries such as 'may', as in:

(10) He may leave tomorrow.

= 'He will possibly leave ...' Using (I Be going to + infinitive):

(11) She is going to have a baby.

The (Present Progressive, i.e., 'I am doing') is also utilized to indicate future time:

(12) The plane is taking off at 5:20.

Also the 'Simple Present', i.e., 'I do' expresses the futurity, but it should be "always used with an adverbial expression of future time":

(13) The train leaves tonight from Chicago.

Similarly, the use of (Be to + infinitive) expresses futurity:

(14) 'We are to be married soon' and 'you are to be back by 10 o'clock.'

Finally, (Be about to + infinitive) which is used to express "Be going to", i.e., imminent future:

(15) The taxi is here and we are about to leave (Quirk, and Greenbaum, 1973, p. 47 - 50)

The future continuous takes the form of (I will/shall + be doing):

(16) He will be doing his best (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973, p. 49).

This form is used to express 'pure' future because it is used for future situations which are set and will take place as a matter of course. The future perfect



is represented as (I will have done). The following statement seen in the past from a point of orientation in the future:

(17) They will have finished their book by next year (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973, p. 48).

The future perfect continuous takes the form (I will have been doing):

(18) I will have been living here for 20 years by the end of the year.

In discussing the logical structure of the verbal group, Halliday (2014), under functional grammar view, affirms that “tense in English is a recursive system” (P. 400), therefore, no tense is possible the longest. In practice, however, there are restrictions that restrict the total number of finite tenses to 36. The restrictions are based on the rules such as: “future occurs only once, present occurs only once, and always at the deepest level and the same tense does not occur twice consecutively” (Halliday, 2014, p. 401).

Examples for these tenses are many but below are just some typical examples taken from Halliday (2014) for illustration of the tenses proposed above.

(19) When is this thing scheduled to produce results, Frank? – Oh, it’s been producing results for a long time.

(20) When I’d been teaching apprentices at Vauxhall, I could have gone straight there, but I just couldn’t get there.

(21) They never know in the long vac or in the summer what they are going to be doing in the next year.

(22) We live in Arizona, so they’ll be going to be traveling back and forth during the course of the season.

(23) But long term, the tax cut will ‘generally drain funds that should have been going to be saved for Medicare and Social Security’.

(24) I think there’s going to be some of that, but for some people they’re going to have been pulled back into a process in which they had not participated at all.

As can be seen from the above sentences, example (19): It’s been producing owns the present perfect progressive tense. In the example (20), its first clause: I’d



been teaching, belonging to past perfect progressive tense. Those tenses can be also found in traditional grammar. The rest of them like: They are going to be doing in example (21); they'll be going to be traveling in the example (22); that should have been going to be saved in the example (23) and they're going to have been pulled in the example (24) are repetitive which can be only mentioned under Halliday's view through functional grammar.

Notably, the data of the current thesis do not include such repetitive tenses as Halliday's view; therefore, the system of twelve traditional English tenses is again the focus for solving the task of translating temporal and aspectual information. Apart from from these, in discussing English aspect, there have appeared some viewpoints concerning situation types of verbs. Thus, the following part will be an analysis of these verbs.

2.2.2.2. Situation types of English verbs

In addition, in discussing aspect of English verbs, Vendler (1967) points out the classification of English verb aspects can be based on their situation types. There two factors that determine the situation types of verbs which are the inherent lexical nature of verbs or verb phrases. Then, the classification is identified based on such three characteristics as telicity or boundedness, change, and duration. Telic or bounded verbs of a natural endpoint whereas atelic or unbounded verbs can last indefinitely. The verbs describe events spanning over a time are durative ones and on the contrary to non-durative events which are punctual or instantaneous. Change might refer to either a homogeneous event, which is identical from one moment to the next; or a heterogeneous event, which changes from moment to moment. Based upon these characteristics, Vendler (1967) divided the English verbs into four classes: activities or processes, states, accomplishments, and achievements. Smith (1997) calls these verbs of situation types. The temporal features of these situation types can be summarized in table below.



Figure 2. 3: Temporal features of the situation types

Situations	Static	Durative	Telic
States	+	+	-
Activity	-	+	-
Accomplishment	-	+	+
Achievement	-	-	+

(Adapted from Smith, 1997, p. 20)

As can be seen from the above figure we can find out that in talking about the temporal features, states are static and durative. States are situations which hold consistently for an intermission. Smith (1997) distinguishes between two types of states: states such as *love, know, be tall, resemble, live, like, think that, contain, want, desire, hate, rule...* and generalizing states including sentences of generic predicates such as "Tigers eat meat" and habitual sentences such as "Mary walks to school every day". States are not normally compatible with the progressive aspect, except for verb constellations (verbs and the arguments) of posture and location (e.g. "Steve is sitting in the chair") (Smith, 1997, p. 33).

Activities are, according to Smith (1997), dynamic, durative, and atelic. Activities have no limit or natural endpoint; they terminate or stop, but do not finish. Typical examples of activities are *laugh, walk, run, swim, push/pull something, snow, eat, seek, write, read, think about...* Activity verb constellations are compatible with adverbs of simple duration such as 'for an hour' or 'slowly', as exemplified in the below examples taken from Smith (1997, p. 45).

- a. He pushed the cart for an hour
- b. He slowly pushed the cart

Accomplishments are dynamic, durative, and telic. Accomplishments consist of a process and an outcome, describing events with an initial and a natural final endpoint (e.g., *make a chair, walk to school, build a house, read a book, paint a picture, write/read a novel, give/attend a class, play a chess game, grow, destroy,*



recover, get ready...). Accomplishments are compatible with completive adverbs such as 'in an hour', as illustrated in the following illustration, taken from Smith (1997, p. 44).

We built a castle in an hour.

Achievements are dynamic, telic, and instantaneous. In Smith's words, achievements "are instantaneous events that result in a change of state" (Smith, 1997, p. 30) (e.g., *win the race, reach the top, recognize, realize, spot something, find, lose, start, stop, break, acquire...*). Achievements are not normally compatible with the progressive aspect. The progressive conveys the preliminaries of achievements, which are conceptually detached from the events, as exemplified in the below sentence.

Jane was winning the race.

This sentence does not entail that Jane actually won the race.

States and activities are both durative and atelic. They involve no change of state. On the other hand, accomplishments and achievements both result in a change of state.

So far, we have seen a number of theories concerning tenses and aspects in English under the views of traditional grammar, cognitive linguistics and functional grammar. The theory concerning the English grammar under the traditional view by Greenbaum & Quirk (1973) was chosen as one of the theoretical bases for the present research. For the next part, the researcher will review different views of tenses and aspects in Vietnamese.

2.2.2.3. Tenses and aspects in Vietnamese

The arguments if Vietnamese has tenses and aspects or not are still quite a common practice among linguists. In this part, the researcher will review some of the remarkable opinions in which certain common linguistic means can be used to express tenses and aspects in Vietnamese. Basing on the review findings, the researcher is going to use them as the means to construct a framework for



contrasting between the expressions of tense and aspect items in English and in Vietnamese in the next chapters.

In the first place, scholars or linguists owning the believes that the notions of tense and aspect exist in the Vietnamese language. The very first linguists stating that Vietnamese has tenses, such names should be taken into account as Rhodes (1651), Aubaret (1864), Trương Vĩnh Ký (1883) and later names as Panfilov (1979, 1993), Nguyễn Minh Thuyết (1995), Nguyễn Kim Thân (1997). These are just a few names to be listed. These scholars state that there are three tenses in Vietnamese: The present tense indicated by *đang*, the past tense expressed by *đã* and the future tense exhibited by *sẽ*.

Trần Trọng Kim (1940) is believed to have a significant opinion about tense. In mentioning adverbials denoting time in Vietnamese, he divides these adverbials into different types depending on their expressions of meaning of:

- Present tense: *bây (rarely used), giờ, chừ, nay, rày, bây chừ, bây giờ.*

- Past tense:

+ Indicating the moment: *Khi này, lúc này, hồi này*

+ Indicating day: *hôm qua, hôm kia, hôm nào, hôm trước, hôm nọ*

+ Indicating month: *tháng trước*

+ Indicating year: *năm ngoái, năm kia, năm nào*

+ Indicating the time which has just passed: *mới rồi, vừa rồi*

+ Indicating the time which has passed for a long time: *xưa, ngày trước, độ trước, đời trước, trước kia, ngày xưa, thuở xưa, đời xưa, xưa kia.*

- Future tense:

+ Indicating moment: *chốc nữa, lát nữa, tí nữa.*

+ Indicating day: *mai, một, ngày mai, ngày kia, ngày nào.*

+ Indicating month: *sang tháng, tháng sau.*

+ Indicating year: *sang năm, năm sau*

+ Indicating indefinite time: *rồi, mai sau, sau này, ngày sau, rồi ra.*

- Indicating a specific time: *bấy giờ, khi bấy giờ, lúc bấy giờ etc...*



- Indicating the time from the past to present: *bây nay, bây chầy, bấy lâu, xưa nay, bấy lâu nay, etc...*
- Indicating the time from now on: *từ rày trở đi, từ nay về sau.*
- Indicating the urgent time or time delay: *kíp, kíp, chóng, chậm, chầy, lâu, sớm, muộn, trưa, khuya, ngay, lập tức, tức khắc, tức thì.*
- Indicating the order of time for progressing: *dần dần, lần lần, dần dà, từ từ, một ngày một, càng ngày càng etc...*
- Indicating the frequency of time: *nặng, hay, hằng, thường, thường thường, thời thường, có khi, có lúc, ít khi, nhiều khi, lắm lúc, một đôi khi, đôi phen, đôi khi, thỉnh thoảng.*
- Indicating the sudden of time: *bỗng, chợt, sực, vụt, thoắt, bỗng dưng, thành linh, bất thành linh, bỗng chốc, tình cờ, ngẫu nhiên, thốt nhiên, đột nhiên, tự nhiên, bất kỳ* (p. 120-121).⁵

(The English parts are translated by the current writer)

Thus, it might be inferred from the above-mentioned information that Trần Trọng Kim (1940) affirms that Vietnamese has tenses. Cao Xuân Hạo (1998) affirmed that lots of other traditional Vietnamese grammarians state that Vietnamese has tenses. As they strongly affirm there are three tenses in Vietnamese namely the present tense indicated by *đang*, the tense expressed by *đã*, and the future tense conveyed by *sẽ* (Rhodes, 1651; Trương Vĩnh Ký, 1883; Bùi Đức Tịnh, 1952, Đào Thân, 1979; to name a few). On the contrary, Đinh Văn Đức (2001), Nguyễn Minh Thuyết & Nguyễn Văn Hiệp (1998) and Panfilov (1993) assign tense meaning with lexical items, then denying that tense is a grammatical category in Vietnamese.

Cao Xuân Hạo (1998) remarks that countless examples in Vietnamese discourse are not difficult to encounter to illustrate that *đã* does not always imply

⁵ 1. Thì hiện-tại 2. Thì quá-khứ: a. Chỉ lúc, b. Chỉ ngày, c. Chỉ tháng, d. Chỉ năm, e. Chỉ thì mới qua, f. Chỉ thì, qua đã lâu 3. Thì tương lai: a. Chỉ lúc, b. chỉ ngày, c. Chỉ tháng, d. Chỉ năm, e. Chỉ trống 4. Chỉ một thời- gian nhất-định 5. Chỉ từ trước đến nay 6. Chỉ từ bây giờ đến sau 7. Chỉ sự cấp-bách hay tri-hoãn 8. Chỉ việc tuần-tự mà tiến lên 9. Chỉ việc hay có, thường có mà không nhất-định 10. Chỉ sự không dung mà có.

past, or *đang* does not always refer to the present, or *sẽ* does not always mean the future. See the below examples:

(25) a. Bây giờ tôi *đã* có đủ tiền.

“Now I have enough money”.

b. Nếu hai tháng nữa anh mới dọn đến thì tôi *đã* ở chỗ khác rồi.

“If you move here in the next two months, I will live in another place”

(26) a. Sáng mai anh nên đến thật sớm, khi cả nhà tôi *đang* ngủ.

“You should come early tomorrow while my family is still sleeping”

b. Hồi ấy tôi *đang* học cấp ba, còn anh *đang* chuẩn bị thi đại học.

While I was studying at a high school, you were preparing for a tertiary entrance exam.

(27) Hôm qua không có anh thì tôi không biết chuyện gì *sẽ* xảy ra.

I couldn't tell what could have happened without you yesterday.

As can be seen from “25a” above *đã* is used to express a present situation, identified by the adverbial “bây giờ - now” whereas the example “25b” *đã* shows the future meaning which is signaled by the adverb phrase “hai tháng nữa – in the next two months”. Example “26b” *đang* is utilised to convey past action meaning exhibited by the adverb “Hồi ấy – That time”. And in “27” *sẽ* is also used for past event specified by the adverb “hôm qua–yesterday”. Therefore, by illustrating those examples, Cao Xuân Hạo (1998) affirms that the time of the event is not identified by *đã*, *đang*, *sẽ*. In those Vietnamese examples, temporal adverbials (hereafter called TAs) locate the time of those situations. As Cao (1998) believes that in locating a situation in the past or the present, Vietnamese puts the situation in the equivalent time structure expressed by TAs such as “xưa kia – long ago”, “trước đây – in the past”, “hiện nay – now/in the present”, “bây giờ - now/in the time being/meanwhile” (Translated by the current writer)⁶.

⁶ Khi cần định vị một sự tình trong thời quá khứ hay trong thời hiện tại, tiếng Việt dung đến những khung đề có ý nghĩa từ vựng thích hợp như xưa kia, trước đây, hiện nay, bây giờ, v.v.

Sharing the same opinion with Cao Xuân Hạo (1998), Đinh Văn Đức (2012) affirms that *đã*, *đang* or *sẽ* are not only used to convey the meaning of “past”, “present” or “future”, but they are also used as situational means for emphasis purpose.

(28) a. Ngày mai *đã* chủ nhật rồi.

“Tomorrow is already Sunday”.

b. *Đã* viết tiểu thuyết lại còn làm thơ.

Not only writing novels but also composing poems.

c. Xa Hà Nội thế mà *đã* năm năm.

It has already been 5 years since leaving Hanoi.

d. Vừa mới nghỉ hè, thoáng một cái lại *đã* khai giảng.

No sooner had the summer vacation begun than the new school year came.

(29) a. Xin lỗi, tôi *đang* họp, hẹn anh chiều mai nhé!

Sorry, I’m in a meeting. See you tomorrow afternoon!

b. *Đang* giữa trưa hè, không một ngọn gió.

It is summer noon, there’s not a flow of wind.

(30) a. Anh đừng băn khoăn, tôi *sẽ* tới thăm anh.

Don’t worry, I will visit you.

b. Cái áo này chắc chắn *sẽ* không dưới ba trăm ngàn.

This shirt must not surely be under 300,000 VND.

Furthermore, there are cases in which the situation belonging to the past, *đã* cannot be used as an indicator of past events. This can be seen in the following examples taken from Phan Thị Minh Thúy (2003).

(31) a. Ngày xưa ngày xưa *đã* có một ông vua thông minh và nhân từ

She believes that (a) is not a correct sentence as *đã* should be omitted. Thus it should be:

(32) a. Ngày xưa ngày xưa có một ông vua thông minh và nhân từ

Once upon a time there was an intelligent and kind-hearted king.

b. Chủ tịch Hồ Chí Minh *đã* sinh ngày 19 - 05 - 1890



Then (b) is not an appropriated sentence as well and it should be without *đã* like:

Chủ tịch Hồ Chí Minh sinh ngày 19 - 05 - 1890

President Hồ Chí Minh was born on 19 - 05 - 1890

Phan Thị Minh Thúy (2003) also argues that *đang* can refer to past, present and future events and the use of *đang* is not compulsory. For example:

(33) a. Giờ này nàng *đang* có ba người bên cạnh.

She means that “đang” can be omitted from (a):

Giờ này nàng có ba người bên cạnh.

At this moment three people are beside her.

b. Chiều mai khi Khoa *đang* họp anh đừng nói

Đang, according to her, can be removed from (b):

Chiều mai khi Khoa họp anh đừng nói

Tomorrow afternoon while the faculty is having a meeting, you shouldn't speak instead waiting till the meeting is over then you can speak.

(34) Đã mấy lần *đang* đêm nghe tiếng động, Vạn cũng dậy rình xem.

And to Phan Thị Minh Thúy (2003), it is not necessary to add *đang* in this sentence, too. Hence, the sentence would become like:

Đã mấy lần đêm nghe tiếng động, Vạn cũng dậy rình xem.

Having heard the noise at night several times, Vạn decided to get up to lurk.

In discussing the use of *sẽ* Phan Thị Minh Thúy (2003) states that the future meaning is sometimes based on means of lexical items denoting time or time adverbials, situation, and the logic of the event rather than basing on the meaning of the word *sẽ*. In proving these, she provides the following examples for illustration.

(35) a. Sáng mai mẹ *sẽ* sang nói với mẹ con nhà bên.

Tomorrow morning, I will come over to our next-door neighbor to talk with the mother and her child.

b. Tiếng đàn Komuyz hát rằng chỉ lát nữa vầng dương *sẽ* lấp sau ngọn đồi.

The sound of the Komuyz sings that the rising sunlight will hide behind the hill very soon.



In short, while affirming that tenses and aspects are present in the Vietnamese language and expressed by means of lexical item such as *đã*, *đang*, *sẽ*, some Vietnamese scholars or linguists also indicate that *đã* does not always refer to past event, *đang* to present event and *sẽ* to future event but they are, in some cases, used interchangeably. They are, in some situations, even omitted, however, the meaning of tenses and aspects can still be understood thanks to factors like lexical items denoting time or time adverbials, situation, and the logic of the event. In the next part, contrary opinions towards the acceptance of the existence of tenses and aspects in the Vietnamese language will be argued by Vietnamese and foreign scholars and linguists.

Besides, there are famous scholars or researchers who possess opposite opinions toward the beliefs if Vietnamese has tenses and aspects. For instance, Jones & Huỳnh Sanh Thông (as cited in Vũ Thúy Nga, 2016) states “Most of Vietnamese verbs do not have aspect category, though there are two ways indicating aspect when necessary namely: (1) Use the order of clauses; (2) Use auxiliaries like *sẽ* indicating future, *có* indicating the past”. Hoàng Tuệ (as cited in Vũ Thúy Nga 2014) affirms “Only inflectional languages really have tense and aspect categories clearly shown in grammatical forms Vietnamese, an isolating language, does not have tense and aspect categories but have expressing ways the notions of tenses and aspects by means of lexical words” (P. 232). Cao Xuân Hạo (1998), Emeneau (1951), and Nguyễn Đức Dân (1996) all deny that Vietnamese has tenses. Cao Xuân Hạo (1998) strongly affirmed that "it is impossible to find in Vietnamese anything that resembles 'tense'... In other words, Vietnamese has absolutely no tense” (P. 8 -10)⁷ (translated by the current writer). Some people believe that quite many Vietnamese grammarians confuse tense and time as they use both of the terms to refer to the same entity thus being very ambiguous in their arguments if Vietnamese has tense or not. What is meant is that Vietnamese does not have a grammatical category for tense. While Đinh Đức (2001); Nguyễn Minh Thuyết (1998); Panfilov

⁷ Không thể tìm thấy trong tiếng Việt một cái gì tương ứng với ý nghĩa “thì”.... Nói một cách khác tiếng Việt tuyệt nhiên không có thì.



(1993); Thompson (1965), who are just a few to be named, confirm that Vietnamese has tense, they, however, completely reject that tense is a grammatical category of the Vietnamese language. In reality, the verbs in Vietnamese are not inflected by tenses and aspects. In any sentences, they are always used in their base forms without any morphological marking. The translation of temporarily most of the time depends heavily on the context, knowledge of the world or on pragmatic knowledge (Aubaret, 1864; Trương, 1883; Trần, Bùi and Phạm, 1940; Bulteau, 1953; Cadière, 1958). Thompson (1965) also claims that:

Vietnamese verbs are themselves timeless. They establish only the fact that a particular action, series of actions or states of affairs is in effect. They depend entirely on the linguistics and situational context for their reference to relative time (P. 218).

Jones and Huỳnh (1960) have a similar view about Vietnamese verbs, stating that “most Vietnamese are timeless, by which is meant they are not present, past or future, but simply establish a relationship, the existence of a state or being or an action (P. 131). Consider the following examples that can be seen as proof that Vietnamese verbs are timeless.

(36) A: Bạn học gì?

What do you learn?

B: Mình học tiếng Anh.

I study English.

These examples are ambiguous as to the time they refer to when they are out of context. Let us consider the following contexts for these utterances.

Context 1: Speaker A would like to know the major the speaker B studies. In this case A can be naturally interpreted to mean “What do you study?” and accordingly, as “I study English”

Context 2: Speaker A sees that speaker B is studying in her reading room then A and B will then be interpreted as follows:

A: What are you studying?



B: I'm studying English.

Context 3: In an interview, speaker A asks and speaker B answers. In this case, the situation should be inferred as past in the following.

A: What did you study?

B: I studied English

Cao Xuân Hạo (1998) states that Vietnamese sentences themselves do not normally convey temporal meaning if the time of the situation can be deduced from the contexts. In situations where there is a need to be emphasized or made explicit to avoid ambiguity, The Vietnamese linguistics can employ various lexical items. These lexical items will be exhibited in the following section.

Apart from the clear opinions toward the presence of tenses and aspects in Vietnamese mentioned above, there also existed opinions while denying tense but realizing aspect in this language. Such opinions come from Bùi Đức Tịnh Nguyễn, Bạt Tụy and Phan Khôi (as cited in Nguyễn Đức Dân, 1996) treat tenses and aspects in a different way. In identifying time showing tense to make clear the time at which the action happens compared to the time of speaking, people add lexical denoting time to be adverbs. Such examples as:

(37) *Bây giờ tôi viết.*

I will write now.

(38) *Hôm qua nó gặp ông ấy.*

Yesterday she met him.

(39) *Mai tôi viết thư cho mẹ.*

Tomorrow I will write to my mother.

Looking at the examples above, we can see that temporal meanings in Vietnamese are expressed by lexical means like *Bây giờ*, *Hôm qua*, *Ngày mai* and not by grammatical means.

In expressing the aspectual meaning of a verb to show an action in progress ***đang*** or ***đương*** is used before the verb. An action that happened in the past is often



conveyed by *đã* put before the verb or *rồi* or *xong* put after the verb. The following examples are for illustration.

(40) Nó *đang* đi.

He is going.

(41) a. Anh *đã* làm *xong*.

You have finished.

b. Tôi *đã* biết.

I have known.

(42) Nó ăn *rồi*.

He has eaten.

Though the above examples are not completely accurate in terms of tenses and aspects, however, the above-said linguists and scholars are not of the opinion that Vietnamese has tenses. Later, Professor Hoàng Tuệ (1962), Nguyễn Kim Thản (1977), Đái Xuân Ninh (1986) also shared the same opinion. The reason for that may come from the idea that Vietnamese verbs are not inflected concerning their forms like Indo-European languages. Based on that idea, Hoàng Tuệ (1962) gives out his comment, “In the Vietnamese language, there is no special way to express time category”⁸ (P. 68) (Translated by the current writer). In analyzing the structure of Vietnamese verbs, Nguyễn Kim Thản (1977) states, “Sub-words such as *đã*, *đang*, *sẽ* alone should not be used to express tense category of verbs. Tense category is not a special grammatical category of the Vietnamese verbs”⁹ (P. 176-178) (Translated by the current writer). Then, according to Đái Xuân Ninh (as cited in Nguyễn Đức Dân, 1996), “Vietnamese doesn’t have the category of tense...To express tense meaning, Vietnamese uses lexical means”¹⁰ (translated by current writer).

⁸Trong Việt ngữ không có hình thức đặc biệt để biểu thị phạm trù thời gian

⁹Không nên cho riêng những phụ từ như *đã*, *đang*, *sẽ* biểu thị phạm trù THỜI của động từ. Phạm trù THỜI không phải là phạm trù ngữ pháp đặc biệt của động từ tiếng Việt...

¹⁰Tiếng Việt không có phạm trù THỜI ... Để diễn đạt ý nghĩa THỜI, tiếng Việt dùng phương tiện từ vựng.

Except for that, there have appeared some foreign linguists studying Vietnamese grammar also share the afore-said opinion such as M. Grammont and M.B. Emeneau (as cited in Nguyễn Đức Dân, 1996). They all affirm that “tense is not a category of Vietnamese verbs”. In practice of translation, though tense is not always realized in the Vietnamese language, it can be found in the expression of different lexical items such as TA (hereafter called TA): now, yesterday, tomorrow, next week etc... However, when the information in the English SL does not come along with TAs like in this example:

(43) She loves summer.

Besides, Evans & Green (2005) state “A language is only described as having tense if it has a distinct morphological verb form that indicates past/present/ future time” (P. 626). Hence, it is hard to confirm that the Vietnamese language has tenses and aspects as all of its verbs are not morphologically different when they are used to describe the actions of the verbs at different time points.

Now the question of how to translate this sentence and how to explain the way to translate the verb “love” with regard to tenses and aspects. Then, the translation must count on the explanation of situational verbs. Apart from that, the implicitness of the translation can also be taken as the explanation for some cases in which explicit Vietnamese markers are found. Thus, the next part will be the discussion of implication in translation.

2.2.3. Implicit factors affecting translation

Language itself has its both implicit and explicit meanings. Thus, in translation the transference from a language to another one, implicit meaning from the SL may be understood differently in the target language. The following factors are considered the common factors that usually affect the translation in general and the translation of tenses and aspects in particular. These factors were also employed to examine the implicitness of the translation of tenses and aspects in the present study.



2.2.3.1. Idioms and fixed expressions

Taking idiomatic factors into account, in translation, the concept of idiom should firstly be defined. According to Merriam-webster dictionary online (2022), ‘an expression in the usage of a language that is peculiar to itself either in having a meaning that cannot be derived from the conjoined meanings of its elements or in its grammatically atypical use of words’. Thus, normally the meaning of an idiom cannot be deduced from its separate components under a realized grammatical rule of a specific language. Rather, it should be understood from its original context or situation.

There is a fact that most idioms resist variation in their forms, some of them are more flexible than others. A translator's competence in actively utilizing the idioms and fixed expressions of the English language hardly ever matches those of native speakers. The majority of Vietnamese translators working into the English language should not hope to achieve the same sensitivity that native speakers seem to have for judging when and how an idiom can be manipulated. This lends support to the argument that Vietnamese translators usually only count on their language of habitual use or mother tongue.

Assuming that a professional translator would, under normal circumstances, work only into his language of habitual use. In reality, the difficulties associated with being able to translate English idioms correctly may relate to two main areas: the ability to recognize and interpret an idiom correctly; and the rendering of the various aspects of meaning that an idiom conveys into the target language. There are various types of idioms, some more easily recognizable than others. Eftekhari, N. (2008) states that idioms which are easily recognizable include expressions violating truth conditions, such as *It's raining cats and dogs*, *throw caution to the winds*, *storm in a tea cup*, *jump down someone's throat*, and *food for thought*. They also include expressions which seem ill-formed because they do not follow the grammatical rules of the language, for example *trip the light fantastic*, *blow someone to kingdom come*, *put paid to*, *the powers that be*, *by and large*, and *the*



world and his friend. Expressions which start with *like* (simile-like structures) also tend to suggest that they should not be interpreted literally. These include idioms such as *like a bat out of hell* and *like water off a duck's back*. Generally speaking, the more difficult an expression is to understand and the less sense it makes in a given context, the more likely a translator will recognize it as an idiom.

Larson (1984) says that idiomatic translations are the use of the natural forms of the receptor language both in the grammatical constructions and in the choices of lexical items. A truly idiomatic translation does not sound like a real translation. It sounds more like it was written originally in the receptor language. Therefore, a good translator will try to translate idiomatically. Then, it is obvious that in translation some cases are translated more idiomatically than others and tenses and aspects are not taken into account due to the grammar rule – ignoring feature of idioms and fixed expressions.

2.2.3.2. Referential equivalent

In seeking for a referential equivalent, one should link this to the referential meaning. In classifying meaning, Nida and Taber (1982) divide it into two classes, referential meaning and connotative meaning. In this study, referential meaning is the focus for discussion. Referential meaning is seen as a symbol which refers to an object, process, abstract thing, and relation. Referential meaning is also known as the meaning of reference, the lexical meaning. Given the meaning of a word referentially, a translator must be aware of any markers appearing in the text. These markers that can be used to give meaning of words, syntactic marking.

According to Baker(1992), “the term reference is traditionally used in semantics for the relationships, which holds between a word and what it points to in the real world” (p. 181).

In some cases, the meaning of a word is governed by their grammatical structure including tenses and aspects.



2.2.3.3. Pragmatic equivalence

In investigating the equivalents concerning pragmatic meaning between the two languages, the concept 'pragmatics' needs to be clearly explained. Practically, pragmatics aim to explain why sentences are used, the context of utterance and surrounding environment of each sentence in a specific situation. Pragmatics is concerned with the intention of speakers, as one should give his attention to different types of beyond meanings that spring up from what's literally stated, which can go under the term of "implicit meaning" related to pragmatics. The speaker's intentions must go with elements of structure and its texture. Pragmatic equivalence enhances the effect of words used in the target language and the source language. As a result, pragmatic equivalence can be regarded as the translator's success in transferring the source language to the target language with the same intention of the speaker, equivalent words and affection to the reader.

According to Levinson (1983), pragmatics is viewed under the relationship between language and context as he states "Pragmatics is the study of those relations between language and context that are grammaticalized, or encoded in the structure of a language" (p. 9). Pragmatic meaning is normally deduced from a variety of factors such as the implicature of an utterance in conversation and the maxims of conversation, Levinson (1983). The implicature can be paraphrased counting on the phenomenon of deixis. Levinson (1983) notes that:

Deixis is borrowed from Greek word for pointing or indicating, and has a prototypical or focal exemplars the use of demonstrative, first and second person pronouns, tense, specific time and a variety of other grammatical features tied directly to the circumstances of utterance (p. 54).

Deixis treats how languages encode or grammaticalize features of the context of utterance or speech event. It also discusses the ways of interpretation of utterances which depend on the analysis of the context of the utterance.

Besides, it should be claimed that pragmatic translation is a translation method which refers to the translation of a message with an interest in accuracy of the



information that was meant to be conveyed in the source language form. It is not concerned with other aspects of the original language version. Pragmatic equivalence in translation, in practice, seems to be the target of seeking semantic meaning in the TL for translators. Hale (2004) stated “Pragmatics refers to the meaning of words in context, to the appropriate use of language according to tongue, culture and situation. It refers to the intended meaning behind the surface, semantic meaning.” (p. 5). Translators should not only interpret the semantic meaning, but they should also render the pragmatic meaning of utterances. “Interpreting at the semantic level and not at the pragmatic level will inevitably lead to misunderstanding.”(Hale, 2004, p.7). This means that the translator needs to work out implied meanings in translation in order to get the SL message across; the translator role is to create the intention of the author in another culture in such a way that enables the TL reader to understand it clearly. Thus, in translation, tenses and aspects affect the implied meaning of every sentence is a matter of the fact.

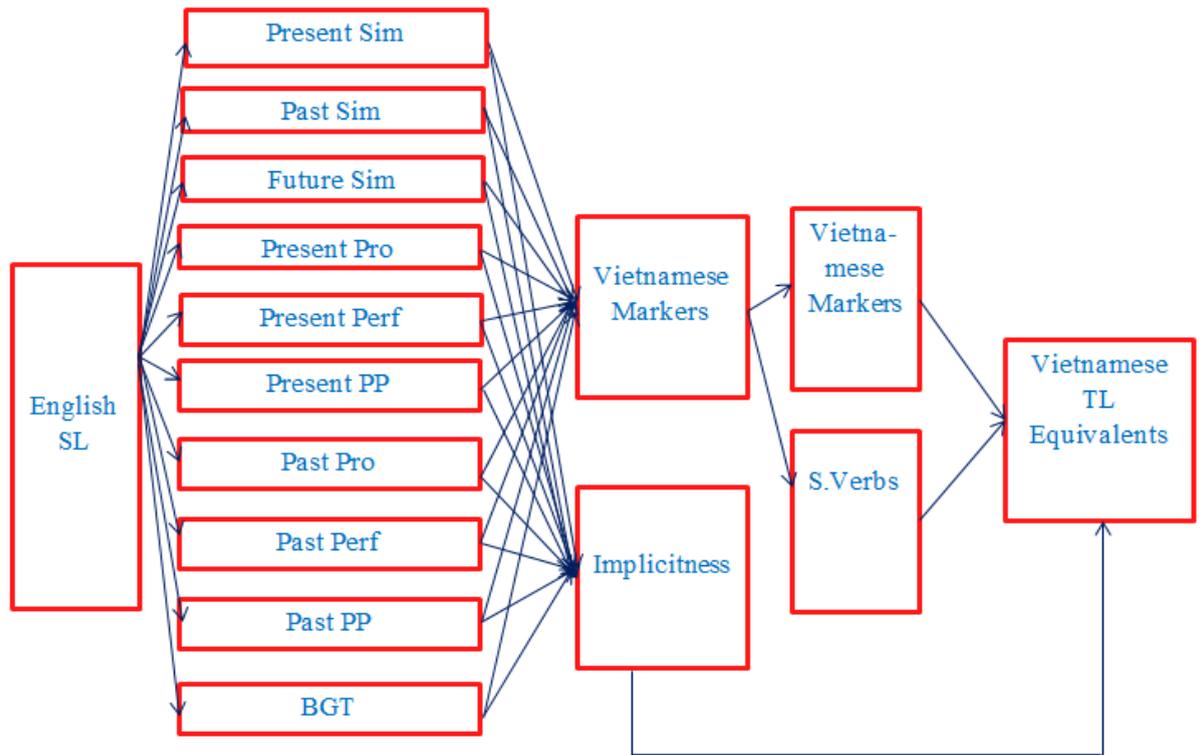
2.3. The conceptual framework of the study

From the reviews of both English and Vietnamese tenses and aspects in the afore-mentioned part, it can be clearly seen that though English and Vietnamese belong to very different language families, temporal and aspectual information can still be conveyed into each other in some ways. Each sentence in the novel “TGG” being translated into Vietnamese will be viewed in two dimensions namely tenses and aspects. As discussed earlier, the present study will use qualitative and quantitative approaches to find answers for the research questions. According to Patton (2002), quality data consists of interviews, observations and documents. The documents can be in different forms like “written materials and other documents from organizational, clinical, or program records” (Patton, 2002, p.4). Yamashita (1996) states the data may appear as words in the form of “rich” linguistic description rather than numbers. Sharing this view Lia Litosseliti (2010, p. 33) indicates that qualitative approaches are particularly valuable in providing in-depth,



rich data. The data for quantitative analyses in this study are the documents of the novel in the English language “TGG” and three Vietnamese translations versions of the novel, namely “Con người hào hoa” by Đỗ Mặc, “Gatsby vĩ đại” by Hoàng Cường and “Đại gia Gatsby” by Trịnh Lữ. The original texts and the translated texts will be analyzed and contrasted in detail basing on theories concerning tenses and aspects, theories of translation and translation equivalence by different studies in both English and Vietnamese in the afore-stated part. Our conceptual framework created to serve as an analytical working tool is visualized in the below figure.

Figure 2. 4: Conceptual framework for constrasting English tenses and aspects with their Vietnamese equivalents



Besides, the researchers also designed other separated analytical frameworks tabulated in the following tables aiming at finding out how English tenses and aspects are explicitly rendered into the Vietnamese translation by linguistic markers, unless explicitly rendered how they can be conveyed. Tempo-aspectual information can be seen to be translated via the uses of TAs, linguistic markers or four types of situational verbs. Moreover, to make it consistent, the English tenses that will be applied to naming the SL data are based on the theories of tenses and aspects by Murcia and Freeman (1999) and by Quirk and Greenbaum (1973). Thus, futurity expressed by the auxiliaries ‘will’ or ‘shall’ is viewed by Quirk and Greenbaum (1973) and is viewed by Murcia and Freeman (1999) as the simple future tense. The name ‘simple future tense’ is used by the present study for its convenience. Remarkably, the ‘be going to’ structure was used and was not referred to as a tense

basing on the opinion by Quirk and Greenbaum (1973). Finally, the data to be collected will be taken from three different translations, therefore the present writer proposes two similar frameworks under the shapes of two tables for the three translators, T1, T2 and T3 respectively.

Table 2. 1: Vietnamese Linguistic Means Used in Translation of Simple English Tenses

Source texts		Fre	Target texts						
Resources			Per M “Đã”	Per M “Rồi”	Pro M “Đang”	Pro M “Đương”	Fut M “Sẽ”	Fut M “Sắp”	S.Verbs
Present	Sim								
Past									
Future									

Legend: Fre: Frequency; Per M: Perfective marker; Pro M: Progress marker; Fut M: Future marker; S. Verbs: Situation types of verbs; Sim: Simple

Table 2.2: Vietnamese Linguistic Means Used in Translation of Complex English Tenses

Source texts		Fre	Target texts						
Resources			Per M “Đã”	Per M “Rồi”	Pro M “Đang”	Pro M “Đương”	Fut M “Sẽ”	Fut M “Sắp”	S.Verbs
Present	Pro								
	Perf								
	PP								
Past	Pro								
	Perf								
	PP								

Future	BGT								
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Legend: Fre: Frequency; Per M: Perfective marker; Pro M: Progress marker; Fut M: Future marker; S. Verbs: Situation types of verbs; Pro: Progress; Perf: Perfect; PP: Perfect progress; BGT: be going to

2.4. Summary

So far a number of studies and articles by both Vietnamese and foreign researchers or scholars have been critically reviewed. Some of the studies and articles touch upon the issue of the translation of tenses and aspects from a language to another one. However, most of them deal with the translation from a foreign language into Vietnamese very few of them are translations from English into Vietnamese. Furthermore, the literature reviews of all the theories on translation and equivalence in translation are discussed and critically analyzed serving as good theoretical framework for the study. Specifically, based on such theories in translation, translation equivalence and approaches in translation, a framework has been devised for the purpose of investigating which translation approaches have been utilized by the three translators in their translation of the novel into Vietnamese.

More importantly, a variety of selected theories of tenses and aspects in English have been collected from different linguists then have been analytically reviewed. The confusion between time and tense has been pointed out. The systems of tenses and aspects in English have been gathered and evaluated under the view of traditional grammar, pragmatics and functional grammar. Besides, with regard to tenses and aspects in Vietnamese, various viewpoints of Vietnamese linguists or even foreign linguists have been selectively examined. Among these viewpoints, there are some arguments that Vietnamese has tenses and aspects while the others deny that Vietnamese has those categories. Accordingly, the present writer also shows his opinion to confirm that the Vietnamese language has no tenses and



aspects at all as its verbs are not morphologically inflected. Then, a conceptual framework has been worked out helping to design two analytical frameworks tabulated in the form of two tables aiming to contrast the expressions of tenses and aspects. The conceptual framework functioned as a tool of the researcher assisting him at later analyses of the study. The frameworks were created find synthesize the data in the English SL and their Vietnamese TL equivalents.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY AND DATA COLLECTION

As indicated above, the aim of the study is to investigate the possible equivalent Vietnamese linguistic means that the three translators utilized to translate tenses and aspects in selected sentences of the novel “TGG” into Vietnamese. To achieve the indicated aim, the following questions are set out.

- 1. How are the English simple tenses and aspects translated into Vietnamese?*
- 2. How are the English complex tenses and aspects translated into Vietnamese?*

The research methods utilized, data collection procedure and analyzing methods are presented in the subsequent sections.

Before describing in detail the research approaches, research methods and the procedures for collecting data and how they were analyzed, a brief introduction to the reasons why the novel TGG was selected as the SL and its three translated versions: CNHH, GVD and ĐGG were selected as the TL. Firstly, the information was taken from the SL novel “TGG” - a 1925 novel by American writer, Francis Scott Fitzgerald. He is now widely considered as one of the greatest American writers of the 20th century. This novel is such a famous work that it has been adapted and made into films and televisions, literature theatres, operas, radios, ballets and even computer games.

The author Francis Scott Fitzgerald takes after a cast of characters who lived within the anecdotal towns of West Egg and East Egg on prosperous Long Island the summer of 1922. The story is essentially about the youthful and secretive millionaire Jay Gatsby and his quixotic passion and obsession with the lovely former debutante Daisy Buchanan. Regarded as Fitzgerald's magnum opus, TGG explores topics of idealism, decadence, resistance to alter, social change and abundance, making a representation of the Roaring Twenties that has been depicted as a cautionary story with regard to the American Dream.



Fitzgerald - propelled by the parties he had gone to whereas going to Long Island's North Shore - started arranging the novel in 1923, wanting to create, in his words, "something new, something uncommon and lovely and basic and unpredictably patterned". First distributed by Scribner's in April 1925, TGG received blended surveys and sold not many. In its first year, the book sold 20,000 duplicates. Fitzgerald passed away in 1940, accepting himself to be a disappointment and his work forgotten. Nevertheless, the novel experienced a restoration during World War II, and became a portion of American tall school educational modules and film adjustment after decades. TGG is widely considered as a scholarly classic and a contender for the title of the "Awesome American Novel."

Secondly, the information in the TL data was collected from the translation works by three famous translators namely T1, T2 and T3 and the translated titles of the novel in Vietnamese ACHH, GVD, ĐGG respectively. The first person translating TGG in 1956 was Mặc Đỗ. He had his real name as Đỗ Quang Bình, was born in 1917 in Hanoi to a Confucian family but absorbed a Western culture. Studying the Law but not practising and choosing to write. He began writing stories, plays and translating books and newspapers. After 1975, He went to the United States as a refugee. His famous works includes: *Forty* (1956), *Siu Co Nuong* (1958), *Tan Truyen I* (1967), *Tan Truyen II* (1973), *Noon on Coral Island* (2011), *Short Story* (2014), except *Tan 2 Story II* (1973)) published by Van Publishing House, Mac Do books. They were all published under the name Publishing House. Besides, he was also the translator of quite many famous works such as *The Old Man and the Sea* / Ernest Hemingway (View 1956); *The Man of the Flower* / F. Scott Fitzgerald (Views 1956); *A Dream* / Vicki Baum (Hao Thom 1966); *Lonely Wife* / Francois Mauriac (Hao Thom 1966); *Childhood in the Family Luvers* / Boris Pasternak (Van 1967); *The Mind* / André Maurois (Van 1967); *Mr. MON* / Alain-Fournier (Hao Thom 1968); *Wild Land* / Leo Tolstoi (Living Land 1973); *25th Hour* / Virgil Georghiu (Living Land 1973).



In 1985, Hoàng Cường became the second Vietnamese translator to translate TGG. His full name is Phí Hoàng Cường. He is a translator owning a branded book titled 'The cultural issues' which is a collection of some of the world's leading scientific, educational, cultural and artistic activists, selected from the Vietnamese version of the "UNESCO messenger" He was in charge from 1986 to 1996. Besides, working as Deputy Editor-in-Chief and Editor-in-Chief until 1996, under the pseudonym Hoang Cuong, he translated dozens of books from English and French languages, including the works "Stronghold" published by Labor Publishing House, "Shrimp Season" printed by New Work Publishing House (Printed and reprinted 4 times)," "TGG" by Fitzgerald a USA novelist and many other works.

Trịnh Lữ has been the last person translating TGG so far since 2016. His 'Đại Gia Gatsby' is now the most popular of all the three translations. Trịnh Lữ (whose real name is Trinh Huu Tuan, born in 1948 in Hanoi), translator Duong Tuong said briefly, "It is a talented person in an intellectual Hanoi artist family which has many talented people". Trinh Lu always referred to his father (Mr. Trinh Huu Ngoc) as a great teacher who influenced his children and grandchildren from the way of life, career choices and artistic thinking. He used to work as an English correspondent and editor of Voice of Vietnam, worked in the United States for nearly 15 years in communications and education projects and was a painter with many art exhibitions in New York. Trịnh Lữ is also a minimalist interior designer, an amateur pianist, a writer of short stories rich in nostalgic and a little meditative writing style.

As a result, it can be said that with the English SL novel by a reputational American novelist, hence the SL data are of high value regarding literature aspect. Besides, its three translations by three well-known Vietnamese translators make the Vietnamese data reliable.



3.1. Research approaches and methods

Bearing in mind that there should be some norms stipulating several certain Vietnamese linguistic means applicable to convey the English tense and aspect meaning, which has shaped the hypothesis for the present study of the researcher. The present research is an investigation into how the novel is translated into Vietnamese with regard to tenses and aspects. Considering the methodology for the study, the researcher has employed the mixed methods of qualitative and quantitative strategy along with the use of a number of other methods and techniques. Firstly, the qualitative and quantitative approaches which are actually distinctive from each other. The previous is concerned with structures and designs, and how something is and qualitative investigations are, by their nature, inductive: hypothesis is inferred from the comesabout of our research whereas the last mentioned focuses on how much or how numerous there is/are in a specific characteristic or thing.

The extraordinary advantage of quantitative investigation is that it empowers us to ‘compare generally expansive numbers of things/ people by utilizing a comparatively simple index’. Quantitative inquiries, be that as it may, is deductive: based on as of now known hypothesis we create theories, which we at that point attempt to demonstrate within the course of our observational examination (Lia Litosseliti, 2010, p. 52).

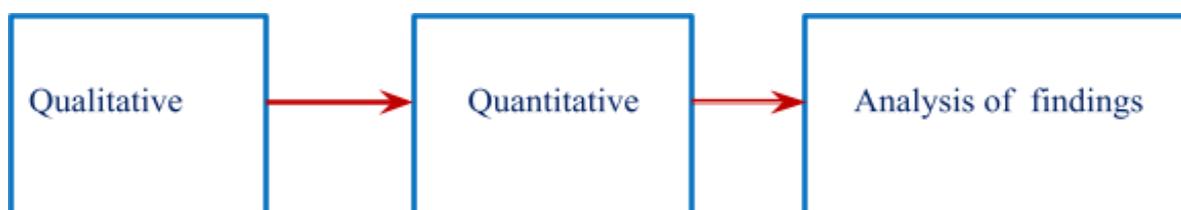
Thus, the qualitative method used in the present study is to analyze the structures and patterns of the English sentences regarding tenses and aspects and how they are realized in the Vietnamese equivalents. These equivalents are then identified to decide if they belong to the Vietnamese linguistics means or markers afore hypothesized. Besides, the quantitative method employed in this study is to analyze the numerical data counting in numbers and percentage the use frequency of the Vietnamese linguistic markers in conveying the English tense and aspect meaning based on some particular mathematical tools or formulas.



After having reviewed the theories and studies concerning tenses and aspects in both English and Vietnamese, the researcher came to hypothesize that such Vietnamese linguistic markers as *đã*, *rồi*, *đang*, *đương*, *sẽ* and *sắp* normally used by quite many linguists to express tenses and aspects of a foreign language as mentioned in the literature review section might also be used as some of the possible linguistic means to convey the English tense and aspect meaning. Given such hypotheses, the data of the Vietnamese linguistic markers have been collected and analyzed to prove if the assumptions are right. That working procedure of the quantitative approach must be deductive one. Moreover, qualitative approach is not only used to assist the description, explanation, clarification and synthesis of the quantitative results of the research but also to describe, explain and clarify the Vietnamese equivalent linguistic means based on theories of tenses and aspects stated in the literature review section. Accordingly, this deploying procedure must be of inductive mode. The mixed methods strategy of the present study adopts the concurrent embedded design developed by Creswell et al. (2009) which is illustrated in the below figure.



Figure 3.1: Concurrent designs



(Adapted from Creswell et al. (2009))

In the concurrent strategies, Creswell et al. (2009) stated that “a researcher may quantify the qualitative data. This involves creating codes and themes qualitatively, then counting the number of times they occur in the text data” (p. 218). In the context of the present study, such codes and themes are most clearly seen in the proposed analytical framework introduced in chapter 2. For instance, such codes as T1, T2 and T3 which stand for the 3 translators namely Mặc Đỗ, Hoàng Cường and Trịnh Lữ or S.Verb stands for situation types of verbs etc. The themes stipulated in the present study are the Vietnamese means or markers like *đã*, *rồi*, *đang*, *đương*, *sắp*, *sẽ* used to translate the English tenses and aspects. These themes are counted basing on the frequency that are used in the Vietnamese translations.

Remarkably, the contrastive analysis method is the major method employed in the current research. Contrastive analysis is “the systematic comparison of two or more languages, with the aim of describing their similarities and differences” (Johansson, 2008, p. 9). In the current study, the researcher aims at contrasting the expressions of tense and aspect meaning between English and Vietnamese.

Thus, the following sections will be the discussions of mixed approaches i.e. qualitative and quantitative ones. Furthermore, such specific methods as descriptive, comparing and contrasting will be also argued. Apart from that, the next sections will be a detailed description of the analytical procedure that is the qualitative, quantitative analyzing and contrastive analyzing proceedings.

3.1.1. Qualitative approach

The employment of qualitative approach, according to Fraenkel and Wallen (2009, p. 560), is to ‘refine the quantitative findings’. Qualitative research is customarily marked as “non-numerical research (Brown & Rodgers, 2002, p. 15). Patton (2002, p. 4) believes that qualitative data can be one of these kinds: interviews, observations and documents. Notably, the documents can be of different forms such as ‘written materials and other documents from organizational, clinical, or program records’. Moreover, according to Yamashita (1996), the data may be presented as words in the format of plentiful linguistic descriptions rather than numbers. In the present research, the data for qualitative analyses are English sentences and their equivalent ones in Vietnamese. The analysis was to compare the similarities and contrast the differences in expressing information related to tenses and aspects. The qualitative approach has its advantages such as the facilitation of “study in depth and detail” and the production of “a wealth of detailed information about a much smaller of people and cases” (Patton, 2002, p. 14). In any case, there are a few shortcomings of qualitative research. Among them are an awful differentiation among realities and understanding, a low repeatability of research approach, the inconceivability of absolutely portraying outcomes ahead of time, the unequivocal acknowledgement of the specialist's subjectivity, and a decrease in generalizability, etc.

To put it plainly, qualitative methodology, however, has been picked as the principle approach for the current examination for two reasons: Firstly, qualitative research approaches are essentially used to examine semantic information (McMillan and Schumacher, 1993). The semantic information regarding tenses, aspects in English and in Vietnamese from different viewpoints and translation and equivalence in translation have been critically analyzed. Secondly, the qualitative investigations carried out by applying speculations of the theories of tenses and aspects, S.Verbs and translation equivalence to describe, analyze, compare and



contrast were enhanced by quantitative investigations, in this manner the above shortcomings of qualitative research would be diminished.

3.1.2. Quantitative approach

Quantitative research is the name for 'numerical research' (Brown & Rodgers, 2002, p. 15). In quantitative research, the analyst tests a hypothesis by implies of 'a conceptual model' (McMillan & Schumacher, 1993, p. 74). In qualitative research, information shows up as words, whereas in quantitative acquirement about information shows up as numbers (Mc Millan & Chumacher). The common strategies of gathering quantitative data incorporate surveys, standardized interviews, tests, standardized perceptions, and so on (Yamashita, 1996, p. 41).

The potential shortcomings of quantitative research include great attention paid to the technical details of the research, in general, and to measuring techniques and procedures, in particular; too much regard to numerical data, which are reacted intentionally but interpreted as objective phenomena (McMillan & Schumacher, 1993; Jonker & Pennink, 2010).

The present study collects four sets of data (one ST and three translations of the TTs). By employing the quantitative analyses to identify and test the results of the qualitative analyses with respect to the frequency of use of adverbs showing present, past and future tenses, adverbs of frequency, linguistic markers and S.Verbs to translate tenses and aspects from English into Vietnamese.

In a nutshell, mixed research approaches: qualitative and quantitative are employed in this research. Qualitative descriptions and syntheses of tense, aspect, S.Verbs , translation and translation equivalence have been made then combined to make an analytical framework or a working framework for the research. Then the qualitative results were supported by quantitative analyses of a number of linguistic tools to translate English sentences of tenses and aspects into Vietnamese. Finally, qualitative analyses were once again utilized to explain and interpret the quantitative results in numeral identities. In other words, qualitative findings will

be presented in collaboration with quantitative data, and mixed approaches undertaken in the present study are properly applied.

3.1.3. Specific methods

The present research employed different specific methods. The first method was descriptive analysis. Contrasting and comparing methods were then employed to explore the commonalities, differences and similarities between the SL and TL as regards tense and aspect expressions. The common practice of contrasting and comparing processes should be carried out in 4 main stages as mentioned by Ellis (1994, p.307). These stages consist of description, selection, comparison and prediction. Description is a method used throughout the study. Then the selection of the points between the two languages to be contrasted. In this study, the main points selected for contrasting or comparing are tenses and aspects. Finally, it is predicted that different linguistic markers can be used for translating English tenses and aspects. The information will be like a dead state, unless it is interpreted. Thus, the next method used in this research was the interpretive method. This method is considered as ‘often heavy on interpretation’ (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). In analyzing, contrasting and comparing the STs and TTs, the researcher’s comments and explanations were interpretive. Thus, an interpretive method was also used to analyze the results from the quantitative data under the forms of tables for overall reference.

3.2. Data collection and analysis procedure

3.2.1. The procedure of collecting data

Data collection will be carried out, analyze to meet its aim and objectives. Data collection is seen as a way to describe a process of preparing and collection data. Moreover, data collection is often defined as an important aspect of any type of research study. Thus, any inaccurate data collection may bring about invalid result and affect result of study. A research study can gain information with two



sources which are primary sources and secondary sources. The information that obtained by internet, books, journals, magazines, proceedings, pictures, objects etc. are primary sources. These types of data is regarded as “First-hand information” or “information from the horse’s mouth”. Nevertheless, the secondary data are different as they have already been collected by someone else and which have already been passed through the statistical process. They can be “facts or statistical materials which are not originated by you as the researcher or investigator” (Osuji, 2012, p. 32). Another opinion towards types of data is “the data are collected by the researcher himself/herself directly from the original sources is called primary data”. Secondary data are viewed differently as “the data which have been collected and compiled for some other purposes else and are used by a researcher for his own research study, is known as secondary data” (Shamar, 2017, p. 60). Also, Kothari (2004) states that “Secondary data means data that are already available i.e., they refer to the data which have already been collected and analysed by someone else” (p. 111). Accordingly, the data collected for the present research are of primary type as all the sentences gathered from the SL and TL had not been used by anyone else before.

For the purpose of the present research, the data were a collection of 9,972 sentences of which 2,493 English sentences were taken from the novel “TGG” by Francis Scott Fitzgerald. The rest of 7,479 Vietnamese sentences were taken from the translations of the three translation versions in Vietnamese namely CNHH, GVD and ĐGG by three famous Vietnamese translators namely T1, T2 and T3 correspondingly.

With respect to the procedure of collecting data, all the 2,493 sentences in the SL were randomly selected. They are from the total nine chapters of the novel. These sentences are of such tenses as present progressive, present perfect, simple present, present perfect progressive, past progressive, past perfect, simple past, past perfect progressive, simple future and “Be going to”. Remarkably, these sentences may have more than one verb indicating the same tenses or aspects, yet only one of

these verbs is selected and the other works as an extra addition to the situation of the selected. Besides, other tenses like future progressive, future perfect, future perfect progressive and other grammatical structures that affect the forms of verbs in sentences like subjunctives were not the subjects of the present study, either as partly the data of these found in the novel were so small, not sufficient enough and as mainly the scope of the study was limited. Similarly, an equal number of sentences translated in the TL by the three Vietnamese translators make up 7,479 sentences in Vietnamese totally. All the data of sentences belonging to different tenses and aspects in English and their equivalents in Vietnamese were then typed down from their hard copies in Microsoft word format for later contrasting work.

3.2.2. Data analysis procedure

The procedure for analyzing the data is as follows. Firstly, the tense form in each sentences in the English SL was recognized. The tense form found was classified into one of the three main groups: past, present, and future. The present tense class comprises present progressive, the simple present, present perfect, and present perfect progressive. The past tense class contains the past progressive, simple past, past perfect, and past perfect progressive. Similarly, the future tense group might consist of the simple future, be going to structure.. The next step was to find overt devices or linguistic means in the equivalent sentences in the Vietnamese translated novels. The Vietnamese overt device resources involve different depletives or markers.

As stated in chapter 2, Trần Trọng Kim (1940) was among the first researchers studying adverbials indicating time in Vietnamese as he affirmed that these time adverbials could be divided into different kinds basing on their meaning expressions . The types can be listed as follows: Firstly, adverbs indicating present tense include *chừ, nay, rày, giờ, bây chừ, bây giờ*. Secondly, adverbs expressing moment of past tense: *Khi này, lúc này, hồi này*; adverbs showing previous dates: *hôm kia, hôm trước, hôm qua, hôm kia, , hôm nọ*; adverbs showing previous month like: *tháng*

trước; adverbs showing previous years: *năm ngoái*; Adverbs indicate the time that has just passed: *vừa rồi, mới rồi*; Adverbs indicate the time which has occurred for a long time: *độ trước, đời trước, trước kia, ngày xưa, thuở xưa, đời xưa, xưa kia, xưa, ngày trước*. Thirdly, adverbs expressing future tense include adverbs showing moment: *tí nữa, chốc nữa, lát nữa*; indicating day: *ngày mai, ngày kia, mai, một, ngày kia*; indicating month: *tháng sau, sang tháng*; indicating year: *năm sau, sang năm*; showing indefinite time: *mai sau, rồi, sau này, ngày sau, rồi ra*.

Apart from the above-presented temporal adverbials and markers by Trần Trọng Kim, the present research also made full use of the adverbs and markers studied by Đào Thị Hối (as cited in Ngô Thị Thanh Tuyết, 2011). She is considered to be the first researcher to provide detailed lists of TA. She calls these TAs “temporal adverbials of present time”, (hereafter referred to as Pre TA), “temporal adverbials of past time” (hereafter referred to as Pas TA) and “temporal adverbials of future time” (hereafter referred to as Fut TA).

In case, no explicit TA was identified in a sentence, explicit markers or auxiliaries were then considered. AMs normally found in the Vietnamese language as mentioned in chapter 2 include *đã, rồi* as perfect markers (hereafter referred to as Per M), *đang* and *đương* as progress markers (hereafter referred to as Pro M) and future markers (hereafter referred to as Fut M) comprise of *sẽ* and *sắp*.

When a Vietnamese adverbial is identified in the translation of an English sentence that contained a particular tense, it was concluded that the temporal information expressed by the English tense was explicitly transferred in the Vietnamese translation. Similarly, if the Vietnamese progress marker is found in the translation of an English sentence which is presented by the progressive aspect, the aspectual meaning of the ST was concluded to be explicitly conveyed in the TL. To put it differently, because of the lack of agreement on the meaning of the Vietnamese auxiliaries, conclusions as to what temporal meaning is expressed by the Vietnamese future markers had to be drawn from the study results.

When no temporal adverbs or markers were identified in the Vietnamese translation of an English SL sentence, the next step would be taken to identify the situation types of the verbs in the Vietnamese TL sentence. S.Verbs were considered with a concern about the mixed combination of the information from the verb and its complement or object, particles, preposition phrase, and their contexts. As classified by Vendler (1967) the four groups of situation types are states, activities, accomplishments, and achievements. These were all mentioned in chapter II. As a result, it is noteworthy concluded that every Vietnamese sentence may contain both a temporal adverb and a marker. For instance:

(44) Hôm qua, tôi đã xử lý xong đống hồ sơ đó rồi.

Yesterday, I completed sorting out that pile of documents.

Looking at the above example, the adverbial indicating past time Hôm qua “yesterday” and *đã*, a Per M are used to express the information of the past time and the equivalent sentence in English is in the simple past tense.

(45) Tháng tới, tôi sẽ vào nam thăm ông chú.

Next month, I will visit my uncle in the south.

The above example shows that a TA Tháng tới “next month” and a future marker sẽ “will” are used in a sentence which is equivalent to a sentence of the simple future tense in English. Apart from that, every sentence both in English and in Vietnamese always contains its verb belonging to one of the four types realized by Vendler (1967) above. For instance:

(46) Hôm vừa rồi, Minh có kể cho tôi nghe về cuộc sống của Hùng.

A few days ago, Minh told me about Hung’s life.

As can be seen from the above example, the TA Hôm vừa rồi “a few days ago” and có kể “told”-an activity verb are both used to translate the sentence.

The types of verbs proposed by Vendler (1967) are in more details as follows:



State verbs: State verbs were identified to expressed durative, static, stative situations. They were those that were understood to remain unchanged throughout time.

As mentioned in the above section, according to Smith (1997) activities are, dynamic, durative, and atelic. Activity verbs have no limit or natural endpoint; they stop or terminate, though do not finish. Examples of activity verbs are push/pull something, snow, eat, laugh, walk, run, swim, think about seek, write, read,... Activity verb constellations are in agreement with adverbs of simple duration such as 'for an hour' or 'slowly'.

Dynamic, durative, and telic are the basic feature of accomplishments. Accomplishments comprise of a process and an outcome, depicting events with an initial and a natural final endpoint (e.g., make a chair, walk to school, build a house, read a book, paint a picture, write/read a novel, give/attend a class, play a chess game, grow, destroy, recover, get ready...).

Finally, achievements are telic, dynamic, and instantaneous. In Smith (1997)'s opinions, achievements "are instantaneous events that result in a change of state" (p. 30) (e.g., win the race, reach the top, recognize, realize, spot something, find, lose, start, stop, break, acquire...).

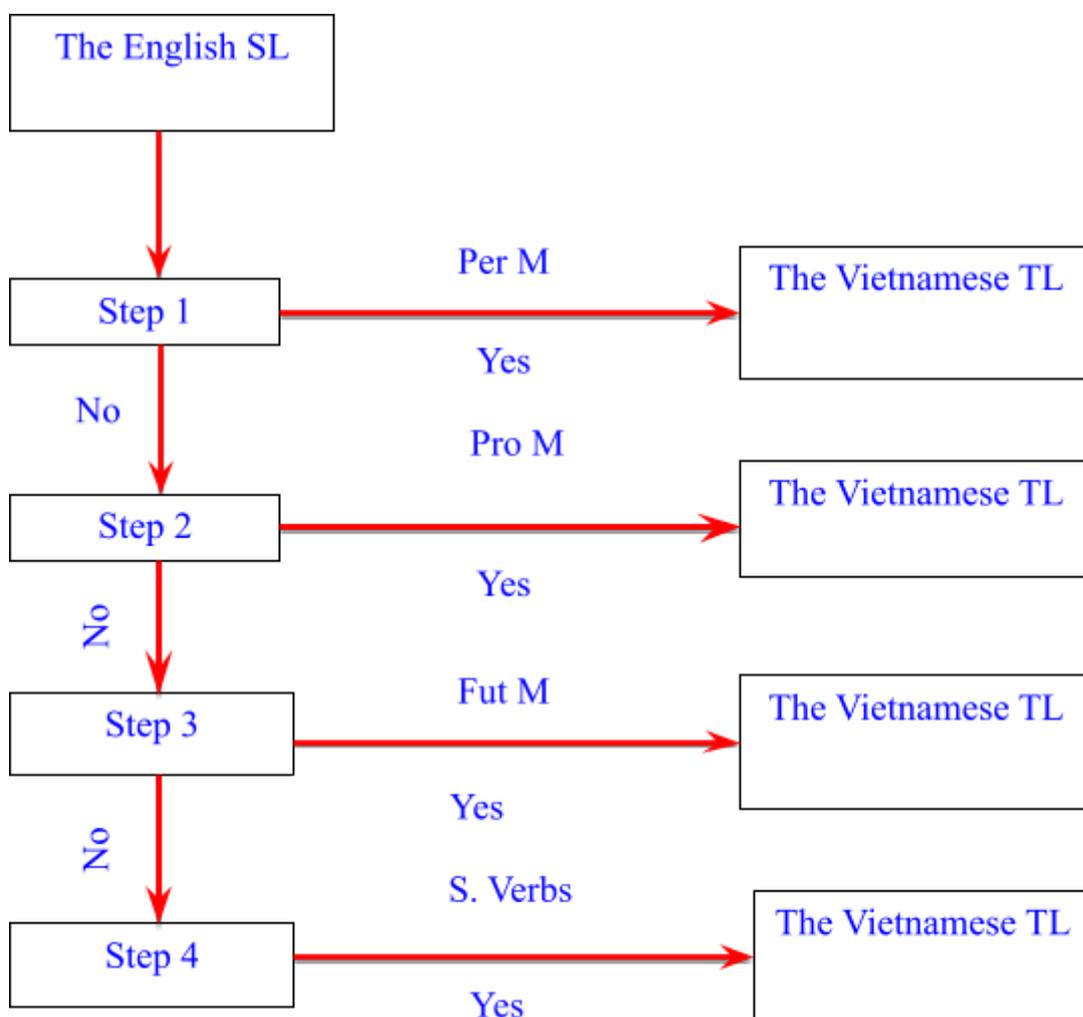
As stated in the aforepart, the data of sentences of both the SL and TL were typed down in Microsoft word for comparing and contrasting between English sentences with Vietnamese ones. All the SL sentences were grouped into 10 English tenses, namely simple present, present progressive, present perfect, present perfect progressive, simple past, past progressive, past perfect, past perfect progressive, simple future and "Be going to". Above all, one SL sentence was compared and contrasted with three TL sentences. Basing on the translated sentences in Vietnamese, the researcher used the function of finding in Microsoft word to find out and count the frequencies of the linguistic means used to translate English tenses and aspects.



The occurrence frequencies of each English tense form and each Vietnamese time device/marker or situation type that was discovered to translate the English tenses was analyzed, calculated and tabulated in the afore-mentioned table (6) and (7).

In short, the transference of English tenses and aspects into Vietnamese will be analyzed based on the modeled procedure as follows:

Figure 3.2: Steps in identifying means to translate English tenses and aspects into Vietnamese



3.3. Summary

In short, this section has described the sources of the data of the study concerning the following: Firstly, the research pointed out the reasons why and how the data were collected. As previously mentioned, the novel in the English sources is a very famous literary work as “TGG” has been made into films, plays, games etc. Francis Scott Fitzgerald was recognized as one of the greatest writers of the 20th century. Besides, the 3 Vietnamese translated versions were done by professional Vietnamese translators.

Secondly, 2,493 sentences of the SL were randomly chosen. They are from the total nine chapters of the novel. These sentences belong to such tenses and aspects as present progressive, simple present, present perfect, present perfect progressive, simple past, past progressive, past perfect, past perfect progressive, futurity expressed by ‘will’ and “Be going to”. In selecting the sentences of the afore-said tenses and aspects randomly, this working procedure is considered as the probability sampling. According to Kothari (2004), probability sampling “is known as random sampling or chance sampling” (p. 60). The results gained from random sampling can be guaranteed regarding probability. The random selection has its own strength as it helps give each item in the population an equal chance of getting into the sample; all the choices of samples are independent from one another. In the context of the current thesis, different sentences of the English tenses and aspects have been randomly selected so it does not matter if the SL sentences are idiomatically expressed or not. An idiomatic sentence is commonly more difficult to understand than a normal one, thus the results of the current research on both the idiomatic sentences and normal sentences bring about more valuable findings. Besides, 7,479 Vietnamese sentences were taken from the translations of the three novels in Vietnamese namely “CNHH”, “GVD”, “ĐGG” by three famous Vietnamese translators namely T1, T2 and T3 likewise.

The analyzed results obtained base on the following steps:



1. Tenses and aspects in each English ST sentence were identified.
2. Observable temporal means such as TAs or adverbs of time, markers indicating tenses and aspects used in the equivalent sentences of the Vietnamese translations were identified.
3. Sentences without above temporal means were identified regarding S.Verbs .
4. The frequencies of the different Vietnamese linguistics means used to translate tenses and aspects were calculated by using the find and replace function of the Microsoft word.

The obtained results were then deemed to answer the two research question about how English simple and complex tenses and aspects can be rendered into Vietnamese as they were different Vietnamese linguistic means/markers or ways having been employed by the three translators in their translations.

Chapter 3 has covered various discussions serving as an analytical framework for the present research. The first section has discussed the research methodology adopted in the current research. The adopted approach is the mixed methods of qualitative and quantitative strategies. Apart from these strategies, library, descriptive, contrastive and comparative analytical methods were also used.

Moreover, the first section has also demonstrated the analytical framework of the study, including qualitative analytical procedure and quantitative analytical procedure. The qualitative analytical procedure helped to describe different theories of tenses and aspects in English, situation types of verbs, different viewpoints on the recognition of the categories of tenses and aspects in Vietnamese, the translation theories of as well as equivalence in translation. Quantitative analyses focus on the frequency of occurrence of the Vietnamese linguistic means used in translating English tenses and aspects.

The second section has been focused on data collection procedure and steps in analyzing the data. As previously mentioned, the data of English sentences will be randomly chosen from the nine chapters of TGG. Then the equivalent sentences in the three translations by T1, T2 and T3 were contrasted and interpreted. The

findings of the qualitative analyses will be presented in the next chapters, Chapter 4 and chapter 5, while the findings from the quantitative will also be analyzed.

CHAPTER 4: THE FINDINGS OF THE TRANSLATION OF THE ENGLISH SIMPLE TENSES AND ASPECTS INTO THEIR VIETNAMESE EQUIVALENTS

Generally, tenses and aspects in English are the two categories that normally go together and are rarely separated. However, the research believes that it will be clearer and easier for the readers, if the tenses and aspects are divided into simple tenses and complex tenses grounding on the division by Quirk, R., & Greenbaum, S. (1973). This chapter 4 will present the analyses and findings of Vietnamese linguistic means applied to translating the English simple tenses by the three Vietnamese translators.

Different Vietnamese linguistic means as proposed in the previous sections are expected to be employed in conveying the temporal meaning of the verbs from English into Vietnamese. In chapter one, analyses of the common linguistic means which can be used to indicate information telling tenses and aspects have been made and pointed out. Besides, tenses will also be expected to be inferred not to be present in Vietnamese as a common grammatical category. The bases for the inference rely on different theories or definitions.

Firstly, it should be counted on the statement of tense by Evans & Green (2005) in the literature review that a language has tense only if it has a distinct morphological verb form showing past/present/ future time. However, in Vietnamese no morphological verb form changes can be found. Secondly, in talking about aspect, as cited in the literature review part that Smith states "aspect traditionally refers to grammaticalized viewpoints such as the perfective and imperfective" (Smith, 1997, p. 1). In practice, no one could discover the concrete of fixed means in expressing the perfective and imperfective in the Vietnamese language; therefore, aspect cannot be a grammatical category in Vietnamese. The viewpoint of the current research toward the English tenses and aspects is pertained to the one aforementioned in the literature review by Murcia and Freeman (1999) as



there are three tenses, present, past and future and four aspects - simple (sometimes called zero aspect), perfect, progressive, and perfect progressive which make up a combination of twelve tenses and aspects in the English language and are widely recognized in practice. Nevertheless, due to the scope of the present study, only 10 tenses and aspects out of 12 will be good representatives. With regard to Vietnamese such pletives as *đã*, *rồi*, *đang*, *đương*, *sẽ*, *sắp* will be identified in the translations by the three translators. Accordingly, the researcher assumes the afore-mentioned opinions by Rhodes (1651), Aubaret (1864), Trương Vĩnh Ký (1883), Panfilov (1979, 1993), Nguyễn Minh Thuyết (1995), Nguyễn Kim Thân (1997) etc. that *đã*, *rồi* are supposed to transfer the information that has happened, whereas *đang*, *đương* are believed to transfer meaning of something that is in progress at present and *sẽ*, *sắp* can be employed to convey information that will be seen or will happen in the future. Besides, the researcher also assumes the opinions by Cao Xuân Hạo (1998), Emeneau (1951), and Nguyễn Đức Dân (1996) etc. mentioned above that Cao Xuân Hạo (1998) remarks countless examples in Vietnamese illustrate that *đã* does not always imply past, or *đang* does not always refer to the present, or *sẽ* does not always mean the future. Hence, the following contrast between the English expressions of tenses and aspects and the Vietnamese equivalents will be made to find out if the above-said Vietnamese markers are used and what implications of the use and disuse cases of these markers would be like.

4.1. The Vietnamese translation of the English simple tenses by T1

The translation of the English simple present tense After the collected data have been processed they are presented in the following table and figure serving as analyzing tools for contrasting work. The table is aimed at presenting the contrast of three English tenses with their equivalent expressions in Vietnamese counting on the number of sentences. Besides, the figure is designed as a means to further explain the data in the above table pertaining to percentage.



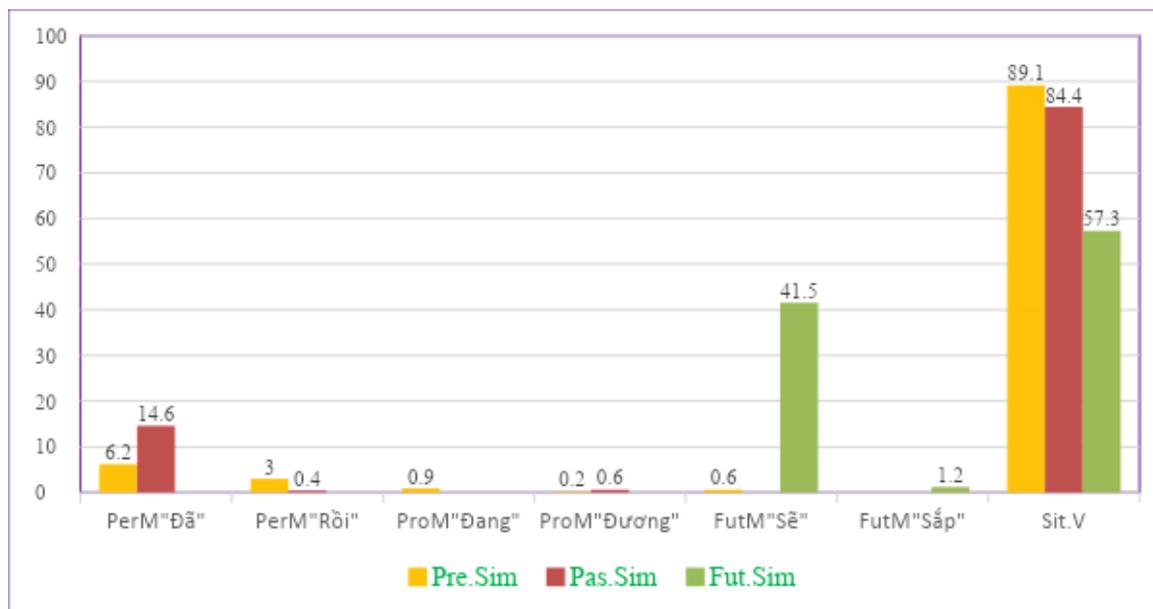
Table 4.1: Vietnamese Linguistic Means Used in Translation of Simple English Tenses by T1

Source texts		Fre	Target texts						
Resources			Per M Đã	Per M Rồi	Pro M Đang	Pro M Đương	Fut M Sẽ	Fut M Sắp	S.Verbs
Present	Sim	660	41	20	6	1	4	0	588
Past		1387	203	6	0	8	0	0	1170
Future		82	0	0	0	0	34	1	47

Legend: Fre: Frequency; Per M: Perfective marker; Pro M: Progress marker; Fut M: Future marker; S. Verbs: Situation types of verbs; Sim: Simple



Figure 4.1: Percentage of Vietnamese Linguistic Means Used by T1



As stated the above table and the figure are the two tools illustrating the same information of different Vietnamese linguistic means employed by T1 to translate three different basic English tenses namely the present simple tense, the simple past tense and the simple future tense. However, while the table is aimed at describing the contrasting information in number, the figure is deemed to set off different Vietnamese linguistic means to convey temporal meaning in contrast with those in English. Despite being aware of the fact that different Vietnamese linguistic means can be used to translate English tenses, quite many surprises are awaited.

4.1.1. The translation of the English simple present tense

The first surprise comes from the discovery of the situation types of verbs as they account for the biggest numbers of translating means of the three English tenses. To be specific, 588 sentences out of 660 sentences in the simple present tense are translated via the situation types of verbs. These verbs used account for almost 89.1%, which may imply that in reality the simple present tense in English when translated into Vietnamese cannot mostly recognized. Interestingly,

nonetheless, Vietnamese would have no difficulties in understanding the translation. Given the fact that the perfective markers **đã**, **rồi** can be also employed to convey information at present, though the discovery of 41 sentences (making up nearly 6.2 %) translated via the use of **đã** and 20 sentences (constituting almost 3.0 %) translated via the use of **rồi**. For example:

(47) ‘Do you always *watch* for the longest day of the year and then *miss* it? (p. 14)
T1: Phải chăng người ta bao giờ cũng chờ đợi ngày dài nhất trong năm để **rồi** nó trôi qua lúc nào không hay?

The verbs in the above example are put in simple present tense in the SL sentence whereas when translated into Vietnamese in the TL sentence no markers of tense can be found. This can be explained as the equivalent of situation types of verbs between the two languages. While *watch* is an activity verb and translated into *đợi* in Vietnamese and *miss* is an achievement verb and translated into *trôi qua*. The perfective marker **rồi** in this Vietnamese TL sentence is seen as an emphasis rather than a marker indicating tenses or aspects, which is in consistent with what Cao Xuân Hạo (1998) or Đinh Văn Đức (2012) stated above mentioned.

The frequency in the use of **đã**, **rồi** is surprisingly a lot bigger than that of **đang**, **đương** which are normally considered as the two pletives or progress markers used to convey the information of present tense as **đang** is seen used in 6 sentences (making up around 0.9%) and **đương** was used in just 1 sentence (accounting for 0.2%). The below examples can be as an illustration:

(48) You *see*, I usually find my-self among strangers because I drift here and there trying to forget the sad thing that happened to me.’ (p. 73)
T1: anh bạn cũng **đã** thấy đó, chung quanh tôi nhiều khách ngoại quốc vì tính tôi hay lang thang khắp nơi, cố quên nỗi buồn ray rứt.

As can be seen from the above SL sentence, the verb *see* is in simple present tense but it is translated into Vietnamese *thấy* with marker **đã** added before which is

normally used to show past tense. Thus, marker **đã** is as what Cao Xuân Hạo (1998) or Đinh Văn Đức (2012) claimed used for emphatic purpose.

(49) ‘You’re very polite but I *belong to* another generation,’ (p. 78)

T1: Anh lịch sự lắm nhưng tôi thuộc về một thế hệ khác rồi.

Belong is in simple present tense of the SL in the above example and was translated into *thuộc về* and **rồi** a perfective marker at the end of the sentence which is normally used to describe something happening in the past. Nevertheless, the perfective marker **rồi** in this case was employed, according Cao Xuân Hạo (1998) or Đinh Văn Đức (2012) claimed used not to indicate tenses or aspects but to emphasize.

as to

Besides, future markers were also used, though **sắp** was not seen used, **sẽ** was used in 4 sentences (making up 0.6 %) and this can be seen in the below example:

(50) But above the grey land and the spasms of bleak dust which drift endlessly over it, you *perceive*, after a moment, the eyes of Doctor T. J. Eckleburg. (p. 26)

T1: Nhưng bên trên mảnh đất xám xịt với những đám bụi bạc thếch lênh bênh trôi đi không dứt, nếu định thần nhìn một lúc, ta sẽ nhận ra hai con mắt của bác sĩ T.J.Eckleburg.

The SL verb *perceive* is in its simple present form and was translated into *sẽ nhận ra*. The marker **sẽ** was used for emphasis rather than indicating tenses or aspects in this case, which can be explained counting on the opinion by Cao Xuân Hạo (1998) or Đinh Văn Đức (2012).

4.1.2. The translation of the English simple past tense

As stated in the literature review part, past tenses can be rendered into Vietnamese by means of two perfective markers **đã**, **rồi** which are said to be often used to describe past actions. Nevertheless, looking at the above table and figure, it is amazing that the future marker **đang** was not used but its similar expression



đương which is often seen in indicating the actions in progress, is now seen in reflecting the past tense. Although it was not very frequently used, it in fact is seen in just 8 sentences (making up almost 0.6%) which were translated by ways of using the progress marker *đương*, it may leave a remarkable impression on the readers or those interested in English in general. The below example may illustrate the use of *đương* sentences to translate the English sentences in the simple past tense form.

(51) As I *watched* him he adjusted himself a little, visibly. (p. 103)

T1: Nhận thấy tôi *đương* quan sát hắn, hắn bèn tự kiểm chế một cách rõ ràng quá.

The verb *watch* in the SL sentence is in past tense with its regular ending form of *ed*, when it was translated into Vietnamese instead of using *đã* before the verb *quan sát*, *đương* was employed. Then, the translation in contrast with the SL sentences as regards simple past tense can be explained by way of verbs of situation types. This translating means accounts for the biggest number and corresponding percentage i.e. this can be seen in 1,170 TL sentences (making up as much as around 84.4%). It can be demonstrated in the below example:

(52) I *knew* he was below me. (p. 38)

T1: Tôi *biết* rằng hắn ta không xứng đáng với tôi

Looking at the above example, we can see that the verb *knew* is a state verb and it was translated into a Vietnamese equivalent state verb as *biết*, no Vietnamese tense or aspect markers can be identified in the TL sentence. Yet, Vietnamese readers would surely not be misled in understanding the translated sentence in this context.

Just coming after verbs of situation types regarding their frequency of use in translating past tense of the SL verbs, the two Vietnamese perfective markers *đã* and *rồi* are seen in use in 203 sentences (accounting for almost 14.6 %) and in 6 sentences (making up around 0.4 %) respectively. These two markers are said to be mainly employed to convey past tense meaning are now discovered working in



indicating the English simple past tense sentences in Vietnamese, though not many of them were discovered. Let's look at the examples below:

(53) I **made** you a little angry this morning in the car.' (p. 77)

*TL: Bây anh bạn ơi, bạn sáng trong xe hơi, có lẽ tôi **đã làm** cho bạn phật ý?*

As can be seen from the SL sentence the verb made is in the past simple form and hence was translated into Vietnamese làm and with a perfective marker đã preceding it. This linguistic means for translating the past tense is in line with the opinion stating that Vietnamese has tenses and aspects as mentioned in the literature review section.

(54) 'Everybody **smoked** all through lunch.' (p. 127)

*TL: Trong bữa ăn ai nấy đều **hút thuốc rồi**.*

Looking at the contrast of the above example, another perfective marker can be identified that is rồi. This marker was added to emphasize that the action of smoking has been done or completed.

4.1.3. The translation of the English simple future tense

Considering the translation of the English expression in future, it is noted not any of the Vietnamese progress markers or perfective markers, with the exception of future markers and verbs of situation types, were used to treat the transference of future event. Situation types of verbs, however, are again the most frequently seen as they appear in 47 TL sentences out of 82 SL sentences, accounting for nearly 57.3 %. Vietnamese future markers were also used in quite many sentences. Specially, the future marker *sẽ* was seen repeatedly used in 34 TL sentences (making up almost 41.5 %) and the other future marker *sắp* was identified in just 1 TL sentence (making up around 1.2 % only). These markers can be seen in the following examples:



(55) We'll ride around and meet you after.' (p. 133)

T1: Chúng tôi **đi chơi** mát một vòng **rồi** trở lại đón.

It is clearly seen that in the SL sentence the verb *will ride* is in the simple future tense form, yet when being translated into Vietnamese no Vietnamese markers indicating tense are found. It was translated into just *đi* in Vietnamese. This way of translation cannot be explained by any ways except by the equivalent use of situation types of verbs. Apparently, there exists, by nature, an equivalent of action verbs in that context between English and Vietnamese as both the verbs *ride* and *đi* are action verbs according to the theory of situation types of verbs initiated by Vendler (1967) introduced in the afore-mentioned part.

(56) Nowadays people begin by sneering at family life and family institutions and next they'll throw everything overboard and have intermarriage between black and white.' (p. 138)

T1: Thời buổi này thiên hạ bắt đầu sao lãng gia đình,**rồi** chẳng bao lâu họ **sẽ** hất tung mọi thứ đi hết.

These examples provide the information that the Vietnamese future marker *sẽ* was added up before the verb *hất* to imply future meaning of the SL *will throw*. The use of this Vietnamese linguistic means to convey the future meaning is very popular in the Vietnamese language and corresponds with the opinions stated by some scholars like Trương Vĩnh Ký (1883), Panfilov (1979, 1993), Nguyễn Minh Thuyết (1995), etc. mentioned in the literature review part that future marker *sẽ* can be used as an expression of future tense.

4.2. The Vietnamese translation of the English simple tenses by T2

What will be contrasted and discussed in the following part will be likely similar to the one discussed in the above part i.e. the contrast with the translation by T1. Thus, the framework of the order of the items to be contrasted is identical to those of the part 3.1 above. The table and figure will be as follows.

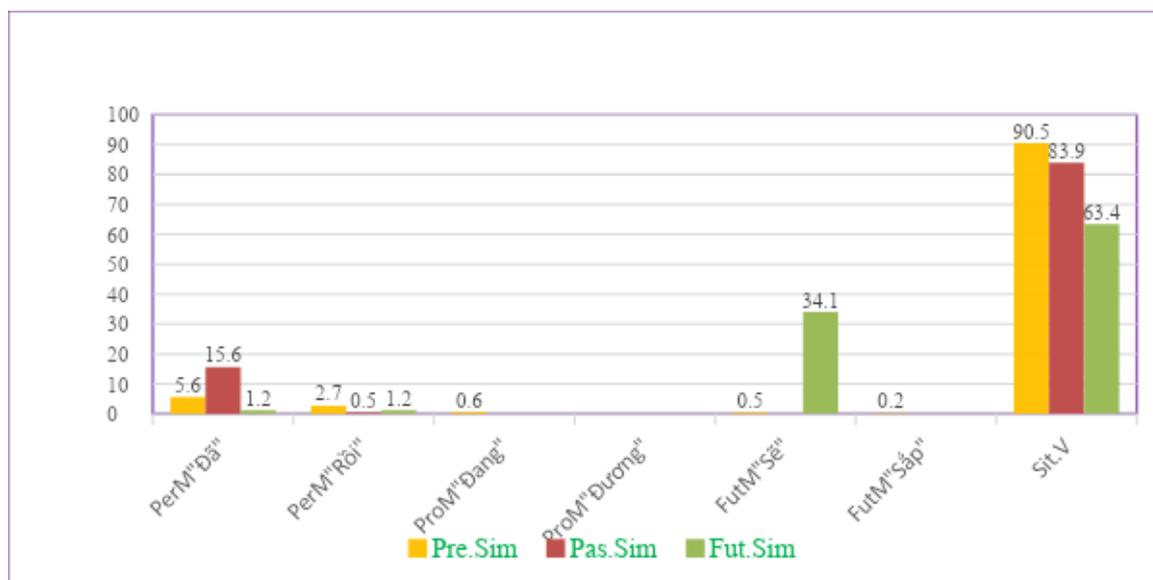


Table 4.2: Vietnamese Linguistic Means Used in Translation of Simple English Tenses by T2

Source texts		Fre	Target texts						
Resources	Per M Đã		Per M Rồi	Pro M Đang	Pro M Đương	Fut M Sẽ	Fut M Sắp	S. Verbs	
Present	Sim	660	37	18	4	0	3	1	597
Past		1387	216	7	0	0	0	0	1164
Future		82	1	1	0	0	28	0	52

Legend: Fre: Frequency; Per M: Perfective marker; Pro M: Progress marker; Fut M: Future marker; S. Verbs: Situation types of verbs; Sim: Simple

Figure 4.2: Percentage of Vietnamese Linguistic Means Used by T2



If the data of the contrast of tenses translated by T1 are put in comparison with these by T2, it can be said that there are both some similarities and differences. The

first transparent similarity can be counted is the two translators used the situation types of verbs in translating the three English tenses into Vietnamese the most. Then the two translators both used the progress markers *đang* to translate the present simple tense sentences into Vietnamese. Besides, there are quite many differences in the way that the two translators used various markers to translate the same English tenses. While the second translator employed the perfective marker *đã* to translate some sentences of all the three tenses, the first translator utilized this type of marker for translating some of the sentences in the present simple tense, the simple past tense only but not those in the future tense. The frequency in the use of the other markers is also different. The aim of the study, however, is not to compare the ways of translating among the three translators but to contrast the means of expressing tenses and aspects between the two languages.

4.2.1. The translation of the English simple present tense

As identified earlier while in English almost all verbs must change their forms pursuant to their tenses or aspects, when being translated into Vietnamese by T2, we cannot identify any changes in the Vietnamese verbs or the whole sentences. This can only again be explained based on the theories of situation types of verbs by Vendler (1967). In this context, 597 sentences out of 660 sentences of the SL (making up almost 90.5%) were translated by way of using situation types of verbs. The following example can be taken as an illustration:

(57) What I *say* is, why go on living with them if they can't stand them? (p. 37)

T2: Tôi có ý kiến rằng: tại sao cứ cố bám lấy nhau khi không còn chịu đựng được nhau nữa.

As it is observed in the above example, the verb *say* in the SL sentence which is an activity verb and put in the present simple tense is translated into *có ý kiến* with no signal of tense in the TL sentence. This way of translation is that of TL-oriented strategy as *say* should be normally translated into *nói* in Vietnamese, yet to make it sound Vietnamese, its literal meaning has been changed.



Generally speaking, in scanning through the table and figure above almost all types of the Vietnamese linguistic markers were employed by T2 to translate the three English tenses excluding the progress marker *đương*. To be specific, the perfective marker *đã* was amazingly employed the most frequently as it is found in 37 TL sentences (accounting for nearly 5.6 %). It can be shown in the following example:

(58) The lights grow brighter as the earth *lurches* away from the sun and now the orchestra is playing yellow cocktail music and the opera of voices pitches a key higher. (p. 44)

T2: *Ánh sáng càng rực rỡ khi mà trái đất đã quay tròn một vòng tránh khỏi mặt trời: lúc này dàn nhạc chơi một điệu nhạc say sưa, những tiếng rào rào cũng to hơn lên một độ.*

In this situation, the perfective marker *đã* was put before the verb *quay*. This marker is originally to indicate a past action in Vietnamese but it can clearly still be used to show present action in this case. Then *rồi* is another perfective marker that causes surprise as this marker was used the second most among the markers. The marker was used in 18 TL sentences (making up almost 2.7%). The illustration is in the example below:

(59) ‘The grass *looks* fine, if that’s what you mean.’ (p. 90)

T2: *Cỏ trông đẹp rồi, nếu đó là điều anh muốn hỏi.*

As can be seen, the verb *looks* is in present simple tense form and is translated into *trông ...rồi*. *Rồi* is a perfective marker often used to convey something that has been done or finished i.e action in the past or action in past tense but it is used present tense in this situation and causes no difficulties for understanding and acceptance in the Vietnamese language.

The progress markers must normally be used the most often but they are found in just 4 sentences out of TL 660 sentences (making up about 0.6 %). This can be seen in the below example:



(60) ‘Philadelphia *wants* you on the phone, sir.’ (p. 58)

T2: Philadelphia **đang** đợi ông trên điện thoại, thưa ông.

The TL sentence depicts the verb *wants* in the SL by **đang** đợi, though the progress marker **đang** is often used to describe something is progressing, it is not necessarily put in the present progress tense in the SL sentence.

Despite not having been used as frequently as the perfective markers, the future markers are seen to be used in as many as 4 sentences: 3 sentences with the future marker **sẽ** (making up nearly 0.5%) and just 1 sentence with the future marker **sắp** (accounting for almost 0.2 %). They can be illustrated by the following example:

(61) ‘**Know** you next time, Mr. Gatsby. Excuse ME!’ (p. 74)

T2: Xin thứ lỗi cho tôi, thưa ông Gatsby. Lần sau tôi **sẽ nhận ra** ông.

As can be observed from the above TL sentence the verb *know* is in present tense but when translated into Vietnamese it was translated into *nhận ra* and the future marker **sẽ** goes before the verb. Then the example below is the one that includes the progress marker namely **sắp**.

(62) Get some more ice and mineral water, Myrtle, before everybody **goes to sleep.**’ (p. 35)

T2: Myrtle ơi, cho thêm đá và nước suối kẻo mọi người **sắp ngủ** cả.

Apparently, the verb phrase *goes to sleep* is put in the simple present tense and it was translated into *ngủ* with the future marker **sắp** preceding it. In this TL sentence, in practice, the future marker **sắp** was intended to emphasize that the people in this case would sleep soon. However, the future marker **sắp** in this case can be omitted without misleading the meaning of the sentence regarding the tenses.

4.2.2. The translation of the English simple past tense

Although the total number of sentences translated by means of situation types of verbs by T1 is 1170 (accounting for nearly 84.4%) and the total number by T2 is



1164 (accounting for nearly 83.9%) which is a bit smaller compared with T1's, these means of translation are the biggest of all. It is reflected in the following example:

(63) God, how I *hated* that town!' (p. 38)

T2: Lạy Chúa, sao mà tôi ghét cái thành phố ấy đến thế!

Hated in the above SL sentence is a state verb as stated in Vendler (1967). This verb is also in past simple form; nonetheless it was translated into Vietnamese equivalent state verb *ghét* without any signs in the whole TL sentence indicating past tense.

It is quite amazing that two couples of future markers and progress markers are not found in translating the past simple tense. This translation means used by T2 can be considered as different from that by T1 as the progress marker *đương* was found used by T1 as analyzed in the above part. As a result, the perfective marker couple *đã, rồi* were used by T2 more than by T1. Specially, *đã* is seen used in 216 TL sentences (accounting for almost 15.6 %) by T2, whereas it is seen used in 203 TL sentences (accounting for nearly 14.6 %) as in the example below:

(64) Inside of a week I *got* a package from Croirier's with a new evening gown in it.' (p. 47)

T2: Chưa đến một tuần sau, em đã nhận được một cái hộp của cửa hiệu Croirier đựng một chiếc áo dạ hội mới tinh.

Looking at the above example, it can be seen that the verb *got* is in the simple past form and when translated into *nhận* in Vietnamese with a perfective marker preceding it.

Besides, *rồi* is another perfective marker which is observed to be used in conveying past tense meaning into Vietnamese, though it was used in quite few TL sentences. It is found in barely 7 TL sentences (making up nearly 0.5 %).

(65) 'I thought you *knew*, old sport. (p. 52)

T2: Tôi tưởng ông biết rồi, người anh em ạ.



Examining the above example, the verb *knew* is in the past simple in the SL sentence and was translated into *biết* in the TL and followed by the perfective marker *rồi* indicating something already happened in the past.

4.2.3. The translation of the English simple future tense

In comparison with the translating data by T1, the two Vietnamese progress markers *đang*, *đương* are also not found used to translate the simple future tense from the English. On the contrary, the two perfective markers *đã* and *rồi* were not employed by T1 to translate the simple future tense, whereas they each were employed once by T2 and thereby they each account for nearly 1.2 % of the total translating means. The illustration are as follows:

(66) ‘In two weeks it *’ll be* the longest day in the year.’ (p. 14)

T2: Hai tuần nữa là *đã* đến ngày dài nhất trong năm *rồi*

The form of the verb to be in the above example of SL sentence is in the simple future tense, hence it is put in *will be*; however, was translated into *là* in Vietnamese without using the future markers like *sẽ* or *sắp* to indicate the future meaning, instead a perfective marker *rồi* was used.

For the two future markers *sẽ* and *sắp*, it is found out that *sắp* were not employed by T2 at all. Thus, except for situation types of verbs, the future marker *sẽ* ranks the second regarding its frequency of use, as it was found used in 28 sentences (making up nearly 34.1%)

As can be seen from the table and figure, the situation types of verbs have been used the most as they are detected in 52 TL sentences (accounting for almost 63.4 %). Illustration for that can be seen in the below example:

(67) I got to write down a list so I won’t *forget* all the things I got to do. (p. 40)

T2: Tôi phải kê ra 1 bảng để khỏi *quên* tất cả những gì cần mua.

The verb *forget* is a kind of achievement verb and was translated into a Vietnamese achievement verb *quên*. Examining the TL sentence, not tense or aspect traits can be found. As a result, situation types of verbs should be the explanation for the translator’s success in conveying information related to tenses and aspects.

4.3. The Vietnamese translation of the English simple tenses by T3

In 2008, it was 23 years after the second translation version by Hoang Cuong in 1985 and 65 years after the first translation version by Mặc Đỗ in 1956, Trinh Lu with his translation named Đại Gia Gatsby renewed the novel “The Great Gatsby” by the American writer Francis Scott Fitzgerald in 1925. Đại Gia Gatsby is still being broadly appreciated by modern time readers as it depicted the U.S society of the 1925. A society in which there were some new groups of well-off or bourgeois. They became wealthier by corruption, trafficking or smuggling businesses. A society was then where human dignity and morality were easily deprived by libertinism and lust desire. Our modern society is now sharing some common resemblances. Thus, this novel is currently attracting a big group of readers around Vietnam. The message of the novel is, however, not the focusing point of the study, rather how tenses and aspects can be translated into Vietnamese is our main concern. The investigation task will go through all the main points of contrasting intensively and extensively as what have been done with the two other translators in the previous parts. The data for analyzing work are based on the following table and figure.

Table 4.3: Vietnamese Linguistic Means Used in Translation of Simple English Tenses by T3

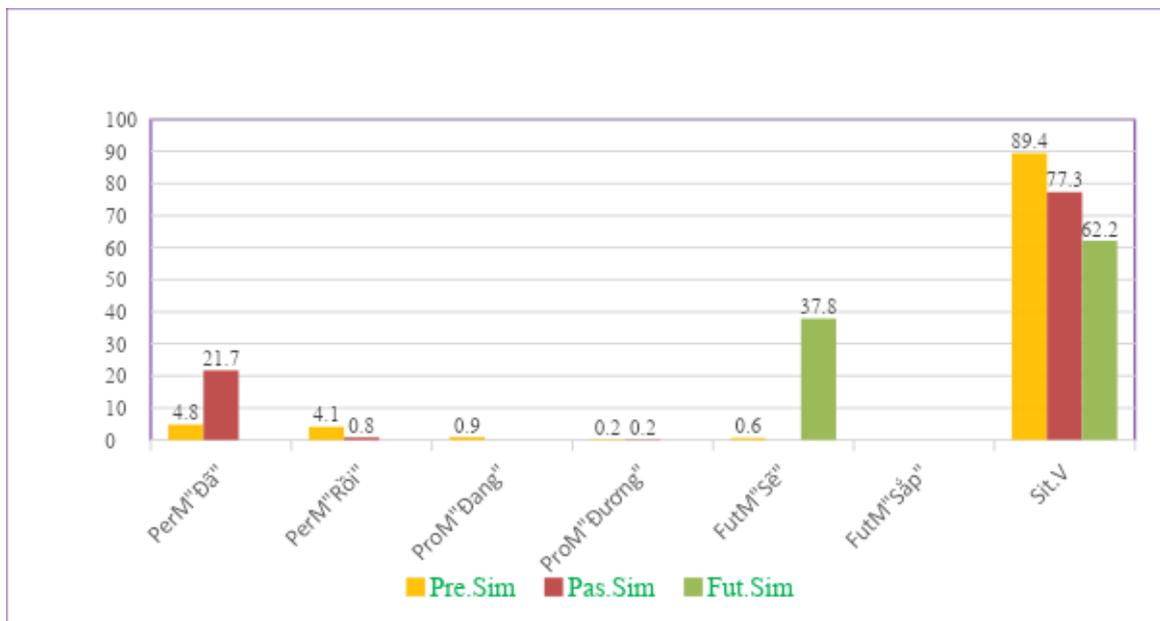
Source texts	Fre	Target texts						
Resources		Per M Đã	Per M Rồi	Pro M Đang	Pro M Đương	Fut M Sẽ	Fut M Sắp	S. Verbs



Present	Sim	660	32	27	6	1	4	0	590
Past		1387	301	11	0	3	0	0	1072
Future		82	0	0	0	0	31	0	51

Legend: Fre: Frequency; Per M: Perfective marker; Pro M: Progress marker; Fut M: Future marker; S. Verbs: Situation types of verbs; Sim: Simple

Figure 4.3: Percentage of Vietnamese Linguistic Means Used by T3



Observing the above table and figure, what can be clearly recognized first are the similarities in the utilization of situation types of verbs as the major means for translating the 3 English simple tenses by the 3 Vietnamese translators T1, T2 and T3. In considering the dissimilarities, the biggest difference among the translations is that the third translator T3 did not use any *sắp* perfective markers in his translation of English tenses. In practice, the future marker *sắp* is often used in Vietnamese to emphasize something that has been arranged or planned and will happen soon. Nevertheless, the future marker *sắp*, in practice, is not seen as a must to ensure that something will happen. Besides there are quite many other similarities and

differences compared to the previous two translation versions regarding tense translation and they will be made clearer in the following sections.

4.3.1. *The translation of the English simple present tense*

Like what were found out and concluded in the above part concerning the means of translation by T1 and T2, the English simple present tense was identified to have been translated into Vietnamese via most of the Vietnamese linguistic markers indicating tenses and aspects. The most used means which have ever been mentioned are verbs of situation types. This means type was found in 590 TL sentences out of 660 sentences (accounting for almost 89.4 %). The below example is taken as an illustration.

(68) Her hand, which **dangles** over the side, sparkles cold with jewels. (p. 188)

T3: Bàn tay bà ta, **buông thõng** sang một bên, lấp lánh lạnh lẽo toàn những vòng những nhẫn.

The activity verb *dangle* is in its simple present tense form and was translated into Vietnamese activity verb *buông thõng*. Apparently, not any Vietnamese linguistic markers or signs indicating tenses can be found in the TL sentence. Thus, theory of situation types of verbs by Vendler (1967) is seen as a proper and scientific explanation for this way of translation by T3.

Then the simple present tense sentences were found to have been translated by means of two Vietnamese past markers namely **đã** and **rồi**. These markers were used the second most after verbs of situation types. First with **đã**, this marker was seen used in 32 TL sentences (making up nearly 4.8%). It can be illustrated in the below example:

(69) ‘I suppose she **talks**, and - **eats**, and everything.’ (p. 20)

T3: Anh nghĩ nó **đã biết nói**, và... **ăn**, đủ chuyện **rồi**, nhỉ.



The verb *talk* in the SL sentence above is in its simple present tense, whereas it was translated into *đã biết nói*. **Đã** is a Vietnamese perfective marker used to indicate past tense activity and in this case it can be omitted without changing the meaning of the sentence. It was used for emphasis intention only. Besides, **rồi** is another perfective marker identified used in 27 TL sentences (accounting for almost 4.1 %). In addition, the translation of this tense by T3 is also different from that by T2 and similar to that by T1 as the two progress markers **đương** and **đương** were both used by T1 and T3 but only the progress marker **đang** was used by T2. In this case, **đang** is identified used in 6 TL sentences (accounting for 0.9%) like in the following example:

(70) ‘Philadelphia *wants* you on the phone, sir.’ (p. 58)

T3: Philadelphia **đang** đợi ông trên điện thoại, thưa ông.

The SL sentence is in present simple tense realized from the verb form of *want*. This verb was translated into a different verb regarding meaning *đợi* and a progress marker **đang** before it. Furthermore, though the progress marker **đương** was also used in just one TL sentence (making up nearly 0.2 %). It will be illustrated in the following example:

(71) There’s somebody that *needs* your help, Doc.’ (p. 114)

T3: Bác sĩ - một người **đương** cần sự săn sóc của bác sĩ.

The verb *need* is put in the simple present tense in the SL sentence and was translated into **đương cần** in the TL. The progress marker **đương** is, in reality, often used for progress tense. Remarkably, the progress marker **đương** is not compulsory in this example as it has been added for emphasis purposes.

In short, though the two Vietnamese perfective markers **đã** and **rồi** are normally employed to convey past tense activities, they were, in fact, used more frequently to convey present tense activities in the translation version by T3.



4.3.2. The translation of the English simple past tense

Comparing the translation of the English simple past tense by T3 with those by T1 and T2, it was found out that while T2 did not use either of the progress marker, T1 and T3 both used **đương**, one of the two progress markers. However, all the three translators T1, T2, T3 used verbs of situation types for their translation of the tense. The contrasting results of T1 and T2 have been mentioned in the above parts. From the table and figure, the situation types of verbs were used in 590 sentences (accounting for almost 89.4%). Thus, this type of verbs can be once more applied as an explanation for how the English simple present tense can be translated into Vietnamese. The following illustration can be taken as a proof:

(72) Human sympathy **has** its limits and (p. 145)

T3: *Sức cảm thông của người ta cũng chỉ có giới hạn.*

The state verb *has* in the SL sentence is in present simple tense and was translated into a Vietnamese state verb *có* in the TL sentence. Remarkably, the TL sentence shows no sign indicating tenses, though Vietnamese readers would find no difficulties in understanding the information in its tense correctly.

Besides, three Vietnamese markers were not used by T3 in translating the past simple tense namely the progress marker **đang** and the two future markers **sẽ** and **sắp**. But another perfective marker **đương** is identified used in three TL sentences (accounting for around 0.2 %) out of 1,387 sentences. Though it was very infrequently used, it can be firmly stated that the perfective marker **đương** can be employed to transfer the English simple past tense meaning into Vietnamese. The following example will illustrate:

(73) As I **waited** for my hat in the hall the door of the library opened and Jordan Baker and Gatsby came out together. (p. 57)

T3: *Khi tôi **đương** đợi lấy lại cái mũ ở ngoài hành lang, cửa phòng sách chợt mở và Jordan Baker với Gatsby cùng đi ra.*

It is clearly seen from the above example that the verb *waited* in the SL sentence is in its simple past tense form and when translated into Vietnamese it becomes *đương đợi*. In this case, the verb *đợi* is preceded by the perfective marker *đương* which is normally used to describe something that is happening; however, it was used to describe past tense, Vietnamese readers we can still understand the information is reported and the action *đương đợi* that happened at that context only rather than at the time of the report. Furthermore, the progress marker *đương* was also added just as an emphasis.

Then, the rest of the English SL sentences are found transferred to the Vietnamese TL sentences by way of two Vietnamese perfective markers *đã* and *rồi* as regards tense meaning transference. *Đã* is used in 301 TL sentences (making up nearly 21.7%). It can be seen in the following illustration:

(74) And the Catlips and the Bembergs and G. Earl Muldoon, brother to that Muldoon who afterward *strangled* his wife. (p. 67)

T3: *Rồi thì vợ chồng Catlip, Vợ chồng Bemberg, và G. Earl Muldoon, anh em với tay Mulloon sau này đã bóp cổ vợ cho đến chết.*

Đã bóp cổ was translated from the verb *strangled* in the simple past form in English. The perfective *đã* was put before the main verb *bóp cổ* to indicate past tense information. This means of translation is often used in practice and has been mentioned in the literature review of the current study. Apart from that, another perfective marker was also used by Trịnh Lữ that was *rồi*. This perfective marker is detected used in 11 TL sentences (accounting for almost 0.8 %). It will be illustrated as the below example:

(75) ‘I *heard* you, but I’d like to know when.’ (p. 137)

T3: *Tôi nghe rồi nhưng tôi không muốn biết đó là khi nào.*

Observing the above example, the verb *heard* in the SL sentence is in its simple past tense form and transferred into the verb *nghe* followed by the perfective



marker *rồi* in the TL. This perfective marker is often used to convey past tense information in the Vietnamese language.

4.3.3. *The translation of the English simple future tense*

In comparison with the other two translators coded T1, T2 in the current study, it can be obviously detected that T3 and T1 employed just two linguistic means in their translation which are situation types of verbs and future markers, whereas the perfective markers were also included in T2's translating means. The data of future simple tense are SL 82 sentences of which 51 sentences (accounting for almost 62.2 %) were translated into Vietnamese by means of situation types of verbs. The illustration is in the below example:

(76) 'That's good. Wilson *will have* a little business at last.' (p. 147)

T3: Tốt. Cuối cùng thì Wilson cũng có tí việc làm.

Looking at the above example we can see that the state verb *have* is in its simple future tense *will have* and it was translated into Vietnamese state verb *có*. Furthermore, in the TL sentence no sign of markers indicating tenses can be found, thus the explanation for how the English simple future tense can be translated into Vietnamese can be only relied on situation types of verbs. Finally, only one more type of marker which was used to translate the simple future tense into Vietnamese is the future marker *sẽ* found in 31 TL sentences (making up around 37.8 %) and is illustrated in the following example:

(77) Nowadays people begin by sneering at family life and family institutions and next they *will throw* everything overboard and have intermarriage between black and white.' (p. 138)

T3: Thời buổi bây giờ người ta bắt đầu dè bĩu.... rồi thì sẽ tung hê hết và để đen trắng lẫn lộn với nhau nữa đây.



As can be seen from the above example, the verb *throw* is in its simple future tense form as it goes with its preceding *will* then it was translated into *tung hê* in the TL Vietnamese language and preceded by the Vietnamese future marker *sẽ*.

With all the analyses of the above data of the present study, it can be firstly concluded that all the 6 Vietnamese linguistic markers hypothesized have been employed by all the three translators to translate the English tenses. Though, most of the English tense cases have not been transferred such hypothesized markers as *đã*, *rồi*, *đang đwong*, *sẽ* and *sắp*, explanations for that should be counted only on the natural equivalents of the situation types of verbs between the two languages. Secondly, in some cases the Vietnamese adverbs of times have been also utilized along with the markers or situation types of verbs. For instance, the translation of the adverb phrase *in two weeks* into *Hai tuần nữa* along with the translation of the state verb *be* in the example (78):

(78) 'In two weeks it *ll be* the longest day in the year.' (p. 14)

T2: *Hai tuần nữa là đã đến ngày dài nhất trong năm rồi*

The use of TA in the example (78) above illustrates very well the viewpoint by M. Grammont (1961) and M.B. Emeneau (1977) towards tense mentioned in the literature review part as they state that tense is not always realized in the Vietnamese language, it can be found in the expression of different lexical items such as TA.

Thirdly, the couple perfective markers *đã* and *rồi*, were seen both used in a sentence in quite many cases. Such cases as the example (79) may depicts:

(79) 'I suppose she *talks*, and - *eats*, and everything.' (p. 20)

T3: *Anh nghĩ nó đã biết nói, và... ăn, đủ chuyện rồi, nhỉ.*

In this example, if either the perfective marker *đã* or *rồi* was used the meaning of the sentence could still be clear enough. However, to make the meaning and the tone of the whole sentence become smooth, the two perfective markers have been



used. It is noteworthy that these two perfective markers were used to translate the verb in its simple present tense. Fourthly, the perfective markers were used to translate the simple past tense the second most frequently after the situation types of verbs. They have been even used to translate the simple future tense, though they were seen used in not many cases. Then the progress markers have been used to translate the simple present tense and the simple past tense. Besides, the present simple tense sentences have been translated via all the means groups namely the perfective, the progress, the future markers and the situation types of verbs by the three translators, though, there are slight differences with the using rates.

Furthermore, it is also found out that the two progress markers *đang* and *đương* haven't been used to translate the simple future tense. In checking the examples in the English simple tense to identify if two progress markers *đang* and *đương* can be used in replacement of other markers or means. We have found out that such replacements are impossible in reality as the meaning of the translated sentences will become unnatural or abnormal. For instance, in case of the illustrated example (80) below:

(80) 'In two weeks it *'ll be* the longest day in the year.' (p. 14)

T2: *Hai tuần nữa là đã đến ngày dài nhất trong năm rồi*

The example (80) in its simple future cannot be translated into such sentences as *Hai tuần nữa là đương/đang đến ngày dài nhất trong năm rồi*. If the two progress markers *đang* and *đương* were used in the TL sentence, its meaning would definitely become so odd. As a result, it can be concluded not that these progress Vietnamese linguistics markers cannot be used to translate the simple future tense. There are also cases in which the Vietnamese linguistic markers were merely used for emphasis purposes. Moreover, it is not surprising when perfective markers have been used for the simple future tense. It is truly an amazement that the perfective markers used to translate the English simple future tense are bigger than the progress markers. Finally, the explanation for how the English simple future tense



can be translated into Vietnamese is based mostly on the situation types of verbs. In other words, the English simple future tenses can be translated into Vietnamese without using any markers. In cases where the markers used are just for emphasis purposes as the meaning of the sentence can be easily inferred basing on the context of the situation.

4.4. The implicit meanings of the use or disuse of the Vietnamese linguistic means in the translation of the English simple tenses

From the same SL sentence, the English tenses and aspects were translated differently into Vietnamese equivalents regarding the use or disuse of the Vietnamese linguistic means or markers. The following discoveries are deemed to be the explanations for why the Vietnamese linguistic means or markers were used or unused by the three translators.

4.4.1. The meaning of the English simple past tense inferred from the time adverbial in Vietnamese

As mentioned in the literature review that some there exists a belief that the perfective marker *đã* can be used to indicate the past tense in the Vietnamese language. However, reality reveals a different fact, at least in the present study, as the study has found out that the meaning of past tense is not necessarily counted on the perfective marker *đã*. Instead, adverbials of past time are taken as equivalent indicators of the English simple past tense in Vietnamese. The following example might help make the point clearer.

SL	TL by three translators
(81) When I came back from the East <i>last autumn</i> I felt that I wanted the world to be in uniform	T1: <i>Mùa thu năm ngoái</i> , khi tôi ở Nữ Uớc về tôi muốn rằng hết thấy mọi người đều bận đồng phục và luôn luôn giữ một thể đứng tinh thần cứng nhắc

and at a sort of moral attention forever. (p. 4)	T2: Khi tôi ở miền đông trở về <i>mùa thu vừa qua</i> , tôi như muốn toàn thế giới đều mặc đồng phục và vĩnh viễn đứng ở tư thế nghiêng về đạo đức.
	T3: Khi từ miền Đông trở về vào <i>mùa thu năm ngoái</i> tôi đã có cảm giác mong muốn thế giới này phải vĩnh viễn Mặc toàn đồng phục và trong một tư thế kiêu như đang đứng nghiêng về đạo đức.

As can be seen from the above example, the English SL sentence is in its simple past tense form. The English tense in this case can be understood in the Vietnamese translation via the use of the Vietnamese equivalent adverbial phrase of past time *Mùa thu năm ngoái* used by both T1 and T3. Not any Vietnamese linguistic means or perfective markers such as **đã** or **rồi** were thereby used. However, it is the Vietnamese equivalent adverbial phrase of past time *Mùa thu năm ngoái* that helps convey the meaning of the English past tense into Vietnamese. Although another similar way of expressing Vietnamese equivalent adverbial phrase of past time such as *mùa thu vừa qua* was utilized along with the perfective marker **đã** by T2, the meaning of the English simple past tense in the Vietnamese translated sentence presents not much difference compared with translated sentences by the two translators T1 and T2. The perfective marker **đã** can be omitted in the translation by T2 without causing any changes with respect to the meaning of the transference of the English simple past tense into Vietnamese. Accordingly, the meaning of the simple past tense in this case can be inferred from the Vietnamese equivalent adverbial phrase of past time rather than from the perfective marker **đã**.

4.4.2. The perfective marker **đã** used as an emphasis rather than a means for translating the English tenses

The perfective marker **đã** is normally taken as a means to translate past tenses, the results of the present study; however, reveal a different use. The below examples



are the illustrations for that. The perfective marker *đã* is seen used in three different tenses namely the simple past, the simple present or the simple future tense. Although *đã* can be seen used in these three tenses, it should not be considered as the marker to convey the tenses or aspects meaning. Instead, it is the lexical items that help transfer the English tenses and aspects.

SL	TL by three translators
(82) ‘I can’t seem to remember, but I think we <i>talked</i> about the Nordic race. (p. 23)	T1: ...Tôi nhớ như chúng tôi <i>nói chuyện</i> về những giống người miền bắc
	T2: Em không nhớ nổi, nhưng hình như như em với anh Nick <i>nói chuyện</i> với nhau về giống người phương Bắc thì phải
	T3: Em không nhớ nổi nữa, nhưng em nghĩ bọn em <i>đã nói chuyện</i> về nòi giống Nordic

Looking at the above three examples, there are not any markers used by the translators T1 and T2, though the simple past tense of the verb *talked* can be understood thanks to lexical items like *Tôi nhớ như ...* by T1 or *Em không nhớ nổi, nhưng hình như* by T2. These lexical items already imply past events; therefore, the perfective marker *đã* used by T3 functions like an emphasis rather than as an indicator of past event.

Similarly, the below illustration is an example with the SL verbs *talks and eats* of the simple present tense.

SL	TL by three translators
(83) ‘I suppose she <i>talks</i> , and - <i>eats</i> , and everything.’(p. 20)	T1: Anh chắc rằng con bé <i>nói</i> ... nó <i>ăn</i> , và đã làm được nhiều trò rôi, em nhi.



	T2: Em không nhớ nổi, nhưng hình như như em với anh Nick <i>nói chuyện</i> với nhau về giống người phương Bắc thì phải
	T3: Anh nghĩ nó đã <i>biết nói</i> , và... <i>ăn</i> , đủ chuyện rồi, nhỉ.

The above illustration has its SL sentence in its narrative situation that's the reason explaining for the probable presence of the perfective marker **đã** included in the translation by T3. The presence of the marker in this case, however, is not compulsory as the translations by T1 and T2 do not contain this marker and the meaning is not affected.

Or **đã** used in the translation by T2 in the following case does not imply that this perfective marker is used to translate the English simple future tense.

SL	TL by three translators
(84) 'In two weeks it'll be the longest day in the year.' (p. 14)	T1: Độ hai tuần nữa <i>sẽ</i> có một ngày dài nhất trong năm
	T2: Hai tuần nữa là đã <i>đến</i> ngày dài nhất trong năm rồi
	T3: Hai tuần nữa là <i>đến</i> ngày dài nhất trong năm

The translation of the above SL verb in its simple future form by T3 into the word *đến* is understandable enough. Thus, **đã** *đến* is the translation by T2, which makes no difference regarding the meaning compared to *đến* by T3 in this context.

4.4.3. The perfective marker **đã** cannot be used for translating past tenses

The results of the study also disclose that in some cases the Vietnamese translation sentences from the English past tense do not contain the perfective marker **đã**. The following examples are taken as illustrations.



SL	TL by three translators
(85) He <i>broke off</i> , and suddenly I guessed at the truth. (p. 154)	T1: Hấn <i>ngừng lại</i> ngay và bỗng <i>tôi đoán ra</i> sự thật.
	T2: Gatsby <i>im bất</i> và đột nhiên <i>tôi đoán ra</i> sự thật.
	T3: Ông đột ngột ngừng lời, và tôi đoán ngay ra sự thật.

Looking at the above SL sentence, it can be seen that the sentence is in its English simple past tense with the past form of the verb *broke* or *guessed*. That SL sentence was translated into different equivalent sentences in Vietnamese without any perfective markers indicating the simple past tense by the three translators. What make these translations worth arguing is that if these translating sentences included a perfective marker like *đã*, the sentence would sound unnatural or even stunned. As a result, the perfective marker *đã* was not used by all the three translators in this context. In other words, the perfective marker *đã* cannot be used to translate the English simple past tense in some cases, otherwise the meaning of the translation will become incomprehensible.

4.4.4. The progress marker *đang* and *đương* used for translating past, present and future tenses but not compulsory

The progress markers *đang* and *đương* are just like the perfective marker *đã* mentioned in the section 3.4.2 as they are used for emphatic purpose. Let's look at the below illustrations.

SL	TL by three translators
(86) Gatsby indicated a gorgeous, scarcely human orchid of a woman who <i>sat</i> in state under a white plum tree. (p. 112)	T1: Gatsby chỉ một người đàn bà lộng lẫy, một bông phong lan, rất ít vẻ trần tục, <i>đứng</i> ở dưới gốc một cây mận như ở trên một ngai vàng

	T2: Gatsby trở một phụ nữ lộng lẫy như một chùm phong lan nhiều phần hoa hơn phần người, <i>đang</i> ngồi bất động dưới một cây mận trắng.
	T3: Gatsby chỉ một người đàn bà lộng lẫy như tinh vân hoa lan <i>đang</i> ngồi rất sang trọng dưới gốc cây mận trắng.

The above SL example shows the verb *sat* in its simple past form. The verb was translated into *đứng* in Vietnamese by T1 without any markers, however, it was into ***đang*** *ngồi* by T2 and T3. As stated in the afore part, the progress marker ***đang*** is often used to translate present tenses of a foreign language into Vietnamese, though in this case the English tense belongs to the past one. Judging the progress marker ***đang*** in this context, it can be said that the marker is redundant as regards meaning. Consequently, the marker can be purely considered as an emphasis. In other cases, it was also found out that some simple present tense sentences were translated into Vietnamese using the progress marker ***đang***. The below example is for illustration.

SL	TL by three translators
(87) Philadelphia <i>wants</i> you on the phone, sir.' (p. 58)	T1: Mời ông vào nói chuyện bằng điện thoại với Philadelphia.
	T2: Philadelphia <i>đang</i> đợi ông trên điện thoại, thưa ông.
	T3: Philadelphia <i>đang</i> đợi ông trên điện thoại, thưa ông.

The above SL sentence is in its simple present tense with the main verb *wants* which is translated into *Mời Vào*. Technically, the original meaning of the SL *wants* has been lost and replaced by a new verbs containing different meaning, though the intention of the message can still be reached. Besides, not any marker

can be seen in this Vietnamese translated sentence. Looking at the translations by T1 and T2, they are exactly the same. The two translated sentences both contain the progress markers *đang* which can be an optional marker in these cases as the meanings of the two Vietnamese translated sentences can still be achieved.

4.4.5. The disuse of the Vietnamese markers under the view of idiomatic preferences

As stated in the literature review part above, normally the meaning of an idiom cannot be inferred from its independent elements under a recognized grammatical norms of a specific language. To a certain extent, it ought to be understood from its origin context or situation. This can be clearly observed in the translations of the below example.

SL	TL by three translators
(88) ‘I came into a good deal of money.’ (p. 73)	T1: Tôi được thừa hưởng nhiều tiền lắm
	T2: Tôi được thừa hưởng nhiều tiền lắm
	T3: Tôi được thừa hưởng rất nhiều tiền

It is apparently that the idiom ‘came into a good deal of money’ cannot be understood and then translated literally into Vietnamese equivalents, instead it should be traced back in the original context of the situation. As the phrase verb ‘came into’ normally is to describe the movement into the inside space of a place and cannot be understood as ‘being inherited’ when being back translated from the Vietnamese translation ‘*được thừa hưởng*’. More important is that all the three Vietnamese translation reveal no difference as regards the time of the situation and no Vietnamese linguistic markers indicating tenses can be identified. The SL is in its simple past tense whereas its three equivalents in Vietnamese seem to be in present tense. However, these idiomatic equivalents in Vietnamese imply that the context belongs to the past.



4.4.6. The disuse of the Vietnamese markers viewed from different referential equivalence

SL	TL by three translators
(89) ... a snubnosed motor boat that bumped the tide off shore. It belonged to Demaine the oil man.' (p. 10)	T1: ...Chiếc xuồng của Demaine, một tay buôn dầu hỏa
	T2:Nhà ngày trước của Demaine, tay trùm dầu lửa
	T3:Trước đây đều là của Demaine, cái lão dầu hỏa ấy

Looking at the above illustrations the pronoun 'It' refers to the 'snubnosed motor boat' mentioned afore. When being translated by the three translators, it became different equivalents. It became 'Chiếc xuồng', 'Nhà ngày trước' and 'Trước đây đều...'. Therefore, analyzing with reference to tenses and aspects the two equivalents 'ngày trước' and 'Trước đây' by T2 and T3 respectively are the past time adverbials which help express the meaning of the English past simple tense in Vietnamese. However, using different referential equivalent, the translation by T1 shows unclear signal of tenses or aspects. In other words, it is hard to tell which tenses and aspects the English SL sentence belongs to if there are no linguistic markers to count on. However, in Vietnamese the narrative sentence in that context practically helps readers refer the context to the past one.

4.5. Summary

From the above data analyses of the translations by the three translators, it can be firstly concluded that the situation types of verbs are the major means for translating the English simple tenses and aspects into Vietnamese. These verb types are the crucial clues helping explain how the English simple tenses and aspects can be translated into Vietnamese in cases where not any of the other linguistic means such as the markers *đã, rồi, đang, đang, sẽ, sắp* or time adverbials are used. Secondly, the rest of the findings with the regard to the use of different Vietnamese

linguistic marker means to translate the English simple present tense, simple past tense and the simple future tense is quite similar to what have been stated in the literature review section. As Cao Xuân Hạo (1998) affirms that it is not difficult to encounter countless examples in Vietnamese discourse to illustrate that *đã* does not always imply past, or *đang* does not always refer to the present, or *sẽ* does not always mean the future. This expression of tense was also afore-mentioned by Đinh Văn Đức (2012). He states that *đã*, *đang* or *sẽ* are not only used to convey the meaning of “past”, “present” or “future”, but they are also used as situational means for emphasis purpose. However, it is surprising that while the perfective markers *đã*, *rồi* and the future marker *sẽ* have been used the most frequently among the markers for translating the simple past tense and simple future tense respectively, the perfective markers *đã*, *rồi* but not the progress markers *đang* or *đương* have been used the most frequently to translate the English simple tenses into Vietnamese.

Thirdly, the future markers *sẽ* and *sắp* were not used to translate the English past simple tense by any of the three translators. Therefore, it can be concluded that these markers must not be used to translate the English simple past tense into Vietnamese. Besides, it is found out that the use or disuse of the Vietnamese linguistic markers in translating the English simple tenses and aspects has its own implications. The first implication observed in the cases where the meaning of the English simple past tense can be deduced from the Vietnamese time adverbials in the sentence regardless of markers. Then, there are cases in which the perfective marker *đã* is used as an emphasis rather than a means for translating the English tenses as the translated sentence can still convey full meaning regarding tenses and aspects. Also, there are cases where perfective marker *đã* cannot be used for past tenses as the meaning will become odd or unnatural. Apart from that the data analyses show that in some cases, the progress markers *đang* and *đương* used for past, present and future tenses but not compulsory as these markers can be omitted without distorting the original meaning of the sentence. Furthermore, the study has

found out that due to idiomatic preferences of different translators the Vietnamese linguistic markers may not be used to translate the English tenses and aspects, though the meaning of the translation can be reached.

Lastly, viewing the same thing or phenomenon from different references results in different translations of the English tenses and aspects into Vietnamese without using and linguistic markers but using the time adverbials instead.

As stated in the afore-mentioned part of the literature review, the present study adopted the theory of tenses and aspects by Quirk, and Greenbaum (1973). Therefore, all the cases analyzed above belong to simple tenses with respect to finding the equivalent expressions in the Vietnamese language. What will be discussed below are analyses of the English complex tenses as concerning the progressive or perfective of the verbal action.

CHAPTER 5: THE FINDINGS OF THE TRANSLATION OF THE ENGLISH COMPLEX TENSES AND ASPECTS INTO THEIR VIETNAMESE EQUIVALENTS

The division of the English tenses and aspects into two main types: simple and complex based on the theory by Quirk & Greenbaum (1973) stated in the literature review. The findings of the translating means of the simple English tenses and aspects have been indicated in the chapter 4. Thus, this chapter 5 will present the findings of the translating means of the complex English tenses and aspects.

5.1. Translation of the English complex tenses and aspects by T1

In this section, the translation of aspects by T1 will be examined to contrast the means of expressing aspects between the two languages. The analyses will be based on the data illustrated on the following table and figure. The table represents number of different tense and aspect combinations in English and their equivalent expressions via different Vietnamese means of markers or situation types of verbs.



In addition, each figure is aimed to display the percentage of each Vietnamese translating means used to translate each English tenses – past, present and future.

Table 5.1: Vietnamese Linguistic Means Used in Translation of Complex English Tenses and Aspects by T1

Source texts		Fre	Target texts						
sources			Per M Đã	Per M Rồi	Pro M Đang	Pro M Đương	Fut M Sẽ	Fut M Sắp	S.Verbs
Present	Pro	44	2	1	1	3	2	1	34
	Per	62	16	2	0	0	0	0	44
	PP	13	5	0	0	0	0	0	8
Past	Pro	52	2	0	0	8	0	1	41
	Per	157	10	3	0	0	0	0	144
	PP	11	2	0	1	0	0	0	8
Future	BGT	25	0	0	0	0	12	1	12

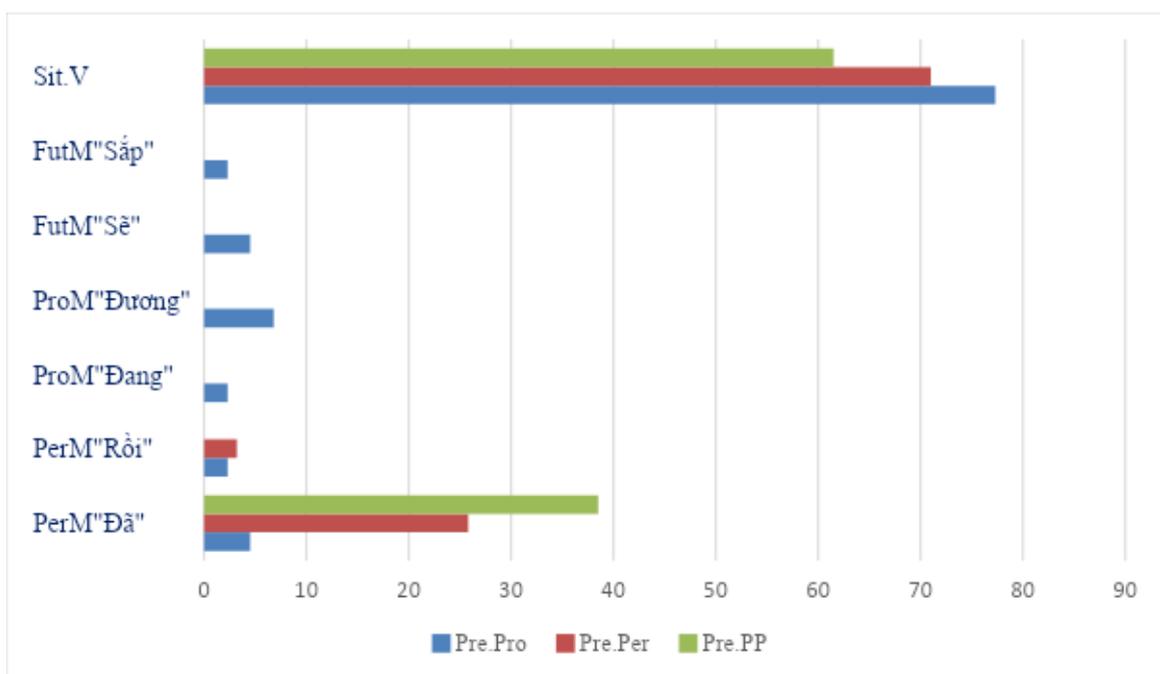
Legend: Fre: Frequency; Pre M: Present marker; Per M: Perfective marker; Pro M: Progress marker; Fut M: Future marker; S. Verbs: Situation types of verbs; Pro: Progress; Perf: Perfect; PP: Perfect progress; BGT: Be going to

5.1.1. Translation of the English present tenses

The present tenses that will be examined include the present progress tense, the present perfect tense and the present perfect progress tense. The data collected are graphically visualized in the figure below.



Figure 5.1: Percentage of Vietnamese Linguistic Means of Translating Present Tenses and Aspects by T1



5.1.1.1. Translation of the present progress tense

Overall, as can be seen from the table and figure above, the English present progress tense could be translated via all the means proposed in the study. Remarkably, the use of situation types of verbs again accounts for the highest frequency of all the means applicable for translating tenses and aspects discussed in

the present study. Out of 44 SL sentences up to 34 TL sentences (accounting for almost 77.3 %) were translated by means of situation types of verbs. The rest of the SL sentences were translated by 2 perfective markers **đã** and 2 future markers **sẽ** (accounting for nearly 4.5 % each), 1 perfective marker **rồi**, 1 progress marker **đang** and 1 future marker **sắp** (accounting for almost 2.3 % each) and 3 future marker **đương** (accounting for around 6.8 %). All the above Vietnamese linguistic means used to translate the English present progress tenses can be illustrated in the below table:

Means	ST	TT
S.Verbs	(90) 'I see you're looking at my cuff buttons.' (p. 78)	<i>Hình như ông ngắm khuy tay áo tôi?</i>
Per M "Đã"	(91) 'We're getting old,' said Daisy. (p. 136)	<i>Daisy nói: Chúng mình đã ra vẻ già rồi.</i>
Fut M "Sẽ"	(92) 'Daisy's leaving you.' (p. 142)	<i>Daisy sẽ bỏ ông.</i>
Per M "Rồi"	(93) 'Having a gay time now?' (p. 52)	<i>Bây giờ ông thấy vui rồi chứ?</i>
Pro M "Đang"	(94) The trouble is that sometimes she gets foolish ideas in her head and doesn't know what she's doing. (p. 140)	<i>Có điều là đôi khi nàng có những ý nghĩ lẩn thẩn, không biết mình đang làm gì.</i>
Fut M "Sắp"	(95) But I swore I wouldn't tell it and here I am tantalizing you. (p. 58)	<i>Nhưng tôi đã thề rằng không nói lại với ai thế mà tôi lại sắp bắt ông phải chịu cái cực hình của Tanale.</i>
Pro M "Đương"	(96) I understand you're looking for a business gonnegtion. (p. 76)	<i>Nghe như ông đương muốn kiếm một công việc.</i>

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Looking at the table, we can see that various Vietnamese linguistic means to express English tenses and aspects are used. Firstly, in example (90) the verb state *look* in its present progress form *are looking* was simply translated into *ngắm* in Vietnamese without any signs or indicators of tense or aspect. Thus, it can be explained via the use of situation types of verbs. Secondly, in example (91) the verb *are getting* was translated into *đã ra về*, though, in reality, *đã* is normally used to convey past tense information. Thirdly, in example (92) the verb *is leaving* was translated into Vietnamese *sẽ bỏ*. The future marker *sẽ* is considered to be used to convey future information in Vietnamese and in this case the information is in present progress. Fourthly, in the example (93) the verb *Having* is the short writing for *is having* and was translated into *thấy ... rồi*. *Rồi* is a perfective marker in Vietnamese conveying meaning of something has been done or completed in the past, however, in this situation, it was used in present progress by T1. Then, in example (94), the verb *do* is in its form of present progress *is doing* and was translated into Vietnamese *đang làm*. The progress marker *đang* is often believed to be used to convey information at present. Besides, in the example (95) the verb phrase *am tantalizing* was translated into Vietnamese *sắp bắt ... phải chịu cái cực hình của Tanale*. In the TL sentence, we can see the future marker *sắp* preceding the main verb *bắt*. This future marker is often employed to convey future tense information. Finally, the progress marker *đương* which is identified used before the verb *muốn kiếm* which is the translation of the verb phrase *'re looking for* in example (96) is often used to convey meaning of something is advancing or happening.

5.1.1.2. The translation of the present perfect tense

Looking at the above table 5.1 and figure 5.1, it is not surprising when the two couples of progress markers and future markers are seen not used for translating



these present perfect tense sentences. It is not surprising, either, as the verbs of situation types were employed the most by T1 in his translation, found in 44 sentences out of TL 62 sentences (making up 71 %). The rest of the sentences were translated by means of the two Vietnamese perfective markers *đã* and *rồi*. While *đã* is identified as used to translate the present perfect tense in 16 TL sentences (making up almost 25.8 %), *rồi* is used to accomplish the task of translation in 2 TL sentences (making up almost 3.2 %). The below table will illustrate all about the afore-mentioned data.

Means	ST	TT
S.Verbs	(97) When she's <i>had</i> five or six cocktails she always starts screaming like that. I tell her she ought to leave it alone.' (p. 114)	<i>Khi nào cô ta uống năm sáu ly cồctai là cô ta cũng la lên như vậy. Tôi mệt muốn chết khi cứ phải chạy theo dặn cô ta đừng uống rượu.</i>
Per M "Đã"	(98) A habit that <i>has opened</i> up many curious natures to me and also made me the victim of not a few veteran bores. (p. 3)	<i>Thói quen đó đã giúp tôi khám phá được nhiều tâm hồn rất lạ và cũng không tránh cho tôi khỏi bị những anh chàng chuyên môn đông dài đến quấy rầy.</i>
Per M "Rồi"	(99) I've <i>been</i> here too long. (p. 131)	<i>Tôi ở đây lâu quá rồi.</i>

As stated the present perfect tense was translated via just three Vietnamese linguistic means by T1 namely situation types of verbs, the perfective marker *đã* and *rồi*. Firstly, examining example (97) which shows that the state verb *has had* in the SL sentence was translated into an activity verb *uống* in the TL sentence without

any prompts indicating tenses or aspects. Secondly, example (98) with the verb *has opened* was translated into TL *đã ...khám phá*. *Đã* was included in the TL sentence to indicate the action has been done. Finally, the perfective marker *rồi* was used in the TL sentence of the example (99) while the verb *have been* was translated into *ở* in the Vietnamese TL along with the perfective marker *rồi* at the end of the sentence implying the action has been carried out. The perfective marker *rồi* is normally used to indicate something that has happened or happened in the past in Vietnamese. It is obviously hard to tell if the SL belongs to the simple past or present perfect tenses counting only on the perfective marker *rồi*. Thus, in Vietnamese the context is important to identify the time of the action or event.

5.1.1.3. The translation of the present perfect progress tense

Although the number of the present perfect progress tense sentences found in the SL are not so numerous, certain Vietnamese means of translation have been found to be able to embody the common practice of translation in Vietnamese. Seeing from the table 5.1 and figure 5.1, we can see that among 13 SL sentences, not any of the two pairs of progress markers and future markers are identified and used for translation and neither is the perfective marker *rồi*. The situation types of verbs are once again found used the most of the two of the rest translating means in 8 TL sentences (accounting for 61.5 %); whereas, the perfective marker *đã* is detected employed in 5 TL sentences (accounting for 38.5 %). The illustrations for these can be seen in the below table.

Means	ST	TT
S.Verbs	(100) <i>I've been trying to get you to New York all afternoon.</i> (p. 13)	<i>Cả một buổi trưa tôi nói hết lời để rủ cô đi Nữ Úc.</i>

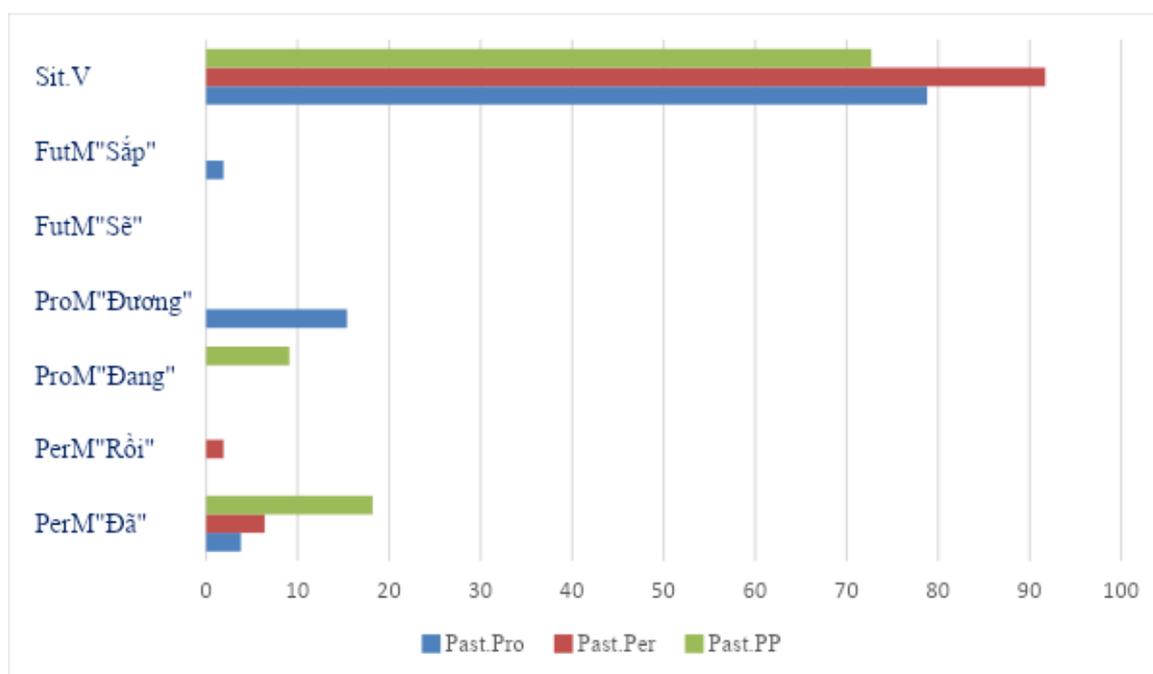
Per “Đã”	M	(101) Do you mean you’ve <i>been thinking</i> over what I proposed the other night? (p. 97)	<i>Như vậy có nghĩa là anh đã suy nghĩ tới việc tôi nói tới qua.</i>
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Example (99) is in its present perfect progress tense form with its main verb *have been trying* which is an activity verb and communicatively translated into another activity verb in Vietnamese *nói hết lời*. Looking into the whole TL sentence it is apparent that no signal of tense or aspect can be found, though TL readers can surely understand when the action is really taking place. However, example (101) with the verb phrase *‘ve been thinking* that indicates the verb in the present perfect progress tense has been translated into *đã suy nghĩ*. The perfective marker *đã* in Vietnamese is often employed to convey a past and completed action.

5.1.2. Translation of the English past tenses

The past tenses analyzed in the current study cover the past progress tense, the past perfect tense and the Past perfect progress tense and they are presented like in the figure below:

Figure 5.2: Percentage of Vietnamese Linguistic Means of Translating Past Tenses and Aspects by T1



5.1.2.1. Translation of the past progress tense

As observed from the above figure the past progress tense is discovered translated into Vietnamese by means of three groups of linguistic markers: the progress marker *đương* and future marker *sắp*, the perfective marker *đã* and verbs of situation types. The other markers proposed in the study are not seen used. Regardless of some TL sentences which have adverbs of time, consequently translated into Vietnamese equivalent adverbs indicating time, while most TL sentences collected do not include these adverbs, these past tense sentences were still translated into Vietnamese not via the use of perfective markers but via the use of progress or future markers indicating the action in progress. The employment of the progress marker *đương* is detected used in 8 TL sentences (making up nearly 15.4 %). The perfective marker *đã* is identified used in 2 sentences (accounting for almost 3.8%). If verbs of situation types are seen used in up to 41 sentences (accounting for almost 78.8 %), the future marker *sắp* is seen used in just 1 sentence

(accounting for around 1.9 %). The following examples will be clear illustrations. 2
3.8%

Means	ST	TT
Pro M “Đương”	(102) The silhouette of a moving cat wavered across the moonlight and turning my head to watch it I saw that I was not alone - fifty feet away a figure had emerged from the shadow of my neighbor’s mansion and <i>was standing</i> with his hands in his pockets regarding the silver pepper of the stars. (p.24)	<i>Bóng dáng một con mèo đi kiếm ăn uốn eo dưới ánh trăng. Khi quay lại nhìn nhìn theo con mèo, tôi bỗng thấy lúc đó không phải chỉ có một mình tôi - cách chỗ tôi ngồi chừng năm mươi bộ trong bóng tối của tòa lâu đài bên cạnh có một bóng người hiện ra hai tay bỏ túi đương đứng ngắm những vì sao rải rắc như bụi hồ tiêu.</i>
Per M “đã”	(103) I didn’t know I <i>was touching</i> it.’ (p. 42)	<i>Tôi không biết rằng đã chạm tay chỗ ấy.</i>
S.Verbs	(104) They were still under the white plum tree and their faces <i>were touching</i> except for a pale thin ray of moonlight between. (p. 115)	<i>Họ vẫn đứng dưới gốc cây mận, mặt sát kề vào nhau, ngăn cách bằng một sợi trắng mỏng mảnh.</i>
Fut M “Sắp”	(105) Wild rumors were circulating about her - how her mother had found her packing her bag one winter night to go to New York and say goodbye to a soldier who <i>was going overseas</i> . (p. 81)	<i>Có những tin đồn đại về cô ta - người ta nói nhỏ với nhau rằng, một tối mùa đông bà mẹ cô ta bắt gặp cô ta đương sắp</i>

		<i>vali để đi Nữ Ước tiến chân một võ quan sắp xuất đương.</i>
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Viewing from the above examples, the progress marker **đương** has been used before the main verb *đứng* to convey the meaning of the verb *was standing* in its past progress tense form in the SL of example (102). The example (103) with the verb phrase *was touching* in its past progress form was translated into *chạm tay*. The perfective marker **đã** was used to convey the meaning of a progress aspect in English. This means used in the situation seems not logical or relevant, it is, however, quite normal and acceptable in Vietnamese. The activity verb *touch* in its past progress form *was touching* in example (104) was translated into its Vietnamese equivalent activity verb *sát kê vào nhau* without any markers indicating tense or aspect within the rest of the TL sentence. The progress marker **sắp** added before the Vietnamese verb *xuất đương* as a way of indicating the future action, as this sentence is in the past tense, thus the progress marker **sắp** should be understood as way of expressing the aspect progress of *was going overseas* in example (105) instead of the past tense in the SL sentence.

5.1.2.2. Translation of the past perfect tense

It is found out from the figure above that only the perfective markers among the others have been used, though in small numbers, to translate the past perfect tense into Vietnamese aside from the situation types of verbs. Out of 157 SL sentences in the past perfect tense up to 144 sentences (accounting for almost 91.7 %) have been translated by way of situation types of verbs. Then 10 sentences (accounting for around 6.4 %) were translated via the perfective marker **đã** and the rest of 3 sentences (accounting for nearly 1.9 %) are translated by means of another perfective marker **rồi**. The following table contains examples as illustrations.

Means	ST	TT
S.Verbs	(106) I almost married a little kyke who'd <i>been</i> after me for years. (p. 38)	<i>Tỷ nữa thì tôi lấy một chàng Do Thái theo đuổi tôi hàng bao nhiêu năm.</i>
Per M “Đã”	(107) He <i>had seen</i> me several times and had intended to call on me long before but a peculiar combination of circumstances had prevented it - signed Jay Gatsby in a majestic hand. (p. 45)	<i>Ông ta đã trông thấy tôi nhiều lần, đã từ lâu muốn qua thăm tôi nhưng vì những hoàn cảnh bó buộc rồi rít thành không thể nào qua được. Tắm thiệp ký tên Jay Gatsby, chữ ký trông oai nghi lắm.</i>
Per M “Rồi”	(108) Everybody <i>had seen</i> it. (p. 69)	<i>Tất cả mọi người đều trông thấy rồi.</i>

Firstly, as can be seen from example (106) above the state verb *to be* in its past perfect tense form *had been* has been translated into Vietnamese activity verb *theo đuổi*. The type of verb has been changed and no markers indicating tenses and aspects though the meaning of the sentence in the context would not change much as it can still convey the full message of the sentence. Then, in example (107), the phrase verb *had seen* is in the past perfect form and has been translated into *đã trông thấy* in Vietnamese, in which *đã* is a perfective marker often used to indicate an action in the past. Finally, example (108) with the verb phrase *had seen* in the SL sentence is in the past perfect tense form and has been translated into *trông thấy rồi*. The perfective marker *rồi* at the end of the sentence normally indicates something that has been done or happened.

5.1.2.3. Translation of the past progress perfect tense



In seeking for the Vietnamese linguistic means used to translate the past progress perfect tense in English, it was found out that different means used for 1 SL sentences comprising 8 sentences (accounting for almost 72.7 %) to be translated by situation types of verbs, 2 sentences (accounting for nearly 18.2 %) to be translated by means of the perfective marker *đã*, 1 sentence (accounting for 9.1 %) to be translated via the use of the progress marker *đang*. Notably, no other kinds of markers have been in use except the ones previously described. They will be illustrated in the below examples.

Means	ST	TT
S.Verbs	(109) He believed that Mrs. Wilson <i>had been running away from</i> her husband, rather than trying to stop any particular car. (p. 169).	<i>Wilson muốn chạy trốn chồng, chứ không phải bà ta muốn cản một chiếc xe ở trên đường.</i>
Per M “Đã”	(110) It occurred to me that he <i>had been very slowly bending</i> toward her all evening (p. 115)	Tôi bỗng hiểu ra rằng suốt cả tối nay ông ta đã rất từ từ ngã đầu về phía cô đào.
Pro M “Đang”	(111) A massive and lethargic woman, who <i>had been urging</i> Daisy to play golf with her at the local club tomorrow, spoke in Miss Baedeker’s defence. (p. 114)	Một bà lừng lững cử chỉ lờ đờ, đang cố nài Daisy chơi gôn với mình ở câu lạc bộ địa phương ngày hôm sau, đỡ lời cho cô Baedeker.

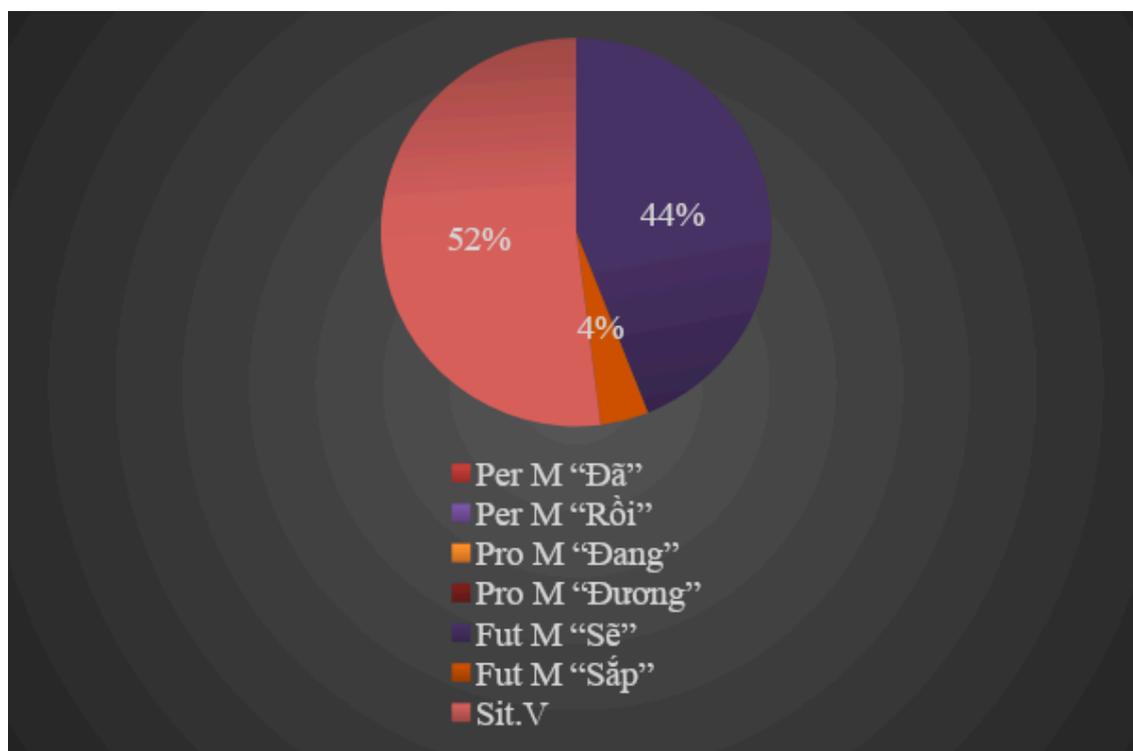
Seeing from the example (109) above, the verb phrase *had been running away from* in the past perfect progress form in which the infinitive form of it should be *run away from* – an achievement verb has been translated into Vietnamese equivalent *muốn chạy trốn*. Although the preceding *muốn* is a state verb according to Vendler

(1967), the meaning in the Vietnamese language would cause no barrier in understanding the information of the TL readers. Then in example (110), the verb phrase *had been very slowly bending* has been translated into Vietnamese using the progress marker **đã** before the Vietnamese verb phrase *rất từ từ ngã đầu về phía*. The progress marker **đã** is used in this case to convey the tense of past perfect only, whereas the aspect of progress is ignored, though this way of expression is very normal in Vietnamese. Finally, in example (111) the progress marker **đang** placed before the main verb *nài nỉ* to render *had been urging* in its past perfect progress. Thus, we can say that **đang** can also be used to translate the perfect progress tense.

5.1.3. The translation of “be going to”

The following pie figure is to visualize the data of the translation of “Be going to” translated by T1.

Figure 5.3: “Be going to” Translated by T1



“Be going to” structures are seen in the 25 SL sentences from the pie figure above. Not any of these sentences are detected translated into Vietnamese by means of the perfective markers or progress markers. Out of the 25 sentences 13 TL (accounting for 52 %) are discovered translated into Vietnamese via the situation types of verbs. Besides, the rest of the SL sentences are found translated by way of the two future markers *sẽ* in 11 sentences (making up 44 %) and *sắp* in just 1 sentence (making up 4 %). The following is the table for illustration:

Means	ST	TT
S.Verbs	(112) And I'm <i>going to run off from</i> you two young men before I outstay my welcome. (p. 78)	..tôi phải đi đây, không thể làm phiền các ông thanh niên được mãi..
Fut M “Sẽ”	(113) I'm <i>going to give</i> you this dress as soon as I'm through with it. (p. 40)	Khi nào tôi không cần đến nữa tôi sẽ biểu chi cái áo này.
Fut M “Sắp”	(114) At the request of Mr. Gatsby, we <i>are going to play</i> for you Mr. Vladimir Tostoff's latest work which attracted so much attention at Carnegie Hall last May. (p. 54).	Theo lời yêu cầu của ông Gatsby, chúng tôi sắp có hân hạnh được trình bày sáng tác mới nhất của ông Vladimir Tostoff, đã làm chấn động dư luận tại Carnegie Hall hồi tháng Năm.

As can be observed from the above table, example (112) with the main verb phrase *am going to run off from* in its “Be going to” form which is an activity verb and has been translated into *phải đi đây* in the TL activity verb equivalent; however, no prompt to indicate tense or aspect can be detected. Then in example (113) *I'm going to give* has been translated into *sẽ biểu* in Vietnamese. The future marker *sẽ* put

before the main verb indicating future action is normally understood as future tense expression in Vietnamese. Lastly, *are going to play* in the example (114) has been transferred into *sắp có hân hạnh được trình bày*. Another progress marker *sắp* has been used in this case to show an intention or a certainty of a future action.

5.2. Translation of the English complex tenses and aspects by T2

Similar to how English aspects are expressed in contrast with those in Vietnamese based on the translated sentences by T1. The Vietnamese linguistic means used for translating may vary differently between the two translators, though their translations would certainly cause no barriers to the TL readers in understanding.

Table 5.2: Vietnamese Linguistic Means Used in Translation of Complex English Tenses and Aspects by T2

Source texts		Fre	Target texts						
Resources			Per M Đã	Per M Rồi	Pro M Đang	Pro M Đương	Fut M Sẽ	Fut M Sắp	S. Verbs
Present	Pro	44	0	2	4	0	6	1	31
	Per	62	19	5	1	0	0	0	37
	PP	13	5	0	0	0	0	0	8
Past	Pro	52	3	0	12	1	1	1	34
	Per	15 7	12	3	0	0	1	0	141
	PP	11	3	0	0	0	0	0	8
Future	BGT	25	0	0	0	0	7	1	17

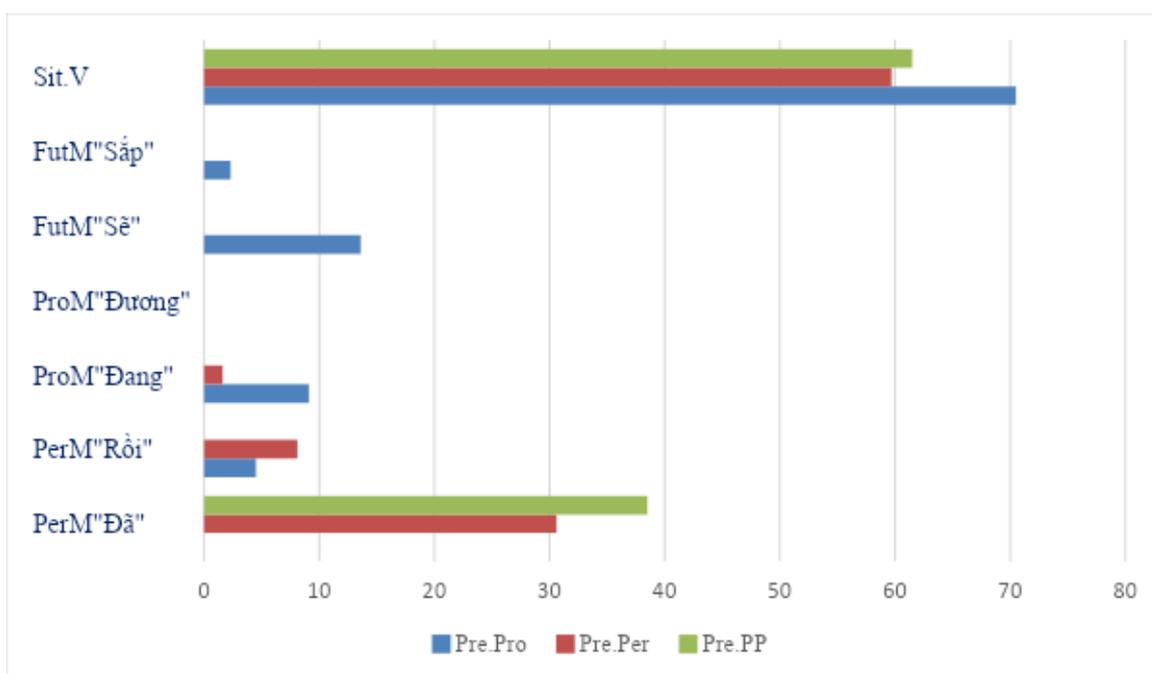
Legend: Fre: Frequency; Pre M: Present marker; Per M: Perfective marker; Pro M: Progress marker; Fut M: Future marker; S. Verbs: Situation types of verbs; Pro: Progress; Perf: Perfect; PP: Perfect progress; BGT: Be going to



5.2.1. Translation of the English present tenses

Likewise, the present tenses that will be investigated include the present progress tense, the present perfect tense and the present perfect progress tense. A figure below works as a tool to graphically visualize the collected data.

Figure 5.4: Percentage of Vietnamese Linguistic Means of Translating Present Tenses and Aspects by T2



5.2.1.1. Translation of the present progress tense

The translation means used to translate the present progress tense by T1 and T2 are quite different as, apart from the use of the situation types of verbs, most of the Vietnamese linguistic markers have been used by T2 in translating except for the perfective *đã* and progress marker *đương*; whereas all the linguistic means proposed in the current study have been used by T1 for his translation. Firstly, the situation types of verbs have been again employed the most frequently as being found used in 31 TL sentences (accounting for almost 70.5 %). These types of verbs have been working as the main scientific explanation for why various tenses and

aspects in various situations were not translated by means of different linguistic markers or other means, though they can be understood in the TL translated sentences. The second most used means are the future marker *sẽ* detected used in 6 TL sentences (accounting for nearly 13.6 %). Thirdly, the progress marker *đang* is discovered present in 4 TL sentences (making up around 9.1 %). Then 2 TL sentences (accounting for nearly 4.5 %) are identified translated by means of the perfective marker *rồi*. Finally, just 1 future marker *sắp* (accounting for nearly 2.3 %) is discovered. All these translation means used will be illustrated in the below examples.

Means	ST	TT
S.Verbs	(115) But I swore I wouldn't tell it and here I <i>am tantalizing</i> you. (p. 58)	Nhưng em nhất quyết không kể để anh phải tức lên vì tò mò.
Fut M "Sẽ"	(116) I'm <i>going to get</i> her away.' (p. 131)	Tôi <i>sẽ</i> lôi bà ấy đi.
Pro M "Đang"	(117) The trouble is that sometimes she gets foolish ideas in her head and doesn't know what she's <i>doing</i> . (p. 140)	Có điều là đôi khi nàng có những ý nghĩ lẩn thẩn, không biết mình <i>đang</i> làm gì.
Per M "Rồi"	(118) 'We're <i>getting old</i> ,' said Daisy. (p. 136)	Chúng ta già mất <i>rồi</i> , - Daisy than thở.
Fut M "Sắp"	(119) Civilization's <i>going to pieces</i> . (p. 15)	Nền văn minh <i>sắp</i> bị tan nát <i>rồi</i> .

Looking at the above table, the examples can be seen to illustrate the contrast in expressing the present progress tense between English and Vietnamese. While in the SL sentence of the example (115), the present progress tense is realized in the



verb phrase *am tantalizing* – to be put in the present tense in agreeing with the subject *I* and followed by the verb with ing-ending to become *tantalizing*, which means that the English verb is inflected, when translated into *để phải tức lên* in Vietnamese, not any clues indicate that of which tense or time point the situation is. However, Vietnamese readers all can understand the context of the incident. Then in example (116), ‘*m going to get* in the TL was translated into *sẽ lời*. With the progress marker *sẽ*, the meaning of the sentence as regards time of the incident will be made clearer. Besides, the progress marker *đang* in the phrase *đang làm gì* which is the translation of the verb phrase *is doing* in the example (117) indicates that the action is happening or in progress. Surprisingly, the perfect marker *rồi* was also used to convey aspect meaning in this progress aspect as can be seen in the translated phrase *già mất rồi* of the example (118). While in the example (119) the future marker *sắp* was used in *sắp bị tan nát* as the translation for ‘*s going to pieces*, this linguistic means is seen as common and suitable for this aspect in the context.

5.2.1.2. The translation of the present perfect tense

The next aspect of the present tense is the perfect one or commonly known as the present perfect tense which is the made-up of the tense at the present time and the aspect of perfect form. Looking at the above table it can be observed that there is a slight difference between the translators T1 and T2 regarding the use of linguistic means in Vietnamese to translate the English present perfect tense sentences into Vietnamese. Particularly, while T1 employed three types of translating means that are 2 perfective marker types and situation types of verbs, T2 employed 4 types of linguistic means namely 2 perfective marker types, a progress marker and situation types of verbs. Consequently, the frequency in the use of the same means also differs between the two translators. Considering the same perfective marker *đã* used, while Mặc Đỗ employed this marker 16 times in translating 16 SL sentences (accounting for almost 25.8 %), Hoàng Cường employed 19 times in 19 SL sentences (accounting for almost 30.6 %). Or with

another perfective marker *rồi* which was used in two sentences by T1 (making up about 3.2 %), whereas used in 5 sentences by T2 (accounting for nearly 8.1 %). Apart from that, the verbs of situation types though both used the most, they are also different in their frequencies of utilization, Specially, they discovered used in 44 TL sentences (accounting for nearly 71 %) by T1 but discovered used in only 37 TL sentences (accounting for nearly 59.7 %) by T2. Lastly, the progress marker *đang* was used in just 1 TL sentence (accounting for nearly 1.6 %), though this marker was not identified as used by T2. The following examples will illustrate the selection of linguistic means to translate the present perfect tense in the sentences by T2.

Means	ST	TT
S.Verbs	(120) But I've <i>put it down</i> here with the idea of exploding those first wild rumors about his antecedents, which weren't even faintly true. (p. 108)	<i>Nhưng tôi ghi ra đây để xóa tan những tin đồn lung tung về quá khứ của anh, những lời đồn ấy không có dù chỉ chút ít sự thật nào.</i>
Per M "Đã"	(121) Reading over what I <i>have written</i> so far I see I have given the impression that the events of three nights several weeks apart were all that absorbed me. (p. 61)	<i>Đọc lại những gì đã viết, tôi thấy mình đã làm cho người đọc tưởng rằng những sự việc trong ba đêm ấy, mỗi đêm cách nhau mấy tuần, là tất cả những gì tôi quan tâm.</i>
Per M "Rồi"	(122) Anything can happen now that we've <i>slid over</i> this bridge. (p. 74)	<i>Chuyện gì cũng có thể xảy ra được hết một khi đã qua chiếc cầu này rồi.</i>

Pro M “đang”	(123) I <i>have feigned sleep, preoccupation.</i> (p. 3)	<i>Tôi phải giả vờ ngủ hay đang bận chuyện gì đó.</i>
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In the example (120) above, it is to exemplify the translation of the ‘*ve put it down* in its present perfect form and was translated into Vietnamese without any markers indicating tenses and aspects and it was translated into *ghi ra* in the TL; therefore this translation means can be only explained by means of situation types of verbs. Then *have written* in the example (121) is also in its present perfect form translated into *đã viết* in the TL. The perfective marker *đã* was employed to convey the meaning of a completed action in the past, which makes the meaning seems natural in the TL culture. With the example (122), the present perfect tense verb phrase ‘*ve slid over* was translated into *đã qua rồi* in the TL. Both of the two perfective markers have been used to translate the present perfect tense meaning into Vietnamese and they don’t change the meaning of the information regarding accuring time of the action but they help emphasize the meaning of the completed action. This expression is popular in Vietnamese and poses no doubt in communicating information at all. The last illustration *have feigned sleep, preoccupation* in example (123) was translated into *giả vờ ngủ hay đang bận*. The progress marker *đang* commonly used to convey something that is progressing, however in this situation it is a past action and is being retold, as a result this marker was used and its translation can be understood without distorting the message.

5.2.1.3. The translation of the present perfect progress tense

The present perfect progress tense is the last aspect of the present tense deemed to be examined in this study. In comparing the translations between the two translators, it is surprisingly found out that the Vietnamese linguistic means used to translate the English present perfect tense are exactly the same. The reason

explaining this similarity can be due to the small number of the SL sentences taken for analyzing. Specially, although the number of the present perfect progress tense sentences found in the SL are not very diverse, certain Vietnamese means of translation have been used. Observing from the table 5.2 and figure 5.4, it can be seen that among 13 SL sentences, not any of the two pairs of progress markers and future markers are identified used for translation and neither is the perfective marker *rồi*. The situation types of verbs are also found used the most of the two of the rest translating means in 8 TL sentences (accounting for 61.5 %); then, the perfective marker *đã* is discovered employed in 5 TL sentences (making up 38.5 %). The illustrations can be seen in the below table.

Means	ST	TT
S.Verbs	(124) Tom turned to Daisy sharply. ‘You’ve <i>been seeing</i> this fellow for five years?’ (p. 140)	<i>Tom vụt quay lại phía Daisy: Trong năm năm nay cô vẫn đi lại với người này sao?</i>
Per M “Đã”	(125) I was bringing you that coupé we’ve <i>been talking about</i> . (p. 150)	<i>Tôi đem đến cho ông chiếc cu- pê mà ta đã nói với nhau.</i>

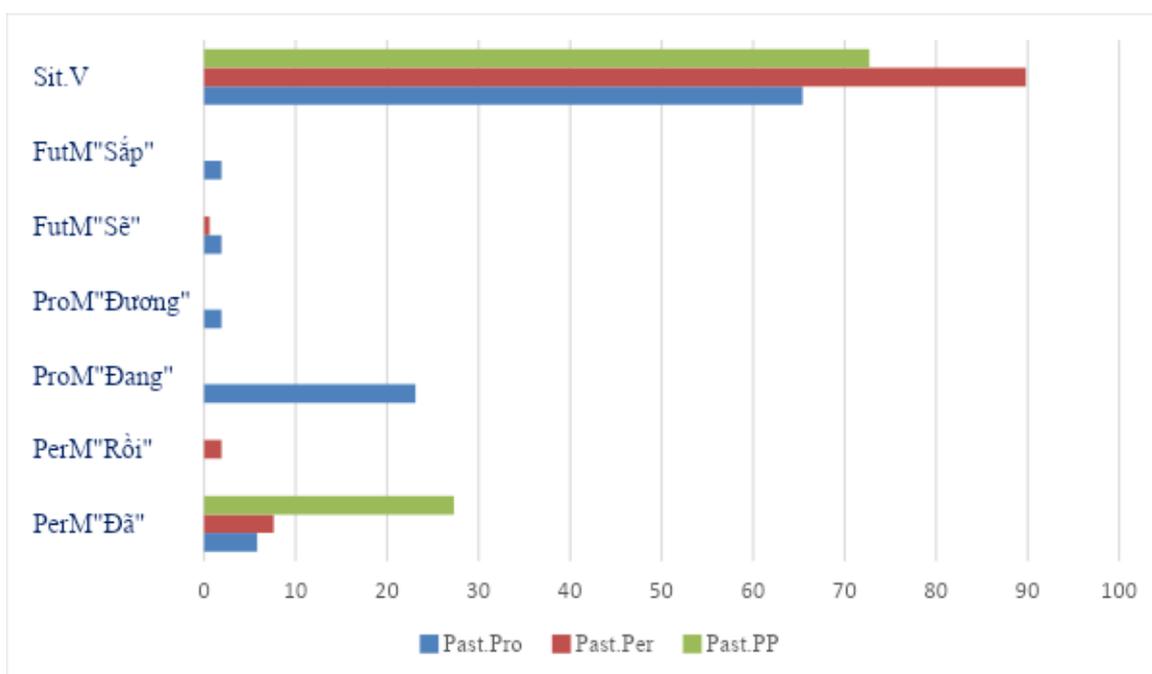
Example (124) is in its present perfect progress tense form with its main verb *have been seeing* which is an activity verb and communicatively translated into another activity verb in Vietnamese *vẫn đi lại*. Looking into the whole TL sentence it is apparently that no signal of tense or aspect can be found, though TL readers can certainly understand when the action is really taken place. Nevertheless, example (117) with the verb phrase ‘*ve been talking* that indicate the verb in the present perfect progress tense has been translated into *đã nói*. The perfective marker *đã* in Vietnamese is often employed to convey a past and completed action. Although the aspect of the sentence is of progress one, the perfective marker *đã* was used.



5.2.2. Translation of the English past tenses

As being mentioned in the afore section the past tenses analyzed in the current study include the past progress tense, the past perfect tense and the past perfect progress tense and they are presented like in the figure below:

Figure 5.5: Percentage of Vietnamese Linguistic Means of Translating Past Tenses and Aspects by T2



5.2.2.1. The translation of past progress tense

As observing from the above figure the past progress tense is discovered translated into Vietnamese by almost all kinds of means proposed in the study except for the perfective marker *rồi*. Such means used include: the two kinds of the progress markers *đương* and *đang*, the future markers *sắp* and *sẽ*, the perfective marker *đã* and the verbs of situation types. Regardless of some TL sentences which have adverbs of time, consequently translated into Vietnamese equivalent adverbs indicating time, while most TL sentences collected do not include these adverbs, these past tense sentences were still translated into Vietnamese not via the use of

perfective markers but via the use of progress or future markers indicating the action in progress. Astonishingly, the employments of the progress marker **đương** and the use of the future markers **sẽ**, **sắp** are detected all used in 1 TL sentences (making up nearly 1.9 %). While verbs of situation types are seen used in up to 34 sentences (accounting for almost 65.4 %), the perfective marker **đã** is seen used in just 3 sentences (accounting for around 5.8 %). Finally, another progress marker **đang** is discovered used in 12 TL sentences (accounting for around 23.1 %). The following examples will be clear illustrations.

Means	ST	TT
Pro M “Đương”	(126) He looked around him wildly, as if the past <i>were lurking</i> here in the shadow of his house, just out of reach of his hand. (p. 118)	<i>Hắn đưa mắt ngơ ngác ngó quanh như là dĩ vãng đương trốn ở gần đó trong bóng tối của ngôi nhà, chỉ xa hơn tầm tay với một chút.</i>
Fut M “Sẽ”	(127) Finally, he got up and informed me in an uncertain voice that he <i>was going</i> home. (p. 91)	<i>Sau cùng, ông đứng lên và thông báo với tôi bằng một giọng cương quyết, ông ta sẽ về.</i>
Fut M “Sắp”	(128) Wild rumors were circulating about her - how her mother had found her packing her bag one winter night to go to New York and say goodbye to a soldier who <i>was going overseas</i> . (p. 81)	<i>Có những tin đồn đại về cô ta - người ta nói nhỏ với nhau rằng, chị ấy đang khẩn gói để lên New York tiễn biệt một anh lính sắp phải ra hải ngoại.</i>
S.Verbs	(129) Gatsby, pale as death, with his hands plunged like weights in his coat pockets,	<i>Mặt tái mét như chết, hai tay thọc trong túi áo</i>

	<i>was standing</i> in a puddle of water glaring tragically into my eyes. (p. 92)	<i>nặng như hai quả tạ, Gatsby đứng giữa một vũng nước, nhìn vào tận mắt tôi với vẻ bi thảm.</i>
Per M “Đã”	(130) All the lights <i>were going on</i> in West Egg now; the electric trains, men-carrying, were plunging home through the rain from New York. (p. 102)	<i>Mọi thứ ở West Egg đều đã lên đèn, Những toa xe điện, đầy nhóc những nhà buôn chạy phăng phăng qua trời mưa, chở những người ở ngoại ô Newyork trở về nhà</i>
Pro M “Đang”	(131) His head leaned back so far that it rested against the face of a defunct mantelpiece clock and from this position his distraught eyes stared down at Daisy who <i>was sitting</i> frightened but graceful on the edge of a stiff chair. (p. 92)	<i>Hắn ngả đầu ra phía sau, gàn gỏi hẳn mặt vào chiếc đồng hồ chết. Giữ điệu bộ đó, hai con mắt lạc lõng của hắn chăm chú vào Daisy, đang ngồi ghé một chiếc ghế cứng quèo với vẻ e sợ mà vẫn kiêu diễm.</i>

With all the illustrations above, they can represent the various means of translation of the past progress tense used by T2. The first illustration seen in the example (126), the verb phrase *were lurking* has been translated into **đương** *trón* of which **đương** is a progress marker used to convey the progress aspect though in its past tense. Secondly, *was going* in the example (127) has been translated into **sẽ** *về*. Normally, the future marker **sẽ** is often used to convey the meaning of the future action, in this situation, however, it has been used and the meaning of the sentence still sounds natural causing no difficulties for the TL readers to understand. Thirdly,

the verb collocation *was going overseas* in example (128) has been translated into *sắp phải ra hải ngoại*. The future marker *sắp* was used to transfer the meaning of the progress aspect in its past tense. Fourthly, *đứng* is the translation of the activity verb phrase *was standing* in the example (129) and no clue under the presence of linguistic means can be found to transfer the progress aspect of the past tense, though this translation again poses no barrier in understanding. This can be explained pertaining to the theory of situation types of verb by Vendler (1967). Then, *were going on* in the example (130) has been translated into *đã lên*. The perfective *đã* was used indicate the action in its progress aspect. Finally, *was sitting* in the 131 illustration example, has been translated into *đang ngồi*, thus the verb is in its past tense but progress aspect can be translated into Vietnamese.

5.2.2.2. The translation of past perfect tense

It is found out from the figure 8 above that only the perfective markers among the others have been used, though in small number, to translate the past perfect tense into Vietnamese aside from the situation types of verbs. Out of 157 SL sentences in the past perfect tense up to 141 sentences (accounting for almost 89.8 %) have been translated by way of situation types of verbs. Then 12 sentences (accounting for around 7.6 %) were translated via the perfective marker *đã*, 3 sentences (accounting for nearly 1.9 %) are seen translated by means of another perfective marker *rồi*. Finally, only one sentence (accounting for nearly 0.6 %) observed has been identified to have been translated by means of the future marker *sẽ*. The following table contains examples as illustrations.

Means	ST	TT
S.Verbs	(132) I said lightly that I <i>had heard</i> nothing at all, and a few minutes later I got up to go home. (p. 23)	<i>Tôi trả lời nhẹ nhàng là tôi không nghe thấy điều gì cả, và mấy phút sau tôi đứng dậy ra về.</i>

Per “Đã”	M	(133) I knew now why her face was familiar - its pleasing contemptuous expression <i>had looked out at</i> me from many rotogravure pictures of the sporting life at Asheville and Hot Springs and Palm Beach. (p. 21)	<i>Bây giờ tôi đã hiểu tại sao trông cô ta quen thể-vẻ mặt càng càng đáng yêu ấy đã nhìn tôi nhiều lần trừ bức ảnh trên các báo trong mục đời sống thể thao tại Asheville, Hot Spring và Palm Beach</i>
Per “Rồi”	M	(134) After you <i>had gone</i> home she came into my room and woke me up, and said ‘What Gatsby? (p. 84)	<i>Anh đi rồi, Daisy vào phòng em đánh thức em dậy và hỏi “Gatsby nào thế?”</i>
Fut “sẽ”	M	(135) I think we all believed for a moment that it <i>had smashed</i> in pieces on the floor. (p. 93)	<i>Tôi nghĩ lúc nãy cả mấy người chúng tôi đã tưởng nó sẽ rơi xuống đất vỡ tan.</i>

Firstly, as can be seen from example (132) above the activity verb *hear* in its past perfect tense form *had heard* has been translated into Vietnamese activity verb *nghe thấy*. The type of verb has been kept unchanged and no markers indicating tenses and aspects though the meaning of the sentence in the context would not change much as it can still convey the full message of the sentence. Secondly, in example (133), the phrase verb *had looked out at* is in the past perfect form and has been translated into *đã nhìn* in Vietnamese, in which *đã* is a perfective marker often used to indicate an action in the past. Then, in example (134) the verb phrase *had gone* in its past perfect form has been translated into *đi rồi*, in which the perfective marker *rồi* commonly used to convey something that has completed or been finished. Finally, example (135) with the verb phrase *had smashed* in the SL

sentence is in the past perfect tense form and has been translated into *sẽ rồi*. The future marker *sẽ* added before the verb *rồi* in the sentence normally indicating something will be done or happen in the future but used in this situation to convey the perfect aspect of the past tense implying that it is so flexible in using markers in Vietnamese.

5.2.2.3. The translation of past perfect progress tense

Observing the Vietnamese linguistic means used to translate the past perfect progress tense in English, it was found out that different means used for 1 SL sentences comprising 8 sentences (accounting for almost 72.7 %) to be translated by situation types of verbs, 3 sentences (accounting for nearly 27.3 %) to be translated by means of the perfective marker *đã*. Thus, means of translation employed by T2 are exactly the same as that by T1 as not any other kinds of markers are seen to be in use excluding the ones afore-mentioned. They will be illustrated in the below examples.

Means	ST	TT
S.Verbs	(136) He <i>had been coasting</i> along all too hospitable shores for five years when he turned up as James Gatz's destiny at Little Girl Bay. (p. 106)	<i>Ông lang thang qua các bờ biển quá đỗi hiếu khách trong năm năm rồi mới xuất hiện thành số phận của James Gatz tại vịnh Bé Gái. (p. 142)</i>
Per M "Đã"	(137) For over a year he <i>had been beating</i> his way along the south shore of Lake Superior as a clam digger and a salmon fisher or in any other capacity that brought him food and bed. (p. 105)	<i>Trước đó hơn một năm, anh đã lặn lội kiếm sống ở mạn phía nam Hồ Thượng, bắt ngao và đánh cá hoặc làm bất cứ</i>

		<i>nghe gi dem lai mieng com manh chieu.</i>
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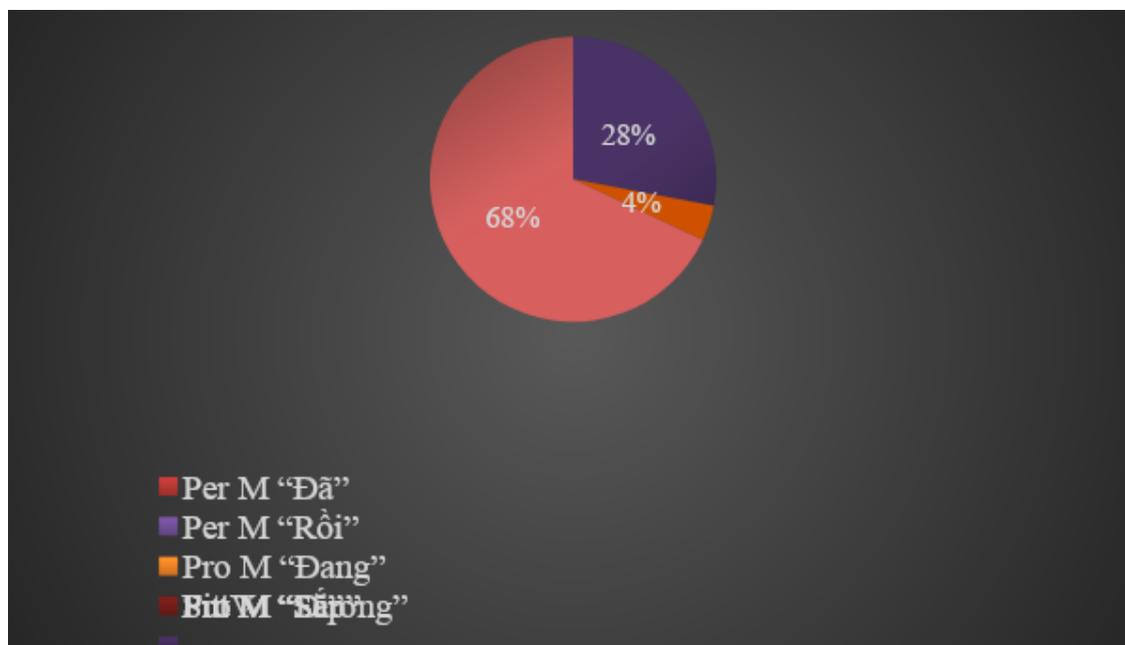
Viewing from the example (136) above, the verb phrase *had been coasting* in the past perfect progress form in which its infinitive form should be *coast* – an activity verb has been translated into Vietnamese equivalent *lang thang*. The two verbs in the two languages belong to activity verb according to Vendler (1967), thus meaning in the Vietnamese language would cause no barrier in understanding the information of the target language readers. Then in example (137), the verb phrase *had been beating* has been translated into Vietnamese using the progress marker *đã* before the Vietnamese verb phrase *lặn lội kiếm sống*. The progress marker *đã* is used in this case seems to convey the tense of past perfect only, whereas the aspect progress is ignored, though this way of expression is very normal in Vietnamese.

5.2.3. The translation of “Be going to”

The data of the translation of “Be going to” translated by T1 is visualized in the following pie figure.



Figure 5.6 : “Be going to” Translated by T2



Quite different from the Vietnamese linguistic means used by T1 to translate the be going to or “Be going to” into Vietnamese, it is observed from the pie figure above that among all the means esteemed in the study, only two of them have been used by T2 in his translation. Viewing the 25 SL sentences from the pie figure above, not any of these sentences are detected translated into Vietnamese by means of by the perfective markers or progress markers. 18 TL sentences (accounting for 72 %) out of the 25 sentences are discovered translated into Vietnamese via situation types of verbs, which is a bit bigger than the number of translated sentences via the same means employed by T1 – 11 TL sentences. Then, the rest of the SL sentences are found translated by way of one of the two future markers *sẽ* in 7 sentences (making up 28 %) and the other future marker *sắp* is not identified used in cases. The following table is for their illustrations.

Means	ST	TT

S.Verbs	(138) ‘ <i>Are we just going to go?</i> ’ she objected. (p. 127)	Ai lại cứ <i>đi ngay</i> như thế này? – nàng phản đối
Fut M “Sẽ”	(139) ‘ <i>I’m going to fix everything just the way it was before,</i> ’ he said, nodding determinedly. (p. 118)	Tôi <i>sẽ sắp xếp</i> cho mọi chuyện trở lại đúng y như kia, - Anh hát đầu một cách kiên quyết.

It can be observed from the above table that the example (138) with the main verb phrase *Are going to go* in its “Be going to” form which is an activity verb and has been translated into *đi ngay* in the TL activity verb equivalent; nonetheless, not any prompts to indicate tense or aspect can be recognized. Lastly, in example (139) *I’m going to fix* has been translated into *sẽ sắp xếp* in Vietnamese. The future marker *sẽ* put before the main verb indicating future action is normally understood as future tense expression in Vietnamese.

5.3. Translation of the complex English tenses and aspects by T3

Trịnh Lữ previously coded T3 is the last of the 3 translators has been inspected in the current study. Thus, identical to the investigation of how English aspects have been rendered into Vietnamese equivalents by T1 and T2, the Vietnamese linguistic means used for translating may vary dissimilarly among the three translators. Their translations, however, would definitely cause no barriers to the TL readers in perceiving the plot of the SL novel.

Table 5.3: Vietnamese Linguistic Means Used in Translation of Complex English Tenses and Aspects by T3

Source texts	Fre	Target texts						
Resources		Per M Đã	Per M Rồi	Pro M Đang	Pro M Đương	Fut M Sẽ	Fut M Sắp	S. Verbs

Present	Pro	44	0	1	17	0	7	1	26
	Per	62	24	6	1	0	0	0	31
	PP	13	3	0	0	0	0	0	10
Past	Pro	52	1	0	24	1	1	2	23
	Per	157	16	3	1	0	0	1	136
	PP	11	2	0	4	0	0	0	5
Future	BGT	25	0	0	0	0	8	1	16

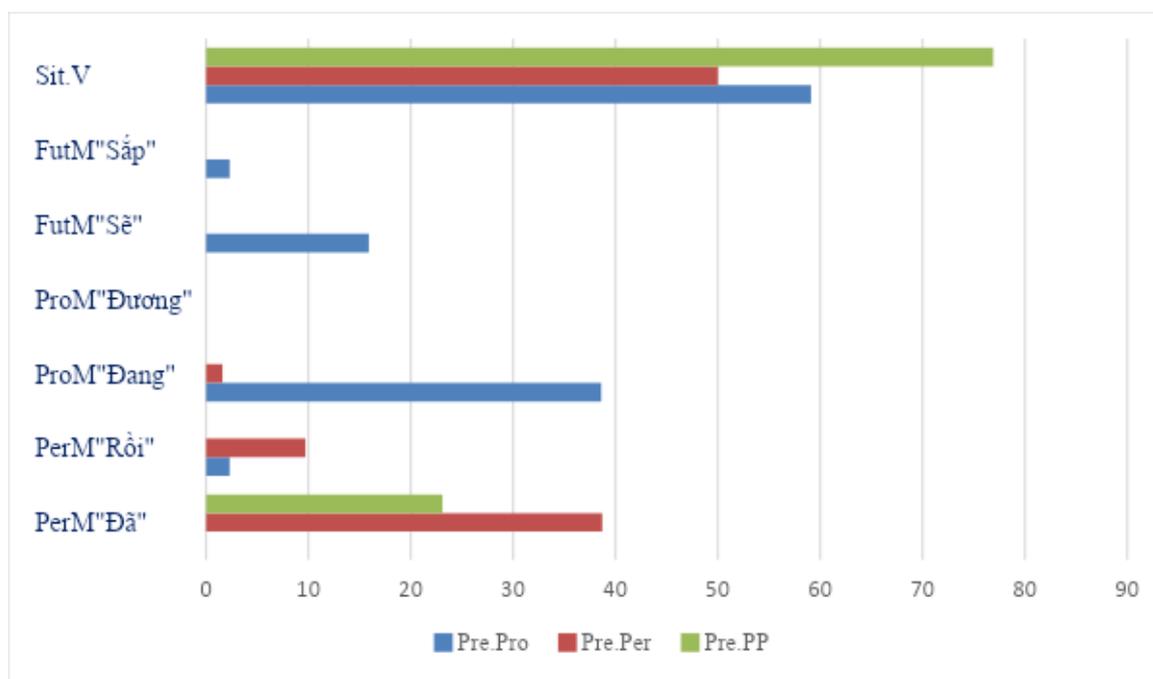
Legend: Fre: Frequency; Pre M: Present marker; Per M: Perfective marker; Pro M: Progress marker; Fut M: Future marker; S. Verbs: Situation types of verbs; Pro: Progress; Perf: Perfect; PP: Perfect progress; BGT: Be going to

5.3.1. Translation of the English present tenses

Similarly, the combination of tenses and aspects examined is in such a sequence as the present progress tense, the present perfect tense and the present perfect progress tense. The figure below is to graphically visualized the contrast of the collected data.



Figure 5.7: Percentage of Vietnamese Linguistic Means of Translating Present Tenses and Aspects by T3



5.3.1.1. Translation of the present progress tense

It can be seen from the figure above that the translating means used to translate the present progress tense by T3 are similar to that by T2 as, apart from the use of the situation types of verbs, most of the Vietnamese linguistic markers have been used by T3 in translating except for the perfective *đã* and progress marker *đương*; whereas the means are different from that by T1 as all the linguistic means proposed in the current study have been used by T1 for his translation. Firstly, the situation types of verbs have been employed for translating the English tenses and aspects the most frequently, though a bit less frequently compared with those by T1 found in 34 TL and by T2 found in 31 TL, as being found used in 26 TL sentences (accounting for almost 59.1 %). These types of verbs have been once more working as the main scientific explanation for why various tenses and aspects in various situations were not translated by means of different linguistic markers or other

means, though they can be understood in the TL translated sentences. The second most used means are the progress marker *đang* detected used in 17 TL sentences (accounting for nearly 38.6 %). Thirdly, the future marker *sẽ* discovered present in 7 TL sentences (making up around 15.9 %). Then 1 TL sentences (accounting for nearly 2.3 %) are identified translated by means of the perfective marker *rồi*. Finally, the future marker *sắp* has been also used (accounting for nearly 2.3 %) is discovered used. All these translation means used will be illustrated in the below examples.

Means	ST	TT
S.Verbs	(140) ‘Where <i>are you going?</i> ’ demanded Gatsby in immediate alarm. (p. 93)	<i>Ông đi đâu thế. Gatsby hốt hoảng.</i>
Fut M “Sẽ”	(141) ‘And don’t forget we’re <i>going up</i> in the hydro-plane tomorrow morning at nine o’clock.’ (p. 58)	<i>Và đừng quên chúng ta sẽ cùng đi ca nô cánh ngầm với nhau sáng mai, chín giờ nhé.</i>
Pro M “Đang”	(142) You’re <i>selling</i> bonds, aren’t you, old sport?’ (p. 88)	<i>Mà ông đang bán cổ phiếu, phải không ông bạn?</i>
Per M “Rồi”	(143) ‘ <i>Having a gay time now?</i> ’ (p. 52)	<i>Giờ thì vui vẻ rồi chứ?</i>
Fut M “Sắp”	(144) ‘A fellow’s <i>getting off</i> some funny stuff.’ (p. 113)	<i>Có anh chàng sắp tiết lộ mấy chuyện vui lắm.</i>

Observing illustrated examples above which depict the use of different linguistic means to transfer the meaning of the English present progress tense into Vietnamese, five different means have been employed by T3. Firstly, the example of using situation types of verbs to translate as in (140) the verb phrase *are ... going* in its present progress form has been translated into *đi* without any markers or means implicating the tense or aspect though the meaning of the sentence can be

understood with ease. Then in example (141), *'re going* in the TL was translated into *sẽ ... đi*. With the progress marker *sẽ*, the meaning of the sentence regarding the time of the action will be emphasized. Besides, the progress marker *đang* in the phrase *đang bán* which is the translation of the verb phrase *'re selling* in the example (142) indicates that the action is happening or in progress. Surprising as it is with the use of the perfect marker *rồi* to convey aspect meaning in this progress aspect as can be seen in the translated phrase *vui vẻ rồi* in example (143). *Rồi*, the marker often used to indicate something that has been done, however, in this context this marker was used. In the example (144), While the future marker *sắp* was used in *sắp tiết lộ* as the translation for *'s getting off*, this linguistic means is seen as common and suitable for this aspect in the context.

5.3.1.2. The translation of the present perfect tense

The present perfect tense is the next aspect of the present tense which is the made-up of the tense at the present time and the aspect of perfect form. Looking at the figure 10 above, it is observed that there is a slight difference between the translators T3 and T1 regarding the use of linguistic means in Vietnamese to translate the English present perfect tense sentences into Vietnamese. Particularly, while T1 employed three types of translating means that are 2 perfective marker types and situation types of verbs, T3 employed 4 types of linguistic means namely 2 perfective marker types, a progress marker and situation types of verbs. As a result, the linguistic means use for translation by T3 is similar to those by T2. However, the frequency in the use of the same means also differs between the two translators T2 and T3. Considering the same perfective marker *đã* used, while T2 employed 19 times in 19 SL sentences (accounting for almost 30.6 %), T3 used 24 times (accounting for almost 38.7 %) of the perfective marker *đã*. Or with another perfective marker *rồi* which was used in six sentences by T3 (making up about 9.7 %), whereas used in 5 sentences by T2 (accounting for nearly 8.1 %). But for that, the verbs of situation types though both used the most, they also differ in their

frequencies of utilization. Notably, they discovered used in 31 TL sentences (accounting for nearly 50 %) by T3 but discovered used in up to 37 TL sentences (accounting for nearly 59.7 %) by T2. Lastly, the progress marker *đang* was used in just 1 TL sentence (accounting for nearly 1.6 %) by T3, which is just the same with that by T1, though this marker was not discovered utilised by T2. The following examples serve as the illustrations for the selection of linguistic means to translate the present perfect tense in the sentences by T3.

5.3.1.3. The translation of the present perfect progress tense

The last aspect of the present tense is the present perfect progress tense to be considered in the present study. In comparing the translations by the three translators, it is discovered that while the Vietnamese linguistic means used to translate the English present perfect tense are exactly the same between T1 and T2, the Vietnamese linguistic means used for translating by T3 is different from those by T1 and T2. Although there appear differences in the use of the available means in translation, the original meaning or messages have not been changed. Besides, the number of the present perfect progress tense sentences found in the SL are not very numerous, certain Vietnamese means of translation have been notified used. Viewing from the table 17 and figure 10 above, it can be seen that among 13 SL sentences, not any of the two pairs of progress markers and future markers are identified used for translation and the perfective marker *rồi* is neither. The situation types of verbs are again found used the most of the two of the rest translating means in 10 TL sentences (accounting for almost 76.9 %); then, the perfective marker *đã* is discovered employed in 3 TL sentences (making up about 23.1 %). The illustrations are as follows.

Means	ST	TT
S.Verbs	(145) That's why I've been bothering you about the car.' (p. 132)	<i>Đó là tại sao tôi lại làm phiền ông về cái xe.</i>

Per “Đã”	M (146) ‘Do you mean you’ve <i>been thinking</i> over what I proposed the other night?’ (p. 97)	‘ <i>Có phải ông muốn nói là ông đã nghĩ kỹ về lời đề nghị tối qua của tôi không?</i> ’

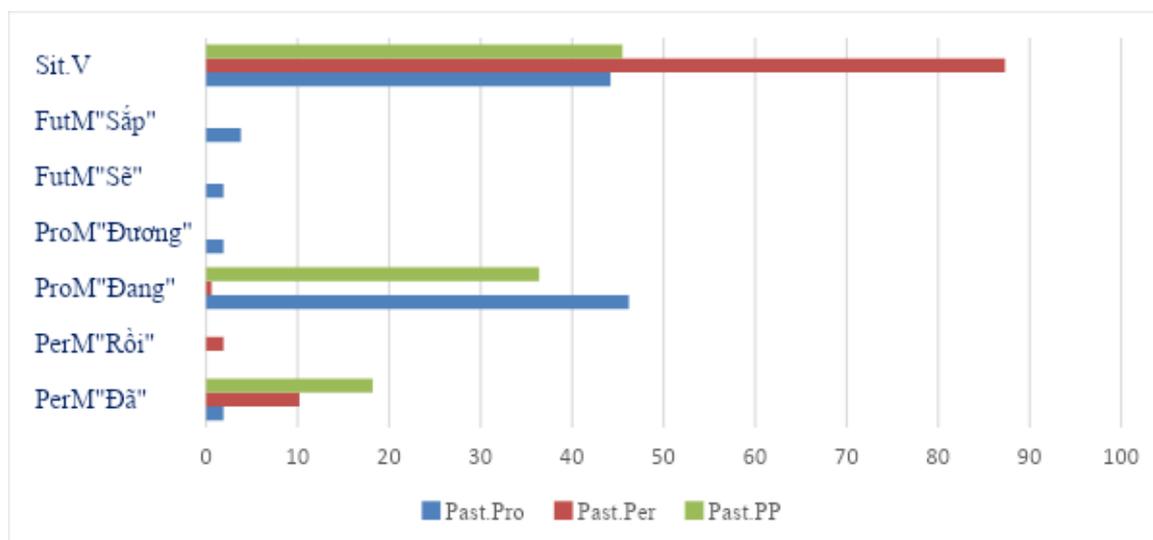
As can be found from the example (145), the main verb *bother* is in its present perfect progress tense form: *have been bothering* which is an activity verb and communicatively translated into another activity verb in Vietnamese *làm phiền*. Examining the whole TL sentence it is as if that no signal of tense or aspect can be found, though TL readers can definitely understand when the action is really taken place. Even so, example (146) with the verb phrase ‘*ve been thinking* that indicate the verb in the present perfect progress tense has been translated into *đã nghĩ kỹ*. The perfective marker *đã* in Vietnamese is often employed to convey a past and completed action. The perfective marker *đã* was used, though the aspect of the sentence is of progress one.

5.3.2. Translation of the English past tenses

Alike with the aspects translated by T1 and T2, the ones by T3 consist of the past progress tense, the past perfect tense and the Past perfect progress tense and they are visualized in the figure below:



Figure 5.8: Percentage of Vietnamese Linguistic Means of Translating Past Tenses and Aspects by T3



5.3.2.1. Translation of the past progress tense

As can be seen from the above figure the past progress tense is discovered translated into Vietnamese by almost all kinds of means proposed in the study except for the perfective marker *rồi*. Hence, the three translators all have not used this perfective marker. Such linguistic means which are seen used include: the two kinds of the progress markers *đương* and *đang*, the future markers *sắp* and *sẽ*, the perfective marker *đã* and the verbs of situation types. Be that as it may, some TL sentences which have adverbs of time, consequently translated into Vietnamese equivalent adverbs in dicating time, while most TL sentences collected do not include these adverbs, these past tense sentences were still translated into Vietnamese not by way of perfective markers but by way of progress or future markers showing the action in progress. It is also surprising that, the employments of the progress marker *đương* and the use of the future markers *sẽ*, and the perfective marker *đã* are discovered all used in 1 TL sentences (making up nearly 1.9 %). Verbs of situation types are seen used in just 23 translated sentences (accounting for almost 44.2 %), whereas the progress marker *đang* is seen used in

up to 24 sentences (accounting for around 46.2 %). Finally, another future marker *sắp* is discovered used in 2 TL sentences (accounting for around 3.8 %). The following examples will provide clear illustrations.

Means	ST	TT
Pro M “Đương”	(147) The silhouette of a moving cat wavered across the moonlight and turning my head to watch it I saw that I was not alone – fifty feet away a figure had emerged from the shadow of my neighbor’s mansion and <i>was standing</i> with his hands in his pockets regarding the silver pepper of the stars. (p. 24)	<i>Bóng dáng một con mèo đi kiếm ăn uốn eo dưới ánh trăng. Khi quay lại nhìn nhìn theo con mèo, tôi bỗng thấy lúc đó không phải chỉ có một mình tôi - cách chỗ tôi ngồi chừng năm mươi bộ trong bóng tối của tòa lâu đài bên cạnh có một bóng người hiện ra hai tay bỏ túi đương đứng ngắm những vì sao rải rắc như bụi hồ tiêu.</i>
Fut M “Sẽ”	(148) Finally, he got up and informed me in an uncertain voice that he <i>was going home</i> . (p. 91)	<i>Cuối cùng ông đứng lên và thông báo với tôi bằng một giọng ngập ngừng rằng ông sẽ về nhà thôi.</i>
Fut M “Sắp”	(149) I had that familiar conviction that life <i>was beginning</i> over again with the summer. (p. 6)	<i>Tôi lại tin rằng cuộc sống đang sắp khởi sự lại từ đầu với mùa hè này- một niềm tin quen thuộc.</i>

S.Verbs	(150) I didn't know I <i>was touching</i> it.' (p. 42)	<i>Tôi không biết là mình đụng phải nó.</i>
Perfective M “Đã”	(151) All the lights <i>were going on</i> in West Egg now; the electric trains, men-carrying, were plunging home through the rain from New York. (p. 102)	<i>Mọi thứ ở West Egg đều đã lên đèn, những đoàn tàu điện lao qua màn mưa chở người đi làm từ New York về nhà.</i>
Pro M “Đang”	(152) Then he drifted back to Lake Superior, and he <i>was still searching</i> for something to do on the day that Dan Cody's yacht dropped anchor in the shallows along shore. (p. 106)	<i>Sau đó ông lại trôi dạt về hồ Superior, và vẫn đang tìm kiếm việc gì đó để làm vào cái ngày chiếc du thuyền của Dan Cody thả neo xuống chỗ nước nông gần bờ.</i>

All the illustrations above are aimed at depicting the various means of translation of the past progress tense used by T3. The first illustration observed in the example (147), the verb phrase *was standing* has been translated into *đương đứng* of which *đương* is a progress marker used to convey the progress aspect though in its past tense. Secondly, *was going home* in the example (148) has been translated into *sẽ về nhà*. Normally, the future marker *sẽ* is often used to convey the meaning of the future action, in this situation, however, it has been used and the meaning of the sentence still sounds natural causing no difficulties for the TL readers to understand. Thirdly, the verb collocation *was beginning over* in the example (149) has been translated into *đang sắp khởi sự*. Aside from the use of the future marker *sắp*, another progress marker *đang* has been also used before the future marker to transfer the meaning of the progress aspect in its past tense. Fourthly, *đụng* is the translation of the activity verb phrase *was touching* in the example (150) and no clue under the presence of linguistic means can be found to

transfer the progress aspect of the past tense, though this translation again causes no pitfall in understanding. This can be explained basing on the theory of situation types of verb by Vendler (1967). Then, *were going on* in the example (151) has been translated into *đã lên*. The perfective *đã* was used indicate the action in its progress aspect. Finally, *was searching* in the example (152) has been translated into *đang tìm kiếm*, thus the verb which is in its past tense but progress aspect can be still translated into Vietnamese equivalents.

5.3.2.2. Translation of the past perfect tense

The figure 11 above shows that two markers have not been used namely the progress marker *đương*, the future marker *sẽ* and *sắp*. Besides, the translation of the past perfect tense by way of situation types of verbs is also seen used the most frequently in 137 TL sentences (accounting for almost 87.3 %). While the use of the progress marker *đang* is just seen in 1 sentence (accounting for about 0.6 %), the use of the perfective marker *đã* seen in 16 sentences (accounting for nearly 10.2 %) ranks the second as regards its employed frequency. Finally, the use of another perfective marker *rồi* discovered used in 3 TL sentences (accounting for almost 1.9 %). These rating figures will be illustrated in the below examples.

Means	ST	TT
S.Verbs	(153) Daisy and Tom <i>had looked</i> at each other for a moment in silence. (p. 22)	Daisy và Tôm im lặng nhìn nhau một lúc.
Per M “Đã”	(154) When I looked once more for Gatsby he <i>had vanished</i> , and I was alone again in the unquiet darkness. (p. 24)	Khi tôi quay lại nhìn Gatsby một lần nữa thì ông <i>đã biến mất</i> , và lại chỉ còn mình tôi trong đêm tối xôn xao.
Per M “Rồi”	(155) I knew I’d <i>seen</i> you somewhere before. (p. 52)	Tôi biết ngay là <i>đã gặp</i> ông ở đâu <i>rồi</i> mà.

Pro M “đang”	(156) In one of the windows over the garage the curtains <i>had been moved aside</i> a little and Myrtle Wilson was peering down at the car. (p. 132)	Ở một trong những khuôn cửa sổ trên gác xường xe, rèm đang hé sang một bên, và Myrtle Wilson đang lên nhìn xuống cái xe.

Looking at the example (153), firstly, the verb phrase *had looked*, an activity verb has been translated into Vietnamese activity verb equivalent *nhìn* without any other markers or adverbs of time indicating tenses and aspects; nonetheless, the meaning and the message transferred can still be achieved in the TL. Secondly, the perfective marker **đã** has been put before the main Vietnamese verb *biến mất* translated from the SL *had vanished* in the example (154) as a way of stating that the action has happened. Then, amazingly the two perfective **đã** and **rồi** have been both applied to translating the tenses and aspects of a single verb *'d seen* as in the example (155) into Vietnamese. Finally, example (156) with the verb phrase *had been moved aside* has been translated into *rèm **đang** hé sang một bên*. The SL sentence is in its passive voice of the past perfect tense. Its tense belongs to the past and its aspect is of perfect one, though it was translated via the use of the progress marker **đang** and did not distort the SL information.

5.3.2.3. Translation of the past progress perfect tense

The Vietnamese linguistic means which are observed used to translate the past perfect progress tense in English comprise of the situation types of verbs the perfective marker **đã** and the progress marker **đang**. The situation types of verbs have been used the most of all found in 5TL sentences (accounting for almost 45.5 %) to be translated by these types of verbs. Then, 4 TL sentences (accounting for nearly 36.4 %) have been translated by means of the progress marker **đang**. Thus,

means of translation employed by T3 are different from those by T1 and T2. Finally, the perfective marker *đã* is seen used in just 2 TL sentences (accounting for nearly 18.2 %). They will be demonstrated in the below examples.

Means	ST	TT
S.Verbs	(157) One autumn night, five years before, they <i>had been walking</i> down the street (p. 118).	Một đêm thu năm năm về trước, họ <i>sánh bước</i> trên đường đầy lá rụng.
Pro marker “Đang”	(158) A massive and lethargic woman, who <i>had been urging</i> Daisy to play golf with her at the local club tomorrow, spoke in Miss Baedeker’s defence (p. 114).	Một bà lừng lững cứ chỉ lờ đờ, <i>đang cố nài</i> Daisy chơi gôn với mình ở câu lạc bộ địa phương ngày hôm sau, lên tiếng bênh cô Baedeker.
Per M “Đã”	(159) He <i>had been coasting along</i> all too hospitable shores for five years when he turned up as James Gatz’s destiny at Little Girl Bay. (p. 106)	Khi Dan Cody <i>đã đi men theo</i> các bờ biển hiền hòa được năm năm thì ông trở thành người nhào nặn nên số phận của James Gatz tại vịnh Little Girls

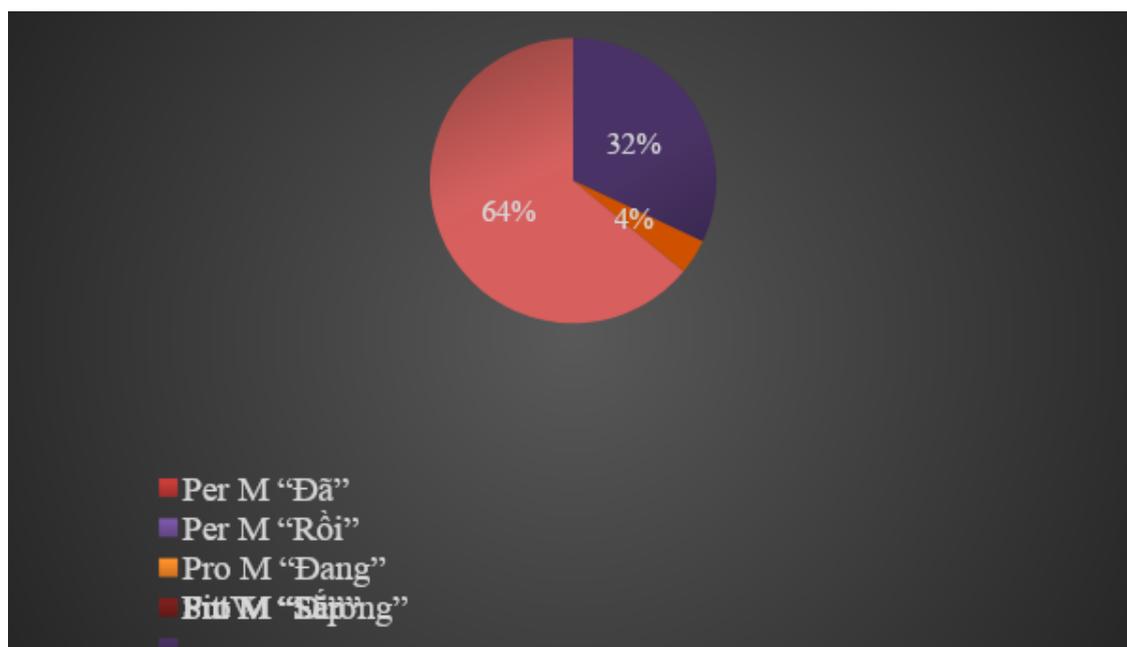
The example (157) *had been walking* was translated into Vietnamese without any linguistic markers indicating tenses and aspects instead *sánh bước* is explained to be kind of equivalent situation types of verbs. Then example (158), the verb phrase *had been urging* was translated into *đang cố nài*. The progressiveness of the SL past perfect progress was translated via the progress marker *đang*. At last, the phrase *had been coasting along* of the illustration (159) was translated into *đã đi men theo*. Thus, the Vietnamese perfective marker *đã* was employed in this case.



5.3.3. The translation of “Be going to”

The following pie figure is deemed to visualized the data of the translation of “Be going to” translated by T3:

Figure 5.9: “Be going to” Translated by T3



Be going to or “Be going to” is viewed in the 25 SL sentences from the pie figure above. Not any of these sentences are detected translated into Vietnamese by means of by the perfective markers or progress markers. Out of the 25 sentences 16 TL (accounting for 64 %) are discovered translated into Vietnamese via situation types of verbs. Besides, the rest of the SL sentences are found translated by way of the two future markers *sẽ* in 8 sentences (making up 32 %) and *sắp* in just 1 sentence (making up 4 %). The following is the table for illustration:

Means	ST	TT

S.verbs	(160) ‘ <i>Are we just going to go?</i> ’ she objected. ‘Like this?’ (p. 127)	“ <i>Cứ thế mà đi à?</i> ” nó phản đối. “ <i>Như thế này à?</i> ”
Fut m “sẽ”	(161) ‘ <i>I’m going to drain the pool today,</i> Mr. Gatsby’ (p. 164)	Thưa ông Gatsby, hôm nay <i>tôi sẽ</i> thau bể bơi.
Fut M “Sắp”	(162) ‘ <i>I’m going to make a big request of you today.</i> ’ (p. 72)	“Hôm nay tôi <i>sắp</i> <i>cậy</i> <i>đến</i> ông một việc lớn”.

The above examples give information serving as illustrations for the utilization of different linguistic means to translate “Be going to” into Vietnamese equivalents. Firstly, the example (160) characterizes the equivalents in the use of situations types of verbs to explicitly convey the meaning of the action that is about to happen between the two languages, English and Vietnamese. The verb *go* in the SL verb phrase *Are just going to go* which is an activity verb in its “Be going to” has been translated into *Cứ thế mà đi à*. The verb *đi* in the TL present without any tense or aspect markers. Then, in the example (161), it can be observed from the above table, example (161) with the main verb phrase *'m going to drain* its “Be going to” form which is an activity verb and has been translated into *tôi sẽ thau* in the TL activity verb equivalent; however, no prompt to indicate tense or aspect can be discovered. Then in example (162) *I’m going to make a big request of* has been translated into *sẽ biểu* in Vietnamese. The future marker *sẽ* put before the main verb indicating future action is normally understood as future tense expression in Vietnamese. Lastly, *are going to play* in the example (163) has been transferred into *sắp cậy đến*. The marker *sắp* has been used in this case to show the future action.

5.4. The implicit meanings of the use or disuse of the Vietnamese linguistic means in the translation of the English complex tenses and aspects

The implicit meanings of the translation of the simple tenses discussed in chapter 4 are quite similar to that of the complex tenses in this chapter 5. However, there are some different implications between the translation of the simple and complex tenses, which will be discussed in the following parts.

5.4.1. The meaning of the English simple past tense inferred from the prepositional phrases of time in Vietnamese

In the translation of the simple tenses, it is also found out that the tense is inferred from the time adverbial while it is the prepositional phrases of time in some complex tenses that identify the tenses. Thus, the tenses are implicitly inferred from the prepositional phrases of time instead of from the linguistic markers. It can be seen in the subsequent sentences.

SL	TL by three translators
(164) I've <i>been drunk</i> for about a week now (p. 51)	T1: Từ một tuần lễ nay tôi <i>say</i> liên miên.
	T2: Tôi <i>say</i> đến nay để được một tuần rồi.
	T3: Tôi <i>đã</i> <i>say</i> khoảng một tuần nay rồi.

The complex tense of SL in the above example is a present perfect tense. This sentence comes with a preposition phrase of time *for about a week now*. The translation by T1 and T2 does not contain any markers while in the third translation T3 used a perfective marker ***đã***. The meaning of tenses in the three translations can be inferred from the preposition phrase of time *for about a week now*, thus the perfective marker ***đã*** can be omitted in this context without affecting the meaning of the sentence.



5.4.2. The disuse of Vietnamese markers under the view of idiomatic preferences

The following sentence is taken as an illustration for the translation of a complex tense, the present progress tense, in this context.

SL	TL by three translators
(165) 'He <i>isn't causing a row.</i> ' (p. 138)	T1: Ông ấy có mưu đồ gì đâu.
	T2: Đâu phải ông ấy gây bất hòa.
	T3: Ông ấy không gây gổ gì cả.

Analyzing the translations by the three translators T1, T2 and T3 indicates that there are differences among them concerning the view of idiomatic favour. The translations by T2 and T3 seem almost the same in terms of meaning of the message conveyed. The SLs are literally translated into the. Looking at the translation by T1, however, the TL seems to be more idiomatic as the meaning of the SL message is not deduced from separate elements of the SL sentence. Consequently, this SL sentence is idiomatically translated into Vietnamese equivalent. In other words, it can be concluded that T1 is more keen on idiomatic expression than T2 and T3 in this context. Nevertheless, it can be noticed that all the three translators T1, T2 and T3 do not care about the time of the event in the SL at all. The event in the SL is in fact described in the present progress tense in the English language, though when translated into Vietnamese not any signals of time of the occurrence of the event are identified.

5.4.3. The disuse of the Vietnamese markers viewed from different referential equivalence

As having affirmed in the afore-part, referential meaning is seen as symbol which refers to an object, process, abstract thing, and relation. Referential meaning is also known as the meaning of reference, the lexical meaning. Hence, considering the following example and its equivalent translations in the TL, it is realized that the SL sentence is in its present perfect tense.



SL	TL by three translators
(166) ‘I have enjoyed my lunch.’ (p. 78)	T1: <i>Bữa ăn hôm nay ngon lắm.</i>
	T2: <i>Bữa trưa ngon tuyệt.</i>
	T3: <i>Bữa trưa ngon tuyệt.</i>

The reference judged in this sentence is ‘my lunch’. This reference is translated into different equivalents in Vietnamese by the three translators T1, T2 and T3 ‘Bữa ăn hôm nay’, ‘Bữa trưa’ and ‘Bữa trưa’ respectively. In the translation by T1 “Bữa ăn hôm nay”, this noun phrase in Vietnamese is composed of the head noun ‘Bữa ăn’ and complemented by the adverbial ‘hôm nay’ which makes it a different reference compared to just the referential equivalent of ‘Bữa ăn’. Although the three translations of the SL sentence in this case show no signal of trying to use a Vietnamese linguistic means or marker by the three translators to convey the meaning of the message expressed in the present perfect tense to indicate the action of enjoying the lunch has happened.

5.4.4. The use or disuse of Vietnamese markers caused by different pragmatic equivalence

From the same sentence of a language, it can be deduced differently under the view of pragmatics leading various pragmatic translations.

SL	TL by three translators
(167) ‘We’re getting old,’ said Daisy. (p. 136)	T1: Daisy nói: Chúng mình đã ra về già rồi.
	T2: Chúng ta già mất rồi, - Daisy than thở.
	T3: Daisy nói. Nếu còn trẻ thì chúng mình đứng dậy khiêu vũ rồi.

Though T1 and T2 translated quite literally except the use of the marker *rồi* commonly used to indicate a complete past action, T3 used a completely different



structure. This SL sentence should be pragmatically understood and can be back translated into English like ‘If we were still young, we would stand up to dance. Thus, in this case all the three translators would like to imply that they cannot dance because of their old age.

5.5. Summary

In chapter 5, it discussed the expressions of aspects between English and Vietnamese through the contrasting analyses between the SL and TL translated by the three translators. Remarkably, the SL aspects were analysed in combination with tenses to make different tenses apart from the simple tenses already examined in chapter 4. The combinations of tenses and aspects contrasted in the present study consists of 7 tenses, specifically the present progress tense, the present perfect tense, the present perfect progress tense, the past progress tense, the past perfect tense, the past progress tense and “Be going to”. Similar to the results of the use of different Vietnamese linguistic means to translate the English simple tenses, the results of translating the English complex tenses and aspects also reveal that the situation types of verbs are the main linguistics means explaining how English tenses and aspects can be translated into Vietnamese equivalents. Besides, such other linguistic means as the markers *đã, rồi, đang đương, sắp, sẽ* and such adverbials of time as *vừa qua, tối qua, ngày trước, trước đây, nay, tối nay, lần sau, tuần sau, sau này, thời buổi bây giờ, bây giờ,* etc. present in the Vietnamese translated sentences can be taken as other explanations for how the English complex tenses and aspects can be translated into Vietnamese. Yet, what Vietnamese linguistic markers or time adverbials were specifically used to translate the English complex tenses and aspects by the three Vietnamese translators. Firstly, the present progress tense were translated via all the markers, though the perfective marker *đã* was not used by T2 and T3 but used quite a lot (accounting for 4.5 %) by T1 and the progress marker *đương* was not used by T2 and T3, either but used by T1 (accounting for 6.8 %).

Secondly, the present perfect tense were translated via the couple perfective markers *đã* and *rồi* and even via the progress marker *đang* by T2 and T3 but not by

T1, whereas the other markers like *đương, sẽ, sắp* were not used. Then, the present perfect progress tense was not seen to be translated via any of the markers except the perfective marker *đã* by all the three translators. Besides, the past progress tense was not identified to be translated via the perfective marker *rồi* but via *đã, đang đương, sắp, sẽ*. Also, the past perfect tense was not translated via the future marker *sắp* by any of the translators, while the other markers like *rồi, đang đương, sẽ* were hardly used. The perfective marker *đã* is often taken as a means to convey the past tense events in Vietnamese, though in this study context the events were of past perfect tense, the marker *đã* was used the most.

In addition, the past perfect progress tense was not discovered to be translated by *đương, sẽ, sắp* but by *đã, rồi* and *đang*. Furthermore, the “Be going to” sentences were not translated via the perfective markers *đã, rồi*, the progress markers *đang, đương*, but via the future marker *sẽ, sắp*. Lastly, there are several implications explaining the differences of the use or disuse of Vietnamese linguistic means or markers to translate the English tenses and aspects. Those factors can be due to the idiomatic preferences which are one of the causes to different translations and different sentence structures containing different tenses and aspects. Moreover, in some cases where fixed expressions or idioms are in use, the three translators tried to translate them as idiomatically as possible so as to make them sound natural in the Vietnamese receptor language. As a result, the forms of the grammatical constructions and the lexical items chosen tend to be Vietnamese TL-driven i.e. Vietnamese linguistic means or markers indicating tenses and aspects are sometimes not found in the sentences. Besides, with the same referential factor, its equivalent may vary. These variations sometimes lead to the same referent, though the referent may be placed in different context as regards time or state of the situation.

Finally, different in the choice of Vietnamese linguistic means or markers in expressing the English tenses and aspects can be explained basing on evaluating the deduction of each translator by virtue of pragmatic equivalence. Such deixis as

pronouns, tenses, time, aspects and other grammatical traits are directly linked with the situation or the context of the utterance. Consequently, different views towards the deixis lead to different translations of the tense and aspect items.



CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

6.1. Concluding remarks

The mixed methods of qualitative and quantitative approach have been applied to investigating the equivalents in expressing tenses and aspects between English and Vietnamese. It was hypothesised that there exists some common Vietnamese pletives or temporal and aspectual markers normally used to express the meaning of tenses and aspects in Vietnamese. In reality, there are quite many markers of these types, in this study, though the 3 marker couples namely two perfective markers *đã* and *rồi*, two progress markers *đang* and *đương* and two future markers, *sắp* and *sẽ* were presupposed to have been used to translate the tenses and aspects in the novel “The Great Gatsby” by Francis Scott Fitzgerald into three Vietnamese versions. These versions come out under the names as Con Người Hào Hoa by Mặc Đỗ, Gatsby Vĩ Đại and Đại Gia Gatsby by Mặc Đỗ, Hoàng Cường and Trịnh Lữ accordingly.

The selection of 2,493 English sentences is used for the data of the study. The equivalent translated sentences in Vietnamese are 7,479. The data were taken from the translations of the three novels in Vietnamese. The study employed various types of methods and techniques. Firstly, the descriptive analysis was employed to review of theories related to the thesis such as tense, aspect, translation, equivalence in translation, the notion of fixed expressions and idioms, referential equivalence, and pragmatics. Besides, the mixed methods of qualitative and quantitative strategy ,the contrasting method was also mainly used in this study. The quantitative approach was utilized to calculate and synthesize the frequencies of the Vietnamese linguistic means and markers used to translate tenses and aspects by the three Vietnamese translators. Then the qualitative approach is used for describing, explaining, clarifying and synthesizing the quantitative results of the research basing on the adoption of the theories of tenses and aspects by Murcia & Freeman



(1999); Quirk & Greenbaum (1973). At last, the theory of S.Verbs proposed by Vendler (1967) was also applied to analyzing both the source texts and target texts under qualitative approach. Contrast is considered as another major method applied to finding out the differences in the ways of expressing tenses and aspects between English and Vietnamese. The 2 research questions about how the English simple tenses and aspects and the English complex tenses and aspects can be translated into Vietnamese have been answered based on the subsequent concluding results.

Generally, English tenses and aspects were translated into Vietnamese by either linguistic markers such as the perfective markers *đã*, *rồi*, the progress markers *đang*, *đương*, the future markers *sắp*, *sẽ*, time adverbials or situation types of verbs. It is noticeable that, in practice, most of the English tense and aspect meanings have not been translated into Vietnamese by means of different markers. Nevertheless, the meaning of the information related to time, the perfectiveness or the progressiveness of the situation or the action could still be reached in the Vietnamese TL. Suspicion about how tenses and aspects have been translated into Vietnamese is likely to arise, thus explanation for that can be counted on the natural equivalents of situation types of verbs between the two languages. The theory of situation types of verbs proposed by Vendler (1967) proved to be a reliable scientific base within the current study. Secondly, in some cases, Vietnamese time adverbials can be utilized along with the markers or situation types of verbs. Then, the couple perfective markers *đã* and *rồi*, can be both used in one sentence.

The first research question was made to seek possible means or ways to translate the English simple tenses and aspects into Vietnamese. The question obtained its answer relying on the results of how the three English simple tenses and aspects were translated into Vietnamese equivalents. Firstly, the simple present tense can be translated via all the means groups namely the perfective *đã* and *rồi*, the progress *đang* and *đương*, the future markers *sẽ* and *sắp* and the situation types of verbs. Then, the progress markers *đang* and *đương* can be used to translate not only the progress aspects of tenses but also the simple present tense and the simple

past tense, these expressions of tenses and aspects are similar to what Cao Xuân Hạo (1998) and Đinh Văn Đức (2012) have been stated in afore sections. Yet, the two progress markers *đang* and *đương* cannot be used to translate the simple future tense. Notably, in checking the examples in the English simple future tense to identify if two progress markers *đang* and *đương* can be used in replacement of other markers or means, we have found out that such replacements are impossible in practice, as the meaning of the translated sentences will become unnatural or abnormal. As a result, it can be concluded that these progress Vietnamese linguistics markers cannot be used to translate the simple future tense.

Besides, there are also cases in which the Vietnamese linguistic markers are just used for emphasis instead of being used as a means to convey tenses and aspects. Furthermore, it is possible that *đã* and *rồi* can be used for the present tenses.

The second research question about how English complex tenses can be translated into Vietnamese were answered resting on the results drawn from the linguistic means or markers employed to translate 7 English tenses and aspects into their Vietnamese equivalents. These English complex tenses and aspects comprise of the present progress tense, the present perfect tense, the present perfect progress tense, the past progress tense, the past perfect tense, the past progress tense and “Be going to”. Much the same the analytical results of the data of different Vietnamese linguistic means to translate the English simple tenses, the analytical results of the translation of the English complex tenses and aspects can be drawn to make up another conclusion that the situation types of verbs are the major bases to explain how the English tenses and aspects can still be translated into Vietnamese without employing other markers or time adverbials.

Specifically, the present progress tense can translated via all the markers proposed in this study, though in the context of the current study, the results show that the perfective marker *đã* has not used by T2 and T3 but used quite a lot by T1. This finding may imply that the different social backgrounds of the three translators

living in different historical periods having affected differently their cognitions and styles in translation. Then, the present perfect tense can be translated via the couple perfective markers *đã* and *rồi*; whereas the present perfect progress tense can only be translated via the perfective marker. Besides, the past progress tense cannot be translated via the perfective marker *rồi* but via *đã*, *đang* *đương*, *sắp*, *sẽ*. Also, the past perfect tense cannot be translated via the future marker *sắp* but by the markers *rồi*, *đang*, *đương*, *sẽ*. In addition, the markers *sẽ*, *sắp* cannot be used to translate the past perfect progress tense while the markers *rồi* and *đang* can be. Furthermore, the “Be going to” cannot be translated via the perfective markers *đã*, *rồi*, the progress markers *đang*, *đương*, but can be translated via the future marker *sẽ*, *sắp*.

Moreover, the study has also investigated the implications of the different ways of translating the same English tenses and aspects into Vietnamese by different Vietnamese translators. These different translating ways resulted in the use or disuse of the markers by the translators to translate the same tenses and aspects. Therefore, the implications in the use of Vietnamese means or markers in translating English tenses and aspects were discovered in the following main points: In the first place, it is time adverbials in Vietnamese rather than perfective markers like *đã* and *rồi* or any other markers that can help locate the the English simple past tense. Also, the perfective marker *đã* is not used for the indication of tenses or aspects but for just emphatic purpose. Then, the perfective marker *đã* cannot be even used for past tenses in some cases. Besides, the progress marker *đang* and *đương* can be used for past, present and future tenses, though the use is not a must. Furthermore, viewing from idiomatic preferences, the linguistic markers indicating tenses and aspects can be omitted without any distortions to the meaning of the SL sentence with respect to tenses and aspects. Moreover, different referents inferred from the same SL tenses and aspects results in different translations.

Then, different in the choice of Vietnamese linguistic means or markers in expressing the English tenses and aspects can be the results of the deduction of each translator by virtue of pragmatic equivalence. Such deixis as pronouns, tenses, time

and other grammatical traits are directly linked with the utterance situation. As a result, different views towards the deixis lead to different translations of the tense and aspect items.

..... Finally, as mentioned in the above literature review, the study by Ngô Thị Thanh Tuyết (2011) (for convenience hereafter Ngô Thị Thanh Tuyết referred to as Tuyết) seems to have been the most outstanding so far which touches upon the issue of translating English tenses and aspects into Vietnamese. In Tuyết's study, she first investigated how the English tenses and aspects in narrative and deictic modes could be translated into Vietnamese. Then, she also aimed to find out how Vietnamese SL sentences containing markers could be translated into English TL sentences. At last, she aimed to seek for the possible factors that might affect the choices of translators in their translations. The factors found may come from the translation strategies employed or from the rules that govern the use of temporal or aspectual resources of the SL or of the TL. Specially, Tuyết's study revealed that English tenses in deictic mode often provide explicit information concerning temporal location of a situation. However, in Vietnamese the linguistic means of resources expressing the temporal location explicitly are temporal adverbials which are not often seen in either Vietnamese source texts or Vietnamese TL or translation texts. As regards narrative modes, Tuyết's study found out that the temporal structure of a narrative was formed by the interaction of situation type and markers indicating tenses and aspects to determine tense and aspect relations between the events and narrative time in Vietnamese. Yet, in the present study, narrative and deictic sentences were not examined separately as the findings of means or markers to translate the English tenses and aspects into Vietnamese presented no difference between a tense type in a narrative mode with that similar tense type in a deictic mode. Besides, in looking for factors that might affect the choices in translating of the translators, Tuyết discovered that translation strategies play an important role in deciding the use of Vietnamese linguistic means or markers in translating the English tenses and aspects into Vietnamese and vice-versa. Moreover, according to



her opinion, if the translation is influenced by the grammatical rules of the SL, the translator is believed to have employed SL- orientated strategy. In cases where translation is influenced by the grammatical rules of the TL the translator is considered to have applied TL- orientated strategy. Nevertheless, the present research did not take grammatical rules or translation strategies as the factors that may affect the translation of the English tenses and aspects into Vietnamese equivalents. Instead, the present research considered such implicit factors as idioms and fixed expressions, referential equivalence and pragmatic equivalence as the main factors affecting the use or disuse of Vietnamese linguistic markers in translation.

6.2. Implications of the study

The findings of the study will contribute to the research field at large and to learners, teachers and translators of English in particular in respect to both methodological and practical benefits. Firstly, regarding methodological benefits, the study has reviewed quite various viewpoints and studies about time, tense and aspect notions in not only English and Vietnamese but also in other different languages in the world from different grammatical type angles. In this way, a clear-cut among the ideas of tenses and aspects in English was made, which helped eliminate ambiguities in distinguishing them for foreign learners of English.

Moreover, as mentioned in the above part, there have not been enough thorough studies on means applicable to translating tenses and aspects from English in to Vietnamese. Therefore, this study succeeded in finding out feasible linguistic means in the Vietnamese language to translate tense and aspect items in the English language. Then, it is found that not any cases of the Vietnamese verbs in which the inflectional distinction can be seen. As a result, it is completely conforming to what Hoàng Tuệ (1988) affirms that only inflectional languages really have tense and aspect categories clearly shown in grammatical forms. Thus, Vietnamese, a non-inflection language, does not have tense and aspect categories. Besides, Evans

& Green (2005) states that a language having a tense only if it has a distinct morphological verb form that indicates past/present/ future time. Taking the ideas from Hoàng Tuệ (1988) and Evans & Green (2005) can help settle controversies over the issue whether Vietnamese has tenses and aspects or not. Apart from these afore-mentioned contributions, the theory of equivalence in translation by Baker (2011) has proved to have a significant role in identifying the level of equivalence in translation. In practice, he divides five levels of equivalence including equivalence at word level, equivalence above word level, grammatical equivalence, textual equivalence and pragmatic equivalence. He details grammatical equivalence under five categories including number, gender, person, tenses and aspects, and voice.

In this study, therefore, the non-equivalence as regards tenses and aspects between the English and Vietnamese languages was determined to be at grammatical level.

The study is beneficial to people from various professions. Firstly, when it comes to teach students about English tenses, teachers will find it quite easy to tell the differences between the notions of tenses and aspects in English and how they are combined to make the basic tenses. Secondly, foreign learners of English in general and Vietnamese learners of English in particular will not be so confused in learning and using the English tenses as they can contrast with their languages as regards the expressions of tenses and aspects, which will help them study the English language better and faster.

Then, Vietnamese translators will perceive very well the different Vietnamese linguistic means which are applicable to translating the English tense and aspect elements. Moreover, it can be affirmed that there are always possible linguistic means to convey a linguistic item from this language into another. At least this affirmation is true for translating tenses and aspects from English into Vietnamese.

Finally, it can be also affirmed that finding equivalents in Vietnamese to translate the English tenses and aspects cannot be based on the formative grammar



school of the Indo-European language family as Vietnamese is not an inflectional language.

6.3. Limitations of the study

It is hard to avoid limitations in life so as is it in this study. The current study was aimed to find out the means or methods to translate the English tenses and aspects into Vietnamese. Nevertheless, the existing opinions or theories towards the notions of tenses and aspects in Vietnamese are still limited for the researcher to base on as the theoretical background for his study. Besides, the SL data are not very diverse as based totally on the collected from one SL novel “The Great Gatsby”. An inverted translation of Vietnamese texts into English can provide a firmer conclusion about different feasible Vietnamese linguistic means applicable to translating. Lastly, in collecting the data and later the analyses of the data were mainly done manually with little assistance of the technology.

6.4. Suggestions for further research

Firstly, the study has gained certain important results of the possible Vietnamese linguistic means to convey the tense and aspect items from English. Specially, merely 10 tenses and aspects have been investigated in the present study. Thus, the results of the study can be a good reference for further studies of the similar interest such as the study of how to translate tenses and aspects in the future continuous tense, the future perfect tense, conditional sentences or in subjunctive mood into Vietnamese.

Secondly, such researches of investigating how Vietnamese sentences expressing information at different time points and different aspects: perfective or progress can be translated into English regarding tenses and aspects, will hopefully bring about scientific values in reaffirming the reliability of the equivalent expressions of tenses and aspects in Vietnamese.



Eventually, along with the source of the data from books, novels or printed materials, data can be collected from survey questionnaires and interviews with the participants ranging from teachers, interpreters, professionals related to English to learners of English. In doing so, the results will be more reliable, concise and persuasive.

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Appendix 1: The English novel and its Vietnamese translations

1. Francis Scott Fitzgerald (1925). *The Great Gatsby*. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.
2. Mặc Đỗ (1956). *Con người hào hoa*. Sài Gòn: Viewpoint.
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Appendix 2-11: The English tenses and aspects translated into three Vietnamese versions.

