

EASY ENGLISH GRAMMAR

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Dilarang memperbanyak karya tulis ini dalam bentuk
dan dengan cara apapun tanpa izin tertulis dari penerbit.

FOREWORD

All praise and gratitude for the presence of Allah SWT on all occasions. Sholawat accompanied by greetings and prayers we convey to the Prophet Muhammad SAW. Alhamdulillah, for His Grace and Grace, the writer has finished this Easy English Grammar book.

This book discusses Pengenalan Tata Bahasa, Sentence Structure (Struktur Kalimat), Tenses (Waktu Verba), Penggunaan Kata Kerja (Verbs), Kata Bantu (Auxiliary Verbs), Kata Sifat (*Adjectives*), Kata Keterangan (Adverbs), Preposisi, Kata Ganti (Pronouns), Kata Benda (Nouns), Kalimat Aktif dan Pasif, Kalimat Tanya dan Negatif, Klausa dan Frasa, Kata Tanya (Question Words).

The process of writing this book was successfully completed with the cooperation of the writing team. For the sake of better quality and reader satisfaction, we really look forward to suggestions and constructive feedback from readers.

The author would like to thank all those who have supported the completion of this book. Especially those who have helped to publish this book and have entrusted it to encourage and initiate the publication of this book. Hopefully this book can be useful for the people of Indonesia.

Padang, November 2023

Author

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CHAPTER 1

AN INTRODUCTION TO GRAMMAR

By Restu Januarty Hamid

1.1 What Is Grammar?

Grammar is the set of rules and structures that govern the use of language, enabling effective communication among speakers or writers of a particular language. It encompasses the principles of syntax, semantics, and morphology. Understanding grammar is essential for precise and meaningful communication in any language. Here is an overview of key concepts in the introduction to grammar:

1. Parts of Speech:
 - a. Nouns: Words representing people, places, things, or ideas (e.g., cat, London, happiness).
 - b. Pronouns: Words replace nouns (e.g., he, she, it, they).
 - c. Verbs: Words that express actions, states, or occurrences (e.g., run, is, happened).
 - d. Adjectives: Words that describe or modify nouns (e.g., red, beautiful, tall).
 - e. Adverbs: Words that describe or modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs (e.g., quickly, very, often).
 - f. Prepositions: Words that show the relationship between nouns or pronouns and other words in a sentence (e.g., in, on, under).
 - g. Conjunctions: Words that connect words, phrases, or clauses (e.g., and, but, or).
 - h. Interjections: Words used to express strong emotions or exclamations (e.g., oh, wow, ouch).
2. Syntax:
 - a. Syntax refers to arranging words and phrases to create well-formed sentences in a language.
 - b. It involves understanding sentence structure, word order, and grammatical relationships between elements in a sentence.

- c. Different languages have different syntactical rules. For example, English follows a subject-verb-object (SVO) word order in typical sentences.
- 3. Sentence Types:
 - a. Sentences can be categorized into four main types: declarative (statements), interrogative (questions), imperative (commands), and exclamatory (exclamations).
 - b. Understanding the appropriate sentence type for different contexts is crucial for effective communication.
- 4. Tenses:
 - a. Tenses indicate the time of an action or event about the present, past, or future.
 - b. In English, common tenses include past, present, and future, each with different forms and uses.
- 5. Morphology:
 - a. Morphology deals with the structure of words and the formation of words from smaller units called morphemes.
 - b. Morphemes can be classified as roots (the core meaning of a word), prefixes (added at the beginning of a word), and suffixes (added at the end of a word).
- 6. Agreement:
 - a. Agreement refers to the grammatical consistency in a sentence, where different elements (e.g., subject and verb) match in terms of number, gender, and person.
 - b. Proper agreement ensures clarity and grammatical correctness in a sentence.
- 7. Punctuation:
 - a. Punctuation marks such as periods, commas, semicolons, and colons play a crucial role in clarifying the structure and meaning of sentences.
 - b. They help indicate pauses, separate clauses, and convey specific meanings.
- 8. Common Grammar Errors:
Identifying and avoiding common grammatical errors, such as subject-verb agreement errors, sentence fragments, and

- run-on sentences, is essential for clear and effective writing and speaking.
9. Style and Register:
 - a. Grammar rules can vary depending on the context's formality or the specific language register (e.g., formal vs. informal speech).
 - b. Understanding when to use formal or informal language and adjusting your grammar accordingly is essential in communication.
 10. Language Variation:
 - a. Languages evolve and can have regional, cultural, and social variations in grammar.
 - b. Dialects, slang, and colloquialisms explain how grammar can differ in various communities and contexts.

Grammar is the backbone of language, providing the structure and rules necessary for clear and effective communication. Learning and mastering the grammar of a language is crucial for both written and spoken communication.

1.2 Key Concepts In The Introduction To Grammar

1. Parts of Speech

Parts of speech are the fundamental categories into which words can be classified based on their grammatical and syntactical functions within sentences. Understanding these parts of speech is essential for constructing sentences and communicating effectively in any language. Here's a more detailed explanation of each part of the speech:

- a. Nouns:
 - 1) Nouns represent people, places, things, or abstract concepts.
 - 2) They can be categorized into common nouns (e.g., book, city) and proper nouns (e.g., Shakespeare, New York), where proper nouns typically begin with capital letters.

- b. Pronouns:
 - 1) Pronouns are words used to replace nouns to avoid repetition and make sentences less cumbersome.
 - 2) Common pronouns include personal pronouns (e.g., he, she, they), demonstrative pronouns (e.g., this, that), and relative pronouns (e.g., who, which).
- c. Verbs:
 - 1) Verbs are action words that express actions (e.g., run, eat), states (e.g., is, exist), or occurrences (e.g., happen, become).
 - 2) They are often the core of a sentence and can be conjugated to indicate tense, person, and number.
- d. Adjectives:
 - 1) Adjectives are words that modify or describe nouns, providing additional information about their characteristics.
 - 2) They answer questions like "What kind?" or "Which one?" (e.g., red car, tall tree).
- e. Adverbs:
 - 1) Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs, providing information about how, when, where, or to what degree an action or description occurs.
 - 2) Common adverbs include quickly, very, and often.
- f. Prepositions:
 - 1) Prepositions show the relationship between nouns or pronouns and other words in a sentence. They indicate location, direction, time, and more.
 - 2) Common prepositions include in, on, under, between.
- g. Conjunctions:
 - 1) Conjunctions are words that connect words, phrases, or clauses to form more complex sentences.
 - 2) Coordinating conjunctions (e.g., and, but, or) connect similar elements, while subordinating conjunctions (e.g., because, although) join dependent clauses to independent clauses.

h. Interjections:

- 1) Interjections are short exclamatory words or phrases that express strong emotions, surprise, or excitement.
- 2) They often stand alone or appear at the beginning of a sentence, separated by an exclamation point or a comma. Examples include wow, oh, ouch.

Understanding the role of each part of speech is crucial for constructing grammatically correct sentences and conveying meaning effectively. The arrangement and combination of these parts of speech in a sentence follow syntactical rules, which vary from language to language. Mastery of these rules allows for clear and precise communication in both written and spoken language.

2. Syntax

Syntax is the branch of grammar that deals with the structure of sentences and the rules governing the arrangement of words in a sentence. It encompasses the order of words, phrases, and clauses to create well-formed and meaningful sentences. Here's a more detailed explanation of syntax:

a. Sentence Structure:

- 1) Syntax governs how sentences are structured. In English and many other languages, sentences typically have a subject and a predicate (verb), the core elements.
- 2) The subject is the noun or pronoun that the sentence is about, and the predicate contains the verb and provides information about what the issue is doing or what is happening to it.

b. Word Order:

- 1) Different languages have different word orders, and syntax specifies the accepted word order for a given language.
- 2) For example, English generally follows a subject-verb-object (SVO) word order in declarative

sentences, where the subject comes before the verb and the object after the verb.

c. Agreement:

- 1) Syntax includes rules for ensuring agreement within sentences. This means that words in a sentence must match number, gender, and person.
- 2) For example, in English, you would say "She eats" (subject-verb agreement) but "They eat" (subject-verb agreement for a plural subject).

d. Phrases and Clauses:

- 1) Syntax involves the identification and arrangement of phrases and clauses within sentences.
- 2) A phrase is a group of words that functions as a single unit within a sentence, often consisting of a headword (e.g., noun phrase, verb phrase).
- 3) Clauses are larger units that contain a subject and a predicate, and they can be independent (expressing a complete thought) or dependent (incomplete and relying on an independent clause for meaning).

e. Sentence Types:

- 1) Syntax distinguishes between different types of sentences, such as declarative (statements), interrogative (questions), imperative (commands), and exclamatory (exclamations).
- 2) Each type has its own rules for word order and punctuation.

f. Sentence Complexity:

- 1) Syntax allows for complex sentences with multiple clauses and phrases, often connected by conjunctions.
- 2) Understanding how to construct complex sentences is essential for conveying nuanced ideas and relationships between different sentence parts.

g. Punctuation:

Punctuation marks, such as commas, semicolons, and colons, are essential syntax components. They help indicate pauses and separate clauses and clarify the

relationships between words and phrases within sentences.

h. Ambiguity:

- 1) Syntax plays a role in resolving ambiguity in sentences. Ambiguity arises when a sentence can be interpreted in multiple ways due to its structure or word placement.
- 2) Effective syntax aims to minimize ambiguity to ensure clear communication.

i. Stylistic Choices:

While syntax involves rules, it also allows for stylistic choices in writing and speech. Writers and speakers can vary sentence structure for emphasis, rhythm, and flow.

j. Language Variations:

Different languages have different syntactical rules, and even within a single language, syntax variations may occur based on regional dialects or informal vs. formal language.

In summary, syntax is the rules governing how words are structured and arranged to create sentences in a language. It is a crucial aspect of grammar, as it ensures that sentences are coherent, meaningful, and capable of conveying complex ideas. Understanding syntax is essential for effective communication and language comprehension.

3. Sentence types

Sentence types refer to sentences' different categories or classifications based on their purpose and structure. There are four main sentence types: declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory. Each serves a specific function in communication:

a. Declarative Sentences:

- 1) Declarative sentences, also known as statements, are the most common sentence type.
- 2) They are used to make statements, provide information, express opinions, or relay facts.

- 3) Declarative sentences typically end with a period (full stop).
 - 4) Example: "The sun is shining."
- b. Interrogative Sentences:
- 1) Interrogative sentences are used to ask questions and seek information.
 - 2) They often begin with question words (who, what, where, when, why, how) or auxiliary verbs (is, are, can, will) and end with a question mark.
 - 3) There are two main types of interrogative sentences:
 - Yes-No Questions require a simple "yes" or "no" answer.
Example: "Are you coming to the party?"
 - Wh-Questions: These ask for more specific information and typically begin with question words.
Example: "What time does the movie start?"
- c. Imperative Sentences:
- 1) Imperative sentences are used to give commands, make requests, or offer suggestions.
 - 2) They often begin with a base verb and do not have a subject (though the subject "you" is implied).
 - 3) Imperative sentences can be punctuated with a period or an exclamation mark, depending on the tone and urgency.
 - 4) Examples:
 - "Please pass me the salt."
 - "Close the door."
- d. Exclamatory Sentences:
- 1) Exclamatory sentences express strong emotions, surprise, excitement, or emphasis.
 - 2) They often begin with an exclamation (such as "Wow," "Oh," "Ouch") or an adverb (such as "How" or "What") and end with an exclamation mark.
 - 3) Exclamatory sentences can also be formed by rephrasing declarative sentences with added emotion.

4) Examples:

- "What a beautiful sunset!"
- "Ouch! That hurt!"

It's important to note that while these are the four primary sentence types, sentences can also be combined to create complex structures. For instance, a sentence might begin as an interrogative sentence but become declarative when the answer is provided. Additionally, the tone and context can influence the choice of sentence type, allowing for variations and flexibility in communication.

Understanding the different sentence types is crucial for effective communication because it helps convey the intended message and tone appropriately in various situations.

4. Tenses

Tenses are a fundamental aspect of grammar that indicates when an action, event, or state occurs about the present, past, or future. Understanding tenses is essential for constructing sentences and expressing ideas clearly in time-specific contexts. In English, there are several tenses, each with its structure and usage:

a. Present Simple (Simple Present):

- 1) This tense describes habitual actions, general truths, or permanent situations.
- 2) Form: Subject + base verb (e.g., He works in the office.)
- 3) Negative: Subject + do not/does not + base verb (e.g., She does not like spicy food.)
- 4) Questions: Do/Does + subject + base verb (e.g., Do you play the guitar?)

b. Present Continuous (Present Progressive):

- 1) This tense describes actions happening at the moment of speaking or temporary actions in the present.
- 2) Form: Subject + am/is/are + present participle (e.g., They are studying for the test.)

- 3) Negative: Subject + am not/is not/are not + present participle (e.g., I am not working today.)
 - 4) Questions: Am/Is/Are + subject + present participle (e.g., Are you coming to the party?)
- c. Present Perfect:
- 1) This tense is used to express actions or events that have occurred at an unspecified time before the present. It often emphasizes the result or connection to the present.
 - 2) Form: Subject + have/has + past participle (e.g., She has traveled to many countries.)
 - 3) Negative: Subject + have not/has not + past participle (e.g., They have not finished their homework.)
 - 4) Questions: Have/Has + subject + past participle (e.g., Have you ever been to Paris?)
- d. Past Simple (Simple Past):
- 1) This tense describes completed actions or events in the past.
 - 2) Form: Subject + past tense verb (e.g., He visited London last year.)
 - 3) Negative: Subject + did not + base verb (e.g., She did not attend the meeting.)
 - 4) Questions: Did + subject + base verb (e.g., Did you watch the movie?)
- e. Past Continuous (Past Progressive):
- 1) This tense describes actions or events that were in progress at a specific time in the past.
 - 2) Form: Subject + was/were + present participle (e.g., They were studying when the phone rang.)
 - 3) Negative: Subject + was not/were not + present participle (e.g., I was not sleeping.)
 - 4) Questions: Was/Were + subject + present participle (e.g., Were you working late last night?)
- f. Past Perfect:
- 1) This tense indicates that one action or event in the past occurred before another action or event in the past.

- 2) Form: Subject + had + past participle (e.g., She had finished her book before the movie started.)
 - 3) Negative: Subject + had not + past participle (e.g., They had not seen each other in years.)
 - 4) Questions: Had + subject + past participle (e.g., Had you eaten when I arrived?)
- g. Future Simple (Simple Future):
- 1) This tense is used to express actions or events that will happen in the future.
 - 2) Form: Subject + will + base verb (e.g., I will call you tomorrow.)
 - 3) Negative: Subject + will not + base verb (e.g., She will not attend the conference.)
 - 4) Questions: Will + subject + base verb (e.g., Will they arrive on time?)
- h. Future Continuous (Future Progressive):
- 1) This tense describes actions in progress at a specific time.
 - 2) Form: Subject + will be + present participle (e.g., We will be traveling next week.)
 - 3) Negative: Subject + will not be + present participle (e.g., He will not work on Saturday.)
 - 4) Questions: Will + subject + be + present participle (e.g., Will you come to the party?)
- i. Future Perfect:
- 1) This tense expresses that one action or event will be completed before another action or event in the future.
 - 2) Form: Subject + will have + past participle (e.g., By next year, they will have lived here for a decade.)
 - 3) Negative: Subject + will not have + past participle (e.g., She will not have finished the report by then.)
 - 4) Questions: Will + subject + have + past participle (e.g., Will you have completed the project by Friday?)
- j. Future Perfect Continuous (Future Perfect Progressive):
- 1) This tense indicates that an action or event will have been ongoing for a particular duration before another action or event in the future.

- 2) Form: Subject + will have been + present participle (e.g., I will have been waiting for an hour by the time they arrive.)
- 3) Negative: Subject + will not have been + present participle (e.g., She will not have been working here for long.)
- 4) Questions: Will + subject + have been + present participle (e.g., Will you have been studying all night?)

Understanding and using tenses correctly is vital for effective communication, as it allows speakers and writers to convey when actions or events occur about the present, past, or future. The choice of tense also impacts the clarity and coherence of a narrative or description.

5. Morphology

Morphology is the branch of linguistics that deals with the structure of words, how words are formed, and how they relate to each other in a language. It focuses on understanding the minor units of meaning in language, known as morphemes, and how these morphemes combine to create words. Morphology helps linguists and language learners analyze and understand the structure and purpose of words. Here's a more detailed explanation of morphology:

a. Morphemes:

- 1) Morphemes are the most minor units of meaning in language. They can be individual words or parts of words, such as prefixes, suffixes, and root words.
- 2) There are two main types of morphemes:
 - Free Morphemes: These can stand alone as words with a specific meaning (e.g., "book," "run," "happy").
 - Bound Morphemes: These cannot stand alone and must be attached to other morphemes to convey meaning. Bound morphemes include prefixes (e.g., "un-" in "undo"), suffixes (e.g., "-

ing" in "running"), and infixes (added within a word, like in some Tagalog verb forms).

b. Roots:

- 1) Roots are the core morphemes that carry the primary meaning of a word. They are often free morphemes.
- 2) For example, in the word "happiness," "happy" is the root that conveys the main idea of the word.

c. Affixes:

- 1) Affixes are bound morphemes added to roots to modify their meaning or grammatical function. They can be prefixes or suffixes.
- 2) Prefixes are added at the beginning of a word (e.g., "un-" in "unhappy").
- 3) Suffixes are added at the end of a word (e.g., "-ly" in "happily").

d. Derivation vs. Inflection:

Morphology distinguishes between derivation and inflection:

- Derivation: This involves adding affixes to a word to change its meaning or part of speech. For example, adding "-ness" to "happy" creates "happiness," transforming an adjective into a noun.
- Inflection: This involves adding affixes to a word to indicate grammatical information such as tense, number, or case. For example, adding "-s" to "cat" creates "cats," showing plural.

e. Word Families:

- 1) Morphology helps identify word families, which are groups of words that share the same root but may have different affixes or forms.
- 2) For example, the word family for "act" includes "actor," "actress," "action," "active," and "react."

f. Compounding:

- 1) Compounding is a morphological process where two or more words are combined to create a new word with a distinct meaning.
- 2) For example, "toothbrush" is a compound word formed by combining "tooth" and "brush."

g. Reduplication:

- 1) Reduplication is a morphological process that involves repeating all or part of a word to create a new comment or emphasize a concept.
- 2) it is less common in English but can be seen in words like "mishmash" or "super-duper."

h. Morphological Analysis:

Morphologists use morphological analysis to break down words into constituent morphemes, identify their meanings, and understand how they contribute to word formation and interpretation.

Morphology is a fundamental aspect of language structure and is crucial in understanding words' meaning and grammatical structure. It also varies significantly between languages, and studying morphology is essential for gaining insights into the structure and complexity of different languages.

6. Agreement

Agreement in grammar refers to the correspondence or matching of certain grammatical elements within a sentence. These elements include nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, and sometimes articles. Agreement ensures that the different parts of a sentence are in harmony, making the sentence grammatically correct and understandable. Here are some critical aspects of the contract:

a. Subject-Verb Agreement:

- 1) Subject-verb agreement is one of the most essential forms of contract in English and many other languages. It ensures that the subject and verb in a sentence match in terms of number (singular or plural).
- 2) Singular subjects typically take singular verbs, while plural subjects take plural verbs.
- 3) Examples:
 - "She works in the office." (singular subject "She" matches with singular verb "works")

- "They work in the office." (plural subject "They" matches with plural verb "work")
- b. Pronoun-Antecedent Agreement:
 - 1) Pronoun-antecedent agreement ensures that pronouns (like "he," "she," "it," "they") match in gender and number with their antecedents (the nouns they replace).
 - 2) Examples:
 - "The cat is hungry. It wants to eat." (singular pronoun "It" matches with particular antecedent "cat")
 - "The dogs are barking. They want to play." (plural pronoun "They" matches with plural antecedent "dogs")
- c. Adjective-Noun Agreement:
 - 1) Adjective-noun agreement ensures that adjectives agree with nouns regarding number and gender.
 - 2) In languages with gender, like Spanish or French, adjectives must also match the gender of the nouns they describe.
 - 3) Examples:
 - "The red car is fast." (singular noun "car" matches with the particular adjective "red")
 - "The green apples are ripe." (plural noun "apples" matches with the plural adjective "green")
- d. Article-Noun Agreement:
 - 1) Articles (definite "the" or indefinite "a/an") should agree with nouns in terms of number and gender in languages that have gendered articles.
 - 2) Examples:
 - "The book is on the table." (definite article "The" matches with singular noun "book")
 - "An apple fell from the tree." (indefinite article "An" matches with singular noun "apple")
- e. Verb Tense Agreement:
 - 1) Agreement in verb tenses ensures that the time frame of actions in a sentence is consistent.

- 2) For example, in complex sentences, the choice of tenses in subordinate clauses should match the main clause to avoid confusion.
- 3) Example:
 - "She said that she will come tomorrow." (verb tense agreement between the main clause, "She said," and the subordinate clause, "She will come")
- f. Number Agreement with Quantifiers:
 - 1) Quantifiers like "some," "many," "few," and "several" should agree with nouns in terms of number.
 - 2) Examples:
 - "Many students attend the lecture." (plural noun "students" matches with the quantifier "Many")
 - "Some food is left." (singular noun "food" matches with the quantifier "Some")
- g. Special Cases (Collective Nouns, Irregular Verbs):
 - 1) Some nouns, like "team," "family," or "jury," can be singular or plural depending on context.
 - 2) Irregular verbs may not follow the typical subject-verb agreement rules in particular tenses. For example, "have" is irregular in the present tense: "I have, you have, he/she/it has."

Understanding and applying agreement rules is crucial for producing grammatically correct sentences and ensuring clarity in communication. Violating agreement rules can lead to confusion and make sentences sound awkward or incorrect.

7. Punctuation

Punctuation is a set of symbols used in writing to clarify and enhance the meaning of sentences. Punctuation marks serve various functions, such as indicating pauses, separating clauses, and providing emphasis. Understanding punctuation is essential for clear and effective communication in written language. Here are some key punctuation marks and their functions:

- a. Period (.):
 - 1) The period marks the end of a declarative sentence or a statement.
 - 2) Example: "She is reading a book."
- b. Question Mark (?):
 - 1) The question mark indicates the end of an interrogative sentence or a question.
 - 2) Example: "Are you coming to the party?"
- c. Exclamation Mark (!):
 - 1) The exclamation mark conveys strong emotion, surprise, or excitement.
 - 2) Example: "Wow! That's amazing!"
- d. Comma (,):

Commas have several functions:

 - 1) Separating items in a list (e.g., "apples, oranges, and bananas").
 - 2) Setting off introductory phrases or clauses (e.g., "After dinner, we went for a walk.").
 - 3) Separating independent clauses in a compound sentence (e.g., "She likes coffee, but he prefers tea.").
 - 4) Setting off nonessential information (e.g., "My brother, who lives in New York, is visiting.").
 - 5) Separating items in dates, addresses, and numbers (e.g., "June 1, 2023" or "1,000").
- e. Semicolon (;):
 - 1) The semicolon connects two closely related independent clauses in a sentence.
 - 2) Example: "She finished her work; now she can relax."
- f. Colon (:):

Colons have several functions:

 - 1) Introducing a list, explanation, or quotation (e.g., "Please bring the following items: pen, paper, and a calculator.").
 - 2) Separating hours from minutes in time notation (e.g., 3:30 PM).
- g. Apostrophe ('):

The apostrophe is used for:

- 1) Indicating possession (e.g., "Sarah's book" or "the dog's collar").
- 2) Contraction (e.g., "can't" for "cannot" or "I'm" for "I am").
- h. Quotation Marks (" "):
 - 1) Quotation marks are used to enclose direct speech or quoted material.
 - 2) Example: She said, "I'll be there by 3 PM."
- i. Parentheses ():
 - 1) Parentheses set off additional, nonessential information or explanations within a sentence.
 - 2) Example: "The conference (scheduled for next week) has been postponed."
- j. Brackets []:
 - 1) Brackets often enclose editorial comments or clarifications within a quoted passage.
 - 2) Example: "He said, 'I [don't] agree with that assessment.'"
- k. Ellipsis (...):
 - 1) The ellipsis indicates the omission of words or a pause in speech or thought.
 - 2) Example: "She thought for a moment, then said..."
- l. Dash (—):
 - 1) Dashes can be used to set off a parenthetical comment or to emphasize a point.
 - 2) Example: "The weather—unpredictable as always—caused delays."
- m. Slash (/):
 - 1) The slash indicates alternatives, often in abbreviations or when referring to a compound word.
 - 2) Example: "and," "he/she," "and."
- n. Hyphen (-):
 - 1) The hyphen joins compound words, indicates word breaks at the end of lines, or clarifies meaning.
 - 2) Example: "well-known," "twenty-one," "re-enter."

- o. En Dash (–) and Em Dash (—):
 - 1) These longer dashes are used for various purposes, including indicating ranges (en dash) and setting off parenthetical statements (em dash).
 - 2) Example: "pages 10–15," "She arrived late—almost an hour after everyone else."

Proper punctuation is crucial for conveying meaning accurately and making your writing clear and readable. While punctuation rules can vary somewhat between languages and writing styles, adhering to punctuation conventions is essential for effective communication in written form.

8. Common grammar errors

Common grammar errors are mistakes in language usage that frequently occur in spoken and written communication. These errors can undermine your writing or speech's clarity, correctness, and effectiveness. Awareness of these common errors can help you avoid them and improve your language skills. Here are some common grammar errors and explanations:

- a. Subject-Verb Agreement Errors:
 - 1) This error occurs when the subject and verb in a sentence do not match in terms of number (singular or plural).
 - 2) Example of error: "The team is playing well."
 - 3) Corrected: "The team is playing well."
- b. Misplaced and Dangling Modifiers:
 - 1) Misplaced modifiers are words or phrases incorrectly positioned in a sentence, leading to confusion about what they modify.
 - 2) Dangling modifiers are modifiers that have no clear word to modify.
 - 3) Example of error: "Running to catch the bus, my phone fell and broke."
 - 4) Corrected: "While I was running to catch the bus, my phone fell and broke."

- c. Run-On Sentences and Comma Splices:
 - 1) Run-on sentences occur when two independent clauses are joined without proper punctuation or conjunctions.
 - 2) Comma splices happen when two independent clauses are incorrectly connected with just a comma.
 - 3) Example of error: "I love reading; I could spend hours with a good book."
 - 4) Corrected: "I love reading. I could spend hours with a good book."
- d. Sentence Fragments:
 - 1) Sentence fragments are incomplete sentences that lack a subject, verb, or complete thought.
 - 2) Example of error: "Because it was raining."
 - 3) Corrected: "I stayed home because it was raining."
- e. Confusing Homophones:
 - 1) Homophones sound the same but have different meanings and spellings.
 - 2) Examples of error:
 - "Their going to the store." (Error: "their" should be "they're")
 - "He overate pie." (Error: "ate" should be "eight")
- f. Double Negatives:
 - 1) Using two negatives in a sentence often cancels them, producing a positive meaning.
 - 2) Example of error: "I don't need no help."
 - 3) Corrected: "I don't need any help."
- g. Apostrophe Misuse:
 - 1) Misusing apostrophes can lead to errors in indicating possession or forming contractions.
 - 2) Example of error:
 - "The cat's toy is missing." (Error: "cats" should be "cat's")
 - "Its a beautiful day." (Error: "Its" should be "It's")

- h. Incorrect Use of Pronouns:
 - 1) Using the wrong pronoun or having unclear antecedents (the nouns pronouns refer to) can confuse.
 - 2) Example of error: "Sara told Jane she should bring her umbrella."
 - 3) Corrected: "Sara told Jane to bring her umbrella."
- i. Confusing Adjectives and Adverbs:
 - 1) Adjectives modify nouns, while adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. Mixing them up can lead to unclear meanings.
 - 2) Example of error: "She sings well."
 - 3) Corrected: "She sings well."
- j. Overusing Passive Voice:
 - 1) Overusing passive voice can make sentences less direct and less engaging.
 - 2) Example of error: "John read the book."
 - 3) Corrected (active voice): "John read the book."
- k. Lack of Agreement in Comparisons:
 - 1) Comparisons should be parallel in structure, meaning the items being compared should be grammatically similar.
 - 2) Example of error: "She is more talented than her brother is intelligent."
 - 3) Corrected: "She is more talented than her brother is."
- l. Incomplete Comparisons:
 - 1) Incomplete comparisons can leave readers or listeners wondering what is being compared.
 - 2) Example of error: "This cake is better."
 - 3) Corrected (by completing the comparison): "This cake is better than the one I had yesterday."
- m. Confusing Your and You're:
 - 1) Mixing up "your" (possessive) and "you're" (contraction of "you are") is a common mistake.
 - 2) Example of error: "You'll love this movie."
 - 3) Corrected: "You're going to love this movie."

- n. Confusing There, Their, and They're:
 - 1) These homophones are often misused, leading to confusion.
 - 2) Example of error: "They are going to their house."
 - 3) Corrected: "They're going to their house."
- o. Misuse of Irregular Verbs:
 - 1) Irregular verbs have unique past tense forms that should be used correctly.
 - 2) Example of error: "She dashes."
 - 3) Corrected: "She dashed."

To improve your grammar and avoid these common errors, it's essential to proofread your writing carefully, use grammar checkers, and seek feedback from others. Also, studying grammar rules and practicing regularly can help you become a more proficient communicator in written and spoken language.

9. Style and register

Style and register are essential concepts in linguistics and communication that deal with how language is used in different contexts to convey meaning, tone, and social relationships. They are particularly relevant in written and spoken communication and can significantly impact the effectiveness of your message. Here's a more detailed explanation of style and register:

Style refers to how a writer or speaker uses language to express their thoughts, ideas, and emotions. It encompasses various expression elements, including word choice, sentence structure, tone, and rhetorical devices. Here are some key aspects of style:

- a. Word Choice: Style involves choosing words appropriate for the audience and the purpose of the communication. It includes selecting specific vocabulary, such as formal or informal terms, technical jargon, or colloquial expressions.
- b. Tone: The tone of a piece of communication can be formal, informal, conversational, persuasive, humorous,

or any other emotional or attitudinal quality. The style sets the overall mood and attitude of the message.

- c. **Sentence Structure:** The way sentences are structured—whether they are long or short, complex or straightforward, and how they are punctuated—contributes to the style of a piece of writing or speech.
- d. **Rhetorical Devices:** These are techniques used to enhance the persuasiveness or impact of communication. Examples include metaphors, similes, alliteration, and rhetorical questions.
- e. **Figurative Language:** Using figurative language, such as symbolism, irony, and hyperbole, can add depth and richness to a text's style.
- f. **Voice:** Voice refers to the writer's or speaker's unique personality and perspective in their writing or speaking. It includes their attitudes, values, and beliefs, influencing the style.
- g. **Register:** Register is closely related to style but focuses on the language choices made in specific contexts, often based on social factors like the setting, the participants, and the purpose of communication.

Register is the variation of language that occurs based on the social context of communication. It involves adapting your language and style to fit the expectations and norms of a particular situation. The register can be broadly categorized into several levels:

- a. **Formal Register:** Formal register is used in professional, academic, or serious contexts. It typically employs standard grammar, vocabulary, and sentence structure. Examples include academic papers, legal documents, and official speeches.
- b. **Informal Register:** Informal register is used in casual, relaxed, or everyday situations. It often includes colloquial language, contractions, and a conversational tone. Examples include personal emails, text messages, and friendly conversations.
- c. **Technical Register:** Technical register is used in specialized fields and industries, such as medicine, law,

or engineering. It includes technical jargon, specific terminology, and precise language to communicate effectively within a particular field.

- d. **Literary Register:** The literary register is often associated with creative writing, poetry, and literature. It emphasizes creativity, imagery, and artistic expression. It may use figurative language and unconventional sentence structures for artistic effect.
- e. **Slang Register:** Slang register uses informal, non-standard vocabulary and expressions. It is often associated with specific social groups or subcultures and is used to create a sense of belonging or identity.
- f. **Honorific Register:** In some languages, including Japanese and Korean, a specific register is used to show respect or politeness to others. It involves using honorific prefixes, suffixes, or verb forms when addressing individuals of higher social status or authority.

Understanding and appropriately using different registers is crucial for effective communication. Using the wrong record in a given context can lead to miscommunication or create social discomfort. Skilled communicators are adept at adjusting their style and register to suit the demands of various situations and audiences.

10. Language variation

Language variation refers to the differences and variations in how people speak and write a language. These variations can occur for various reasons, including geographical, social, historical, and cultural factors. Language is not uniform; it adapts and evolves, resulting in different forms, dialects, and registers. Here's a more detailed explanation of language variation:

- a. **Geographical Variation:**
 - 1) Geographical variation occurs due to differences in language use across different regions and locations. It can manifest in pronunciation, vocabulary, and even grammatical structures.

- 2) For example, in the United States, people from different regions may pronounce words differently ("cot" and "caught" may be pronounced the same way in some areas and differently in others).
- b. Social Variation:
 - 1) Social variation is linked to individuals' social groups and classes. Socioeconomic status, education, and occupation can influence people's speech.
 - 2) Sociolinguists study social variation and often identify speech patterns associated with specific social groups. For instance, certain speech features might be related to higher education or particular occupations.
 - c. Historical Variation:
 - 1) Historical variation involves changes in language over time. Languages evolve and features standard in the past may become archaic or fall out of use.
 - 2) For example, in English, the use of "thou" and "thee" as second-person pronouns has largely disappeared in favor of "you."
 - d. Cultural Variation:
 - 1) Cultural factors, such as ethnicity, religion, and customs, can influence language variation. Cultural communities often have their distinct ways of speaking.
 - 2) Bilingualism and multilingualism, common in many cultures, can also lead to variation as individuals switch between or incorporate elements from one language into another.
 - e. Register Variation:
 - 1) Register variation refers to the differences in language use depending on the formality or context of communication. Different registers are used in formal, informal, academic, technical, and other specific contexts.
 - 2) For instance, the language used in a casual conversation with friends will differ from that used in a scientific research paper.

f. Dialect Variation:

- 1) Dialects are specific regional or social varieties of a language. They can encompass differences in pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, and even cultural references.
- 2) For example, American English includes dialects like Southern English, African American Vernacular English (AAVE), and New England English, each with unique features.

g. Gender and Age Variation:

- 1) Factors like gender and age can also influence language variation. Men and women may use language differently, which can change as individuals age.
- 2) Studies have shown that, on average, women tend to use more standard or formal language, while men may use more non-standard or colloquial language features in some contexts.

h. Globalization and Technology:

Globalization and the widespread use of technology have led to increased contact between different language varieties. As a result, languages may borrow words, phrases, or even grammar from other languages, leading to new forms of language variation.

i. Prescriptive vs. Descriptive Approaches:

Prescriptive grammar dictates what is considered "correct" language use, often based on standardized forms. On the other hand, descriptive grammar aims to describe how language is used by speakers and writers, recognizing and studying the existing variations.

Language variation is a natural and dynamic aspect of language. It enriches the diversity and complexity of languages but can also present challenges in terms of communication and understanding. Linguists study these variations to understand better the richness of languages and how they reflect the diversity of human cultures and societies.

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CHAPTER 2

SENTENCE STRUCTURE

By Ivan Rifai

2.1 Introduction

Sentence structure pertains to how words, phrases, and clauses are organized in a sentence to effectively communicate meaning. This forms the basis of both written and spoken communication, shaping how concepts are introduced and comprehended. A skillfully crafted sentence adheres to particular formats and guidelines, including agreement between subjects and verbs, correct arrangement of words, and suitable use of punctuation. Grasping sentence structure is essential for expressing ideas clearly and logically, enabling us to convey thoughts, exchange information, pose inquiries, issue commands, and articulate feelings with accuracy and coherence.

2.2 Key Components of Sentence Structure

Sentence structure is a fundamental aspect of grammar and plays a crucial role in communication. Key components and concepts related to sentence structure consist of subject and predicate, types of sentences, basic sentence structures, clauses, phrase types, word order, modifiers and complements, parallelism, and punctuation (Thomson, Martinet and Draycott, 1986; Narcy-Combes, 2003; Grieve, 2015; Caldas-Coulthard and Coulthard, 2020).

2.2.1 Subject and Predicate

The subject and predicate constitute the fundamental elements of a sentence that collaborate to express significance. They furnish details about the primary action or concept in the sentence. Let's explore both of these elements more profoundly:

1. Subject

Subject is what the sentence is about. It is usually a noun, pronoun, or noun phrase. Subject often performs the action

or is the main focus of the sentence. Subject can also include any modifiers (adjectives, articles) that describe or provide more information about it.

Examples:

- a. "John" is the subject in the sentence "**John** is reading a book".
- b. "The big red car" is the subject in the sentence "**The big red car** is parked in the driveway".

2. Predicate

The predicate provides information about the subject's action, state, or what is happening in the sentence. It contains the verb and other elements such as direct objects, adverbs, and complements. In a complete sentence, the predicate is what gives meaning to the subject.

Examples:

- a. "is reading a book" is the predicate in the sentence "John **is** reading a book."
- b. "is parked in the driveway" **is** the predicate in the sentence "The big red car is parked in the driveway."

3. Verb

Verb is a crucial element of the predicate. It represents the action performed by the subject or the state of the subject. Verbs can be action verbs (e.g., run, eat) or linking verbs (e.g., is, seems), which connect the subject to a subject complement (adjective or noun).

Examples:

- a. In the sentence "She **sang** beautifully," "sang" is the verb.
- b. In the sentence "The soup **smells** delicious," "smells" is the linking verb.

4. Direct Object and Complements

In some sentences, the predicate may include a direct object or other complements. A direct object is a noun or pronoun that receives the action of the verb. Subject complements (predicate nominatives or predicate adjectives) provide

additional information about the subject or link it to the verb.

Examples:

- a. In the sentence "She ate **an apple**," "an apple" is the direct object.
- b. In the sentence "He is **a doctor**," "doctor" is the predicate nominative (subject complement).

Grasping the connection between the subject and predicate is vital for crafting sentences that are coherent and meaningful. A skillfully organized sentence featuring a distinct subject and predicate contributes to the seamless and efficient transmission of information.

5. Types of Sentences

Four primary sentence categories exist, each possessing its distinct objective and structure. The choice of sentence style hinges on the intended message you wish to convey. Let's examine these four classifications:

6. Declarative Sentences

Declarative sentences make statements or provide information. They convey facts, opinions, or descriptions. Declarative sentences end with a period (full stop).

Examples:

- a. "The sun rises in the east."
- b. "She enjoys painting landscapes."
- c. "Elephants are the largest land animals."

7. Interrogative Sentences

Interrogative sentences ask questions to seek information or clarification. Interrogative sentences end with a question mark.

Examples:

- a. "Did you finish your homework?"
- b. "What time does the movie start?"
- c. "Where is the nearest grocery store?"

8. Imperative Sentences

Imperative sentences give commands, make requests, or offer instructions. Imperative sentences can end with a period (full stop) or an exclamation mark, depending on the tone.

Examples :

- a. "Please pass the salt."
- b. "Close the door before you leave."
- c. "Listen carefully to my instructions!"

9. Exclamatory Sentences

Exclamatory sentences express strong emotions, surprise, or exclamations. Exclamatory sentences end with an exclamation mark.

Examples :

- a. "What a beautiful sunset!"
- b. "I can't believe you did that!"
- c. "Wow, that was an amazing performance!"

Selecting the suitable sentence kind in alignment with your communication objectives holds significance. Employing the correct sentence type facilitates the precise and efficient expression of your intentions. Moreover, blending diverse sentence forms permits the generation of more intricate and diverse written or spoken communication.

10. Basic Sentence Structures

Fundamental sentence arrangements pertain to the various manners in which the subject and predicate of a sentence are organized (Widdowson, 2000). These structures serve as the cornerstone of constructing sentences and establish a structure for conveying information. The following are the principal categories of fundamental sentence structures:

a. Simple Sentence

A simple sentence consists of a single independent clause, which includes a subject and a predicate. It expresses a complete thought.

Example :

"She sings beautifully"

b. Compound Sentence

A compound sentence consists of two or more independent clauses joined together using coordinating conjunctions (such as "and," "but," "or") or a semicolon.

Example :

"She sings beautifully, and he plays the guitar"

c. Complex Sentence

A complex sentence contains one independent clause and at least one dependent (subordinate) clause. The dependent clause cannot stand alone as a complete sentence.

Example:

"After I bake the cookies, I will visit my sister."

d. Compound-Complex Sentence

A compound-complex sentence combines elements of both compound and complex sentences. It has two or more independent clauses and at least one dependent clause.

Example :

"Although she sings beautifully, she still gets nervous before performing, and she practices diligently."

Comprehending these primary sentence structures empowers you to diversify your writing approach, generate varied impacts, and communicate more intricate concepts. Blending these structures also preserves a smooth rhythm in your writing and imparts richness to your communication.

e. Clauses

Clauses play a crucial role in the structure of sentences, aiding in the transmission of intricate concepts through the fusion of diverse fragments of information. A clause is a cluster of words encompassing a subject and a verb

(predicate), forming a comprehensive notion (Evans, 2012). Two primary types of clauses exist: independent clauses, which stand alone, and dependent clauses, which rely on others for context.

f. Independent Clause

An independent clause can stand alone as a complete sentence because it expresses a complete thought. It has both a subject and a predicate, allowing it to convey a clear idea.

Example :

"She went to the store "

g. Dependent Clause (Subordinate Clause)

A dependent clause cannot stand alone as a complete sentence because it doesn't express a complete thought. It relies on an independent clause to provide context and complete its meaning. Dependent clauses often begin with subordinating conjunctions like "because," "although," "when," "if," "while," and more.

Example :

"Because she wanted to buy groceries, she went to the store"

Dependent clause can serve different functions within sentences :

1) Adjective Clause

These clauses provide more information about a noun in the sentence. They usually begin with relative pronouns like "who," "whom," "whose," "which," or "that."

Example :

"The book that she borrowed from the library is very interesting"

2) Adverb Clause

These clauses provide information about the action in the main clause. They often begin with

subordinating conjunctions like "because," "although," "when," "if," "while," and more.

Example :

"She studied diligently because she wanted to do well on the exam"

3) Noun Clauses

These clauses function as nouns within sentences. They can serve as subjects, objects, or complements.

Example :

- Subject : "What she said surprised me"
- Object : "I don't know where she went"
- Complement : "His goal is to become a successful musician"

Merging independent and dependent clauses enables the construction of sentences that are both intricate and finely detailed. Complexity within sentences is attainable through diverse clause combinations, and by appropriately punctuating the sentence to elucidate the connections between these clauses.

11. Phrase Types

Aside from clauses, phrases also hold significance within the structure of sentences. Phrases consist of interconnected words but lack both a subject and a verb, rendering them incapable of standing alone as complete thoughts. Instead, they operate as foundational elements within sentences, furnishing additional details and context. Here are several prevalent categories of phrases:

a. Noun Phrase

A noun phrase consists of a noun and its modifiers. It can function as the subject, object, or complement in a sentence.

Example :

"The **large, old** house **on the corner** is for sale"

b. Verb Phrase

A verb phrase includes the main verb and any auxiliary (helping) verbs, as well as adverbs and other modifiers.

Example:

"She **has been studying** very **hard** for the test."

c. Adjective Phrase

An adjective phrase consists of an adjective and its modifiers. It describes or provides more information about a noun.

Example :

"The painting is **incredibly vivid and captivating**"

d. Adverb Phrase

An adverb phrase consists of an adverb and its modifiers. It describes or provides more information about a verb, adjective, or adverb.

Example :

"She sings **very beautifully**"

e. Prepositional Phrase

A prepositional phrase starts with a preposition and includes the object of the preposition (usually a noun or pronoun) and any modifiers.

Example:

"He is reading **a book on the beach**."

f. Participial Phrase

A participial phrase includes a present or past participle (verb form) along with its modifiers. It functions as an adjective.

Example :

"**Walking quickly**, she reached the finish line"

g. Gerund Phrase

A gerund phrase consists of a gerund (verb form ending in "-ing") and its modifiers. It functions as a noun.

Example :

"Swimming in the ocean is my favorite activity"

h. Infinitive Phrase

An infinitive phrase includes an infinitive verb (to + base form of the verb) and any modifiers. It can function as a noun, adjective, or adverb.

Example :

"Her goal is **to become a doctor**"

Incorporating various kinds of phrases introduces diversity and intricacy to your writing, elevating the overall framework and conveying a greater amount of information. Grasping the mechanics of phrases aids in crafting sentences that are more intricate and logically connected.

i. Word Order

Word order, referred to as syntax, involves organizing words within a sentence to express meaning. Diverse languages exhibit distinct word arrangements, making comprehension of word order vital for successful communication. In English, the standard word sequence for fundamental declarative sentences is subject-verb-object (SVO). However, deviations can be employed to emphasize, stylize, or convey specific nuances. Presented below are several facets of word order:

1) Basic Word Order

In English, the standard word order is SVO, where the subject comes first, followed by the verb, and then the object.

Example :

"She (subject) reads (verb) a book (object)."

2) Subject-Verb Agreement

The subject and verb in a sentence should agree in number (singular or plural).

Example:

"He (singular subject) writes (singular verb) a letter."

3) Inverted Word Order

In some cases, the standard word order is inverted for emphasis or to form questions.

Example :

- (emphasis) : "Down the street ran the playful dog."
- (question) : "Is she coming to the party?"

3) Adjective-Noun Order

In English, adjectives typically come before the nouns they modify.

Example:

"Blue (adjective) sky (noun)."

4) Adverb Placement

Adverbs often come before the verb or after the object they modify.

Example:

"She sings (verb) beautifully (adverb)."

5) Indirect and Direct Object Order

When both an indirect object and a direct object are present, the indirect object usually comes before the direct object.

Example:

"She gave (verb) him (indirect object) a gift (direct object)."

6) Conjunctions and Coordinating Word Order

When coordinating conjunctions like "and," "but," "or" are used to join elements, the word order remains consistent.

Example:

"She likes both pizza (object) and pasta (object)."

8) Clausal Word Order

When combining clauses, the order of the clauses can vary based on the intended meaning and emphasis.

Example:

"Although it was raining (clause), they went for a walk (clause)."

8) Parallelism

Maintaining a consistent word order and structure within sentences or lists can create balance and clarity.

Example:

"She enjoys reading, writing, and painting."

It's worth acknowledging that, although English maintains a somewhat consistent word sequence, other languages may exhibit distinct arrangements. Recognizing the suitable word order for the specific language you are utilizing is imperative to ensure communication is both clear and efficient.

13. Modifiers and Complements

Modifiers and complements constitute vital elements of sentences, furnishing supplementary details regarding the subject, verb, or object. Their significance lies in their pivotal role in enriching the significance and lucidity of sentences. Now, let's delve deeper into the intricacies of modifiers and complements:

a. Modifiers

Modifiers encompass words or phrases that furnish depiction, elaboration, or clarification to various elements within a sentence. They possess the capability to alter nouns, verbs, adjectives, or adverbs, contributing to the creation of a more vibrant portrayal or augmenting precision within the conveyed information. Here, we present various categories of modifiers:

b. Adjective

Adjectives modify nouns or pronouns by describing their qualities or characteristics.

Example:

"The **blue** sky is **clear**."

c. Adverb

Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs by providing information about how, when, where, or to what degree an action or quality occurs.

Example: "She sings **beautifully**."

14. Adjective Phrase and Adverb Phrase

These phrases consist of adjectives or adverbs along with their modifiers. They provide more detailed information.

Example:

"The cake is **extremely delicious**."

a. Complements

Complements consist of words or phrases that fulfill the sense of a sentence. They offer additional details regarding the subject, verb, or object, enhancing the informativeness and coherence of the sentence. Various kinds of complements exist:

1) Subject Complement

A subject complement follows a linking verb (such as "is," "seems," "becomes") and provides more information about the subject. Subject complement can be either a predicate nominative (a noun or pronoun) or a predicate adjective (an adjective).

Example :

- (predicate nominative): "She is a **doctor**."

- (predicate adjective): "The sky looks **cloudy**."

2) Object Complement

An object complement follows a direct object and further describes or renames it.

Example:

"They elected her **president**."

3) Verb Complement

A verb complement completes the meaning of a verb. It can be a direct object, an indirect object, or an object complement.

Example :

- (direct object): "She painted the wall **blue**."

- (indirect object): "She gave him a **gift**."

Modifiers and complements play a role in shaping the overall structure and complexity of a sentence, enabling authors to furnish more intricate details and establish a more comprehensive backdrop for

the reader. Utilizing modifiers and complements appropriately enhances the lucidity and efficacy of communication.

b. Parallelism

Parallelism, both a rhetorical and grammatical technique utilized in both written and spoken language, serves to enhance the equilibrium and harmony of sentences and phrases (Ryant, Yuan and Liberman, 2013). It entails the utilization of analogous grammatical structures, configurations, or models to foster uniformity and lucidity in your communication. Parallelism can be employed across different tiers of language, encompassing everything from individual words and phrases to complete sentences or even entire paragraphs. Here are some fundamental facets of parallelism:

1) Balanced Structure

Parallelism helps balance the elements within a sentence or a series of sentences. This balance can be achieved by maintaining a consistent structure, which makes the text more aesthetically pleasing and easier to follow.

2) Clarity

Parallelism enhances clarity by making it clear how different ideas or elements relate to each other. When similar structures are used, it's easier for the reader or listener to grasp the intended meaning.

3) Rhythm and Flow

Parallelism contributes to the rhythm and flow of a piece of writing or speech. It creates a cadence that can make the text more engaging and memorable.

4) Emphasis

Parallelism can be used to emphasize certain points or ideas by placing them in parallel structures. This draws the reader's attention and underscores the significance of those elements.

5) Types of Parallelism

There are several types of parallelism, including parallelism in words, parallelism in phrases, and parallelism in clauses. Each type involves maintaining a consistent grammatical structure within its respective category. Here are some examples of parallelism in different contexts :

- **Words**

"She likes hiking, swimming, and cycling."

(Parallelism in words because each activity is represented by a gerund form.)

- **Phrases**

"The conference aimed to inform, educate, and inspire." (Parallelism in phrases because each verb is followed by an infinitive.)

- **Clauses**

"He not only studied diligently but also excelled in every subject."

(Parallelism in clauses because both clauses have a similar structure with "not only...but also" linking them.)

In summary, parallelism is a valuable tool in writing and rhetoric that fosters balance, clarity, and rhythm in language. Writers and speakers use it to create more effective and impactful communication by structuring their ideas in a harmonious and consistent manner.

15. Punctuation

Punctuation stands as a vital element in writing, aiding in the transmission of meaning, elucidating connections between ideas, and steering the reader's comprehension of the text. Employing punctuation marks correctly guarantees the accuracy of sentence structure and the effective communication of the intended message. Below, you'll find further details concerning frequently used punctuation marks and their respective purposes:

1. Period (.)

- Function: Indicates the end of a declarative sentence, statement, or abbreviation.
- Example:
"She went to the store."

2. Question Mark (?)

- Function: Indicates the end of an interrogative sentence (a question).
- Example:
"Did you finish your homework?"

3. Exclamation Mark (!)

- Function: Indicates strong emotion, surprise, or emphasis.
- Example:
"What a beautiful sunset!"

4. Comma (,)

- Function: Used to separate items in a list, set off introductory elements, join independent clauses with coordinating conjunctions, and more.
- Examples:
 - "She likes apples, oranges, and bananas."
 - "After finishing her work, she went for a walk."
 - "I wanted to go, but it was raining."

5. Semicolon (;)

- Function: Used to separate closely related independent clauses in compound sentences without a coordinating conjunction; also used to separate items in a list when the items themselves contain commas.
- Examples:
 - "She studied hard; she aced the exam."
 - "The workshop covered grammar, punctuation, and style; public speaking; and time management."

6. Colon (:)

- Function: Often used before a list, explanation, example, or quotation; also used to introduce a formal statement or explanation.

- Examples:
 - "She had three hobbies: reading, painting, and gardening."
 - "The main points are: clarity, coherence, and conciseness."

7. Quotation Marks (" " or ' ')

- Function: Used to enclose direct speech, quotations, titles of short works (like articles or poems), and to indicate irony or unfamiliar terminology.
- Examples:
 - "She said, 'I will be there by noon.'"
 - He used the term "zeitgeist" to describe the cultural climate.

8. Parentheses ()

- Function: Used to enclose supplementary or explanatory information that is not crucial to the sentence's main message.
- Example:

"The event (which took place last week) was a great success."

9. Brackets []

- Function: Used to enclose added information within a quotation, to clarify or correct something, or to indicate that a word has been changed or added for clarity.
- Example:

"The author wrote, 'The cat [not the dog] is sleeping.'"

10. Ellipsis (...)

- Function: Used to indicate the omission of words or to create suspense or trailing thought.
- Example:

"She said, 'I'm not sure...'"

11. Dash (- or —)

- Function: Used to indicate an abrupt change in thought, emphasize information, set off appositives, or add emphasis.

- Example:
- "She was finally able to visit her dream destination—Paris."

Accurate and uniform application of punctuation improves the legibility and lucidity of your writing. Punctuation marks serve to structure sentences, lead readers through your concepts, and communicate the desired tone and emphasis.

h. Conclusion

To sum up, sentence structure serves as the essential framework on which effective communication is established. How subjects, verbs, objects, phrases, and clauses are arranged in a sentence shapes the clarity, cohesion, and resonance of our messages. By comprehending the interaction of diverse elements like subjects and predicates, modifiers and complements, and the variety of sentence types, we can adeptly shape sentences to convey our thoughts, emotions, and information with accuracy. Additionally, mastering sentence structure empowers us to generate a dynamic flow of ideas, highlight crucial points, and keep the reader engaged. Just as a well-built edifice relies on a sturdy foundation, lucid and impactful communication hinges on a solid comprehension of sentence structure.

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CHAPTER 3

TENSES (WAKTU VERBA)

Oleh Citra Prasiska Puspita Tohamba

3.1 Overview

Tenses in English refer to the form of the verb that indicates when an event occurs. There are several tenses in English that are used to describe different times. The present tense, which is used to talk about acts that are happening right now or often, and the past tense, which is used to discuss events that have already occurred, are among these tenses. In addition, there is the future tense, which is employed to talk about future events (Michaelis, 2020). Tenses in English refer to the system used to indicate when an event or action occurs. Tenses are used to indicate time - whether it's present, past, or future. Here are some of the main tenses in English:

Present Simple Tense: Used to express general facts, habits, or fixed situations.

Example: "She works in an office."

Present Continuous Tense: Used to express actions that are taking place in the present or plans for the future.

Example: "They are watching a movie tonight."

Present Perfect Tense: Used to express actions that happened in the past but still relate to the present time.

Example: "I have visited Paris twice."

Present Perfect Continuous Tense: Used to show actions that started in the past, continue into the present, and will probably continue.

Example: "She has been studying for three hours."

Past Simple Tense: Used to express actions that happened in the past and have already been completed.

Example: "He played soccer yesterday."

Past Continuous Tense: Used to express an ongoing action in the past at a specific time.

Example: "I was reading a book when the phone rang."

Past Perfect Tense: Used to express an action that happened before another action in the past.

Example: "She had already eaten when I arrived."

Past Perfect Continuous Tense: Used to express a continuous action that starts in the past and continues until another action occurs.

Example: "They had been working all day before they took a break."

Future Simple Tense: Used to express an action that will happen in the future.

Example: "She will call you tomorrow."

Future Continuous Tense: Used to express an action that will be in progress in the future at a specific time.

Example: "At this time tomorrow, I will be traveling."

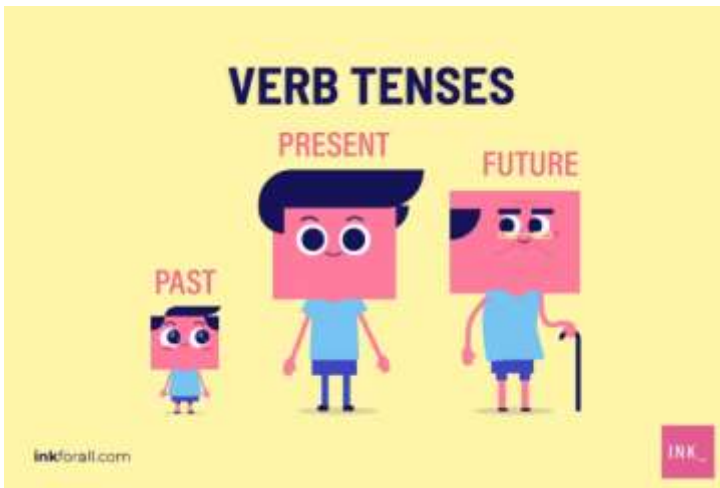
Future Perfect Tense: Used to express an action that will be completed before another action in the future.

Example: "By the time you arrive, I will have finished cooking."

Future Perfect Continuous Tense: Used to express a continuous action that will last until a certain point in the future.

Example: "I will have been studying for five hours by 8 PM."

3.2 Tenses in English Grammar



(Source: <https://blog.inkforall.com/verb-tenses>)

What you need to do to help you learn all the English tenses more easily is to remember the tense formulas and some standard rules in English grammar. All tenses in English are very easy to understand when we know when to use them. You don't need to memorize formulas or rules for different tenses if you can understand the different scenarios used.

Remember the English tenses by practicing them in your daily conversations because that is how you can easily understand the sixteen English tenses without memorizing formulas or how to use them. There are only three basic tenses in English, namely: present, past, and future.

1. Present tense, used for anything that is happening right now or for general statements.
2. Past tense, used for anything that happened before this moment in time.
3. Future tense, the tense used for anything that will happen at some point later than now.

The three basic forms of English tenses have 3 variations, namely simple, continuous and perfect.

Present Tenses

1. Simple present.
2. Present Continuous.
3. Present Perfect.
4. Present Perfect Continuous.

Past Tenses

1. Simple Past
2. Past Continuous
3. Past Future.
4. Past Perfect
5. Past Perfect Continuous
6. Past Future Perfect
7. Past Future Continuous
8. Past Future Perfect Continuous

Future Tenses

1. Simple future.
2. Future continuous
3. Future perfect
4. Future perfect continuous

3.3 Rules of English Tenses

To help you understand when and which tenses to use, below is a detailed description of all English tenses. To communicate effectively in English, it is essential to comprehend the various tenses. You will be able to accurately and concisely convey activities and situations in the past, present, and future by understanding these 16 tenses. Knowing when and which tense to employ will improve your language abilities whether you are speaking, writing, or reading a book.

3.3.1 Present Tense

Simple present tense is used to express actions that are repetitive or unchanging. The action can be a habit, hobby,

recurring event, emotion, or desire. Present tense is not used to express actions that are happening right now.

Moreover, simple present tense is a grammatical tense used to describe actions, events, or situations that are happening, repeated actions, general truths, or scheduled future events. It is important to keep in mind that the simple present tense may also be used to depict frequent occurrences, universal facts, and future plans in addition to activities that are currently taking place.

In English, simple present takes different forms depending on the subject in the sentence:

For third-person singular subjects (he, she, it, singular nouns)

Verb + "s" or "es"

Example: She plays the piano every day.

For other subjects (I, you, we, they, plural nouns)

Verb base form

Example: We play soccer on weekends.

Here are some examples of simple present tense usage:

Repetitive action	She reads books every night before bed.
General truth/fact	The sun rises in the east.
Scheduled event	The conference starts next week.
Opinions and beliefs	I believe in treating others kindly.
Instructions or directions	First, you mix the ingredients together.
Sports commentary	He shoots and scores!

Rules of Simple Present Tense

Type of Sentence	Form	Present Tense Formula
Positive	Verbal	Subject + Verb-1 + (s/es)
	Nomina	Subject + is/am/are + nominal
Negative	Verbal	Subject + do/does + not + Infinitive
	Nomina	Subject + is/am/are + not + nominal
Interrogative	Verbal	Do/does + Subject + Infintive
	Nomina	Is/am/are + Subject + nominal

3.3.2 Present Continous Tense

This tense is active verbs in the form of present participle ending in "-ing" and also with "to be". The formula for present continuous tense is subject + to be + verb-ing. The present continuous tense is used to describe actions in progress at the moment of speaking or around the present time. It is not typically used for general truths or habitual actions; for those situations, the simple present tense is more appropriate.

Rules of Present Continous Tense

Type of Sentence	Present Continous Tense
Positive	S + to be + Verb-ing
Negative	S + to be + not + Verb-ing
Interrogative	To be + S + Verb-ing?

The rules and examples of the present continuous tense:

1. Subject-Verb Agreement:

- a. For singular subjects (I, he, she, it), use "is."
- b. For plural subjects (we, you, they), use "are."

Examples:

- a. I am eating lunch.
- b. She is watching TV.
- c. They are playing soccer.

2. Adding -ing to the Verb:

- a. Take the base form of the verb and add -ing to it.
- b. However, there are some spelling rules to follow:
 - 1) For verbs ending in -e, remove the -e and add -ing (e.g., write -> writing).
 - 2) For one-syllable verbs with a single vowel followed by a single consonant, double the final consonant before adding -ing (e.g., run -> running).
 - 3) For verbs ending in -ie, change the -ie to -y before adding -ing (e.g., die -> dying).

Examples:

- a. I am eating.
- b. She is running.
- c. They are playing.

2. Negative Form:

- a. Add "not" after the form of "to be" to make the negative form.

Examples:

- a. I am not eating.
- b. She is not running.
- c. They are not playing.

3. Question Form:

- a. Invert the subject and the form of "to be" to form questions.

Examples:

- a. Am I eating?
- b. Is she running?

c. Are they playing?

4. Time Expressions:

- a. Present continuous tense is often used with time expressions that indicate the present moment or a specific period around the present time. Common time expressions include "now," "at the moment," "currently," "today," "this week," etc.

Examples:

- a. I am studying now.
b. She is working at the moment.
c. They are traveling this week.

5. Use for Future Plans:

- a. The present continuous tense can also be used to talk about future plans and arrangements, especially when the plans are fixed and confirmed.

Examples:

- a. I am meeting John later.
b. They are flying to Paris next week.

3.3.3 Present Perfect Tense

The present perfect tense is used to express events that happened at a time starting in the past and continuing to the present. This tense can also function to express an event that has an effect on the present. Thus, the present perfect tense is a connection between the past and the present.

Moreover, the present perfect tense is used to express actions or events that have a connection to the present, either because they happened recently or because their relevance to the present is emphasized. It is formed by using the auxiliary verb "have" (in its different forms: have, has) followed by the past participle of the main verb. This tense is often used to describe experiences, actions that happened recently, or actions with ongoing relevance to the present.

Rules of Present Perfect Tense

Type of Sentence	Form	Present Perfect Tense
Positive	Verbal	Subject + have/has + Verb-3 + O/Adv
	Nomina	Subject + have/has + been + Noun/Adj/Adv
Negative	Verbal	Subject + have/has + not + Verb-3 + O/Adv
	Nomina	S + have/has + not + been + Noun/Adj/Adv
Interrogative	Verbal	Have/has + Subject + verb-3 + O/Adv
	Nomina	Have/has + Subject + been + Noun/Adj/Adv?

The rules and examples of the present perfect tense:

1. Subject-Verb Agreement:

- Use "have" with the pronouns: I, you, we, they.
- Use "has" with the pronouns: he, she, it.

Examples:

- I have finished my work.
- She has completed the assignment.
- They have seen that movie before.

2. Forming the Past Participle:

- Regular verbs form the past participle by adding "-ed" to the base form (e.g., work -> worked).
- Irregular verbs have unique past participle forms (e.g., go -> gone, eat -> eaten).

Examples:

- I have worked hard today.
- He has gone to the store.
- She has eaten lunch already.

2. Negative Form:

- To make the negative form, add "not" after "have" or "has."

Examples:

- a. I have not visited London.
- b. She has not finished her book.
- c. They have not met before.

2. Question Form:

- a. To form questions, invert the subject and "have" or "has."

Examples:

- a. Have you ever traveled abroad?
- b. Has he seen this movie?
- c. Have they finished their project?

2. Time Expressions:

- a. The present perfect tense is often used with time expressions that emphasize the connection between the past and the present. Common time expressions include "recently," "just," "already," "yet," "since," "for," "lately," etc.

Examples:

- a. I have recently visited Paris.
- b. She has just arrived home.
- c. Have you eaten lunch yet?
- d. They have been friends since childhood.

2. Unspecified Time:

- a. The present perfect tense is used when the time of the action is not specified or is not important.

Examples:

- a. I have seen that movie before. (No specific time mentioned.)
- b. She has traveled to many countries. (The focus is on the experience, not when it happened.)

2. Experiences and Achievements:

- a. The present perfect tense is commonly used to talk about life experiences and achievements.

Examples:

- a. I have visited the Grand Canyon. (Life experience)
- b. She has graduated from college. (Achievement)

2. Multiple Actions:

- a. You can use the present perfect tense to describe multiple actions that have occurred at different times.

Examples:

- a. I have read three books this month.
- b. They have traveled to Europe several times.

3.3.4 Present Perfect Continuous Tense

The present perfect continuous tense serves to talk about an ongoing action or situation before some other action or situation. This tense refers to an action that started in the past and is still continuing in the present. The way to form a present perfect continuous tense sentence is by using the formula "has/have + been + present participle".

The present perfect continuous tense is used to describe actions or situations that have been ongoing, started in the past, and have a connection to the present. This tense, also known as the present perfect progressive tense, is used to describe actions or events that started in the past, have continued up to the present, and may or may not continue into the future. It emphasizes the duration or ongoing nature of an action. This tense is formed by using the present perfect of the verb "to have" (have/has), the past participle of "be" (been), and the base form of the main verb followed by "-ing."

Rules of Present Perfect Continuous Tense

Type of Sentence	Present Perfect Continuous Tense
Positive	Subject + have/has + been + Present Participle (V1-ing)
Negative	Subject + have/has + not + been + Present Participle (V1-ing)

Interrogative	have/has + Subject + been + Present Participle (V1-ing) ?
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The rules and examples of the present perfect continuous tense:

1. Subject-Verb Agreement:

- Use "have" with the pronouns: I, you, we, they.
- Use "has" with the pronouns: he, she, it.

Examples:

- I have been working all morning.
- She has been studying for hours.
- They have been playing soccer.

2. Forming the Present Perfect Continuous Verb:

- Use "have been" or "has been" (depending on the subject) followed by the base form of the verb + "-ing."

Examples:

- I have been reading a book.
- He has been cooking dinner.
- They have been practicing their instruments.

2. Negative Form:

- To make the negative form, add "not" after "have" or "has."

Examples:

- I have not been watching TV.
- She has not been exercising regularly.
- They have not been working together.

2. Question Form:

- To form questions, invert the subject and "have" or "has."

Examples:

- Have you been studying for the exam?
- Has he been working on that project?
- Have they been learning a new language?

2. Time Expressions:

- The present perfect continuous tense is often used with time expressions that indicate the duration or frequency

of the action. Common time expressions include "for," "since," "all day," "recently," "lately," "how long," etc.

Examples:

- a. I have been studying for two hours.
- b. She has been living in this city since 2010.
- c. They have been practicing their dance routine all day.
- d. How long have you been waiting?

2. Ongoing Actions:

- a. The present perfect continuous tense is used to emphasize the ongoing nature of an action that started in the past and continues into the present.

Examples:

- a. I have been working on this project for weeks. (Emphasizes the ongoing nature of work)
- b. She has been running every morning. (Emphasizes the regularity of running)

2. Temporary Situations:

- a. It can also be used to describe temporary situations or actions that have been happening for a limited time.

Examples:

- a. He has been staying with us while his house is being renovated.
- b. They have been camping in the mountains for a few days.

2. Contrasting with Simple Present and Simple Past:

- a. Use the present perfect continuous tense when you want to emphasize the duration of an action or its relevance to the present, as opposed to using the simple present or simple past tense.

Examples:

- a. I have been reading all day. (Emphasizes the ongoing action)
- b. I read a book yesterday. (Simple past, emphasizes the completion of the action)

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CHAPTER 4

VERBS

By ETTY

4.1 Introduction

Learning verbs in a language, especially English, is very important because verbs are the core of the language. An English learner must be able to understand and master verbs.

Some of the reasons include that verbs allow one to express ideas, actions, and events in everyday conversations. By understanding the different types of verbs, communication will become clearer and more effective. Besides, verbs are the main element in the formation of a sentence, which gives the structure and meaning to the sentence. Without verbs, a sentence will lose its essence. Furthermore, when one reads a text in English, verbs will help in understanding the storyline, character actions, and changes that take place. Mastering verbs will certainly improve learners' understanding of the text.

Related to tenses and aspects in English learning, verbs are the key to structuring tenses and aspects in English. By mastering various tenses and aspects, learners can specify when the action occurs, whether it is continuous, or whether the action is completed. Moreover, related to speaking and writing skills, when speaking or writing in English, one will use different types of verbs to express ideas and information appropriately. This will make communication more powerful and compelling. Furthermore, in terms of speaking, understanding verbs helps one speak more fluently and naturally in everyday situations, such as when shopping, traveling, or interacting with people.

In addition, when it comes to the ability to translate, learning verbs also allows one to translate texts from English to their native language more accurately. Verbs often have indirect equivalents in other languages, and a good understanding of verbs helps one overcome translation barriers. Finally, if one wants to learn another language after English, a solid

understanding of verbs in English will help you learn other languages more effectively as the concept of verbs exists in many languages.

Given the importance of verbs in English, it is important to take the time to study them in depth, understand the different types of verbs, and practice their use in speaking and writing. By doing so, learners will feel more confident in communicating in English and understand texts in this language better. This chapter will explore more about verbs.

4.2 Definition of Verb

Verb is one of several word classes in the English language. Betti (2021) defines a verb as a word that describes an action or event or shows a state. In Merriem-Webster Dictionary (2023), a verb is a word that is the grammatical center of a predicate. It expresses an action, event, or mode of being, which in various languages is inflected for congruence with subject, form, voice, mood, or aspect. In addition, verbs usually have a fairly complete descriptive meaning and characterizing qualities, but sometimes they are almost absent in them, especially when it used as auxiliary verbs or linking verbs.

Furthermore, Riyanto (2009) explained that verbs are words that express three kinds of something namely an action, an event or a state. Based on the three definition of verbs above, it can be concluded that verbs are action words that describe actions or thinking words that can describe what is in our mind such as thinking, remembering, believing, etc.

4.3 Types of Verbs

Verbs can be divided into three. Those are Linking Verb To Be, Linking Verb, Transitive/Intransitive Verb and Modal Verb.

4.3.1 Linking To Be

Linking TO BE are words that is used to connect the subject with the information or description called the subject complement. According to Riyanto (2009), Linking TO BE are words that connect between complement with subject in nominal sentence. A nominal sentence is a sentence that its

predicate or verbs **does not express an action**, however, it expresses **name, state, quality, state, and place**. Meanwhile, **complement** can be in the forms of **noun, adjective, adverb of place, preposition** and **numeral**. Linking TO BE has nine forms; **is, am, are, was, were, be, to be, being, been**. The examples in sentences can be seen below:

<i>Noun</i>	<i>BE</i>	<i>Noun</i>
<i>I</i>	<i>am</i>	<i>a teacher</i>
<i>You</i>	<i>are</i>	<i>students</i>
<i>She</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>a doctor</i>

<i>Noun</i>	<i>BE</i>	<i>Adjective</i>
<i>I</i>	<i>am</i>	<i>happy</i>
<i>You</i>	<i>are</i>	<i>very kind</i>
<i>Ratih</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>a dilligent woman</i>

<i>Noun</i>	<i>BE</i>	<i>Preposition</i>
<i>The book</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>on the table</i>
<i>You</i>	<i>are</i>	<i>from Indonesia</i>
<i>He</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>under the tree</i>

<i>Noun</i>	<i>BE</i>	<i>Adverb of Place</i>
<i>I</i>	<i>am</i>	<i>at school right now</i>
<i>We</i>	<i>are</i>	<i>outside</i>
<i>Riko</i>	<i>was</i>	<i>at my home last night</i>

<i>Noun</i>	<i>BE</i>	<i>Numeral</i>
<i>You and I</i>	<i>are</i>	<i>one</i>
<i>His books</i>	<i>are</i>	<i>ten</i>
<i>The size</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>9 m wide</i>

4.3.2 Linking Verb

A linking verb is a verb that connects words in an English sentence. The role of a linking verb in a sentence is to explain the subject in the sentence. Moreover, Riyanto (2009) explained that linking verbs are words used to connect **Subject and Predicate** in a sentence. The examples of linking verbs are follow:

Linking Verb	Sentence
<i>become (menjadi)</i>	<i>Hafizah becomes a doctor</i>
<i>taste (terasa)</i>	<i>The chicken soup tastes salty</i>
<i>look (kelihatannya)</i>	<i>My father looks tired</i>
<i>feel (merasa)</i>	<i>She feels happy</i>

4.3.3 Transitive/Intransitive Verb

Transitive verbs are verbs that require an object or complement to complete the meaning of the sentence. In other words, transitive verbs are verbs express an action and require one or more object transitive which the action reaches to the recipient. For example:

Transitive Verb	Sentence
<i>sell (menjual)</i>	<i>She sells the flowers on that shop</i>
<i>bring (membawa)</i>	<i>My father brings the books for me</i>
<i>write (menulis)</i>	<i>Julia writes a letter</i>
<i>buy (membeli)</i>	<i>My mother buys some fruits</i>
<i>build (membangun)</i>	<i>He builds a new house</i>

Intransitive verbs are verbs that express an action and does not require object. These verbs that do not require a direct object to complete its meaning in a sentence. Those verbs describe an action or state of being that does not need to be directed toward someone or something. In other words, intransitive verbs do not transfer the action to an object. For example:

Intransitive Verb	Sentence
<i>work (bekerja)</i>	<i>Mr. Roni works at a bank</i>
<i>open (membuka)</i>	<i>The office opens at 8 a.m</i>
<i>arrive (tiba)</i>	<i>They arrive early</i>
<i>run (lari)</i>	<i>The boy runs one kilometer</i>
<i>study (belajar)</i>	<i>He builds a newa house</i>

4.3.4 Modal Verb

Modal verbs, also known as modal or modal auxiliary verbs, are a special category of verbs in the English language used to express necessity, possibility, permission, ability, or probability. It is usually used with the base form of the main verb to show the speaker's attitude or convey information about an action or event in the sentence. For example:

<i>Transitive Verb</i>	<i>Sentence</i>
<i>can (dapat)</i>	<i>She can sing a song</i>
<i>must (harus)</i>	<i>You must bring the umbrella</i>
<i>should (seharusnya)</i>	<i>You should obey the rules</i>
<i>may (mungkin)</i>	<i>They may be late</i>
<i>will (akan)</i>	<i>I will be there</i>

4.4 Verb Tenses

Verb tense means a verb form that shows time. It is a verb form that shows the time and state of an action or event in the present, past, or future. That is, tense tells about the time of an action or activity.

There are three basic tenses in English; **present**, **past** and **future**. Then, from these three forms will be broken down into 16 kinds of tenses in English. However, this chapter will only explain 5 basic tenses. Here are the five tenses.

1. Simple Present Tense

Simple present tense is a tense used to describe events that occur in the present time in a simple form or a job/action that is done repeatedly, or daily habits, or events/actions that have nothing to do with time. For example:

*He **works** everyday*

*I like to **go** to the cinema every weekend*

*They **visit** their grandma every Sunday*

*The sun **rises** in the East*

*Fish **lives** in the water*

2. Present Continuous Tense

Present continuous tense is the tense used to describe an action, state, or event that is taking place in the present or at the time of speaking. For example:

*The baby **is crying** right now*

*We **are studying** English at the moment*

*The man **is reading** a news paper now*

*I **am having** dinner at restaurant now*

*They **are playing** volleyball*

3. Present Perfect Tense

The present perfect tense is the tense used to describe events that have occurred in the past that are still related to the present but the time of occurrence is not clearly known.

For example:

*He **has gone***

*The bus **has not stopped** yet.*

*We **have just arrived** in this hotel*

*Mrs. Hafizah **has taught** for three years*

*The man **has read** the newspaper*

4. Simple Past Tense

Simple past tense is a tense used to describe an action that was done or an event that happened in the past in simple form. In this tense, the time when the action was done or the event occurred is known. For example:

*We **went** to Bali last week*

*I **studied** English yesterday*

*Mr. Uman **met** the client this morning*

*They **saw** a good film last night*

*My brother **drove** the car last week*

*Our family **had** a party yesterday*

5. Simple Future Tense

Simple future tense is a tense used to express actions that will be performed in the future. In other words, it is one of the English tenses used to express actions or events that will happen in the future. In this tense, the verb *to be* is used in

the base form without additional endings. Furthermore, to form a simple future tense sentence, the modal verb "will" or "shall" followed by the base form of the verb is used. For example:

They will go to the library tomorrow

*I **will call** you later*

*She **shall arrive** in this evening*

*Mr. Uman **will not be** at home tomorrow night*

*I **will study** English next meeting*

*He **shall do** his homework tonight*

4.5 Regular and Irregular Verbs

Verbs can be divided into two categories, called regular and irregular. Regular verbs are verbs that follows a predictable and consistent pattern when conjugated into different tenses. It is the most common type of verbs in English, and it is easy to recognize by the adding "-ed" or "-d" to the base form of the verb to form the past tense and past participle. Here are some the regular verbs in English.

<i>Infinitive</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past participle</i>
<i>study</i>	<i>studied</i>	<i>studied</i>
<i>walk</i>	<i>walked</i>	<i>walked</i>
<i>listen</i>	<i>listened</i>	<i>listened</i>
<i>watch</i>	<i>watched</i>	<i>watched</i>
<i>open</i>	<i>opened</i>	<i>opened</i>
<i>want</i>	<i>wanted</i>	<i>wanted</i>

To be clearer, the using of regular verbs can be seen in these example of sentences below:

*She **watched** the horror movie last night*

*She **has watched** the movie*

*Mr. Uman **studied** English right now*

*Mr. Uman **has already studied** English*

Meanwhile, irregular verbs are verbs that do not abide by the normal rules whose past tense is not formed from the infinitive plus "ed" or "-d". Here are some the regular verbs in English.

<i>Infinitive</i>	<i>Past</i>	<i>Past participle</i>
<i>eat</i>	<i>ate</i>	<i>eaten</i>
<i>read</i>	<i>read</i>	<i>read</i>
<i>go</i>	<i>went</i>	<i>gone</i>
<i>drink</i>	<i>drank</i>	<i>drunk</i>
<i>cut</i>	<i>cut</i>	<i>cut</i>
<i>see</i>	<i>saw</i>	<i>seen</i>

To be clearer, the using of irregular verbs can be seen in these example of sentences below:

*I **ate** fried noodle last night*

*I **have eaten** already*

*She **went** to the office yesterday*

*She **has** already **gone** to the office*

4.6 Infinitives and Gerunds

The infinitive is formed from "to + verb". Infinitive also used as a subject or object in a sentence however less frequently used as a subject. There are some verbs that follows by infinitive such as *agree, promise, start, stop, love, like, remember, etc.* The use of infinitive in a sentence can be seen in the examples below:

*She agreed **to help** me*

*They like **to play** football*

*He promised **to stop** smoking*

*I started **to study** English*

*He wanted **to talk** to you*

Gerunds are verbs that are denoted or verbs that are used as a noun. Another term for gerunds is verbal or verbal noun which is an -ing verb used as a noun. The gerund form is the same as the *present participle* and both are part of the verb. The difference is that gerunds are a type of noun, but *present*

participle is a type of adjective. Therefore, although they are similar or the same in form, they are very different in nature. Here are the example of the using of gerund:

Reading is my hobby (*gerund*)

I ***am reading*** a book now (*present participle*)

Smoking is a bad habit (*gerund*)

He ***is smoking*** in the room (*present participle*)

The ***sleeping*** baby is my cousin (*gerund*)

The baby ***is sleeping*** now (*present participle*)

4.7 Phrasal Verbs

A phrasal verbs is special type of verb that consists of two (or three) parts, which the first is always a verb followed by another class of words, such as a preposition. In other words, phrasal verbs are groups of words that have a specific meaning in the form of a phrases (a combination of two or more words that are non-predicate), which can take the form of verb + preposition or verb + adverb or verb + adverb + preposition and act as a completely new verb with a separate meaning from the original meaning of the words. Here are some examples of phrasal verbs:

<i>Phrasal Verb</i>	<i>Sentence</i>
<i>take off (melepas)</i>	She wants to <i>take off</i> her sweeter
<i>give up (menyerah)</i>	He didn't <i>give up</i> until he reach the dream
<i>call off (membatalkan)</i>	You should <i>call off</i> the order
<i>put off (menunda)</i>	They had to <i>put off</i> the meeting
<i>check in (registrasi)</i>	I will <i>check in</i> first

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CHAPTER 5

AUXILIARY VERBS

By Ramli

5.1 Backgrounds

English is no longer a foreign language nowadays. English has now become the second mother language after Indonesian. This is because English is a unifying language between countries in all parts of the world, in order to facilitate communication between them. Therefore, English has been introduced from an early age. Starting from learning to interpret and memorize words to stringing several words together to make one sentence. In English, we know many kinds of sentences, both based on the time the sentence occurs and the structure of the words that form the sentence itself.

In English there are several words that receive special treatment. This word is usually called an Auxiliary Verb. Where there are special conditions for its use. There are several forms of Auxiliary Verbs which will be discussed in this chapter. How important it is that we learn English according to the correct structure so that we don't use Auxiliary Verbs wrongly and it doesn't give rise to the wrong meaning.

1. Problem Identification

- a. What is the Definition of Auxiliary Verb?
- b. What are the characteristics of Auxiliary Verb?
- c. What are kinds and the Examples of Auxiliary Verbs?

2. Purpose

- a. To know the definition of Auxiliary Verb!.
- b. To know kinds of Auxiliary Verbs!.
- c. To know Kind and the Examples of Auxiliary Verbs!.

5.2 Definitions

Auxiliary Verb is a verb that appears before the main verb (main verb) in a sentence to modify the meaning of the main verb. This auxiliary verb is also commonly called a helping verb, special verb, or pre-verb.

Auxiliary verb is a form of auxiliary verb which is a type of verb that is used to help or complement other verbs in forming a very complete or structured sentence.

Generally, in helping verbs or auxiliary verbs this is found in front of the main verb.

5.3 Characteristics of Auxiliary Verbs

1. Cannot stand in sentences (requires full verb).
2. In general, Auxiliary Verbs are used in sentences where the predicate is not a verb (nominal sentences).
3. In interrogative sentences (yes / no question), the Auxiliary Verb is placed at the beginning of the sentence as a replacement for the question word.
4. Used in forming passive sentences

5.4 Kinds and Examples of Auxiliary Verbs

5.4.1 Primary Auxiliary Verb

Primary or Primary which means main, this auxiliary verb is one of the main auxiliary verbs which is a type of auxiliary verb which is used to give character to the form of a tense (time) and does not add any meaning to the main verb (main verb).

The main auxiliary verb or primary auxiliary verb is divided into 3, namely as follows:

1. **To Be** To be or Be is a very essential (important) verb which has many uses in the composition or structure of English. To be can be used as an action verb, which in all tenses can stand alone.

Included in to be are:

- a. Is, am, are are used in the present tense.
- b. Am is used for subject I.
- c. Is is used for the subjects he, she, it.

- d. Are is used when the subject is you, we, they.
- e. Was, were are the past forms of is, am, are where was is used if the subject is I, he, she, it.
- f. Were is used when the subject is you, we, they.

Use the auxiliary verb "Be" to form present or past continuous tense sentences and if you add the modal will it will form future continuous sentences.

Example :

- a. My sister and my mother are beautiful. (My sister and mother are beautiful)
- b. Are you going to drink the tea or not? (Are you going to drink that tea or not?)
- c. The pizza was not eaten by her because she was being angry. (He didn't eat the pizza because he was angry).

Using "Be" with the auxiliary verb "have" will form a present or past perfect continuous tense sentence.

And if you add the capital will, you can form a future perfect continuous sentence.

Example :

- a. She has been sleeping for 30 minutes. (Present Perfect Continuous).
- b. They will have been eating for an hour. (Future Perfect Continuous).

2. **Do.** Do is a form of Auxiliary Verb. Do includes do, does, and did.

Do can be used as an action verb which can stand alone in all its tenses.

The verb Do is also used as an auxiliary verb. Do must be paired with another verb to create a complete verb.

Included in this verb are the following:

- a. **D**oused as subjects I, you, they, and we to form negative sentences and interrogative sentences in the form of a verbal sentence (a sentence whose predicate is a verb).

- b. **Does** used for the subjects he, she, and it to form negative sentences and interrogative sentences in a verbal sentence form.
- c. **Did** is a past form of do and does which can be used for all subjects (I, we, they, you, she, he, it).

The use of the auxiliary verb "Do" is to provide emphasis on indicative (normal) and imperative sentences, and also the adverb of frequency.

Example :

- a. I do finish my homework.
- b. I do love you.
- c. Kirana rarely does wash the dishes.

Use "Do" to ask questions. And it can also be used to ask clarifying questions related to previous negative statements.

Example :

- a. You like Alex, don't you?
- b. What does that women take from you?

Use "Do" together with "not" to form negative sentences.

Example :

- a. They didn't (did not) sleep last night.
- b. You don't (do not) like chocolate cake.

The use of "Do" combined with the conjugation words "So" and "Neither" to show similarities or differences.

Example :

- a. My mother loves cooking so much and so do I.
- b. You don't want to spend your money unwisely, neither does your friend.

3. **Have.** Have is a verb (verb) which is also essential (important) because it can stand alone in almost all tenses. Have is usually also used to show ownership or ownership. Included in this verb are:

- a. **Have** used to form Present Perfect Tense or Present Perfect Continuous Tense sentences if the subject is I, you, we, or they.
- b. **Has** used to form Present Perfect Tense or Present Perfect Continuous Tense sentences if the subject is she, he, or it.
- c. **Had** is the past form of have and has. Had is used by all subjects to form Past Perfect Tense or Past Perfect Continuous Tense sentences.

The use of the auxiliary verb "Have" forms a perfect tense sentence.

Example :

- a. Shaina has been married to Dani since January. (Present Perfect)
- b. I had already eaten breakfast when she called me. (Past Perfect)

The use of "Have" when combined with capital can show possibility in the past.

Example :

- a. She might have realized her mistakes.
- b. My sister may have watched this funny movie.

5.4.2 Modal Auxiliary Verb

Modal Auxiliary Verb is a conditional auxiliary verb that is used to provide additional meaning to the main verb (main verb). Modal Auxiliary Verbs can be used on all subjects (singular or plural).

Included in the Modal Auxiliary Verb are:

1. **Can** This modal verb is used to express ability and to ask for permission.

Example :

- a. I can give you some money.
- b. Can I kiss you?
- c. Can you give me some money?

2. **Ought to** Ought to is used to show that something is true or appropriate. Or also use it to state possibilities or assumptions, give suggestions and advice.

Example :

This stock ought to increase in value. (This stock will probably increase in value.)

She should have received the package yesterday. (He should have received the package yesterday.)

3. **Could** The same as Can, but this modal verb is used to express ability in the past and is used to ask for permission to do something in the past or future.

Example :

- a. I'm sorry. I couldn't visit you yesterday.
- b. Could I use your phone?

4. **May** This modal verb is used to express possibilities in the present and future and can also be used to ask for permission or help more formally than other modal verbs such as can.

Example :

- a. It may rain this afternoon
- b. May I use your phone?

5. **Might** Similar to May, might is also used to express possibilities in the present and future and might can also be used to ask for permission or help in a more formal way than the modal verb could.

Example :

- a. The company might have closed
- b. Might I ask you a question?

6. **Will** This modal verb is used to express a will or desire, it can also be used to make decisions without a plan, and can be used to make predictions

Example :

- a. I will come back home tomorrow

b. Will you stop here, please!

7. **Would** Just like Will, the modal verb would can also be used to express a wish or will but is more polite.

Example :

- a. I would like to tell you about the forest
- b. If I were president, I would cut the cost of education.

8. **Shall** Shall is used to offer something or to make suggestions.

Example :

- a. I shall never forget you.
- b. I shall bring my bag everyday

9. **Should** As with shall, the modal verb should is used to give suggestions and advice.

Example :

- a. They should have gone
- b. You should return the video before the video rental store closes

10. **Must** Must is used to express obligations and needs, and if must is added with not then it can become a prohibition sentence.

Example :

- a. Students must pass an entrance examination to study at this school.
- b. You must be hungry

11. **Had Better** Had Better is often used to give important advice, meaning that if a piece of advice is ignored then something will become serious. To be able to determine which is very serious and which is not serious, it depends on your own assessment.

Example :

- a. You had better watch the way you talk to me in the future!
- b. They had better not be late.

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CHAPTER 6

ADJECTIVES

Oleh Revida Engelbertha

6.1 Introduction

Welcome to the world of adjectives in English grammar! In this chapter, we will embark on a journey to unravel the captivating realm of adjectives and their multifaceted role in enhancing the beauty and clarity of the English language. Whether you're just beginning your English language journey or seeking to refine your grammatical skills, this chapter will be your comprehensive guide to understanding the nuances of adjectives, their diverse types, and how to employ them skillfully to paint vivid pictures with words.

Adjectives are the unsung heroes of language; they bring life to our sentences, providing essential details and insights about nouns and pronouns. Picture a world without adjectives, where everything is just a "thing" or an "object." The richness of our language would be greatly diminished without these descriptive powerhouses. They answer the fundamental questions that make our communication complete: "What kind of thing is it?" "How many of them are there?" "Which one are we talking about?" and "To whom does it belong?" Adjectives allow us to navigate the subtleties of meaning, express the subtlest of emotions, and engage our senses as we converse, read, and write.

In this chapter, we will take you on a comprehensive tour of adjectives, starting with a fundamental definition and gradually delving deeper into their various categories. We will explore how adjectives can be used to paint vibrant mental images, create precise comparisons, and even evoke emotions. By the end of this chapter, you will have the knowledge and tools necessary to wield adjectives with confidence, adding layers of depth and clarity to your expressions.

The journey begins with understanding the basic question: What are adjectives, and how do they function in English sentences? We will then embark on an exploration of the different types of adjectives, each with its own unique purpose and role in conveying meaning. From descriptive adjectives that paint vivid pictures to possessive adjectives that denote ownership and belonging, we will leave no stone unturned in our quest to master this essential aspect of English grammar.

But it doesn't end there. We will also unravel the mysteries of adjective placement, ensuring that you know exactly where to position these vital words within your sentences for maximum impact. We'll delve into comparative and superlative forms, empowering you to compare and rank nouns effectively. Plus, we'll address the crucial issue of agreement between adjectives and the nouns they modify, an aspect that can sometimes be tricky to navigate, especially in languages where gender and number play a significant role.

By the time you reach the conclusion of this chapter, you'll be equipped with the knowledge and confidence to use adjectives effectively in your English language endeavors. You'll discover how these seemingly humble words can transform your communication into a vivid tapestry of descriptions, making your speech and writing more engaging and memorable.

So, let's embark on this enlightening journey through the world of adjectives, where words come to life, and sentences burst with color and meaning. With each section, you'll gain a deeper understanding of how to wield the power of adjectives, ensuring that your mastery of English grammar continues to grow.

6.2 What Are Adjectives?

According to Biber (1999), adjectives are the colorful palette of language, the brushstrokes that paint vivid imagery in our minds. They are words that breathe life into our sentences, transforming them from mere collections of nouns and verbs into rich tapestries of description and meaning. Adjectives play a pivotal role in English grammar by modifying nouns and

pronouns, and their mastery is fundamental to effective communication.

6.2.1 The Essence of Adjectives

At their core, adjectives serve the fundamental purpose of describing or modifying nouns and pronouns (Downing, 2006). They answer a spectrum of questions, including:

1. "What kind of thing is it?"
2. "How does it look, feel, sound, taste, or smell?"
3. "How many of them are there?"
4. "Which one are we talking about?"
5. "To whom does it belong?"

Consider the following examples:

1. The **red** rose bloomed in the garden.
2. She found an **interesting** book at the library.
3. They own **three** dogs, not just one.
4. I prefer **this** flavor of ice cream.
5. **My** car needs a wash.

In each of these sentences, the adjectives (in bold) provide critical information that clarifies and enhances the meaning of the nouns they modify. Without adjectives, our sentences would lack depth and detail, making it challenging to convey precise messages.

6.2.2 The Versatility of Adjectives

Adjectives are incredibly versatile and capable of conveying a wide range of information (Huddleston, 2002). They can describe the physical characteristics of nouns, such as size, color, shape, and texture. They can also express opinions, emotions, or judgments, adding a layer of subjectivity to our language. Moreover, adjectives help us quantify nouns, indicating the number or amount. They also serve the essential function of specifying which specific noun we are referring to in a given context.

6.2.3 The Beauty of Vivid Description

According to Huddleston (2002), one of the most remarkable aspects of adjectives is their ability to bring vividness and clarity to our language. By carefully choosing the right adjectives, we can paint intricate mental pictures for our readers or listeners, allowing them to engage their senses and emotions in the narrative.

Consider the following two sentences:

1. He wore a jacket.
2. He wore a **crimson** leather jacket with **ornate** silver buttons.

The second sentence, with its descriptive adjectives "crimson" and "ornate," not only informs us about the jacket's color and details but also conjures a more vivid image. It allows us to visualize the character in a richer context, making the reading experience more immersive.

6.2.4 The Universal Appeal of Adjectives

Adjectives are not unique to the English language; they are a fundamental feature of human communication across cultures and languages (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, Svartvik, 1985). The role of adjectives in languages worldwide underscores their universal significance in expressing thoughts, emotions, and descriptions. Whether you're learning English or any other language, grasping the concept and usage of adjectives is a crucial step toward becoming a proficient communicator.

In the subsequent sections of this chapter, we will delve deeper into the different types of adjectives, their placement within sentences, and their role in comparative and superlative forms. Our journey will culminate in a comprehensive understanding of how adjectives enhance your communication skills.

6.3 Types of Adjectives

Having explored the fundamental role of adjectives in enhancing language and communication, we now embark on a fascinating journey into the world of adjective diversity. Adjectives, like the colors in an artist's palette, come in a vast array of shades and hues, each adding a unique touch to the canvas of expression. In this section, we'll delve into the various types of adjectives, each designed for specific purposes and nuances in describing nouns and pronouns.

As we traverse this landscape of adjectival variety, you'll discover how different types of adjectives specialize in answering distinct questions and conveying specific aspects of the world around us. Whether it's about capturing the essence of a noun, quantifying its presence, pinpointing its identity, or expressing ownership, each type of adjective has a crucial role to play.

Our exploration begins with **descriptive adjectives**, which serve as the vivid brushstrokes that paint images of the world around us (Swan, 2016). These adjectives bring life to our descriptions by revealing qualities, characteristics, and attributes of nouns and pronouns. They allow us to create vibrant mental pictures, making our communication more engaging and evocative.

Next, we encounter **quantitative adjectives**, the mathematicians of the adjective world. These adjectives help us quantify nouns and pronouns, answering questions like "How many?" or "How much?" They allow us to express precise measurements, quantities, and proportions, ensuring that our language is both accurate and meaningful (Swan, 2016).

Then, we venture into the realm of **demonstrative adjectives**, which act as our linguistic guides, pointing to specific nouns and pronouns. They help us clarify which particular item or group we are referring to in a given context (Swan, 2016). Demonstrative adjectives bring precision to our language, ensuring that our audience understands our intended target.

Following that, we delve into **possessive adjectives**, which denote ownership and belonging. These adjectives are like

the labels on personal items, indicating who owns or possesses them (Swan, 2016). They enable us to express connections and relationships, adding depth to our narratives.

Finally, we'll explore **interrogative adjectives**, the inquisitive tools that help us ask questions about nouns and pronouns (Swan, 2016). By employing interrogative adjectives, we can seek information, make inquiries, and navigate conversations effectively.

Throughout this section, we'll unravel the unique characteristics and applications of each type of adjective, offering practical examples to illustrate their usage. With a clear understanding of these adjective categories, you'll be better equipped to choose the right words to enhance your expressions and convey your messages with precision and eloquence.

So, let's embark on this illuminating journey through the diverse world of adjectives, where each type adds a distinct layer of meaning and depth to our language. As we navigate this spectrum of descriptions, you'll gain valuable insights into how to wield adjectives effectively in your everyday communication and writing.

6.3.1 Descriptive Adjectives: Painting with Words

Among the many types of adjectives, **descriptive adjectives** stand out as the artists' brushes of language, meticulously crafting intricate and vibrant images in our minds (Nelson & Greenbaum, 2013). These adjectives breathe life into our descriptions by revealing the qualities, characteristics, and attributes of nouns and pronouns. They are the storytellers, the colorists, and the mood-setters in our narratives.

Examples of Descriptive Adjectives:

1. A **majestic** mountain range
2. An **enthusiastic** audience
3. A **luxurious** silk gown
4. The **turbulent** ocean waves
5. A **delicious** homemade meal

As demonstrated in these examples, descriptive adjectives serve to create a mental picture that goes beyond the basic identity of a noun. They allow us to convey not just what

something is but also how it is perceived, experienced, or understood. These adjectives are our tools for adding depth, texture, and flavor to our language.

1. The Art of Vivid Description

Descriptive adjectives are the key to vivid descriptions (Nelson & Greenbaum, 2013). They enable us to invoke the senses, emotions, and imagination of our audience. Consider the following sentences:

- a. She wore a dress.
- b. She wore a **vibrant** dress adorned with **intricate** embroidery.

In the first sentence, the noun "dress" is functional but lacks detail. In the second sentence, the descriptive adjectives "vibrant" and "intricate" transform the description. The reader can now envision a dress bursting with color and adorned with intricate patterns, making the scene come alive.

2. Precision in Communication

Descriptive adjectives also provide precision in communication. They help us convey subtle differences between similar nouns, allowing us to choose the right words for our intended message (Nelson & Greenbaum, 2013). For instance:

- a. The **large** oak tree in the park offers ample shade.
- b. The **towering** pine tree in the forest casts a long shadow.

In this case, the choice of adjectives distinguishes between two trees, emphasizing their size and location. The first tree is described as "large" in a park, while the second tree is "towering" in a forest, painting distinct mental pictures.

6.3.2 Quantitative Adjectives: Measuring the World

In the vast spectrum of adjectives, **quantitative adjectives** emerge as the mathematicians and accountants of the language. These adjectives specialize in providing precise measurements, quantities, and proportions, allowing us to quantify nouns and pronouns effectively (Nelson & Greenbaum,

2013). Whether it's counting, measuring, or expressing proportions, quantitative adjectives bring order and precision to our language.

Examples of Quantitative Adjectives:

1. **Three** apples on the table
2. **Many** stars twinkling in the night sky
3. **Few** people attended the event
4. **Much** patience is required for this task
5. **Several** books on the shelf

Quantitative adjectives answer essential questions such as "How many?" or "How much?" They allow us to convey numerical information with clarity and accuracy, making our communication more informative and understandable.

1. The Language of Numbers

Quantitative adjectives are essential when dealing with quantities and numerical information (Nelson & Greenbaum, 2013). They help us avoid ambiguity by providing specific values or ranges. For example:

- a. He ate **a dozen** cookies.
- b. She needs **two cups** of flour for the recipe.
- c. They walked **several miles** along the trail.

In each of these examples, the quantitative adjectives—**a dozen**, **two**, and **several**—provide precise information about the quantity involved, leaving no room for misinterpretation.

2. Expressing Proportions

Quantitative adjectives also play a crucial role in expressing proportions or ratios. They allow us to compare parts to the whole, providing insight into the relationships between quantities (Nelson & Greenbaum, 2013). Consider these examples:

- a. **Half** of the pizza is gone.
- b. **One-third** of the students passed the test.
- c. **Three-quarters** of the jar is filled with marbles.

In these sentences, the quantitative adjectives—**half**, **one-third**, and **three-quarters**—indicate specific proportions,

enabling the reader or listener to visualize the distribution of quantities accurately.

6.3.3 Demonstrative Adjectives: Pointing the Way

In the intricate tapestry of adjectives, **demonstrative adjectives** emerge as our linguistic signposts, guiding us to specific nouns and pronouns with precision (Berry, 2018). These adjectives play a vital role in clarifying which particular item or group we are referring to in a given context. They are the navigators of language, helping us avoid ambiguity and ensuring that our audience understands the intended target.

Examples of Demonstrative Adjectives:

1. **This** book is intriguing.
2. **That** car is expensive.
3. **These** flowers are beautiful.
4. **Those** shoes look comfortable.
5. **Such** behavior is unacceptable.

Demonstrative adjectives answer the question "Which one?" or "Which ones?" They are invaluable tools for indicating proximity, emphasizing distinctions, and eliminating confusion in communication.

1. Precision in Reference

Demonstrative adjectives excel in providing precision in reference (Berry, 2018). They help us differentiate between items or groups of items based on their proximity to the speaker and the listener. Consider these examples:

- a. I prefer **this** shirt to the one you showed me yesterday.
- b. **That** restaurant we went to last week had amazing food.
- c. **These** documents need to be filed immediately.
- d. Can you pass me **those** tools on the table?

In each of these sentences, the choice of demonstrative adjectives— **this**, **that**, **these**, and **those** —clearly indicates which specific item or group is being referred to, eliminating any potential confusion.

2. Emphasizing Distinction

Demonstrative adjectives are also effective at emphasizing distinctions. They allow us to highlight differences between

items or groups, drawing attention to specific elements within a broader context (Berry, 2018). For example:

- a. **Such** behavior is unacceptable in our school.
- b. **Those** are the students who excelled in the competition.
- c. **This** is where we'll be hosting the event.

In these sentences, demonstrative adjectives emphasize the unique or significant aspects of the nouns they modify, directing the focus of the message.

6.3.4 Possessive Adjectives: Expressing Ownership and Belonging

Within the realm of adjectives, **possessive adjectives** serve as our linguistic signposts, indicating ownership, belonging, and relationships (Berry, 2018). These adjectives play a crucial role in conveying who owns or possesses a particular noun. They are the identifiers of ownership, helping us express connections, and making our language richer in nuance.

Examples of Possessive Adjectives:

1. **My** dog is playful.
2. **Your** opinion matters.
3. **His** car is in the garage.
4. **Her** book is on the shelf.
5. **Its** color is unique.
6. **Our** team won the championship.
7. **Their** house is beautiful.

Possessive adjectives answer the question "Whose?" They enable us to express the idea of ownership and belonging in a concise manner, enriching our language with nuances of possession and affiliation.

1. Indicating Ownership

Possessive adjectives are the go-to choice when we want to specify who owns or possesses a particular noun (Berry, 2018). They allow us to convey this information succinctly and clearly. Consider these examples:

- a. **My** cat loves to play with yarn.
- b. She cherishes **her** grandmother's necklace.
- c. **Their** company is thriving.

d. The teacher praised **our** class for its hard work.

In each sentence, the possessive adjectives — **my**, **her**, **their**, and **our** — indicate who possesses the noun, making it evident to the reader or listener.

2. Expressing Belonging and Affiliation

Possessive adjectives also help express a sense of belonging or affiliation (Berry, 2018). They convey not just ownership but also the connection or relationship between the possessor and the possessed item. For instance:

- a. **His** family has a long history in this town.
- b. **Their** bond as siblings is unbreakable.
- c. **Our** school's team won the championship.
- d. She takes pride in **its** cultural heritage.

In these examples, the possessive adjectives—**his**, **their**, **our**, and **its**—emphasize not only ownership but also the sense of belonging, heritage, or connection associated with the nouns.

6.3.5 Interrogative Adjectives: Unveiling the Unknown

In the vast spectrum of adjectives, **interrogative adjectives** are the inquisitive investigators of language (Strunk & White, 2000). These adjectives specialize in asking questions about nouns and pronouns, unraveling the mysteries, and seeking information. They are the seekers of clarity, helping us make inquiries, and navigate conversations effectively.

Examples of Interrogative Adjectives:

1. **Which** book should I read?
2. **What** movie did you watch?
3. **Whose** phone is this?
4. **Which** route is the shortest?
5. **What** color are her eyes?

Interrogative adjectives answer questions such as "Which one?" "What kind?" or "Whose?" They are invaluable tools for seeking information, making choices, and clarifying uncertainties in communication.

1. The Art of Inquiry

Interrogative adjectives excel in the art of inquiry. They help us frame questions about nouns or pronouns, inviting responses and expanding our knowledge (Strunk & White, 2000). Consider these examples:

- a. **Which** restaurant serves the best pizza in town?
- b. **What** topic will you choose for your research?
- c. **Whose** idea was it to visit the art gallery?
- d. **Which** movie should we watch tonight?

In each sentence, the interrogative adjectives—**which**, **what**, and **whose**—serve as the starting point for questions, guiding the conversation towards the desired information.

2. Making Choices and Selections

Interrogative adjectives are also instrumental in making choices and selections. They assist us in identifying specific options or alternatives from a larger set (Strunk & White, 2000). For instance:

- a. **Which** dress do you prefer for the party?
- b. **What** flavor of ice cream would you like?
- c. **Whose** design do you think is the most creative?
- d. **Which** route is the quickest to the airport?

In these examples, the interrogative adjectives—**which**, **what**, and **whose**—help narrow down choices and facilitate decision-making.

6.4 Using Adjectives Correctly

In our journey through the world of adjectives, we've explored the various types and functions of these versatile words. Adjectives are the colors, shapes, and textures of our language, enabling us to paint vivid pictures, convey emotions, and provide crucial details about the nouns and pronouns in our sentences. Now, as we embark on the next leg of our adventure, we delve into the art of using adjectives correctly.

Using adjectives correctly is like wielding a fine brush in the hands of a skilled artist. It involves the precise selection, placement, and agreement of adjectives to ensure that our

expressions are clear, vivid, and grammatically sound. In this section, we will unravel the nuances of adjective usage, providing guidance on how to harness their power effectively in your writing and speech.

6.4.1 Placement of Adjectives: Precision in Positioning

In our exploration of using adjectives correctly, one of the key elements to master is the **placement of adjectives** within sentences. Adjectives are like puzzle pieces, and their precise location in a sentence can significantly impact the clarity and meaning of your expression (Azar & Hagen, 2009). Understanding where to position adjectives is essential for effective communication.

1. Adjectives Before the Noun

In most cases, adjectives come before the noun they modify (Azar & Hagen, 2009). This is the standard order in English and is used to provide additional information about the noun. Consider these examples:

- a. A **blue** sky.
- b. An **interesting** book.
- c. A **tall** tree.
- d. A **delicious** meal.

In each of these sentences, the adjective precedes the noun it describes, contributing to the overall description and adding depth to the meaning.

2. Adjectives After the Verb "to Be"

However, there are instances where adjectives come after the verb "to be" (is, am, are, was, were) in sentences (Azar & Hagen, 2009). This typically occurs when describing a subject using an adjective. For example:

- a. The sky is **blue**.
- b. The book seems **interesting**.
- c. He is **tired**.

In these cases, the adjective follows the verb "to be" and directly describes the subject.

3. The Nuances of Adjective Placement

The placement of adjectives can influence the nuances of your sentence (Azar & Hagen, 2009). Consider the following examples:

- a. **A small, brown dog** (The adjectives are cumulative, describing the dog as both small and brown.)
- b. **A brown, small dog** (The adjectives are cumulative, but the order has been reversed, emphasizing the dog's color first.)
- c. **A small and brown dog** (Here, the adjectives are separated by "and," highlighting both qualities equally.)

Each of these variations conveys a slightly different image of the dog, demonstrating how subtle shifts in adjective placement can impact the reader's perception.

6.4.2 Comparative and Superlative Forms: Degrees of Description

In the realm of adjectives, **comparative and superlative forms** play a vital role in expressing degrees of qualities and making comparisons. These forms allow us to convey whether quality is possessed to a greater or lesser extent in relation to other nouns or pronouns (Azar & Hagen, 2009). Mastering comparative and superlative forms is essential for adding depth and precision to your language.

1. Comparative Forms

Comparative forms of adjectives are used when we want to compare two or more things and determine which has a higher or lower degree of a particular quality (Azar & Hagen, 2009). The most common way to form the comparative is to add "er" to the adjective or use "more" before it. For example:

- a. The mountain is **tall**.
- b. The skyscraper is **taller**.
- c. The space needle is even **taller** than the skyscraper.

Here, we use the comparative form "taller" to indicate that the space needle has a greater height compared to the skyscraper.

Another way to form the comparative is to use "less" before the adjective when describing a decrease in the degree of quality:

- a. This book is **interesting**.
- b. That book is **less interesting**.

In this case, "less interesting" signifies a lower degree of interest in the second book compared to the first.

2. Superlative Forms

Superlative forms, on the other hand, are used to indicate the highest or lowest degree of quality among a group of three or more items (Azar & Hagen, 2009). To form the superlative, we typically add "est" to the adjective or use "most" before it. For example:

- a. The mountain is **tall**.
- b. The skyscraper is **taller**.
- c. The space needle is the **tallest**.

In this instance, the superlative form "tallest" indicates that the space needle is the **tallest** among the three mentioned.

Similarly, we can use "least" before an adjective to form the superlative and indicate the lowest degree of quality:

- a. This book is **interesting**.
- b. That book is **less interesting**.
- c. The other book is the **least interesting**.

Here, "least interesting" communicates that the third book is the least captivating of the three.

6.4.3 Agreement with Nouns: Harmony in Expression

In the intricate world of adjectives, **agreement with nouns** stands as a fundamental principle, ensuring harmony and clarity in your expressions. Adjectives must "agree" with the nouns they modify, aligning in terms of number, gender, and sometimes even case (Azar & Hagen, 2009). Understanding and applying adjective-noun agreement rules correctly is pivotal for effective communication.

1. Number Agreement

Number agreement refers to the need for adjectives to match the number of the nouns they describe (Azar & Hagen, 2009). In English, this typically involves using singular adjectives with singular nouns and plural adjectives with plural nouns. Consider these examples:

- a. **A green** apple (singular adjective, singular noun)

- b. **Two green** apples (plural adjective, plural noun)
- c. **A friendly** cat (singular adjective, singular noun)
- d. **Several friendly** cats (plural adjective, plural noun)

Proper number agreement ensures that your language accurately reflects the quantity of the nouns in your sentences.

2. Gender Agreement

Gender agreement is a more complex aspect, often seen in languages with gendered nouns, such as Spanish, French, and German (Azar & Hagen, 2009). In these languages, adjectives must agree not only in number but also in gender with the nouns they modify. For example, in Spanish:

- a. **Un coche rojo** (A red car) - Masculine
- b. **Una casa roja** (A red house) - Feminine

In this case, the adjective "rojo" (red) changes its form to match the gender of the noun. Achieving gender agreement is crucial for precise communication in gendered languages.

3. Case Agreement

In some languages, such as Latin, case agreement is another consideration. Adjectives must align with the case of the nouns they describe, ensuring grammatical correctness (Azar & Hagen, 2009). For instance:

- a. **Puella pulchra** (A beautiful girl) - Nominative case
- b. **Puellam pulchram** (The beautiful girl) - Accusative case

In Latin, the adjective "pulcher" (beautiful) adapts its form based on the noun's case.

6.5 Conclusion: Mastering the Palette of Adjectives

In our journey through the intricate landscape of adjectives, we've explored the diverse roles these words play in language. Adjectives are the colors, the textures, and the nuances that bring vibrancy and depth to our expressions (Murphy, Viney, & Craven (2014). From painting vivid mental pictures with descriptive adjectives to navigating the world of comparisons with comparative and superlative forms, and from pointing to the specifics with demonstrative adjectives to expressing

ownership and belonging with possessive adjectives, and finally, to unraveling the mysteries with interrogative adjectives, adjectives are the versatile tools at our disposal for crafting effective communication (Murphy, Viney, & Craven (2014).

As we conclude our exploration of adjectives, it's crucial to emphasize the significance of using them correctly. Adjective placement, comparative and superlative forms, and agreement with nouns are the threads that weave precision and clarity into our language tapestry. Mastering these aspects allows us to convey our ideas with finesse, making our communication engaging, informative, and grammatically sound.

In the art of adjective placement, we've learned that adjectives can either precede the noun they modify or follow the verb "to be," each placement contributing to the overall message in a unique way. We've seen how these subtle shifts in position can influence the reader's perception, allowing us to control the narrative and emphasize specific qualities.

Comparative and superlative forms have enabled us to express comparisons, distinguishing between degrees of quality and identifying the highest or lowest degree among a group. By skillfully using these forms, we can provide a clearer picture of how nouns relate to one another.

Adjective-noun agreement has been unveiled as the foundation for harmony in expression. Whether it's matching adjectives with nouns in terms of number, gender (in gendered languages), or even case (in some languages), this agreement ensures that our language accurately reflects the attributes of the nouns we describe.

In your ongoing journey with language, remember that adjectives are the vibrant hues on your palette. The right combination, placement, and agreement can transform your communication into a masterpiece. As you continue to explore the depths of language and expression, practice and refinement will be your allies in mastering the art of adjectives.

So, embrace the versatility of adjectives, wield them with precision, and continue to refine your language skills. The world of adjectives is an ever-expanding realm of possibilities, and your mastery of them will continue to enrich your ability to

communicate, describe, and convey your thoughts and emotions effectively.

In closing, consider this: just as a skilled painter brings life to a canvas with a stroke of the brush, you, too, can bring your words to life, painting vibrant pictures in the minds of your audience through the artful use of adjectives.

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CHAPTER 7

ADVERBS

By Morita

7.1 What is an Adverb?

An adverb is a part of speech. It is a word that functions as a modifier to several types of words, including **an adjective, a verb, a clause**, another **adverb** or even **an entire sentence**. An adverb is used to give more information about place, time, manner (how an action is done), and degree (to what extent).

7.2 Types of Adverbs

Adverbs can be grouped into different types according to their functions in a sentence. The followings are the different types of adverbs

1. *Adverbs of Manner*
2. *Adverbs of Time*
3. *Adverbs of Place*
4. *Adverbs of Degree*
5. *Conjunctive Adverbs*

7.3 Adverbs of Manner

An adverb of manner is used to modify a verb. It tells how an action is done. Most of adverbs of manner are formed from adjectives added by **-ly**.

Adjectives	Adverbs	Examples
Slow	Slowly	The old man walks <u>slowly</u> .
Fluent	Fluently	My grandfather can speak Dutch <u>fluently</u> .
Beautiful	Beautifully	The picture was drawn <u>beautifully</u> .
Soft	Softly	I can't hear you. You speak <u>softly</u> .

In sentence “The old man walks slowly”, the word ‘slowly’ defines how the old man walks. It is also the same way in the second sentence. The word “happily” defines how the children sang.

However, there are several irregular adverbs of manner.

Adjectives	Adverbs	Examples
Good	Well	The workers can finish their work <u>well</u> .
Hard	Hard	The man works <u>hard</u> every day.
Fast	Fast	The athlete runs <u>fast</u> .
Late	Late	I came <u>late</u> to school this morning.
High	High	The birds are flying <u>high</u> in the sky.

Adjectives ended by ‘y’ is changed into ‘i’ before added by -ly

Examples:

- 1. Laura talked to me angrily. (*angry - angrily*)
- 2. The students did the test easily. (*easy - easily*)
- 3. The children are playing in the park happily. (*happy - happily*)



An adverb of manner usually comes right after the verb as it modifies the way the action is performed. In some cases, we can also put the adverb of manner at the beginning of the

sentence to grab the reader's attention and draw their focus to the adverb.

Examples:

1. *Quietly*, she walked into the room.
2. *Quickly*, the little boy ran into his father.
3. *Happily*, we sang the song together.

Exercise 1

Complete the following sentences with the correct form of adverb of manner from the adjective in brackets.

1. Mr and Mrs. Brown have been (happy) married for more than 50 years.
2. He (quick) ran into the door when he heard the bell rang.
3. The students are doing the test (careful).
4. She spoke English (slow) so that we could understand her.
5. The man was injured (bad) in the accident.
6. She handled the package very (gentle).
7. I am (true) sorry for my coming late to the meeting.
8. The children sang (cheerful) during the festival.
9. We have to drive (slow) because it snowing (hard).
10. Mom is shouting (angry) at me. I am late again!

Exercise 2

Circle the adjective or adverb to complete each sentence.

1. My roommate is a *nice/nicely* girl.
2. My gandpa can speak Dutch very *fluent/fluently*.
3. Kate is a *good/well* painter. She can paint *beautiful/beautifully* pictures.
4. The assignment that the teacher gave us was *easy/easily*.
5. The mother *quiet/quietly* tiptoed entering the baby's bedroom.
6. My grandfather always walks very *slow/slowly*.
7. The man *nervous/nervously* started his speech.
8. I was very *happy/happily* when I knew I passed my statistics exam.
9. The muic was so *loud/loudly* that we felt bothered.
10. She is the most *generous/generously* person I've ever known.

7.4 Adverbs of Time

An adverb of time is a word that describes not only **when** an event happens, but also **for how long**, and **how often**.

1. Adverbs of Time telling "when"

This type of adverb of time is usually placed at the end of the sentence.

Examples:

- a. We went to Bali *last year*.
- b. The Andersons are going to move to London *next month*.
- c. I came home late *last night*.
- d. They are listening to music *now*.

Putting an adverb of time at the end of the sentence is a neutral position, but it can also be put at the beginning of the sentence if we want to emphasize when the action happens. Some others can also be put before the main verb, particularly in formal writing.

Examples:

- a. ***Every morning*** my sister and I go to school together.
- b. We will ***now*** begin our presentation.

2. Adverbs of Time telling “how long”

An adverb of time telling how long is usually put at the end of the sentence.

Examples:

- a. We were gardening ***all day***.
- b. I have lived in Batusangkar ***for more than a year***.
- c. We have been going to this restaurant ***since I was a kid***.

3. Adverbs of Time telling “how often”

An adverb which tells us how often an action is done or the frequency of a particular action happens is called ***Adverb of Frequency***. We usually place an adverb of frequency either ***before a main verb*** or ***after a to be***.

Examples:

- a. I ***always*** wake up at 5 o'clock in the morning.
- b. Robby is ***often*** late to work.
- c. He will ***always*** love his family.

Exercise 3

Rewrite the sentences by correcting the position of the adverb of time.

- 1. The teacher yesterday asked us to do a lot of exercises.

- 2. My father is going to buy tomorrow a new laptop.

- 3. I am talking right now with my manager on the phone.

4. The weather is today very hot.

5. I'm tonight having a meeting with a new client from Japan.

Exercise 4

Put the adverb of frequency in brackets in the correct place.

1. I'm late for work. (rarely)

2. Danny goes out with his friends on weekdays. (occasionally)

3. Melly does her homework in the evening. (usually)

4. My brother reads newspaper in the morning. (hardly ever)

5. The teacher speaks English with her students in the classroom. (always)

Exercise 5

Fill in the balnks with the most appropriate adverb of frequency.

1. Anita is never sad. She is happy.

2. I was late to school only one time this semester. I'm late.

3. I always remember to do my homework. I forget to do it.
4. Brian gets up at 5 o'clock seven days a week. He gets up early.
5. I seldom go to the cinema. I watch movies.



Exercise 6

Complete the sentences with “in”, “on” or “at”

1. We have an English class Monday.
2. It rains a lot December.
3. The plane to Penang leaves 9.30.
4. My great grandparents moved here the 1960s.
5. Our family always get together dinnertime.
6. The teacher said that our assignment was due August 2.
7. The mailman usually comes the morning.

8. They always go to Bali April.
9. Andy called me midnight.
10. The 2nd world war started 1939.

7.5 Adverbs of Place

An adverb of place indicates where something happens. It is usually placed after the main verb or after the clause it modifies.

1. *Here* and *There*

'Here' and 'there' are adverbs of place giving information about the location relative to the speaker. 'Here' means **towards** or **with** the speaker, and 'there' means **away from** or **not with** the speaker.

Examples:

- a. Put this book over **there**!
- b. The chairs are **here**.

'Here' and 'there' can also be placed at the beginning of the sentence in exclamations. They are followed by the verb if the subject is a noun or by a pronoun if the subject is a pronoun.

Examples:

- a. Look! **Here** comes the doctor!
- b. **There** goes the bus!
- c. **Here** you are!
- d. **There** they are!

2. Adverbs of place as prepositions

- a. **Around**: She is wearing a pink scarf **around** her neck.
- b. **Behind**: The boy is hiding **behind** the tree.
- c. **Down**: Jack fell **down** the ladder when he was trying to change the light bulb.
- d. **In**: Mary keeps all her toys **in** a big box.

- e. On:* She is sitting **on** a comfortable chair.
f. Over: She hung her pictures **over** her bed.

3. Adverbs of place ended by **-where**

An adverb of place ended by **-where** expresses the location without any specific direction.

Examples:

- You can sit **anywhere** you like.
- I remember I put my ring **somewhere** in my closet.
- I have **nowhere** to go.
- The police have been looking for the boy **everywhere** but he is still missing.



Exercise 7

Use the correct adverbs of place. You can find the options in the box.

There here nowhere somewhere everywhere around away down up out

- Don't worry! The ambulance will be soon.



- The helicopter started to spin

3. He climbed the tree to get the fruits.
4. I've been looking for him, but still can't find him.
5. The library is over
6. Let me stay with you. I have to go.
7. I won't be to listen to your story.
8. Just put it in this room.
9. He walked his car and came back to his house because he left his suitcase.
10. Put that knife. It's dangerous.

7.6 Adverbs of Degree

An adverb of degree is used to show the degree or intensity of an adjective, verb, or another adverb. It is usually positioned before the word it modifies.
 Here is a list of adverbs of degree that we can use.

Adverbs of Degree		
absolutely	Almost	badly
barely	Completely	deeply
enough	Extremely	fairly
fully	Greatly	hardly
highly	Horribly	incredibly
insanely	Intensely	just
largely	Less	least
little	Most	much
pretty	Purely	quite
really	Remarkably	scarcely
somewhat	Strongly	terribly
thoroughly	Too	utterly
unusually	Very	wonderfully

Examples:

1. He is **too** old to join the competition.
2. These pictures are **very** beautiful.
3. It's **extremely** hot in most of the countries in Europe nowadays.

4. The work is ***almost*** finished.
5. Our neighbor is ***unusually*** quiet today.

Exercise 8

Fill in the blanks with the most appropriate adverb of degree from the list below.

Strongly - very - too - incredibly - almost - pretty - largely - unusually - thoroughly - really

1. I felt happy to be accepted to work in this esteemed organization.
2. He recommended me to take my mother to an internist immediately.
3. He understands my problem and would really like to help.
4. The room was occupied by families of the bride and groom.
5. As the test was not difficult, most of us could finish in in a short time.
6. The performance went Well even though we had a bit problem with the sound system.
7. The bus was crowded for us to get in.
8. The weather has been hot in the past few days.
9. I hurriedly left my house. The show was over.
10. I felt bad after failing to fulfill my promise to her.

7.7 Conjunctive Adverbs

Conjunctive adverbs are used to connect one clause to another. They may function to show sequency, contrast, cause and effect, and other relationships. Here are the list of conjunctive adverbs.

Functions	Conjunctive Adverbs				
Addition	additional ly	also	besides	furthermore	moreover
Consequences	consequently	accordingly	so	therefore	thus
Comparison	alternatively	similarly	likewise	like	as
Contrast	If not	however	nevertheless	otherwise	conversely
Emphasis	certainly	definitely	indeed	of course	naturally
Clarification	for example	for instance	namely	i.e	notably
Sequence	first	next	then	after that	finally
Summarize	briefly	In conclusion	In summary		

Examples

1. Jamie didn't do his homework. **Therefore**, the teacher punished him to write it three times.
2. I went into the store. **However**, I couldn't find the t'shirt I wanted to buy.
3. Our neighbor is always noisy at night. **In addition**, he never cleans his yard.



Exercise 9

Join these pairs of sentences using the most appropriate conjunctive adverbs.

1. We arrived late at the party. There was nothing left for us to eat.

2. She cooks for the family everyday. She cleans the house everyday.

3. Vivi thought she could win the competition. She failed.

4. You always found excuses when the coach asked you to train. You lost the race.

5. The boy got a new bicycle for his birthday. His grandparents gave him \$100.

6. The last bus has gone. We will have to walk home.

7. The car looks good. Its price is reasonable.

8. You'd better fix your car now. You'll have to ride your bike to work.

9. We wanted to go to the beach. It started to rain.

10. She is very smart. She becomes the first winner in the science competition.

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CHAPTER 8

PREPOSITION

By Sunara

8.1 Introduction

Prepositions are the parts of speech such as nouns, pronouns, adjective, verbs, adverbs, conjunction, and interjection that have function in sentences. They never change in form, pronounced softly, unstressed syllables, and are not given capital letters in book title. They are placed before a noun or pronoun to define its relationship with another word in the sentence. They expresses relations. Prepositions are anything but straightforward. Prepositions expose the position (above, across, against, in, among, behind, below, beneath, beside, between, by, around, etc), time (after, by, during, for, from, etc.), direction (across, against, along, around, away fom, down, from), location (at, before, by, during, for, from, in, etc)

8.2 Kinds of Preposition

1. One-word prepositions

Without	During
Within	Downwards
With	For
Via	From
upon	Front
Under	In
Down	Into
By	Inside
Beyond	Near
Between	On
Beside	Of
besides	Off
Beneath	Out
Below	Onward

Behind	Over
Before	Round
Backwards	Since
Back	Side
Away	Sideways
At	To
Around	Towards
Among	Till
Ahead	Through
Against	Up
After	Upto
Across	Untill
Above	Upwards
About	Alongside
Amidst	Astride
Aboard	Atop
Anti	Bar
But (also conj.)	Barring

2. **Complex preposition**

According to	Instead of
Through out	Next to
Upside down	by means of
Outside of	close to
Ahead of	contrary to
à la	depending on
along with	due to
apart from	opposite to
as for	other than
aside from	out of
as per	outside of
as to	owing to
as well as	preparatory to
because of	prior to
but for	regardless of
except for	save for
Forward of	on behalf of

Further to in the middle of midst of in the centre of in the back of in spite of in return for in respect to in regard to in proportion to in lieu of In front of In favour of In face of in contrast with in connection with in comparison with in case of in care of In between in back of in advance of in addition to in accordance with in the course of in the event of in the lighth of in the process of near to next to on account of For the benefit of For the purpose of For the sake of At the risk of As a consequence of As a result of	on account of on pain of on board on to (UK) see onto on top of thanks to together with up against up to up until vis- à-vis with reference by way of by dint of by order of by reason of by virtue of for fear of for lack of for want of with an eye to with a view to on the face of on the occasion of on the part of on the point of on the strength of on the top of With regard to With reference to With respect to With the exception of With the purpose of At the cost of At the hands of At the point of
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8.3 Relationship with Other Parts Of Speech

1. Verb and Preposition Collocation

The verb in prepositional verb is followed by a preposition. The preposition after the verbs must remain together. Here are the equivalents of English prepositional verb in Indonesian.

<u>Verb and preposition</u>	<u>Equivalent in Indonesian</u>
Worry about	Khawatir tentang
Result in	Menyebabkan/hasil dalam
Look at	Melihat
Long for	Merindukan
Kept on	Lanjutkan
Deal with	Berurusan dengan
Count on	Mengandalkan/bergantung pada
Care for	Peduli
Arrived in	Tiba di
Approve of	Menyetujui
Apply for	Melamar untuk
Add to	Tambahkan
Put on	Memakai
agree with	setuju dengan
approve of	menyetujui
believe in	percaya pada
care for	merawat
consist of	terdiri dari
decide on	Memutuskan
depend on	bergantung pada
deal with	berurusan dengan
get on	naik/mendapatkan
get off	turun
get in	masuk
get out of	keluar dari
insist on	bersikeras/memaksakan
laugh at	menertawakan
listen to	mendengarkan
	menjaga

<i>look after</i>	melihat
<i>look at</i>	mencari
<i>look for</i>	membayar
<i>pay for</i>	ahli/berspesialisasi dalam
<i>specialize in</i>	memikirkan tentang
<i>think about</i>	menunggu
<i>wait for</i>	bekerja untuk
<i>work for</i>	mengingat akan
<i>remind me of</i>	memberikan dengan
<i>provide us with</i>	berterima kasih atas
<i>thank you for</i>	

2. Adjective and Preposition Collocation

<u>Adjective and preposition</u>	<u>Equivalent in Indonesian</u>
Worry about	Khawatir tentang
Sorry about	Minta maaf atas/tentang
Similar of	Serupa dengan/dari
guilty about	Bersalah atas/tentang
Interested in	Tertarik pada
Full of	Penuh dengan
Fond of	Menyukai
Famous of/for	Terkenal karena
Familiar with	Akrab/kenal dengan
Excited about	Bersemangat
Different from	Berbeda dengan
Annoyed about	Kesal terhadap
Angry with	Marah kepada
Angry about	Marah karena
Afraid of	Takut akan
Amazed at	Kagum pada
Bad at	Buruk pada
Briliant at	Cemerlang/pintar sekali akan
Excellent at	Sangat baik pada
Good at/for	Sangat baik/pintar
Hopeless at	Menyerah
Useless at	Tidak berguna

Bad for	Buruk atas
Difficult for	Sulit untuk
Eager for	Semangat/ingin sekali
Easy for	Mudah
Hard for	Sulit untuk
Impossible for	Tidak mungkin untuk
Necessary for	Perlu untuk
Possible for	Mungkin untuk
Qualified for	Memenuhi syarat untuk
Ready for	Siap untuk
Responsibel for	Bertanggung jawab atas
Sorry for	Minta maaf atas
Suitable for	Cocok untuk
Ashamed of	Malu atas
Aware of	Sadar akan
Capable of	Mampu akan
Certain of	Yakin atas/terhadap
Clever of	Pintar
Conscious of	Sadar
Envious of	Iri pada
Frightened of	Takut
Generous of	Murah hati
Good of	Bagus
Jealous of	Cemburu terhadap
Kind of	Agak
Mean of	Arti dari
Proud of	Bangga akan
Scared of	Takut akan
Sensible of	Masuk akal
Sick of	Sakit
Silly of	Konyol
Sort of	Semacam
Stupid of	Bodoh
Sure of	Yakin atas
Tired of	Lelah atas

3. Noun and Preposition Collocation

<u>Noun and preposition</u>	<u>Equivalent in Indonesian</u>
In reference to	Menunjuk pada/berdasar atas
On behalf of	Atas nama
In reply to	Sebagai jawaban terhadap
In accordance to	Sesuai dengan
In case of	Dalam hal/jika
Cooperation with	Kerjasama dengan
In amount of	Dalam jumlah besar
Memory of	Kenangan akan
Method of	Metode
A cause of	Sebab dari
Habit of	Kebiasaan akan
Advantage of	Keuntungan atas
Grasp of	Pegangan atas
Knowledge of	Pengetahuan tentang
Member of	Anggota dari
Process of	Proses dari
Search for	Pencarian untuk
Room for	Ruangan untuk
Responsibility for	Bertanggung jawab atas/untuk
Respect for	Hormat untuk/terhadap
Recipe for	Resep untuk
Need for	Perlu untuk
Hatred for	Kebencian untuk
Fondness for	Kesukaan untuk
Desire for	Keinginan untuk
Demand for	Permintaan untuk
Cure for	Obat untuk
Credit for	Penghargaan untuk
Bid for	Menawar untuk
Arguments for	Alasan untuk
Approval for	Persetujuan untuk
Admiration for	Kekaguman terhadap
A check for	Sebuah cek untuk
Access to	Akses ke
Addiction to	Kecanduan

An attitude to	Sikap terhadap
Approach to	Mendekat ke
Change to	Mengubah
Damaged to	Rusak pada
Dedicatin to	Didedikasikan untuk
Devotion to	Pengabdian untuk
Invitation to	Undangan untuk
Newcomer to	Pendatang baru di
Reaction to	Reaksi terhadap
Reason to	Alasan untuk
Reference to	Acuan pada
Relevance to	Relevansi dengan
Solution to	Solusi terhadap
Transition to	Transisi ke
Visit to	Kunjungan ke
Agreement about	Kesepakatan tentang
Anxiety about	Kecemasan tentang
Concern about	Kekhawatiran tentang
Debate about	Perdebatan tentang
A relationship between	Hubungan antara
A contract between	Kontrak antara
Bond between	Ikatan antara
A connection between	Koneksi antara
Information about	Informasi tentang
authority over	Otoritas atas
Control over	Kendali terhadap
Inquiry into	Penyelidikan ke dalam
Investigation into	Investigasi ke dalam
Research into	Penyelidikan ke dalam
Translation into	Terjemahan ke dalam
Except from	Kecuali dari
Transition from	Transisi dari
Arguments with	Argumen dengan
Concern with	Perhatian dengan
Connection with	Hubungan dengan
Contact with	Kontak dengan
Date with	Kecan/berpacaran dengan

Dealings with	Berurusan dengan
Link with	Berhubungan dengan
Quarrel with	Pertengkaran dengan
Relationship with	Hubungan dengan
Sympathy with	Simpati kepada
A decrease in	Penurunan
A fall in	Jatuh
A rise in	Kenaikan
Belief in	Keyakinan pada
Delay in	Keterlambatan masuk
Difficulty in	Kesulitan dalam
Experience in	Pengalaman pada
Place in	Penempatan di
Success in	Keberhasilan dalam
Attempt at	Mencoba pada
Point at	Tunjuk pada
Anger at	Kemarahan terhadap
Age at	Usia di
Information on	Informasi tentang
Report on	Laporan tentang
Ban on	larangan
Debate on	perdebatan terus berlanjut
Decision on	keputusan tentang

8.4 Relationship With Time, Place, Occupation, Direction, Price

1. IN

Preposition before other things (noun) describing position: buildings, rooms, areas, regions, cities, continents, countries (large places), liquids. Preposition **In** when you mean that a person, place, thing, or animal is located inside a location:

- Position (in the classroom)
- Century (in the 1800's)
- Decades (in the 89's)
- Years (in 2023, in 2024)
- Months (in January, in March)
- Weeks (in 3 weeks)

- g. Season (in Spring and Summer)
- h. Periods of time (in the future)
- i. Holidays (in Easter Holiday)
- j. Parts of the day (in the morning)
- k. Countries (in Indonesia)
- l. Cities (in Bandung)
- m. Neighbourhood (in Manhattan)
- n. An enclosed space (in a car)
- o. Activity (in the army)

	<u>Equivalents in Indonesian</u>
I was born <u>in Europe</u> ,	di Eropa
Rosi was born <u>in Italy</u> ,	di Itali
Lionel Messi was born <u>in</u>	di Argentina
<u>Argentina</u>	di dalam saku
<u>In</u> my pocket.	di dalam kulkas
<u>In</u> the fridge.	di laci bagian atas
<u>In</u> the top drawer.	di dalam cangkir
<u>In</u> my cup.	di ruang tunggu
<u>In</u> the waiting room	di kantor saya
<u>In</u> my office	di dalam kebun
<u>In</u> the garden.	di danau
<u>In</u> the lake	di gunung
<u>In</u> the mountain	di tim keuangan
<u>In</u> the finance team	di tim nasional
<u>In</u> the national team	di dalam minuman ringan
<u>In</u> soft drink	

IN and collocation with the equivalent in Indonesian

- In time (=pada waktunya)
- In of focus (=dalam fokus)
- In ink (=dalam/dengan tinta)
- In horror (=dengan kengerian)
- In honor of (=untuk menghormati atas)
- In high spirits (=dalam/dengan keadaan semangat)
- In hiding (=di/dalam persembunyian)
- In haste (=dengan tergesa-gesa)

In harmony with	(=selaras/sesuai dengan)
In hand	(=di/dengan tangan)
In good faith	(=dengan keyakinan/itikad yang baik)
In good condition	(=dalam keadaan yang baik)
In general	(=pada umumnya)
In gear	(=bersiap)
In future	(=di masa yang akan datang)
In full	(=sepenuhnya)
In flower	(=dalam bunga)
In flames	(=dalam nyala api)
In fear of	(=karena takut akan/terhadap)
In favor of	(=demi kepentingan)
In fairness to	(=agar adil terhadap/untuk)
In fact	(=nyatanya/pada kenyataannya)
In disguise	(=dalam penyamaran/menyamar/ tidak kelihatan)
In disgrace	(=dalam aib)
In detail	(=secara terperinci)
In demand	(=permintaan)
In defense	(=dalam pertahanan)
In decline	(=sedang menurun)
In debt	(=terlilit hutang)
In danger	(=dalam keadaan bahaya)
In arrears	(=tunggakan)
In anticipation of	(=dalam mengantisipasi)
In answer to	(=sebagai jawaban untuk/atas)
In an uproar	(=dalam keributan)

In and the collocation with other words

Believe in
 Deficient in
 Delight in
 Employ in
 Encourage in
 Experience in
 Fail in
 Fortunate in
 Help in

Honest in
 Include in
 Indulge in
 Instruct in
 Interested in
 Invest in
 Persist in
 Share in
 Weak in

2. ON

Preposition describing position : Surfaces, flat surface, oceans, rivers, lakes, place, time, about, direction nearness, manner

Time	(on the weekend)
Days	(on Monday, on Sunday, etc)
Dates	(on January th)
Specific days	(on her birthday)
Day+part of day	(on Friday morning)
Holiday with day	(on Lebaran's Day)
Street	(on Sudirman street)
Avenue	(on 9th avenue)
Surface	(on the floor)
Means of transport	(on a bus)
Communication	(on radio and on tv)

ON and COLLOCATION

On watch	(=sedang berjaga jaga)
On the road	(=di jalan)
On the record	(=dalam catatan)
On the edge of	(=di tepi)
On the dot	(=tepat sasaran)
On the air	(=disiarkan)
On the agenda	(=dengan agenda)
On suspicion of	(=sedang dicurigai)
On strike	(=sedang mogok)
On show	(=sedang tampil)

On schedule	(=sesuai jadwal)
On remand	(=sedang ditahan)
On pain of	(=sakit akan)
On order	(=sesuai pesanan)
On oath	(=di atas sumpah)
On business	(=sedang berbisnis)
On board	(=di atas kapal)
On behalf of	(=atas nama)
On balance	(=pada keseimbangan)
On bail	(=dengan jaminan)
On average	(=dengan rata-rata)
On approval	(=disetujui)
On an island	(=di sebuah pulau)
On an expedition	(=dalam sebuah ekspedisi)
On account of	(=karena)
On a trip	(=dalam perjalanan)
On a spree	(=sedang bersenang-senang)
On a small scale	(=dalam skala kecil)
On a regular basis	(=secara teratur)
On a pension	(=pada pensiun)
On a large scale	(=dalam skala besar)
On a journey	(= di perjalanan)
On a diet	(=sedang diet)

Preposition	Equivalents in Indonesian translation
Write it on the paper!	Di kertas
He's spilled iced-cream on his new jumper.	Dia menumpahkan es krim ke baju barunya.
On the corner of Sudirman Street.	Di sudut jalan Sudirman
On the south coast of Bali.	Di pantai selatan Bal
On the water.	Di air
On the lake	Di danau
On the south side of the district.	Di sisi selatan distrik
On the left side	Di sisi sebelah kiri
On the bus.	Di dalam bus
	Di dalam kereta

<u>On</u> the train That book is on the table	
--	--

On and Collocation with other words

- Based on
- Call on
- Comment on
- Congratulat on
- Consult on
- Count on
- Decide on
- Depend on
- Dependent on
- Economize on
- Emark on
- Experiment on
- Fortunate on
- Honest on
- Insist on
- Keen on
- Lean on
- Live on
- Operate on
- Perform on
- Pride on
- Rely on
- Vote on
- Write on

3. AT (VERY SPECIFIC (SMALLER) TIME AND PLACE

- Hours (at 7 a.m/p.m)
- Parts of the day (at midnight, at noon)
- Time (at the moment)
- Holidays without day (at Easter, At Lebaran)
- Addresses (at 21 State Street)
- Specific locations (at the Station)

AT and COLLOCATION

At high speed	(=dengan kecepatan tinggi)
At risk	(=beresiko)
At one's side	(=di satu sisi)
At a fraction of	(=di sebagian kecil dari)
At the outset	(=pada mulanya)
At the end	(=pada akhirnya)
At side	(=di samping)
At the double	(=dengan cepat)
At one time	(=pada satu waktu)
At a discount	(=di diskon)
At a distance	(=di kejauhan)
At a glance	(=sekilas)
At a guess	(=bisa ditebak)
At a loose and	(=secara longgar dan
At a loss	(=bingung)
At a low ebb	(=pada saat surut endah)
At a price	(=pada harga)
At a rate of	(=pada tingkat)
At a speed of	(=dengan kecepatan)
At a standstill	(=terhenti)
At all costs	(=bagaimanapun caranya)
At all events	(=di semua acara)
At issue	(=dipermasalahkan)
At large	(=pada umumnya)
At least	(=setidaknya)
At length	(=panjangnya)
At liberty	(=bebas)
At most	(=paling banyak)
At night	(=pada malam hari)
At noon	(=pada siang hari)
At one's leisure	(=di waktu senggang)
At one's request	(=atas permintaan seseorang)
At peace	(=dalam damai)
At war	(=dalam perang)

4. **From**

The prepositions tell about the starting place, place of origin, material, difference, occasionally, cause, absent.

Away from

Borrow from

Demand from

Differ from

Different from

Dismiss from

Draw from

Emerge from

Escape from

Excuse from

Far from

Hinder from

Prevent from

Prohibit from

Protect from

Receive from

Safe from

Separate from

Suffer from

5. **With**

The preposition has correlated to the manner, opposition, reason, agreement, harmony, concerning, material added, instrument, company, possession, in the care of,

Angry with

Agree with comply with

Confuse with

Consistent with

Content with

Contrast with

Cope with

Correspondent with

Disgust with

Familiar with

Finish with

Help with
Identical with
Interfere with
Mix with
Occupy with
Part with
Patient with
Please with
Popular with
Quarrel with
Reason with
Satisfied with
Threatened with
Begin with
Busy with
Communicate with
Compare with
Compete with

6. For

The preposition For tell about length of time, destination, reason, purpose, instead of, fitness, in favour, in spite of

For and Collocation with other words

Account for
Ask for
Act for
Apologize for
Blame for
Call for
Beg for
Charge for
Eager for
Enough for
Exchange for
Famous for
Fit for
Grateful for
Hope for

Look for
Mistake for
Mourn for
Pay for
Prepae for
Provide for
Qualified for
Ready for
Responsible for
Seach for
Sorry for
Sufficient for
Thanks for
Thankfull for
Valid for
Vote for
Wait for

7. **About**

Curious about
Doubtful about
Enthusiastic about
Talk about
Reluctant about
Right about
Uneasy about

8. **AT**

At is used with smaller significant places, specific places, points in space, public places, shop, addresses, time, occupation, direction.

- a. I am **at** the farmers' market.
- b. I am **at** the airport.
- c. I'm **at** school.
- d. I'm going to meet you **at** the restaurant.
- e. **At** the bus stop.
- f. **At** lebaran, all the people are at home.
- g. **At** the traffic light.

- h. At the supermarket
- i. He strew the stone at me
- j. I bought the bicycle at Rp 5.000.000
- k. At the library
- l. Live **at** 23, Soekarno Road
- m. She met me **at** the corner.
- n. **At** a party.
- o. **At** the conference.

At and the collocation with other words

Amuse at

Arrive at

Astonish at

Bad at

Clever at

Efficient at

Exclaim at

Expert at

Glance at

Good at

Guess at

Indignant at

Knock at

Look at

Point at

Quick at

Sad at

Shock at

Skilful at

Slow at

Stare at

Surprise at

Wonder at

9. To

The preposition tells about decision, before, as far as, indirect object

This is the road **to** Jatinangor. (menuju)

The child can count from one **to** ten. (anak itu bisa berhitung dari 1 hingga 10)

It is six minutes **to** seven. (menuju ke pukul/kurang)

Give the book **to** me. (berikan buku itu padaku)

To and Collocation with other words

Accustomed to

Amount to

Apcompare to

appeal to

Apply to (for)

Attached to

Belong to

Close to

Confess to

Challange to

Compare to

Comdemned to

Confine to

Consent to

Contrary to

Convert to

Cruel to

Dear to

Dedicated to

Devoted to

Entitled to

Equal to

Faithful to

Fatal to

Harmful to

Indifferrent to

Inferior to

Liablie to

Lisen to

Mention to

New to

Obedient to

Object to
Obvious to
Occur to
Polite to
Prefer to
Previous to
React to (against)
Reply to
respond to
rude to
see to
sensitive to
similiar to
submit to
surrender to
turn to
useful to
yield to

10. By

Of time: before, transport, place: near

- a. She is waiting **by** the car.
- b. Put your bag **by** the door and sit down **by** me.
- c. Sit down here **by** the fire.
- d. Learning english step **by** step.

11. Of

Of possession, about, measure, cause, distcance, position,

- a. The first president **of** Indonesia is Soekarno.
- b. The University **of** Padjadjaran is located in Bandung.
- c. The poor has died **of** hunger.
- d. Four miles **of** the building is seashore.
- e. Subang is nothern part **of** West Java.
- f. The table is made **of** iron.
- g. It is kind **of** you to help me.
- h. All **of** us are going to jakarta.

Collocation with Of

Accuse of
Afraid of
Ahead of
Approve of
Capable of
Careful of
Certain of
Complain of
Conscious
Consist of
Dispair of
Dream of
Envious of
Jealous of
Short of
Think of
Worthy of

12. BY

by law	(=menurut hukum)
by nature	(=secara alami)
by far	(=sejauh ini)
by design	(=berdasarkan desain)
by change	(=oleh perubahan)
by the name of	(=dengan nama)
by luck	(=dengan keberuntungan)
by accident	(= kebetulan)
by air	(=lewat udara)
by sea	(=melalui laut)
by land	(=melalui darat)
by all accounts	(=oleh semua akun)
by all means	(=dengan segala cara)
by any standard	(=dengan standar apapun)
by appointment	(=dengan janji)
by birth	(=sejak lahir)
by check	(=dengan cek)
by coincidence	(=secara kebetulan)

by courtesy of	(=atas izin)
by definition	(=menurut definisi)
by degrees	(=sedikit demi sedikit)
by design	(=berdasarkan desain)
by dint of	(=berkat)
by far	(=sejauh ini)
by force	(=dengan paksa)
by hand	(=dengan tangan)
by heart	(=dengan hati)
by law	(=menurut hukum)
by marriage	(=melalui pernikahan)
by means of	(=melalui)
by request	(=berdasarkan permintaan)
by sight	(=dengan melihat)

13. TO

Direction, Destination, Time, Time Between Two Points, Preference, Limit/Endpoint

- My brother brought dinner **to** me. (kepada ku)
- She made a phone call **to** me yesterday. (kepadaku)
- I usually take motorcycle **to** work. (Ke tempat pekerjaan)
- They study Saturday **to** Sunday. (**hingga** hari minggu)
- Do you prefer swimming to hiking? (daripada jalan-jalan)
- The tickets cost up **to** \$300 each. (hingga \$300)
- She should apologize **to** her boss (kepada bosnya)
- The car belongs **to** my father. (milik ayahku)
- She is waiting **to** do the homework. (untuk melakukan)

14. FOR

Benefit, Duration, Period Of Time, Helping Someone, Common Collocation

- the drink is great **for** your health. (demi kesehatanmu)
- I have already been living here **for** about five years. (selama 5 tahun)

- c. How long have you been studying English in the university **for**?
(selama)
- d. He bought the bag **for** my daughter.
(untuk (membantu) saudara))
- e. I appologize **for** my bad action.
(atas/terhadap tindakan)
- f. That new bicycle is **for** my son.
(untuk (membantu) anak))
- g. I will apologize **for** missing the meeting.
(karena)
- h. Travelling **for** one week and **for** work
(selama, demi)
- i. Applying **for** scholarship and new job.
(untuk beasiswa)
- j. My daughter asked me **for** new bag **for** her brithday.
(untuk (bantuan))
- k. Take care **for** my children!
(untuk (membantu))
- l. Who are you waiting **for**?
(untuk)

15. Beside/nearby, besides

Beside : adverb and preposition that means in addition to

- 1. I live **near** the river
- 2. **Besides**, we need your support in this venture
- 3. **Besides** two suitcases, I am taking three boxes with me.

16. AMONG AND BETWEEN

Between is used only when there are two elements

Among is used when the items are part of a group (3 or more)

- 1. She is the most beautiful among her friends at school.
(diantara teman-teman)
- 2. I like it **among** the bikes.
(diantara sepeda sepeda)
- 3. There is no relationship **between** Dani and Ratna
(antara Dani dan Ratna)

4. Choose **between** going for camping **and** travelling!
(antara traveling dan campingg)

17.ON &UPON

Upon is a little more formal than on.

- a. Once upon a time, she came to the empty house.
- b. Don't put your handphone on the freezer.

18.BY & UNTIL

By For deadline

- a. I have to go home **by** tomorrow.

By for Precise Time Expression:

I have to finish the assignment **by** 9 o'clock. (sebelum jam 9)

Until for precise time expresion.

I'm waiting for her **until** 4 pm

We have **until** 5 minutes to finish the work.

Until with Less Precise Time Expression

- 1) I will wait for you **until** you came here. (saya akan menunggumu hingga kau datang)
- 2) **Until** the daughter fell asleep.
- 3) We will play football **until** it's getting dark.
- 4) Talking and discussing **until** night.
- 5) Jane did not go home **until** late.

Choose the precise and less precise time expression.

- 1) The package should arrive **by** Friday.
- 2) I was waiting there **until** 10.20 and no one showed up.
- 3) The school stay open **until** 3 pm everyday.
- 4) I have to be the concert **by** 10 because the artsit will come at 11.15
- 5) I did not know how to solve the problem **until** I get home.

Preposition with the collocation

Di kota	(in a town/ country)
Dalam sebuah perlombaan	(in a race)
Di ruangan	(in a room)
Di tempat tidur	(in bed)
Di langit	(in the sky)
Di atap rumah	(on the roof)
Di rumah seseorang	(at someone's house)
Di lantai kedua	(on the second floor)
Pada daftar nama	(on a list)
Pada tahap akhir	(in the final stages)
Di sekolah	(At school)
Di atas sepeda motor	(on a motorbike)
Di dinding	(on a wall)
Di atas lif	(in a lift)
Di dalam bangunan	(in a building)
Di meja depan (tamu)	(at the front desk)
Di meja	(on the desk)
Di London	(in London)
Di atas kuda	(on a horse)
Di sebuah konferensi	(at a conference)
Di dalam keranjang	(in a basket)
Di atas karpet	(on the carpet)
Dalam bentuk jurnal	(in the journal)
Di radio	(on the radio)
Di pasar	(in the market)
Pada peta	(on a map)
Pada pintu masuk	(at the entrance)
Di pintu	(at the door)
Di dapur	(in the kitchen)
Pada langit langit	(on the ceiling)
Di sudut/pojok	(at the corner)
Di bank	(in the bank)
Di depan	(at the front)
Dalam bentuk artikel	(in the article)
Pada halaman kertas	(on a page)
Di dunia	(in the world)
Di sebuah pesta	(at a party)

Di atas sebuah pulau	(on an island)
Di televisi	(on television)
Di bagian atas halaman	(on the top of the page)
Di dalam gambar	(in the picture)

Make sentences with the words with preposition below

1. *agree with*
2. *approve of*
3. *believe in*
4. *care for*
5. *consist of*
6. *decide on*
7. *depend on*
8. *deal with*
9. *get on*
10. *get off*
11. *get in*
12. *get out of*
13. *insist on*
14. *laugh at*
15. *listen to*
16. *look after*
17. *look at*
18. *look for*
19. *pay for*
20. *specialize in*
21. *think about*
22. *wait for*
23. *work for*

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CHAPTER 9

PRONOUNS

By Yuli Rohmiyati

9.1 Introduction

We are able to communicate, convey our thoughts, and share our experiences because to the amazing power of language (Brown, B., 2021). Pronouns are essential (Yang, J., Tong, J., Li, S., Gao, S., Guo, J., & Xue, N., 2019) to effective, considerate, and inclusive communication in the large linguistic landscape. The linguistic building pieces known as pronouns enable us to refer to individuals, animals, and things without having to repeatedly say their names. They are a crucial component of casual conversation and represent the complexities of our identities and connections.

Pronouns include a wide variety of words, each with a specific function in communication. Pronouns are the threads that bind our stories together, from personal pronouns that signify gender and identity to possessive pronouns that imply ownership and reflexive pronouns that depict action taken upon oneself.

9.2 Definition of pronouns

A pronoun is a linguistic element that substitutes for a noun or noun phrase in order to avoid repetition and make sentences less cumbersome. Pronouns are an essential part of language as they help maintain clarity and flow in communication. They serve to refer to people, objects, places, ideas, and more without having to repeatedly use the same nouns. Pronouns can indicate various grammatical features such as gender, number, and case.

9.3 Types of pronouns

Pronouns can be divided into many sorts according on how they are used. Here are the different pronoun categories. Pronouns come in 12 primary categories. As follows:

1. Subject Pronouns

Subject pronouns are pronouns used to replace nouns that function as the subjects of sentence (Fitriana, F., Wennyta, W., & Aisyah, S., 2022). They perform the action of the verb and help avoid unnecessary repetition in language. Subject pronouns make sentences concise, clear, and grammatically correct.

List of Subject Pronouns in English:

I You He She It We They

Detailed Explanation:

- A. I: I am going to the store.
 - "I" replaces the first-person singular noun, acting as the subject of the sentence.
- B. You: You are my best friend.
 - "You" can refer to one person (singular) or multiple people (plural).
- C. He: He is studying for the exam.
 - "He" replaces a male third-person singular noun, serving as the subject.
- D. She: She is a talented dancer.
 - "She" replaces a female third-person singular noun, functioning as the subject.
- E. It: It is raining outside.
 - "It" is used for animals, inanimate objects, and other entities.
- F. We: We are planning a trip.
 - "We" represents a group that includes the speaker, functioning as the subject.
- G. They: They are playing in the park.
 - "They" replaces a group other than the speaker, serving as the subject.

2. Object Pronouns

Object pronouns are a type of pronoun used to replace nouns that function as the objects of sentences. They receive the action of the verb and help avoid repetitive naming of nouns. Object pronouns contribute to clear and concise language usage.

List of Object Pronouns in English:

Me You Him Her It Us Them

Detailed Explanation:

- A. Me: She invited me to the party.
 - "Me" replaces a first-person singular noun, serving as the object of the sentence.
- B. You: I see you at the park.
 - "You" can refer to one person (singular) or multiple people (plural).
- C. Him: They helped him with his homework.
 - "Him" replaces a male third-person singular noun, functioning as the object.
- D. Her: We congratulated her on her achievement.
 - "Her" replaces a female third-person singular noun, serving as the object.
- E. It: The cat chased it around the garden.
 - "It" is used for animals, inanimate objects, and other entities.
- F. Us: Can you join us for dinner?
 - "Us" represents a group that includes the speaker, functioning as the object.
- G. Them: I met them at the conference.
 - "Them" replaces a group other than the speaker, serving as the object.

3. Possessive pronouns

Possessive pronouns are a type of pronoun used to indicate ownership or possession (Allen, C. L. , 2002). They stand in for nouns and show who something belongs to without

explicitly naming the owner. Possessive pronouns help avoid repetition in sentences while clearly conveying ownership.

List of Possessive Pronouns in English:

Mine Yours His Hers Its (used for inanimate objects) Ours Theirs

Detailed Explanation:

- A. Mine: This book is mine.
 - "Mine" indicates that the book belongs to the speaker. It replaces a possessive noun phrase like "my book."
- B. Yours: Is this jacket yours?
 - "Yours" shows that the jacket belongs to the person being spoken to. It replaces "your jacket."
- C. His: The car is his.
 - "His" indicates that the car belongs to a male person. It replaces "his car."
- D. Hers: The cat is hers.
 - "Hers" shows that the cat belongs to a female person. It replaces "her cat."
- E. Its: The dog wagged its tail.
 - "Its" indicates that the tail belongs to the dog (an inanimate object). It replaces "the dog's tail."
- F. Ours: The garden is ours.
 - "Ours" indicates that the garden belongs to a group that includes the speaker. It replaces "our garden."
- G. Theirs: The project is theirs.
 - "Theirs" shows that the project belongs to a group other than the speaker. It replaces "their project."

4. Possessive Adjective

Possessive adjectives are a type of adjective used to show ownership or possession. They provide information about who owns or possesses a particular noun. Possessive adjectives are used to modify nouns by indicating to whom or what something belongs. In English, possessive adjectives are placed before nouns and help provide context about the

relationship between the possessor and the possessed object.

List of Possessive Adjectives in English:

My (singular) Your (singular) His (singular)

Her (singular) Its (singular, used for inanimate objects)

Our (plural)

Your (plural, can be singular as well in some contexts)

Their (plural)

Examples of Possessive Adjectives:

A. My: This is my house.

B. Your: Is this your pen?

C. His: That's his car.

D. Her: She's wearing her necklace.

E. Its: The cat wagged its tail.

F. Our: We're going on our vacation.

G. Your: Are these your shoes? (plural form)

H. Their: The kids are playing with their toys. (plural form)

5. Reflexive pronouns

Reflexive pronouns are a specific type of pronoun that is used when the subject and the object in a sentence are the same entity (Acheampong, S. O., Atintono, S. A., & Issah, S. A., 2019). They reflect back to the subject of the sentence and are used to show that the action of the verb is directed back at the subject. In other words, they indicate that the subject is performing an action on itself.

List of Reflexive Pronouns in English:

Myself

Yourself

Himself

Herself

Itself

Ourselves

Yourselves

Themselves

Detailed Explanation:

A. Myself: I taught myself how to play the guitar.

- "Myself" reflects back to the subject "I," indicating that "I" performed the action on myself.

B. Yourself: You need to take care of yourself.

- "Yourself" reflects back to the subject "You," indicating that the subject (you) is taking care of itself.
- C. Himself: He repaired the bike himself.
 - "Himself" reflects back to the subject "He," showing that he performed the action on himself.
- D. Herself: She baked the cake herself.
 - "Herself" reflects back to the subject "She," indicating that she baked the cake on her own.
- E. Itself: The cat cleaned itself.
 - "Itself" reflects back to the subject "The cat," showing that the cat cleaned itself.
- F. Ourselves: We organized the event ourselves.
 - "Ourselves" reflects back to the subject "We," indicating that we organized the event on our own.
- G. Yourselves: You can challenge yourselves to do better.
 - "Yourselves" reflects back to the subject "You," showing that you should challenge yourselves.
- H. Themselves: They enjoyed the movie themselves.
 - "Themselves" reflects back to the subject "They," indicating that they enjoyed the movie on their own.

6. Demonstrative pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns are a type of pronoun used to point to specific people, places, things, or ideas. They help identify and distinguish the nouns they replace. Demonstrative pronouns indicate whether the noun they refer to is nearby or distant in relation to the speaker and the listener.

List of Demonstrative Pronouns in English:

This That These Those (Carter, R., 2011)

Detailed Explanation:

- A. This: This book is interesting.
 - "This" refers to a singular noun that is close to the speaker. It indicates something near in space or time.

- B. That: That movie was entertaining.
 - "That" refers to a singular noun that is farther from the speaker. It indicates something more distant in space or time.
- C. These: These cookies are delicious.
 - "These" refers to plural nouns that are close to the speaker. It indicates multiple things near in space or time.
- D. Those: Those paintings are beautiful.
 - "Those" refers to plural nouns that are farther from the speaker. It indicates multiple things more distant in space or time.

7. Interrogative pronouns

Interrogative pronouns are pronouns that are used to introduce questions (Wiese, H., 2002). They help gather information about people, things, places, or ideas. These pronouns are specifically designed to seek details and are used at the beginning of a sentence to form interrogative (question) sentences.

List of Interrogative Pronouns in English:

Who Whom Whose What
Which

Detailed Explanation:

- A. Who: Who is coming to the party?
 - "Who" is used to ask about people, typically used as the subject of the question.
- B. Whom: Whom did you invite?
 - "Whom" is used to ask about people, typically used as the object of the question.
- C. Whose: Whose book is this?
 - "Whose" is used to ask about possession or ownership.
- D. What: What is your favorite color?
 - "What" is used to ask about things, actions, qualities, or ideas.
- E. Which: Which movie did you watch?

- "Which" is used to ask about choices or options among a group.

8. Relative pronouns

Relative pronouns are pronouns that introduce relative clauses, which are used to provide more information about a noun in the main clause (Fiorentino, G., 2007) . These pronouns connect the relative clause to the main clause and help avoid repetition of nouns. Relative clauses can act as adjectives by describing or giving more details about the noun.

List of Relative Pronouns in English:

Who Whom Whose Which That

Detailed Explanation:

- A. Who: The person who called is my friend.
 - "Who" is used to refer to people and acts as the subject of the relative clause.
- B. Whom: The woman to whom I spoke is the manager.
 - "Whom" is used to refer to people and acts as the object of the relative clause.
- C. Whose: The house whose windows are broken needs repair.
 - "Whose" indicates possession and is used to show that the noun in the relative clause owns something.
- D. Which: The car which is parked outside is new.
 - "Which" is used to refer to things and animals and can be the subject or object of the relative clause.
- E. That: The book that I am reading is interesting.
 - "That" can refer to people, things, or animals and is commonly used in restrictive clauses (clauses that provide essential information).

9. Reciprocal pronouns

Reciprocal pronouns are a specific type of pronoun used to indicate that two or more people or things are performing

actions on each other. These pronouns highlight the mutual nature of the actions between the entities involved.

List of Reciprocal Pronouns in English:

Each other One another (Maratová, M., 2015).

Detailed Explanation:

- A. Each Other: Sarah and John hugged each other.
 - "Each other" is used when referring to two people or things. It indicates a mutual action between the subjects.
- B. One Another: The team members supported one another.
 - "One another" is also used for two or more people or things. It emphasizes reciprocal actions among the subjects.

10. Indefinite pronouns

Indefinite pronouns are pronouns that refer to one or more unspecified people, things, places, or ideas (JOHN, W. T. Aniekan NYARKS, Ph. D., 2022). They are used when you want to talk about something without specifying exactly what it is. Indefinite pronouns help you communicate in a general or non-specific manner.

List of Common Indefinite Pronouns in English:

All	Another	Any	Anybody	Anyone
Anything	Both	Each	Either	Everybody
Everyone	Everything	Few	Many	Neither
Nobody	None	No	one	Nothing
Several	Some	Somebody	Someone	Something

Detailed Explanation:

Indefinite pronouns can be further categorized into two main groups: singular and plural.

Singular Indefinite Pronouns:

- A. Each: Each student must submit their assignment.
- B. Either: You can choose either option.

- C. Neither: Neither of them arrived on time.
- D. Someone: Someone is at the door.

Plural Indefinite Pronouns:

- A. All: All of the students are participating.
- B. Both: Both books are interesting.
- C. Few: Few people attended the event.
- D. Many: Many want to travel.
- E. Several: Several candidates were interviewed.

Singular or Plural Indefinite Pronouns:

- A. All: All is forgiven.
- B. Any: Is there any milk left?
- C. Anybody: Anybody can join the club.
- D. Anyone: Anyone can learn to cook.
- E. Anything: Anything is possible.
- F. Everybody: Everybody loves a good story.
- G. Everyone: Everyone is invited.
- H. Everything: Everything is ready.
- I. Nobody: Nobody likes to wait.
- J. None: None of the food was left.
- K. No one: No one knew the answer.
- L. Nothing: Nothing is impossible.
- M. Some: Some were happy with the results.
- N. Somebody: Somebody called for you.
- O. Someone: Someone should take responsibility.
- P. Something: Something smells delicious.

11.Intensive Pronouns

Intensive pronouns are pronouns that emphasize a preceding noun or pronoun in a sentence (Supriusman, S., 2014). They are used to draw special attention to a particular part of the sentence, typically the subject or object, and add emphasis to the action being performed.

List of Intensive Pronouns in English:

Myself	Yourself	Himself	Herself
Itself	Ourselves	Yourselves	Themselves

(Sobirjonovna, S. M., 2023)

Detailed Explanation:

- A. Myself: I will do the project myself.
 - "Myself" emphasizes the fact that the speaker will personally do the project.
- B. Yourself: You should be proud of yourself.
 - "Yourself" emphasizes that the person being addressed should take pride in their actions.
- C. Himself: He solved the puzzle himself.
 - "Himself" emphasizes that he solved the puzzle without anyone else's help.
- D. Herself: She baked the cake herself.
 - "Herself" emphasizes that she baked the cake on her own.
- E. Itself: The book fell off the shelf itself.
 - "Itself" emphasizes that the book fell without any external force.

12. Distributive pronouns

Distributive pronouns are pronouns used to refer to members of a group individually (Blench, R. M., Longtau, S. R., & Interrogative, I. N. T., 2011). or one at a time, emphasizing their separate identities. They indicate that the action or description applies to each member of the group individually, rather than collectively.

List of Distributive Pronouns in English:

Each	Either	Neither
------	--------	---------

Detailed Explanation:

- A. Each: Each student should complete their assignment.
 - "Each" emphasizes that every individual student within the group is expected to complete their own assignment.

- B. Either: You can choose either option.
 - "Either" emphasizes that you have a choice between two separate options.
- C. Neither: Neither candidate received enough votes.
 - "Neither" emphasizes that both candidates received insufficient votes individually.

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CHAPTER 10

NOUNS

Oleh Siti Shofiyatun

10.1 Pendahuluan

Nouns punya peran yang penting dalam kalimat karena dia menempati subyek dan objek dalam kalimat sebagaimana yang disampaikan oleh Stobbe, *when you express your thought or idea in a sentence you place words into what is called context. Nouns assigned roles or jobs to do when they are used in sentence. Nouns have specific jobs to do when placed within a sentence. These jobs are lebeled as a subjects, subject complements, possessive nouns, or objects. A noun that name a person (s) or thing (s) about which statement is to be made is labeled the subject (2008).* Hal yang sama juga disampaikan oleh Frank yang mengatakan bahwa *the nouns is the most important parts of speech. Its arrangement with the verb helps to form the sentence core which is essential to every complete sentences. In addition, it my function as the "head" word in many structures of modification (1972: 6).* Sebagaimana dalam pembentukan kalimat seyogyanya harus sesuai dengan kaidah tata bahasa Inggris yang benar dimana ada subject (subyek) verb (kata kerja) object (obyek) dan compelement (keterangan). Secara kelas kata posisi subyek dan objek ditempati oleh kata benda (noun). Jenis noun yang digunakan akan mempengaruhi kata kerja dan makna dari kata tersebut.

Secara tata bahasa Inggris noun (kata benda) adalah nama orang, nama tempat dan benda. Hornby juga mengatakan bahwa *noun is a word used to name or identify any of a class of thing, people, place, or ideas, or particular one of these (2000: 791).* *Thing* disini meliputi benda yang bisa dihitung (*countable noun*) dan tidak bisa dihitung (*uncountable noun*). Untuk lebih lengkapnya akan dijelaskan disub bab berikutnya yang dari fungsi noun, jenis-jenis noun, cara membentuk noun, pembentukan noun dan aturan penjamakan noun.

10.2 Fungsi Nouns

Dalam sebuah kalimat, ada banyak fungsi noun. Frank menyatakan nouns may function not only in the central core of the sentence, but also in structures of modification (1972: 9). Dari pernyataan tersebut dapat diartikan bahwa noun tidak hanya sebagai inti dalam kalimat, frase atau clause melainkan juga menempati posisi yang lain dalam sebuah kalimat atau bisa dikatakan sebagai modifier. Secara umum ada 7 fungsi noun:

10.2.1 Subject of Verb

Ini adalah fungsi noun yang paling umum, yaitu sebagai subyek dalam kalimat. Sebagai subyek biasanya posisi noun ada di paling depan sebelum verb. Contoh:

1. **Jenny** is the smart student in the class
2. **Tawangmangu** has many beautiful site for holiday
3. **The car** has been repaired

10.2.2 Complement of Verb

Selain sebagai subyek noun pada umumnya juga menjadi obyek dalam kalimat, baik direct (langsung) maupun indirect (tidak langsung) obyek. Contoh

Direct obyek

1. I will buy **shoes** tomorrow
2. Almira got **medal** in this competition
3. Mother always prepare **meal** for their children

Indirect obyek:

1. Angela gives that man **some money**
2. I send Budi **a document**
3. Don't call him **a liar**

10.2.3 Subjective complement (Predicate Noun)

Noun ditempatkan setelah *linking verb* yang merujuk pada subyek dalam kalimat tersebut. Contoh

1. Washington was the first **president** of the United State
2. Bella becomes **lecturer**
3. He has **mini library**

10.2.4 Objective Complement

Object complement digunakan untuk noun yang ditempatkan setelah direct obyek. Contoh:

1. She made her daughter a beautiful **music box**
2. He asked us to call him **Danielle**
3. My husband gave me a **car** on my birthday

10.2.5 Object of Preposition

Noun yang menempati posisi setelah preposisi biasa untuk melengkapi keterangan waktu, tempat dan sebagainya. Contoh

1. He is shopping on a **Aeon Mall**
2. Shofi said she will come at 4 **pm**
3. Kia returned to take his laptop inside **the bag**

10.2.6 Modifier of Noun

Noun yang fungsinya sebagai adjective atau penjelas kata benda. Biasanya disebut dengan noun adjunct. Contoh:

1. She is going to the **grocery** store
2. They have a **flower** garden

10.2.7 Head of Noun

Noun yang berfungsi sebagai inti dalam sebuah frase. Contoh:

1. Abrian drive a unique **car**
2. I will not forget that beautiful **moment**

10.3 Jenis - Jenis Nouns

Secara umum noun dapat diklasifikasikan menjadi 3 kategori, yaitu noun berdasarkan wujudnya, noun berdasarkan jumlahnya dan noun berdasarkan gender. Untuk masing-masing kategori akan dijelaskan sebagai berikut

Berdasarkan wujudnya nouns terbagi menjadi 2, abstract dan concrete nouns.

1. Abstract nouns adalah nouns yang berupa konsep ada dalam alam pikiran. Contoh: love, experience, problem, knowledge, information, education, dll

2. Concrete nouns adalah nouns yang berupa benda-benda nyata yang bisa disentuh. Concrete nouns terbagi menjadi 4 yaitu common, proper, material, collective. Common nouns adalah kata benda umum yang kita jumpai sehari-hari, contoh: table, car, chair, book, pen, motorcycle dll. Proper nouns merupakan nama-nama dari sesuatu misal nama orang, nama tempat, lokasi, wilayah, negara, sungai, gunung. Contohnya Zella, Tangerang, Swiss, Lawu, etc. Material noun yaitu kata benda yang berupa zat atau bahan yang digunakan untuk membuat sesuatu. Misalnya: wood, silver, gold, plastic, iron, oil, water, etc. Yang terakhir yaitu collective noun, noun yang menunjukkan kelompok atau komunitas. Contoh: group, team, government, family, committee, etc. Detailnya bisa dilihat pada tabel dibawah ini.

Table 10.1. Concrete Noun

Concrete Noun			
Common	Proper	Material	Collective
chair	Zella	wood	team
car	Tangerang	silver	family
book	Swiss	gold	goverment
bag	Lawu	water	community
dll	dll		

Sumber: Marcella Frank, Modern English A Practical Reference Guide, United State

Berdasarkan jumlahnya noun terbagi menjadi countable dan uncountable noun.

1. Countable noun yaitu jenis noun yang bisa dihitung, sehingga bisa dinyatakan dengan satuan kongkrit (1, 2, 3,4, ...). Countable noun ini terbagi menjadi 2 yaitu plural dan singular.
- Untuk yang plural terbagi menjadi 2 yaitu reguler (beraturan) dan irreguler (tidak beraturan) noun. Contoh yang reguler yaitu bags, dolls. books, boards, etc. Contoh yang irreguler yaitu men,women, mice, data, feet, teeth. etc

- Singular yaitu kata benda yang bisa dihitung dan jumlahnya cuma 1. Contoh: bag, doll, book, board, box etc
2. Uncountable noun yaitu jenis kata benda yang tidak bisa dihitung kecuali dengan takarang. Contohnya: blood, sugar, oil, butter, gold, air, etc. Untuk lebih jelasnya bisa dilihat pada tabel dibawah ini

Table 10.2. Noun Berdasarkan Jumlahnya

Berdasarkan Jumlahnya			
Countable			Uncountable
Plural		Singular	
Reguler	Irreguler	computer	blood
bags	men	bag	sugar
dolls	women	doll	oil
books	mice	book	butter
boards	data	board	gold
boxs	feet	box	air
dll	dll	dll	dll

Sumber: Marcella Frank, Modern English A Practical Reference Guide, United State

Compounds Noun. Seperti yang sudah dijelaskan diatas salah satu fungsi noun adalah sebagai modifier dalam frase. Ketika menjadi modifier, noun bisa menambah dan bahkan mengubah pengertian dari sebuah kata. Compound noun adalah bentukan 2 kata dan memiliki arti baru. Contohnya: bathroom, department store, blackbird, flashlight, dining room, make up dll.

10.4 Cara Membentuk Nouns

Selain bentukan kata asalnya, noun juga bisa berasal dari bentukan. Noun bentukan ini biasanya dengan memberikan imbuhan pada kata dasarnya. Kata dasarnya bisa dari noun itu sendiri, adjective dan verb. Proses bentukan tersebut bisa dilihat pada tabel dibawah ini

Table 10.3. Proses Pembentukan Noun

Kelas Kata	Imbuhan	Noun bentukan
Adjective		
happy	-ness	happiness
Lazy		laziness
Crazy, dll		craziness
difficult	-y/-ty	difficulty
Certain, dll		certainty
brave	-ry	bravery
dilligent	-ence	dilligence
patient		patience
different		difference
present		presence
Absent, dll		absence
attendant	-ance	attendance
Abundant, dll		abundance
Verb		
develop	-ment	development
entertain		entertainment
agree		agreement
employ		employment
invite	-ion/-tion	invitation
create		creation
discuss		discussion
Graduate, dll		graduation
instruct	-or	instructor
conduct		conductor
nominate		nominator
negotiate, dll		negotiator
teach	-r/er	teacher
drive		driver
manage		manager
dance		dancer
test		tester
deliver	-y	delivery

Kelas Kata	Imbuhan	Noun bentukan
discover		discovery
recover		recovery
Injure, dll		injury
contain	-t	content
descend		desent
please	-ure	pleasure
expose		exposure
enter	-ance, ence	entrance
appear		appearance
attend		attendance
differ		difference
obey		obediance
Noun		
trick	-ry, -ery, -ary	trickery
slave		slavery
prime		primary
piano	-ist	pianist
guitar		guitarist
geology		geologist
brand	-y	brandy
robber		robbery
monarch		monarchy
month	-ly	monthly
year		yearly
week		weekly
major	-ity	majority
moral		morality
solid		solidity

Sumber: Betty Schramper Azzar, Understanding and Using English Grammar

10.5 Penanda Nouns

Untuk mengenali bahwa kata tersebut adalah noun, ada ciri-ciri atau penandanya. Ciri-ciri atau penanda noun adalah sebagai berikut

10.5.1 Determiner (kata penentu) yang meliputi

- 1. Article
Ada 2 jenis articles definite dan indefinite article. Definite article yaitu kata “the”. The house, the girl, the book dll. Sedangkan indefinite article yaitu ‘a’ dan ‘an. Contohnya: a pencil, a phone, a glass, a university, dll. Untuk an digunakan untuk kata yang berawalan dan atau berbunyi huruf vocal ketika dibaca. Contohnya: an apple, an umbrella, an eraser, dll
- 2. Possessive
Kata yang menunjukkan kepemilikan, selengkapnya bisa dilihat pada tabel berikut

Table 10.4. Possessive Pronoun

Pronoun sebagai Subyek	Possessive Pronoun
He	His + Noun
She	Her + Noun
It	Its + Noun
They	Their + Noun
We	Our + Noun
You	Your + Noun
I	My + Noun

Sumber: W. Stannard Allen, Living English Grammar

Selain possessive pada pronoun, kepemilikan juga bisa ditunjukan dengan penambahan ‘s’ yang sebelumnya diberi tanda aposetrop. Contohnya: Amel’s house, school’s car dll

- 3. Demonstratives
Demonstrative atau kata tunjuk dalam bahasa Inggris meliputi this dan that untuk menunjukan bendanya singular these dan those untuk plural. Contoh: this movie dengan

these movies (untuk benda yang dekat), That bike dengan those bikes (untuk benda yang jauh).

- 4. Numbers
Angka yang menunjukkan jumlah. Misalnya one bottle, two bottles, three cards, dst.
- 5. Indefinite quantity
Kata-kata kuantitas dengan jumlah tak tentu, misalnya: some (beberapa), any (beberapa), much/many (banyak), a lot of (banyak), more (lebih banyak), few (sedikit), a little (sedikit), several (beberapa), less (lebih sedikit). Contoh : **Some employes** (beberapa pekerja); **more cakes** (lebih banyak kue).
- 6. Preposition
Dalam susunan kalimat bahasa Inggris jenis kata yang digunakan setelah preposisi adalah kata benda. Contohnya I wait you **at home**, We spend our holiday **in Jakarta**, dll.

10.6 Aturan Penjamakan Nouns

Aturan penjamakan nouns singular-plural bisa dilihat pada tabel dibawahm ini :

Table 10.5. Aturan Penjamakan Noun Singular-Plural

No	Aturan Singular - Plural	Singular	Plural
1	Menambahkan -s	book	books
		hand	hands
		chair	chairs
		pen	pens
2	Menambahkan -es jika noun tunggal, berakhiran huruf -x, -sh, -ch, -z, -s, -o, -ss	Bus	Buses
		Class	Classes
		box	boxes
		buzz	buzzes
		watch	watches
		brush	brushes

No	Aturan Singular - Plural	Singular	Plural
		potato	potatoes
		hero	heroes
		tomato	tomatoes
3	Pengecualiaan untuk yang berakhiran 'o' tapi ditambah 's'	bamboo	bamboos
		radio	radios
		photo	photos
		dynamo	dynamos
		embryo	embryos
		piano	pianos
4	Penambahan -es pada kata yang berakhiran -y yang didahului huruf konsonan dan huruf -y nya berubah jadi 'i'	fly	flies
		lady	ladies
		bunny	bunnies
5	kata benda yang berakhiran -f atau -	wife	wives
		wolf	wolves
6	fe, penjamakannya -f atau -fe diganti v lalu ditambah -es	Life	Lives
		Chief	Chiefs
		Proof	Proofs
		Dwarf	Dwarfs
		Safe	Safes
		Roof	Roofes
		Cliff	Cliffs

Sumber: Betty Schramper Azzar, Understanding and Using English Grammar

Table 10.6. Aturan Penjamakan Kata Benda Tidak Beraturan

Irregular Plural			
No	Singular	Plural	Arti
1	Foot	Feet	kaki
2	Tooth	Teeth	Gigi
3	Mouse	Mice	Tikus
4	Man	Men	Laki-laki
5	Woman	Women	Perempuan
6	Child	Children	Anak-anak
7	Ox	Oxen	Lembu Jantan
8	Deer	Deer	Rusa
9	Fish	Fish/Fishes	ikan
10	Swine	Swine	Babi
11	Amends	Amends	ganti rugi
12	Series	Series	Runtutan
13	Species	Species	Spesies
14	means	means	arti/alat
15	Sheep	Sheep	Domba
16	Alumnus	Alumni	Lulusan cowok
17	Alumna	Alumnae	Lulusan Cewek
18	Medium	Media	Alat
19	Analysis	Analyses	Analisa
20	Crisis	Crises	Kegentingan
21	Criterion	Criteria	Kriteria

Irregular Plural			
No	Singular	Plural	Arti
22	Phenomenon	Phenomena	Fenomena
23	Bandit	Banditti	Bajingan
24	Datum	Data	Data
25	Bacterium	Bacteria	Bakteri
26	Memorandum	Memoranda	Pengingat
27	Stratum	Strata	Tingkat
28	Stimulus	Stimuli	Rangsangan
29	Radius	Radii	Area Lingkaran
30	Larva	Larvae	Larva
31	Tempo	Tempi	Ketukan musik
32	Plateau	Plateaux	Dataran tinggi

Sumber: Betty Schramper Azzar, Understanding and Using English Grammar

Table 10.7. Aturan Penjamakan Noun yang Berakhiran -s Tapi Artinya Tunggal

Noun yang berakhiran -s tapi tunggal		
No	Noun	Arti
1	News	berita
2	Economics	ilmu ekonomi
3	Billiards	bola sodok
4	Mathematics	matematika
5	Statistics	ilmu statistik

Noun yang berakhiran -s tapi tunggal		
No	Noun	Arti
6	Politics	ilmu politik
7	Linguistics	ilmu bahasa
8	Physics	Fisika
9	Mechanics	Ilmu Mekanika
10	Aerodynamics	Ilmu Aerodinamika

Sumber: Betty Schramper Azzar, Understanding and Using English Grammar

Table 10.8. Noun yang selalu jamak

Noun yang selalu Jamak		
No	Noun	Arti
1	Ashes	Abu
2	Scissors	Gunting
3	Spectacles	Kacamata
4	Pliers	Catut
5	Trousers	Celana
6	Jeans	Celana Jeans
7	Pants	Celana
8	Shorts	Celana pendek
9	Tweezers	Catut

Sumber: Betty Schramper Azzar, Understanding and Using English Grammar

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CHAPTER 11

ACTIVE VS. PASSIVE VOICE

Oleh E. Wityasminingsih

11.1 Introduction

Active voice and passive voice are two different ways to structure sentences in English, and they affect the way the subject and the action of the verb are presented.

1. Active Voice

In active voice sentences, the subject performs the action of the verb.

The typical structure is Subject-verb-object.

Example:

"She (subject) wrote (verb) the report (object)."

2. Passive Voice

In passive-voice sentences, the subject receives the action of the verb. The focus is on the receiver of the action rather than the doer.

The typical structure is Object - Verb (past participle) - Subject (optional).

Example:

"The report (subject) was written (verb) by her (optional agent)."

It's important to note that passive voice can sometimes make sentences less clear or direct, so it's often recommended to use active voice when possible for more straightforward and concise communication. However, there are situations where passive voice is appropriate, such as when the doer of the action is unknown or less important, or when you want to emphasize the action's recipient.

Passive voice sentences typically contain the following elements: A conjugated form of the verb "to be" (such as "is," "was," "has been," "will be," etc.).

The past participle form of a verb represents an action that was started and completed in the past. Past participles often end in -ed, -d, -en, or -t.

Optionally, a preposition or prepositional phrase that includes "by" to indicate the agent or the entity that performed the action (though this part can sometimes be omitted if the agent is unknown or less important).

Here's an example that includes all these elements:

"The book (subject) was (conjugated form of 'to be') written (past participle) by the author (prepositional phrase with 'by')."

In this sentence, "was" is the conjugated form of "to be," "written" is the past participle of the verb "write," and "by the author" is the prepositional phrase indicating the agent of the action.

An accurate summary of the differences between active and passive voice in writing:

Active Voice:

Active voice is indeed preferred for clear and concise communication because it emphasizes the subject and the action, making the sentence more direct and engaging. Here's a recap of the key points that have been highlighted:

1. Preference for Clarity and Conciseness: Active voice is favored when the goal is to communicate information clearly and concisely. It helps ensure that the subject and the action are the focal points of the sentence.
2. Emphasis on the Subject and Action: Active voice puts the subject at the forefront of the sentence, highlighting who or what is performing the action. This results in a more straightforward and engaging sentence structure.
3. Subject Importance: Active voice is especially useful when the subject is more important in the context of the sentence. It allows the writer to emphasize the doer of the action and provide a clearer understanding of the sentence's meaning.
4. Straightforward Presentation: Active voice enables writers to present information in a straightforward and direct manner, which is often preferred in various forms of writing, including academic, technical, and business communication.

By using active voice effectively, writers can enhance the clarity and impact of their writing, making it more accessible to readers and conveying their messages with precision.

Passive Voice:

Passive voice can emphasize the action or the object within a sentence, downplaying the importance of the subject. It may be used when the identity of the doer is unknown, less relevant, or intentionally omitted.

Passive voice can be useful for shifting the focus of a sentence or for creating variety in writing. However, it can make sentences less clear and should be used judiciously.

Both active and passive voice have their appropriate uses in writing, and the choice between them depends on the writer's intention and the specific context of the sentence or passage.

11.2 Active vs. Passive Voice Example

The below sentences provided excellent examples of both active and passive voice sentences. Let's compare the active and passive versions of each sentence:

Active Voice:

1. She delivered the letters yesterday.
2. The teacher assigned a book report.
3. The company will hire at least two new employees.
4. The salesman helped the confused customer at the store.
5. Hundreds of tourists visit the museum each year.

Passive Voice:

1. The package was delivered by him yesterday.
2. A project report was assigned.
3. At least seven new employees will be hired by the company in this batch.
4. The customer was helped by the bookstore staff.
5. The Geology Museum is visited each year by hundreds of tourists in Bandung.

In these examples, you can clearly see how active voice sentences focus on the doer of the action (the subject), while

passive voice sentences emphasize the action itself or the recipient of the action. Each voice has its own use and can be chosen based on the writer's intent and the desired emphasis in a sentence.

11.3 Active vs. Passive Voice Rules

The sentences below provided a concise and accurate summary of the general rules for distinguishing between active and passive voice in sentences. Let's recap these rules:

Sentence Structure:

Active Voice: Subject + Verb + Object

Passive Voice: Object + To Be (conjugated) + Past Participle Verb + Subject (optional)

Interchanging Subject and Object:

Active Voice: The cat (subject) jumped over the fence (object).

Passive Voice: The fence (object) was jumped over by the cat (subject).

Subject Identification (optional):

Passive voice sentences may not always directly identify the subject that performed the action. The subject can be omitted or mentioned later in the sentence.

Verb Form:

Active Voice: Uses the base form or past tense of the verb.

Passive Voice: Uses the past participle form of the verb along with a form of "to be."

The examples effectively demonstrate these rules and help illustrate the difference between active and passive voice in sentences.

11.4 How to change passive voice to active voice

To convert a passive sentence into an active one, one of the key steps is to identify what makes the sentence passive, which often involves reversing the positions of the subject and object. Here's the process you've outlined:

1. Identify the passive elements in the sentence.
2. Reverse the positions of the subject and object to place the subject before the verb and the object after it.
3. Adjust the verb tense and form if necessary to match the active voice structure.

By following these steps, you can effectively transform a passive sentence into an active one, making the sentence more direct and engaging.

How to change passive voice sentences into active voice sentences is accurate and well-structured. You've highlighted three key methods for converting passive voice to active voice, and you've provided clear examples for each method. To summarize:

1. **Switching Subject and Object Positions:** In passive voice, the subject and object positions are often switched. To change to active voice, reverse their positions.
2. **Missing Subject:** When the subject (the doer of the action) is missing in the passive voice, add it before the main verb in the active voice.
3. **Conjugation and Past Participle:** Passive voice sentences use a conjugated form of "to be" followed by the past participle of the main verb. To switch to active voice, remove "to be," change the verb form to agree with the subject, and place the subject before the new verb.

Your explanations and examples make it clear how these transformations work, which is helpful for understanding and using active voice effectively in writing.

11.5 Usefulness of Passive Voice

While passive voice is sometimes criticized for its potential to make writing less direct, it does have its own set of uses and advantages:

1. **Emphasizing the Action Over the Doer:** Passive voice can be useful when you want to emphasize the action or the fact that an action has taken place, rather than focusing on who

performed the action. This can be particularly effective in situations where the doer is less important or when you want to shift the reader's attention to the result of the action.

2. **Dealing with Unknown Agents:** In cases where the doer of the action (also known as the agent) is unknown or irrelevant, passive voice can provide a grammatical structure that allows you to convey the action without needing to identify the doer.

It's important for writers to understand both active and passive voice and when to use each effectively. The choice between them should be driven by the writer's purpose and the specific context in which the sentence or passage is being used. While active voice is generally preferred for clarity and directness, passive voice can serve a valuable purpose in certain situations, as you've pointed out.

In the News

The use of passive voice in news headlines is astute and reflects a common practice in journalism. News organizations often employ passive voice for headlines and initial reporting for several reasons:

1. **Conciseness:** Passive voice allows for shorter and more concise headlines. In the fast-paced world of news reporting, brevity is essential to quickly convey information to readers or viewers.
2. **Information Prioritization:** Passive voice places the known information, such as the fact of the crime and the victim, at the forefront of the headline. This prioritizes what is certain and immediately relevant, especially in breaking news situations. Readers can quickly grasp the key details.
3. **Objectivity:** Passive voice can contribute to the appearance of objectivity in news reporting. By focusing on the action rather than the doer, news organizations avoid making accusations or assumptions before all the facts are confirmed.

However, it's important to note that as news stories develop and more information becomes available, journalists often switch to active voices and provide more details about the perpetrator and the circumstances. The use of passive voice in headlines is a strategic choice to balance brevity and the immediate conveyance of known facts with the goal of keeping the public informed about breaking news events.

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CHAPTER 12

KALIMAT TANYA DAN KALIMAT NEGATIVE

By Pipit Ertika Daristin

12.1 Pendahuluan

Definisi *Interrogative Sentence*

Interrogative sentence atau kalimat interogatif adalah kalimat yang mengajukan pertanyaan langsung dan selalu di akhiri dengan tanda tanya.

Kata *interrogative* itu sendiri memiliki arti sebuah pertanyaan. Kalimat interogatif difungsikan untuk mendapatkan informasi, konfirmasi atau penolakan terhadap sebuah pertanyaan.

Kalimat ini biasanya dimulai dengan kata tanya seperti apa, siapa, bagaimana atau kata kerja bantu seperti dapatkah, maukah, akankah, dll.

Kalimat jenis ini wajib diakhiri dengan tanda tanya atau *question mark*.

12.2 Jenis-Jenis *Interrogative Sentence*

Jika dilihat secara garis besar, kalimat tanya atau *interrogative sentence* ini memiliki pola yang sama sehingga kita akan menilai bahwa semua kalimat tanya sama saja. Padahal, kalimat tanya memiliki beberapa jenis tergantung dengan jawaban dari pertanyaannya. Apa saja itu?

12.2.1 *Yes-no question*

Jenis kalimat ini dibentuk dengan cara menukar posisi *subject* dan *auxiliary* (*will, may, shall, can, must, do*) atau *linking verb "be"* (*is, am, are*).

Namun jika hanya ada main verb maka awal kalimat menggunakan *do/does/did*. Jawaban dari *yes-no question* adalah ya atau tidak. Biasanya kita bisa melihat jenis pertanyaan ini di

dalam kuisioner untuk mendapatkan jawaban yang lebih tertutup. Contoh:

1. *May I borrow your pen?* (Bolehkah saya meminjam penamu?)
2. *Must she follow the new regulation?* (Haruskah dia mengikuti peraturan yang baru?)
3. *Are you an astronaut?* (Apakah kamu seorang astronot?)
4. *Do you like coffee with hazelnut syrup?* (Apakah kamu suka kopi dengan sirup hazelnut?)
5. *Does she like a mango smoothie?* (Apakah dia menyukai smoothie mangga?)
6. *Are you going to San Francisco or Los Angeles?* (Kamu akan ke San Francisco atau Los Angeles?)
7. *Which is better for fat loss — weight lifting or cardio work?* (Yang mana yang lebih baik untuk mengurangi lemak badan — angkat beban atau latihan kardio?)

12.2.2 *Wh-question*

Kalimat ini dimulai dengan *wh- question*. Yang dimaksud dengan *wh- questions* adalah *what, where, why, when, which, who, whom, whose*, serta *how*.

Dalam bahasa Indonesia kita biasa mengenalnya dengan nama 5 W + 1 H (+ *whose, whom, which*).

Tujuan dari mengajukan pertanyaan *wh- question* adalah untuk mendapatkan informasi dan biasanya digunakan untuk menulis berita atau artikel agar informasi yang disampaikan runtut dan lengkap.

1. *Who is the main character in Dilan movie?* (Siapa tokoh utama dari film Dilan?)
2. *Where did you spend your holiday?* (Dimanakah kamu menghabiskan waktu liburan?)
3. *When will BTS hold a concert in Jakarta?* (Kapan BTS akan menggelar konser di Jakarta?)
4. *Why do you cry?* (Kenapa kamu menangis?)
5. *What is the name of Nina's puppy?* (Apa nama anak anjing Nina?)
6. *Which one is your favorite book?* (Yang mana buku favoritmu?)

7. *Whose boyfriend is waiting outside this building?* (Pacar siapa yang sedang menunggu di luar gedung ini?)

12.2.3 Tag question

Tag question merupakan pertanyaan pendek yang berupa *linking verb "be"* atau *auxiliary +/- not + pronoun* yang ditambahkan pada akhir kalimat.

Hal yang harus diperhatikan adalah jika kalimat awal berupa kalimat positif maka kalimat tanya nya berupa kalimat negatif.

Sebaliknya, jika kalimat awal berupa kalimat negative maka kalimat tanya nya berupa kalimat positif.

Biasanya jenis kalimat ini digunakan untuk mempertegas pertanyaan.

1. *She likes cupcakes, doesn't she?* (Dia suka cupcake, iya kan?)
2. *It is Nina's cat, isn't it?* (Ini adalah kucingnya Nina, iya kan?)
3. *You forget me, don't you?* (Kamu melupakan saya, iya kan?)
4. *You have prepared everything, haven't you?* (Kamu telah menyiapkan semuanya, bukan?)
5. *You don't love me, do you?* (Kamu tidak mencintai saya, iya kan?)
6. *She should see a doctor, don't she?* (Dia harus menemui dokter, bukan?)

12.2.4 Alternative question

Alternative question menggunakan *coordinate conjunction "or"* untuk menghubungkan antar pilihan jawabannya.

Interrogative sentence ini biasanya diawali dengan *auxiliary verb* atau *linking verb "be"*, namun mungkin juga dengan mungkin juga dibuka dengan *wh-word*, khususnya "*which*".

- *Would you like some coffee or tea?* (Apakah kamu kopi atau teh?)

Terdapat koma untuk memisahkann antara *tag question* dengan kalimat utama.

Negative questions

Pertanyaan yang dibentuk dengan struktur negatif, seringkali digunakan untuk mengekspresikan kejutan atau memastikan sesuatu.

Contoh: *"Isn't she your sister?"* (Bukankah dia adikmu?)

Rhetorical questions

Pertanyaan yang diajukan tanpa mengharapkan jawaban, biasanya digunakan untuk menekankan suatu poin.

Contoh: *"Who doesn't love a good movie?"* (Siapa yang tidak suka film yang bagus?)

Echo questions

Pertanyaan yang diulang sebagai respons terhadap suatu pernyataan, biasanya untuk mencari klarifikasi.

Contoh:

A: *"I bought a new car."*

B: *"You bought a what?"*

12.3 Struktur Interrogative Sentence

Dalam bahasa Inggris, *interrogative sentence* (kalimat tanya) memiliki beberapa struktur khusus, yang tergantung pada jenis pertanyaannya. Berikut adalah struktur umum dari beberapa jenis kalimat tanya:

12.3.1 Yes/no questions

1. ***Bentuk dasar: auxiliary verb + subject + main verb ...?***

Contoh: *"Are you studying now?"*

2. ***Untuk be-verbs (am, is, are, was, were): be-verb + subject ...?***

Contoh: *"Is she your friend?"*

12.3.2 Wh-questions

1. **Bentuk dasar untuk subjek: Wh-word + main verb ...?**

Contoh: *"Who called me?"*

2. **Bentuk dasar untuk objek atau pelengkap lainnya: Wh-word + auxiliary verb + subject + main verb ...?**

Contoh: *"What are you doing?"*

3. **Untuk be-verbs: Wh-word + be-verb + subject ...?**

Contoh: *"Where is the station?"*

12.3.3 Choicel questions

Bentuk dasar: auxiliary verb + subject + main verb ... or ...?

Contoh: *"Do you prefer tea or coffee?"*

12.3.4 Tag questions

Bentuk dasar: positive/negative statement + negative/positive short question?

Contoh: *"You're coming, aren't you?"*

12.3.5 Negative questions

1. **Bentuk dasar: negative auxiliary verb + subject + main verb ?**

Contoh: *"Isn't she coming to the party?"*

2. **Untuk be-verbs: negative be-verb + subject ...?**

Contoh: *"Aren't they your friends?"*

Ketika memahami struktur kalimat tanya, penting untuk diingat bahwa pemilihan *auxiliary verb* atau kata kerja bantu (seperti *"do"*, *"have"*, *"be"*, dll.) tergantung pada waktu (*tense*) dan subjek kalimat. Selain itu, dalam beberapa kasus, kata kerja utama bisa menjadi kata kerja bantu, terutama saat berhubungan dengan *be-verbs*.

3. **Kalimat Negative / Negative Sentences**

Sebuah negative sentence merupakan sentence yang sifatnya menentang bentuk asli sentence itu sendiri. Karena sifatnya menentang, maka bentuk negative dari negative sentence selalu memiliki komponen *"not"* dalam kalimatnya.

Seringnya, *"not"* ini berpasangan dengan *"is/are"*, *"do/does/did"*, *"can/could"*, *"should"*, *"will/would"*, dan lain-lain. Dalam kalimat atau percakapan formal memang ditulis

penuh dengan kata pasangan “not”, namun tidak jarang pula kalimat atau percakapan informal, semi-formal, atau beberapa kasus formal menyingkat, sehingga bentuknya menjadi memiliki imbuhan “n’t”.

Verbal Sentences + Not

Kalimat verbal adalah kalimat yang menggunakan verb (kata kerja). Untuk membuat bentuk negatif dari kalimat verbal, maka kita akan menambahkan: do not, does not, dan did not sebelum verb. Contohnya yaitu:

do not go

does not eat

did not

Nominal Sentences + Not

Kalimat nominal adalah kalimat yang tidak menggunakan kata kerja (verb). Sebagai ganti kata kerja, kalimat tersebut akan menggunakan “to be”. Membuat bentuk negatif dari kalimat nominal sangatlah mudah karena cukup menambahkan “not” setelah be (is, am, are, was, were), sehingga menjadi:

is not

am not

are not

was not

were not

Modal Auxiliaries verbs + Not

Modal Auxiliary verb adalah kata kerja bantu yang digunakan untuk mempertegas atau memodifikasi makna dari kata kerja utama. Adapun kata-kata yang merupakan modal verbs yaitu: can, could, shall, should, will, would, may, might, must.

Kalimat negatif dengan modal verbs dapat dibuat dengan menambahkan “not” setelah modal verbs tersebut. Sehingga menjadi seperti berikut:

can > cannot

could > could not

shall > shall not

will > will not

would > would not
may > may not
might > might not
must > must not

Contraction atau penyingkatan

Dalam speaking, atau penulisan yang tidak formal, bentuk negatif seringkali disingkat menjadi seperti berikut:

do not -> don't
does not -> doesn't
did not -> didn't
is not -> isn't
are not -> aren't
was not -> wasn't
were not -> weren't
cannot -> can't
could not -> couldn't
shall not -> shan't
should not -> shouldn't
will not -> won't
would not -> wouldn't
must not -> mustn't

Never & Neither

Never dan Neither juga menunjukkan bahwa kalimat tersebut berbentuk negatif. Contoh kalimatnya yaitu:

I've never been to Bali (Saya tidak pernah ke Bali)

We never like each other (Kita tidak pernah menyukai satu sama lain)

Neither you nor me can finish the Job in two hours (Kau atau aku tidak bisa menyelesaikan pekerjaan itu dalam dua jam)

More Examples of Negative Sentences

Agar lebih jelas lagi, berikut lebih banyak contoh kalimat negatif dalam bahasa Inggris:

1. I can't work here anymore (Aku sudah tidak bisa lagi bekerja disini)

2. Kasino didn't commit the corruption, he is just being framed by his partner (Pak Kasino tidak melakukan korupsi, dia hanya dijebak oleh rekannya)
3. We are not lovers, we are just friends (Kita bukan sepasang kekasih, kitanya berteman)
4. I don't like being betrayed by my trusted friends (Saya tidak suka di khianati oleh teman yang saya percaya)
5. Toni isn't the employee of this company anymore (Toni sudah bukan pegawai di perusahaan ini lagi)
6. This luxurious house is not his anymore (Rumah mewah itu kini sudah bukan miliknya lagi)
7. This event is not made for kid under 18 (Acara ini bukan diperuntukkan bagi anak berusia delapan belas tahun ke bawah)
8. We don't sell cheap food (Kami tidak menjual makanan murahan)
9. Tono didn't like durian, but now he does (Tono dulu tidak suka durian, tapi sekarang dia suka)
10. Since that incident, you haven't call me again (Semenjak peristiwa itu, kamu belum pernah sekalipun menghubungi ku lagi).
11. I have never met that beautiful lady before (Aku belum pernah bertemu wanita cantik itu sebelumnya).
12. We will never know if we don't try (Kita tidak akan pernah tahu jika kita tidak berusaha).
13. My father is not a rich man, but he is the best (Ayah saya bukan orang kaya tapi dia adalah yang terbaik).
14. Maybe, we will never see each other again because i'm going to move out of town (Mungkin kita tidak akan bertemu lagi karena saya akan pindah ke luar kota).
15. Car can't get through the road, there are road improvements (Mobil tidak bisa melewati jalan ini karena sedang ada perbaikan jalan).

12.4 Penggunaan kalimat Negative pada Tenses

12.4.1 Simple present tense

Simple present tense digunakan ketika mengungkapkan fakta, kebenaran, dan kebiasaan, maka tidak membutuhkan referensi waktu, sehingga kata kerja yang digunakan adalah bentuk infinitive.

Rumus simple present tense, yaitu:

Kalimat positif: S + infinitive (V1) (+s/es) / to be (is, am, are) + O.

Kalimat negatif: S + do/does not + infinitive (V1) + O. S + to be (is, am, are) + not + O.

Kalimat tanya: Do/does + S + infinitive (V1) + O? to be (is, am, are) + S + O?

Contoh kalimat Beberapa contoh kalimatnya adalah:

(+) I go to school every day. / Aku pergi ke sekolah setiap hari.

(-) I don't go to school every day. / Aku tidak pergi ke sekolah setiap hari.

(?) Do you go to school every day? / Apakah kamu pergi ke sekolah setiap hari?

(+) My sister is a kindergarten student. / Adikku adalah seorang murid TK.

(-) My sister isn't a kindergarten student. / Adikku bukan seorang murid TK.

(?) Is your sister a kindergarten student? / Apakah adikmu seorang murid TK?

12.4.2 Present continuous tense

Present continuous tense biasa digunakan untuk menyatakan hal yang sedang dilakukan atau sedang terjadi di masa sekarang.

Rumus present continuous tense, sebagai berikut:

Kalimat positif: S + to be (is, am, are) + Ving.

Kalimat negatif: S + to be (is, am, are) + not + Ving.

Kalimat tanya: to be (is, am, are) + S + Ving?

Contoh kalimat continuous tense

Berikut contoh kalimat continuous tense:

- (+) Rani is writing a letter. / Rani sedang menulis surat.
 (-) Rani isn't writing a letter. / Rani tidak sedang menulis surat.
 (?) Is Rani writing a letter? / Apakah Rani sedang menulis surat?

12.4.3 Simple past tense

Simple past tense digunakan untuk menyatakan peristiwa atau kejadian yang terjadi di masa lalu.

Biasanya waktunya spesifik.

Rumus simple past tense, yaitu:

Kalimat positif: S + V2.

Kalimat negatif: S + did not + V1.

Kalimat tanya: Did + S + V1?

Contoh kalimat simple past tense

(+) Beni washed his car yesterday. / Beni mencuci mobilnya kemarin.

(-) Beni didn't wash his car yesterday. / Beni tidak mencuci mobilnya kemarin.

(?) Did Beni wash his car yesterday? / Apakah Beni mencuci mobilnya kemarin?

12.4.4 Past continuous tense

Past continuous tense digunakan ketika kita berbicara tentang kejadian atau kegiatan yang sedang terjadi di masa lalu.

Biasanya waktunya spesifik.

Rumus past continuous tense adalah:

Kalimat positif: S + was/were + Ving.

Kalimat negatif: S + was/were + not + Ving.

Kalimat tanya: Was/were + S + Ving?

Contoh kalimat past continuous tense

(+) Sinta was reading a novel at 5 p.m. this evening. / Sinta sedang membaca novel jam 5 sore tadi.

(-) Sinta wasn't reading a novel at 5 p.m. this evening. / Sinta tidak sedang membaca novel jam 5 sore tadi.

(?) Was Sinta reading a novel at 5 p.m. this evening? / Apakah Sinta sedang membaca novel jam 5 sore tadi?

12.4.5 Present perfect tense

Present perfect tense digunakan ketika kita menyatakan kejadian atau kegiatan yang sudah terjadi di masa sekarang.

Rumus present perfect tense, adalah:

Kalimat positif: S + has/have + V3.

Kalimat negatif: S + has/have + not + V3.

Kalimat tanya: Has/have + S + V3?

Contoh kalimat present perfect tense

(+) I have eaten. / Aku sudah makan.

(-) I haven't eaten yet. / Aku belum makan.

(?) Have you eaten? / Apakah kamu sudah makan?

12.4.6 Simple future tense

Simple future tense digunakan ketika kita berbicara hal atau kejadian yang akan terjadi di masa depan atau sebuah rencana. Rumus simple future tense:

Kalimat positif: S + will + V1. S + is/am/are + going to + V1.

Kalimat negatif: S + will + not + V1. S + is/am/are + not + going to + V1.

Kalimat tanya: Will + S + V1? Is/am/are + S + going to + V1?

Contoh kalimat simple future tense

(+) Mrs. Tari will teach us. / Bu Tari akan mengajar kita.

(-) Mrs. Tari won't teach us. / Bu Tari tidak akan mengajar kita.

(?) Will Mrs. Tari teach us? / Apakah Bu Tari akan mengajar kita?

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BAB 13

CLAUSE AND PHRASE

By Novi Rahmania Aquariza

13.1 Pendahuluan

Clause adalah serangkaian kata yang memiliki subject (I, you, we, they, she, he, it) dan verb (pray, eat, read, write, etc.).

Phrase adalah penggabungan dua kata atau lebih yang tidak memiliki verb sehingga tidak bisa menjadi kalimat sempurna akan tetapi tetap memiliki arti atau makna.

13.2 Clause and Phrase

13.2.1 Clause

Klausa adalah kumpulan kata yang terdiri dari subjek dan predikat (*verb*). Menurut Arifin, (2008) klausa adalah runtutan kata yang setidaknya terdiri dari *subjek dan predikat*. Sehingga *verb (v)* adalah unsur yang harus ada di dalam sebuah klausa yang disertai *subjek (S), objek (O), complement (C)*. Dalam penggunaannya unsur S sering dihilangkan. Misalnya kalimat majemuk dan kalimat jawaban (Ramlan, 1987). Dari penjelasan diatas, dapatlah disimpulkan bahwa subject, verb, object, dan complement akan menjadi sebuah kalimat jika ditulis secara penuh.

Clause memiliki beberapa ciri-ciri yang harus dipahami. Ciri-ciri tersebut menurut Barhaqie, (2008), adalah sebagai berikut: 1) dalam klausa terdapat satu predikat, 2) clause bisa menjadi kalimat jika diberi intonasi final atau pelengkap, 3) klausa termasuk dalam kalimat majemuk, 4) Dengan menambahkan konstituen atribut pada salah satu atau setiap fungsi sintaksis yang ada, klausa dapat diperluas.

Sebuah clause identic dengan kalimat sederhana, dan biasanya akan menjadi kompleks jika digunakan lebih dari 1 clause dalam satu kalimat yang sama; contohnya: I like English but my sister like music because she wants to be a

singer

Perlu diketahui bahwa dalam bahas Inggris ada dua macam clauses, yaitu: Main clauses, dan Subordinate clauses. Selain itu, berdasarkan fungsinya clauses dibedakan menjadi 3 macam yaitu: Noun Clause, Adjective Clause, dan Adverbial Clause. Berikut adalah beberapa penjelasan terkait jenis-jenis clauses.

1. Main Clause

Independence Clauses adalah sebutan lain dari *Mainclause* dimana merupakan serangkaian kata yang terdiri dari subject dan predicate yang telah mempunyai pengertian yang lengkap (sempurna) dan dapat berdiri sendiri.

Contoh:

- a. Dani is writing a Novel in his room (Dani menulis sebuah novel di kamarnya)
- b. I am dancing (saya menari) ü She is tired (dia Lelah) dll,

Dapat disimpulkan bahwa main clause atau independent clause memiliki ciri-ciri sebagai berikut;

- a. Memiliki subject yang melakukan suatu tindakan dalam kalimat
- b. Terdiri dari satu predikat ü Mempunyai makna lengkap

2. Subordinate Clause

Subordinaten clause (anak kalimat) sering disebut dengan *Dependence Clause* dimana merupakan serangkain kata yang mengandung subject dan predicate tetapi belum memiliki arti yang sempurna (jelas), dan tidak dapat berdiri sendiri atau bergantung pada independent clause.

Contoh:

- a. I will eat ***after he visited his uncle's house in the village.*** (saya akan makan setelah dia mengunjungi rumah pamannya di desa).
- b. The woman ***who is cooking for the breakfast is my sister.*** (Perempuan yang sedang memasak sarapan adalah kakakku).
- c. They don't understand ***why my father always gives him some money every Friday.*** (mereka tidak tahy

mengapa ayah saya selalu memberi dia beberapa uang setiap hari Jum'at).

Dependence clause dapat dibagi menjadi 3 jenis yaitu *Noun clause, adjective clause, adverb clause*. Berikut adalah penjelasannya;

1. Noun Clause

Noun clause berfungsi sebagai kata benda, biasanya diidentifikasi dengan kata 'that' ataupun question word (what, where, when, why, and how) dan diikuti dengan kata kerja (know, say, etc).

Example:

- a. I do not understand **what he is talking** (saya tidak paham apa yang sedang dia bicarakan)
- b. **That he ate a nasi padang in that swimming pool** became a big problem in his life (bahwa dia memakan nasi padang di kolam renang itu menjadi masalah besar untuknya)

2. Adjective Clause

Adjective clause yaitu anak kalimat yang digunakan sebagai kata sifat (adjective) yang menerangkan kata benda atau kata ganti, biasanya diawali dengan kata who, whose, where, when, ataupun that.

Example:

- a. My brother **who studies in the same junior high school as I do**, never likes learning science (Kakak saya yang belajar di SMP yang sama dengan saya, tidak pernah suka belajar kimia)
- b. **The restaurant where every people in my family like to go to**, is closed for one year (Restoran dimana setiap orang di anggota keluarga ku suka kunjungi, tutup untuk satu tahun)

3. Adverb Clause

Adverb Clause menjadi anak kalimat yang digunakan untuk penjelas dari kata kerja dalam suatu kalimat kompleks.

Example:

- a. She always drinks a ginger **before she sings a jazz music** (dia selalu meminum jahe sebelum dia menyanyikan lagu jazz).

Didasarkan pada penjelasan di atas, dapat disimpulkan bahwa karakteristik dari dependent clause adalah sebagai berikut;

- a. Menggunakan conjungtion atau kata penghubung seperti: but, and, so, or, atau yet.
- b. Mempunyai dependent marker word: because, however, after, before, in order to, when, whole, although, since, wherever, though, even if, dll

13.2.2 Phrase

Phrase adalah serangkaian kata yang memiliki subject dan predicate tetapi tidak memiliki pengertian; juga merupakan bagian dari kalimat.

Phrase memiliki ciri-ciri yang perlu diketahui yaitu (1) frasa harus terdiri dari dua kata atau lebih, (2) mempunyai fungsi gramatikal dalam kalimat, (3) frasa harus mempunyai satu makna grammatical, (4) frasa bersifat nonpredikatif, (5) frasa selalu menduduki satu fungsi kalimat.

Sebuah phrase dapat dikategorikan berdasarkan dua komponen, yaitu unsur inti atau unsur pusat. Sehingga, distribusi frasa bergantung pada persamaannya dengan jenis kata tersebut. Berdasarkan jenis katanya frasa mempunyai lima kategori frasa, yaitu noun phrase, verb phrase, adjective phrase, adverb phrase, prepositional phrase.

1. Noun Phrase

Noun phrase adalah phrase yang kata intinya berupa kata benda, Pada dasarnya, Noun phrase bisa diikuti dengan kata didahului dengan kata bilangan. Berikut ini rumusstruktur pembentukan noun phrase dalam bahasa Inggris.

Jenis Phrase	Struktur	Contoh
Noun Phrase	noun	car
	pronoun	she
	Determiner + noun	a car
	Adjective+noun	cheap car
	Determiner + adjective + noun	a cheap car

Ringkasnya, dalam noun phrase terdiri dari sebuah noun, sebuah pronoun, penggabungan antara determiner and noun, penggabungan antara adjective and noun, dan penggabungan antara determiner, adjective, and noun.

2. Verb Phrase

Verb phrase adalah phrase yang memiliki inti kata kerja dan kata lain sebagai modifikator. Berikut adalah rumus penggunaan verb phrase:

Jenis Phrase	Struktur	Contoh
Verb Phrase	all forms of a verb	do, did, done, doing, etc.
	auxiliary + verb	* should obey * had left * was thought * has slept *etc

Secara umum, verb phrase dapat terdiri dari satu kata kerja, baik present, past, participle, atau -ing form. Selain itu, verb phrase juga dapat terdiri dari kombinasi auxiliary (should, will, had, was, has, etc.) dengan kata kerja dalam bentuk apa pun.

3. Adjective Phrase

Adjective phrase merupakan phrase yang induknya berupa kata sifat atau juga bisa mengkombinasikan dengan adverb of degree (*very, rather, fairly, extremely, easily*) dengan adjective. Berikut adalah rumus penggunaan adjective phrase dalam kaidah bahasa Inggris:

Jenis Phrase	Struktur	Contoh
Adjective phrase	adjective	sad vanquished, hot, cold
	Adverb of degree + adjective	Very sad
		easily vanquished
		extremely hot
		rather cold
		fairly cold

4. Adverb phrase

Adverb phrase adalah phrase yang induknya berupa kata keterangan dan modifikatornya berupa keterangan sifat Selain itu, frasa adverbial juga disebut *frasa konjungsi*. Dibawah ini adalah rumus penggunaan adverb phrase:

Jenis Phrase	Struktur	Contoh
Adverb phrase	adverb	Easily,slowly,etc
	Adverb of degree + adverb	Very slowly
		quite easily
		Extremely loudly
		rather smoothly

5. Prepositional phrase

Phrase yang didahului oleh kata depan sebagai penanda dan diikuti oleh kata sebagai aksinya disebut prepositional.

Jenis Phrase	Struktur	Contoh
Prepositional phrase	Preposition + noun phrase	in the bathroom
		after the exam
		Beside a beautiful yard
		After morning

Misalnya, ‘in his room’. Agar lebih memahami, mari lihat tabel berikut: Penjelasan yang berbeda tentang jenis, struktur, dan contoh phrases mungkin ditemukan di sumber lain. Diharapkan perbedaan ini akan membantu kita memahami konsep clause dan phrase dari berbagai perspektif.

WORKSHEET

A. Please identify each the following is a clause or phrase!

1. The big dog
2. They went to fair market last night
3. Had been eating
4. On the shelf
5. If you finish your homework
6. Although you can't see me, I can see you

B. Choose the best answer

1. What is clause?
 - a. a group of words without subject-verb components
 - b. a group of words without subject-adverb components
2. What is a phrase
 - a. a group of words without subject-adverb components
 - b. a group of words without subject-verb components

3. What is the dependent clause?
 - a. a clause that doesn't make sense on its own as a sentence.
 - b. a clause that makes sense on its own as a sentence.
4. What is the independent clause?
 - a. a clause that makes sense on its own as a sentence.
 - b. a clause that doesn't make sense on its own as a sentence.
5. 'In the kitchen' is an example of a
 - a. verb phrase
 - b. prepositional phrase
 - c. adjective phrase

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CHAPTER 14

QUESTION WORDS

By Dian Heriani

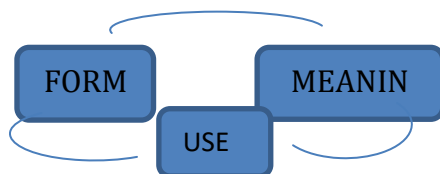
Focus:

1. Encourage learners to use their new language both inside and outside classroom.
2. Provide an opportunity to practice grammar and communication.
3. Help learners develop skill of grammaring, the competency to use structures accurately, meaningfully, and appropriately.

14.1 Introduction

Grammar dimensions is so complex and meaningful approach to accomodate the use of grammatical structures accurately, meaningfully, and appropriately to help any learners to use grammar as a communicative approach (Heinke,2000). In fact, the meaning or appropriate use of a grammatical structure that produces the greatest long-term learning challenge for learners. However, learning when it is relevant to use questions words meaningfully, represent challenges for EFL/ESL students.

The practicing of form, meaning, and use the three aspects of can be depicted in a pie chart with their connection decorated by the three arrows:

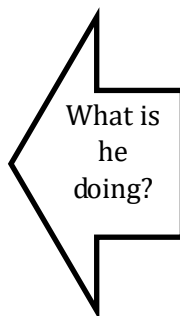


How is the grammar structure formed?

What does the grammar structure mean?

When or why is the grammar structure used?

How is the question words used in appropriate sentences?



Sources : <https://learnenglish.britishcouncil.org>.

Do you have an idea how to make questions?

How questions are made. Look at these examples to see.

Is he a singer?

Does he have an English class?

When did you get there?

How much does an airplane ticket cost?

Helping learners acquire to use grammatical structure meaningfully, accurately, and appropriately is the fundamental goal of grammar dimensions. Simplified grammar how to use question word explanation helps learners easily understand and comprehend each language structure.

1. Wh- questions: who what where when.
2. Present progressive : He is writing.
3. Using adjectives and nouns to modify nouns: small class, grammar class.

A.1 Compare the word order of *yes/no* questions *and wh*-questions.

STATEMENT:
YES/NO QUESTIONS:

WH-QUESTION:

Hanz love tea

Does hanz love tea?

What

Does hanz love tea?

What does Hanz love?

COMMENTS

(1) Wh- questions of this type begin with a question word, such as **who**, **what**, **when**, or **where**. The rest of the word-order pattern is the same as in yes/ no questions: **do**, **does**, or some other auxiliary is arranged before the subject.

(2) **Who** uses for a noun phrase which assigns to a person.
What uses for a noun phrase which assigns to a person.
When uses for an adverbial which assigns to time.
Where uses for an adverbial which assigns to place.

Note: In this pattern, the *wh*- words are uses for parts of the predicate phrase. The use of *wh*-words as substitutes for the subject is treated in lesson

ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES
QUESTIONS

What does Hanz like

What does he study?

What did he study a minute ago?

SHORT ANSWERS
Ice cream

Science technology

Social science

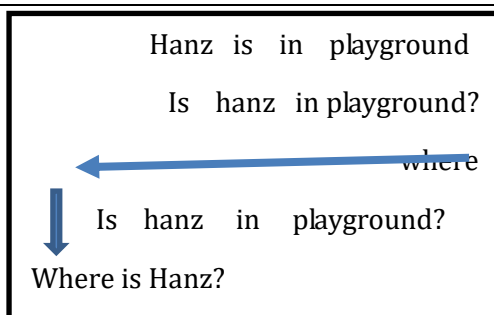
Where does he study in the morning?	In the library room
When did he study last Monday?	At college
When does he usually study?	In the morning
When did he study last week?	In the morning
Who does he teach every day?	College students
Whom does he visit every day?	College students

A.2 Look at the word order of questions with the verb be.

STATEMENT:

YES/NO QUESTIONS:

WH-QUESTION:



COMMENTS

- (1) The wh-word which recover a part of te predicate phrase is put at the beginning of the question.
- (2) The pattern is the same as for yes/no questions: the form of be (am, are is was, or were) is placed before the subject.

ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES

Who was that man?	My daddy
What is he?	A policeman
Who are you?	A boy
Where is Hanz?	In playground
When is he here?	In the morning

A3. Notice the use of the expression do what.

STATEMENT:
YES/NO QUESTIONS:

WH-QUESTION:

Hanz studies English every week.

Does Hanz study English every week?



do what

What does Hanz do every week?

COMMENTS

Do what is a substitute for the verb and any other essential parts of the verb phrase. In the example, do what corresponds to the verb phrase study English.

A4. Pay attention the position of the prepositions.

Previous pattern:

Hanz studies English at the college every week.

Does Hanz study English at the college every week?



Where



Does Hanz study English at the college every week?

Where does Hanz study every week?

New pattern :

Hanz studies English at the college every week.

Does Hanz study English at the college every week?

← Who
↓ Does Hanz study English at the college every week?

Where does Hanz study every week?

COMMENTS

- (1) In the new pattern, the presentation (in this case at) is not part of the expression which is replaced by the question word.
- (2) It is acceptable for the preposition to remain with the verb when the question word is moved to the beginning.

ADDITIONAL EXAMPLES

Make wh-questions that correspond to the lecturer's statements.

Hanz waits for Maheera every morning. **Who** does Hanz wait for every monday?

Hanz works on Wednesday. **When** does Hanz work?

Hanz is from Australia. **Where** is Hanz from?

An interview with a football player

Keyn **What** time does your class begin, Dayn?

Dayn Oh, that's an easy question! Late! Never before 5 o'clock.

Keyn And **when** do you collaborate with the team?

Dayn Two days a week. Not on the weekend.

Keyn And **how** many hours do you learn every day?

Dayn About three hours a day. It is hard work.

Keyn And **how** often do you travel abroad?

Dayn Oh, once a month, sometimes twice a month.

Keyn **What** do you do in your free time?

Dayn I wash my sports car. I sell them to industry

Keyn Nice hobby!Er...**how** much do you sell it?

Evaluation! What you know with interactive exercises and read the explanation to help you.

New! Communicative activities are provided with the skill being practiced.

Use your English

Activity 1: the purpose of this activity is to decide on what you think are probably the best answers. Do it personally.

did	Is	where	did	Do	Can	does	you
-----	----	-------	-----	----	-----	------	-----

1. your sibling a dentist? - No, she is an lecturer.
2. Shanum live in Europe?- No, she lives in Asia.
3. When you get office? - I got office 2 days ago.
4. What time you finish the neeting? - I finish at 8.00.
5. the children go to the party? - Yes, they went there after school.
6. Are going to the market?- No, I am going cafe.
7. you speak Indian?- Just a little.
8. did you watch the movie? - I watch the movie in the late morning.

14.2 Grammar Explantion

To create questions, we often insert the verb before the subject. This is called inversion.

Affirmative	Question
I am great	Am I great?
I could manage the time	Could I manage the time?
The manager is controlling the project	Is he controlling?
We have finished dinner	Have we finished dinner?

A **question word (why, what, where, how, etc)**, it can be used before the verb.

Question	Question with question word
Am I great?	Why are you great?
Could I manage the time?	How could I manage the time?
Is she controlling?	Who is controlling?
Have we finished dinner?	Where have we finished dinner?

This is true for sentences with be, sentences that have auxiliary verbs (e.g they were waiting. She has finished.) and sentences with modal verbs (can, will, should, might, etc).

Questions in the present simple and past simple

For other verbs in the present simple, we use the auxiliary verb do/does in the question.
We use the auxiliary verb did in the past simple.

Affirmative	Question	Question with a question word
She went library	Did she go library?	Where did she go?
My students went to the cinema	Did they go to the cinema?	Where did they go ?

New! Communicative activities are provided with the skill being practiced.

Use your English

Activity 1: the purpose of this activity is to decide on what you think are probably the best answers. Do it personally.

	Is	where	did	Do	can	does	you
--	----	-------	-----	----	-----	------	-----

1. do you study?
2. you ever climb the huge mountain of Japan?
3. Are you to learn English today?
4. What time do youto work?
5. you see the kids from here?
6. happened? You are all wet!
7. Would you a cup of coffee?
8. Who all the western food?—I did. Sorry!

New! Communicative activities are provided with the skill being practiced.

Use your English

Activity 1: the purpose of this activity is to decide on what you think are probably the best answers. Get together with another pair and compare your answers with the rest of the class.



Where is this?	Who are the people?	What are they doing?

14.3 Wh- Questions with Rising Intonation: Checking Information

Examples	Explanations
(a) A: Where are you from? B: Indonesia.	Most wh-questions end with falling intonation.
(b) A: Where are you from? B: Indonesia. It is in the south Asia.	A <i>Wh-</i> question with rising intonation shows that you are not sure about what you
(c) A: Maheera was here last Sunday.	heard or that you

Examples	Explanations
B: Who was here last Sunday? A: Maheera Syila.	
(d) A: Maheera Syila was here last Sunday. B: Who?	Sometimes, just the <i>Wh</i> - word (with rising intonation) is used.

(Heinle,2000)

14.4 Choice Questions

EXAMPLES	EXPLANATION
(a) A: Are you a graduate student or a professor? (b) Do you live in a dorm or an apartment?	A choice question has two or more possibilities, or options. The speaker expects you to choose one of these options in your answer. You can add more information
(c) Does Falah walk to school or take the bus? (d) A: are you from Australia or from London? B: Neither, I am from Canada.	Choice questions have a different intonation pattern from yes-no questions have rising intonation at the end; choice questions have rising intonation in the middle and falling intonation at the end.
(e) A: Would you like coffee or tea? B: I will have some tea, please. (f) A: (Do you want) paper or plastic?	Choice questions are often used to get information quickly or to make offers (please see unit 16 for more information on making offers with <i>Would... like</i>) In informal conversation, the

B: paper, please.	first part of the question is sometimes dropped. Answers to choice questions are often very short. Adding <i>please</i> to your answer makes it more polite.
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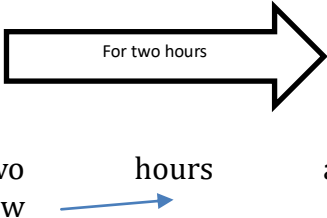
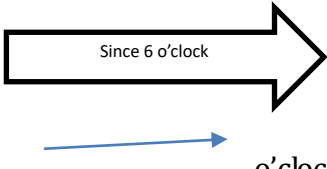
(Heinle,2000)

When...? **and** How long...? For **and** since
 Compare **when...** ? (past simple) and **How long ...?** (+ present perfect):

A: When did it start training?
B: It started SDGs training an hour ago / at 2 o'clock
A: How long has it been training?
B: it's been SDGs training for an hour / since 2 o'clock

A: When did Hanz and Mahyra first meet?
B: They have met each other { for a long time since they were at course

We use both **for** and **since** to say how long something **has been happening**.

We use for when we say a period of time (two hours, six weeks etc.): I've been waiting for two hours. 	We use since when we start of a period (6 o'clock, Monday, 2022 etc.): I've been waiting since 6 o'clock. 
--	--

For Four hours a week 5 minutes 10 years	now <table border="1"> <tr> <td colspan="2" style="text-align: center;">Since</td> </tr> <tr> <td>2 o'clock</td><td>1991</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Monday</td><td>Idul Fitri</td> </tr> <tr> <td>10 July</td><td>dinner</td> </tr> <tr> <td>August</td><td>they were at</td> </tr> <tr> <td>college</td><td></td> </tr> </table>	Since		2 o'clock	1991	Monday	Idul Fitri	10 July	dinner	August	they were at	college	
Since													
2 o'clock	1991												
Monday	Idul Fitri												
10 July	dinner												
August	they were at												
college													
• Sekar's been painting a canvas here for five months. (not since five months') • I have not seen Jaka for four days. (not since three days')	• Sekar's been working here since July. (=from July until now) • I haven't seen Jaka since Thursday. (=from Thursday until now)												

New! Communicative activities are provided with the skill being practiced.

Exercises

Write questions with how **long** and **when**

- It's planning a new project.
(how long?) **How long has it been planning a new project?**
(when?) **When did it start planning a new project?**
- Dwi is learning korean.
(how long/learn?).....
(when/ start /learn?).....
- I know Mark.
(how long/know?).....
(when/ first /meet?).....
- Fallah and Dian are married.
(How long?).....
(When?).....

Wati bought that book in Jaka.

We can ask **one** question about the **subject**:

Who bought that book? Wati did

(The subject of the question is **who**)

The basic pattern for this type of question is:

Question word + verb + object

We can ask two questions about the object:

What did Wati buy? That book.

Where did Wati buy that book? In Jakarta.

The basic pattern for this type of question is:

Question word + verb + object

If you study all the examples in (2) in the grammar summary.

You will see that question word questions are very regular.

Remember how important the verb **(do)** is in asking questions. If there is no auxiliary, part of **(do)** is used instead.

2. **Whom** is very rare in question word questions in spoken English; who is the normal word.

Whom did you buy it from?

Who did you buy it from?

Question words

An interview with a football player

Bagas What time does your music class over, Sheina?

Sheina Oh, that's an easy question! Late! Never before 5 o'clock.

Bagas And when do you meet up the meeting with the new client?

Sheina Four days a month. Not on the weekend.

Bagas And how many hours do you swim every day?

Sheina About four hours a day. It is nice hobby.

Bagas And how often do you travel abroad?

Sheina Oh, twice a year. Sometimes once a month.

Bagas What do you study in your busy time?

Sheina I drive my new car. I travel with my family...

Steve Expensive hobbies! Er... How much do you earn?

Sheina A lot. Oh, in my free time I read all my fan letters,
of course, I get million of letters a week.
Steve And how do you recieve all of them?
Sheina I do not. I receive letters once a year,
at summer school.
Steve Why do new people love you?
Sheina Er... that's a difficult question. Send my fan
letters. Here they are.

Question words with do

Question word	auxiliary	subject	verb	object	adverb
---------------	-----------	---------	------	--------	--------

phrase

What	do	you	do		in your free time?
When	do	you	train		with the team?
Where	does	Hanz	train		with the team?
Why	do	girls	like	you	so much?
How	do	you	answer	them?	

New! Communicative activities are provided with the skill being practiced.
Exercises

Use your English

Activity 1: the purpose of this activity is to decide on what you think are probably the best answers. Get together with another pair and compare your answers with the rest of the class. Add the correct question word from this list to complete the conversation below.

What When Why Who Where Which

Ricky I'm going to the cinema this evening?
Joe Oh..... one?
Ricky The majestic.
Joe Are you going alone or with a friend?
Ricky With a friend. I do not like going alone.
Joe are you going with?
Ricky At 7 o'clock
Joe 7 o'clock! That is very early, does the film start?
Ricky A quarter to 8.
Joe Are you going so early?
Ricky We are going for a hamburger before the film – and afterwards we are going to party.
Joe is the party?
Ricky It is at a friend of Maria's.
Joe And is the film you are going to see?
Ricky The name of the rose". I have heard it is very good.
Joe is it about?
Ricky I have no idea, but I have heard it is worth seeing.
Joe
 I think I would like to see it too.
Ricky do not you come with us
Joe But will the others say?
Ricky do not you come with us.
Joe but will the others say?
Ricky Oh, they won't mind.
Joe Right. did you say you were meeting?
Ricky 7 o'clock outside the cinema.
Joe See you there at 7 o'clock then!
Joe How are you getting there?
Ricky On the bus of course!

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