

# **ENGLISH GRAMMAR IN USE**

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Hak cipta dilindungi undang-undang  
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 English Grammar In Use book.

This book discusses Present Tense, Past Tense, Future Tense, Noun, Adjective, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction, Verb, Reported Speech, Conditional Sentences, Question Forms, Gerunds and Infinitives.

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

## LIST OF CONTENTS

|                                                 |             |
|-------------------------------------------------|-------------|
| <b>FOREWORD .....</b>                           | <b>i</b>    |
| <b>LIST OF CONTENTS .....</b>                   | <b>ii</b>   |
| <b>LIST OF FIGURES .....</b>                    | <b>vii</b>  |
| <b>LIST OF TABLES .....</b>                     | <b>viii</b> |
| <b>CHAPTER 1 PRESENT TENSE.....</b>             | <b>1</b>    |
| 1.1 Tenses .....                                | 1           |
| 1.2 Present Tense.....                          | 7           |
| BIBLIOGRAPHY .....                              | 11          |
| <b>CHAPTER 2 PAST TENSE.....</b>                | <b>13</b>   |
| 2.1 Simple Past .....                           | 13          |
| 2.2 Past Continuous .....                       | 16          |
| 2.3 Past Perfect.....                           | 19          |
| 2.4 Past Perfect Continuous .....               | 22          |
| BIBLIOGRAPHY .....                              | 27          |
| <b>CHAPTER 3 FUTURE TENSE.....</b>              | <b>29</b>   |
| 3.1 What is simple future tense? .....          | 29          |
| 3.2 Be Going To .....                           | 32          |
| 3.3 Future Progressive .....                    | 33          |
| 3.4 Future Perfect .....                        | 35          |
| 3.5 Future Perfect Progressive .....            | 35          |
| BIBLIOGRAPHY .....                              | 37          |
| <b>CHAPTER 4 NOUN .....</b>                     | <b>39</b>   |
| 4.1 Introduction.....                           | 39          |
| 4.2 Definition and Classification of Noun ..... | 40          |
| 4.2.1 Definition.....                           | 40          |
| 4.2.2 Classification .....                      | 40          |
| 4.3 Function .....                              | 42          |
| 4.4 Gender and Noun Forms.....                  | 44          |
| 4.5 Pluralization and Possession .....          | 46          |
| 4.5.1 Pluralization.....                        | 46          |
| 4.5.2 Possession.....                           | 47          |

|                                                                                                           |           |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------|
| 4.6 Pronoun and Noun Agreement.....                                                                       | 48        |
| 4.7 Noun Phrases and Modifiers .....                                                                      | 50        |
| 4.8 Proper Noun and Capitalization .....                                                                  | 52        |
| 4.8.1 Proper Noun .....                                                                                   | 52        |
| 4.8.2 Capitalization .....                                                                                | 53        |
| BIBLIOGRAPHY .....                                                                                        | 55        |
| <b>CHAPTER 5 ADJECTIVE .....</b>                                                                          | <b>57</b> |
| 5.1 Definition of Adjective .....                                                                         | 57        |
| 5.2 Uses of adjectives .....                                                                              | 58        |
| 5.3 Degrees of adjectives.....                                                                            | 58        |
| 5.3.1 Absolute adjectives mean such as infinite or<br>can be stand-alone or by itself. For example: ..... | 58        |
| 5.3.2 Comparative adjectives, .....                                                                       | 58        |
| 5.3.3 Superlative adjectives .....                                                                        | 59        |
| 5.4 Types of Adjectives .....                                                                             | 60        |
| 5.4.1 The Articles .....                                                                                  | 60        |
| 5.4.2 Possessive Adjectives .....                                                                         | 60        |
| 5.4.3 Demonstrative Adjectives .....                                                                      | 61        |
| 5.4.4 Coordinate Adjectives .....                                                                         | 61        |
| 5.4.5 Numbers Adjectives .....                                                                            | 62        |
| 5.4.6 Interrogative Adjectives.....                                                                       | 62        |
| 5.4.7 Indefinite Adjectives .....                                                                         | 62        |
| 5.4.8 Attributive Adjectives .....                                                                        | 63        |
| BIBLIOGRAPHY .....                                                                                        | 69        |
| <b>CHAPTER 6 ADVERBS .....</b>                                                                            | <b>71</b> |
| 6.1 Introduction.....                                                                                     | 71        |
| 6.2 Adverb Form .....                                                                                     | 73        |
| 6.3 Types of Adverbs.....                                                                                 | 77        |
| BIBLIOGRAPHY .....                                                                                        | 92        |
| <b>CHAPTER 7 PREPOSITION .....</b>                                                                        | <b>93</b> |
| 7.1 Introduction.....                                                                                     | 93        |
| 7.2 Types of prepositions.....                                                                            | 95        |
| 7.2.1 Preposition of Place.....                                                                           | 95        |

|                                                         |            |
|---------------------------------------------------------|------------|
| 7.2.2 Preposition of Time .....                         | 99         |
| 7.2.3 Preposition of Movement .....                     | 102        |
| 7.2.4 Préposition of source .....                       | 107        |
| 7.2.5 Preposition of measure.....                       | 108        |
| 7.2.6 Préposition of possession.....                    | 110        |
| 7.2.7 Preposition of an agent of instrument.....        | 113        |
| 7.2.8 Prepositions of Possession.....                   | 114        |
| BIBLIOGRAPHY .....                                      | 116        |
| <b>CHAPTER 8 CONJUNCTION.....</b>                       | <b>119</b> |
| 8.1 Introduction.....                                   | 119        |
| 8.2 In Brief of Conjunction.....                        | 119        |
| 8.3 And, But, Or, So, Because .....                     | 121        |
| 8.3.1 Using AND/BUT/OR.....                             | 121        |
| 8.3.2 Using SO .....                                    | 122        |
| 8.3.4 Other Uses .....                                  | 123        |
| 8.3.5 Exercises .....                                   | 123        |
| 8.4 Both ... and .../As well as.....                    | 124        |
| 8.4.1 Using BOTH ... AND .....                          | 124        |
| 8.4.2 Using AS WELL AS .....                            | 125        |
| 8.5 Although, Though, Even Though, In Spite of, Despite | 125        |
| 8.5.1 Using Although & Because .....                    | 125        |
| 8.5.2 Using In Spite Of & Despite .....                 | 126        |
| 8.5.3 Using Although & In Spite Of/Despite: .....       | 126        |
| 8.5.4 Using Though & Although: .....                    | 127        |
| 8.5.5 Exercises .....                                   | 128        |
| BIBLIOGRAPHY .....                                      | 130        |
| <b>CHAPTER 9 VERB .....</b>                             | <b>131</b> |
| 9.1 Introduction.....                                   | 131        |
| 9.2 Types of Verbs .....                                | 132        |
| 9.3 Regular and Irregular Verbs .....                   | 136        |
| 9.4 How to Use Verbs .....                              | 143        |
| BIBLIOGRAPHY .....                                      | 147        |

|                                                                                                                        |            |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------|
| <b>CHAPTER 10 REPORTED SPEECH .....</b>                                                                                | <b>149</b> |
| 10.1 What is Reported Speech? .....                                                                                    | 149        |
| 10.2 Things to be Considered When Using Reported<br>Speech .....                                                       | 150        |
| 10.3 Changing Direct Speech into Reported Speech .....                                                                 | 150        |
| 10.4 Reporting Questions .....                                                                                         | 155        |
| 10.5 Reporting Command/Imperative.....                                                                                 | 162        |
| BIBLIOGRAPHY .....                                                                                                     | 167        |
| <b>CHAPTER 11 CONDITIONAL SENTENCES .....</b>                                                                          | <b>169</b> |
| 11.1 Introduction .....                                                                                                | 169        |
| 11.2 Types of Conditional Sentence.....                                                                                | 172        |
| 11.2.1 Conditional Sentence Type 1 .....                                                                               | 172        |
| 11.2.2 Conditional Sentence Type 2 .....                                                                               | 174        |
| 11.2.3 Conditional Sentence Type 3 .....                                                                               | 176        |
| BIBLIOGRAPHY .....                                                                                                     | 180        |
| <b>CHAPTER 12 QUESTION WORD.....</b>                                                                                   | <b>183</b> |
| 12.1 Definition of Question Words.....                                                                                 | 183        |
| 12.2 Types of Question Words .....                                                                                     | 183        |
| 12.3 Formula for using WH Question .....                                                                               | 187        |
| 12.4 Functions of WH Question .....                                                                                    | 187        |
| BIBLIOGRAPHY .....                                                                                                     | 198        |
| <b>CHAPTER 13 GERUNDS AND INFINITIVES .....</b>                                                                        | <b>199</b> |
| 13.1 Introduction .....                                                                                                | 199        |
| 13.2 Gerunds .....                                                                                                     | 200        |
| 13.2.1 The Simple Gerunds .....                                                                                        | 201        |
| 13.2.2 Function of Gerunds.....                                                                                        | 202        |
| 13.2.3 The Gerund Phrases .....                                                                                        | 204        |
| 13.3 The following sentences show the use of gerund<br>phrase in sentences. Words in italic are gerund<br>phrases..... | 206        |
| 13.3.1 The List of Verbs Followed by Gerunds .....                                                                     | 206        |
| 13.3.2 Gerund/Gerund Phrases as Direct Object .....                                                                    | 207        |
| 13.4 Infinitives .....                                                                                                 | 208        |

|                                                          |     |
|----------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| 13.4.1 The Simple Infinitives.....                       | 210 |
| 13.4.2 Function of Infinitives.....                      | 210 |
| 13.4.3 The Infinitives Phrases.....                      | 212 |
| 13.4.4 The List of Verbs Followed by Infinitives.....    | 215 |
| 13.5 Infinitive/Infinitive Phrase as Direct Object ..... | 215 |
| 13.6 Conclusion.....                                     | 217 |
| BIBLIOGRAPHY .....                                       | 218 |
| <b>AUTHOR BIOGRAPHY</b>                                  |     |



## LIST OF FIGURES

|                                                                             |     |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| <b>Figure 7.1.</b> Example of the use of prepositions of place.             | 96  |
| <b>Figure 7.2.</b> Example of the use of prepositions of time...            | 99  |
| <b>Figure 7.3.</b> Example of the use of prepositions<br>of direction ..... | 103 |
| <b>Figure 8.1.</b> Studying .....                                           | 119 |
| <b>Figure 11.1.</b> Conditional Sentences .....                             | 178 |

## LIST OF TABLES

|                                                                             |     |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----|
| <b>Table 10.1.</b> Change of Pronouns .....                                 | 151 |
| <b>Table 10.2.</b> Change of Adverbs of Place and<br>Adverbs of Time .....  | 151 |
| <b>Table 10.3.</b> Change of Modal Auxiliaries and<br>Auxiliary Verbs ..... | 152 |
| <b>Table 10.4.</b> Change of Tense .....                                    | 153 |
| <b>Table 10.5.</b> Yes/No Questions .....                                   | 156 |
| <b>Table 10.6.</b> Wh- Questions .....                                      | 158 |
| <b>Table 10.7.</b> Command/Imperative .....                                 | 162 |
| <b>Table 11.1.</b> Conditional Sentence type.....                           | 177 |

# CHAPTER 1

## PRESENT TENSE

*By Andri Kurniawan*

### 1.1 Tenses

English is the international language. By mastering English well, we will be able to communicate with other nations in this world. Besides that, we will also be able to add to our insights and knowledge for the betterment of our nation and country, because we will be able to read English literature, listen to foreign radio broadcasts, and watch other scientific films. Thus, in the end we can master knowledge in all fields.

Every language has rules or we often call them by their respective grammatical terms, as well as in English, there are lots of rules that must be considered in its use, especially in the field of writing.

Tenses or what is commonly referred to as sentence tenses in English is a pattern of every sentence in English, so that we will know when a situation or action occurs/is carried out by the subject of the sentence in question even though the sentence is not given a time statement. In English, there are sixteen forms of tense according to their use. Of the sixteen tenses, each is grouped into four major groups (Supono, Cahya, 2004).

English grammar's use of tenses is crucial because they show when an action, event, thinking, or feeling occurred or will occur. A grammar phrase called tense is used to indicate whether an action or situation occurred in the past, is occurring now, or will occur in the future. These are only some of the basic applications of tense.

With the aid of inflections and auxiliary verbs, we may demonstrate several tenses. Now let's look at some brief explanations of these concepts. A morpheme (meaningful set of letters) called an inflection is a form of morpheme that is added to a base word to reflect a grammatical meaning or change. For instance, in terms of tenses, we modify normal verbs with the morpheme "ed" to indicate that the action occurred in the past, so that walk becomes walked.

Tenses are the forms of verbs used in English grammar to indicate the time at which an event has occurred or will occur. Tense essentially indicates the features of the verb in a sentence.

The following is the meaning of tenses according to several sources. The Oxford Learner's Dictionary states: Tense is defined as any of the forms of a verb that may be used to show the time of the action or state expressed by the verb.

The Merriam-Webster Dictionary states that tense is defined as a distinction of form in a verb to express distinctions of time or duration of the action or state it denotes.

The Collins Dictionary states that the tense of a verb group is its form, which usually shows whether you are referring to past, present, or future time.

According to the Cambridge Dictionary, tense is any of the forms of a verb which show the time at which an action happened.

Although there is no clear definition of the category "tense," there is a general consensus on what it generally signifies after 2500 years of investigation. Tenses are employed, in accordance with Wallwork (2011), to support the author's argument. Students must concentrate on the verbs that denote tenses in each sentence when searching for tenses.

According to Verspoor and Sauter (2000), a sentence is a set of words that begins with a capital letter and finishes with a full stop, question mark, or exclamation mark.

According to Celce-Murcia and Freeman (1999), there are twelve different tenses in the English language: simple present, simple past, simple future, present progressive, past progressive, future progressive, present perfect, past perfect, future perfect, present perfect progressive, and future perfect progressive.

These "dissenting views are reflected by the fact that linguists have not reached consensus on the number of tenses in English, which vary depending on whether formal or semantic criteria or a combination of both are recognized,". The present perfect, past perfect, and future perfect, in particular, resist simple classification. Four alternative techniques can be used to categorize the various linguistic perspectives on the number of English tenses.

1. Two tense approach

Different tenses must be recognized morphologically, or they must be represented in inflectional morphology, according to linguists who advocate a binary approach. As a result, there are only two tenses—"past" and "non-past," which correspond to the only morphologically reflected distinctions.

- a. He drink-s.
- b. He drink-ed.

One of the two tenses listed above combined with a modal verb or the perfect marker have creates all other categories in the English tense system. By naming them, the proponents of this strategy frequently and conveniently highlight the "combinatorial character" of these individuals.

- a. present perfect

- b. Past perfect
- c. Future perfect
- d. Rather than
- e. Perfect
- f. Pluperfect
- g. Future ii,

Those linguists who consider these to be "basic" tenses may choose to employ instead. The complete grammar of Quirk et al. (1985) is one of "many structuralist accounts" that use the binary approach.

## 2. Three tense approach

Some linguists disagree with the notion that a statement like We will/'ll miss the train combines the present tense with the verb will and the infinitive miss. Such an interpretation, according to König (1995), is "untenable and synchronically inadequate" because the word "will" no longer solely expresses volition, is no longer limited to human beings, and can freely combine with the progressive and "have." It can also be reduced to "ll." These advancements make it possible to view will as a future tense indicator.

A new grammatical category has emerged as a result of Will's grammaticalization process. Among other writers, this theory of the presence of the three tenses (present, past, and future) is found in Klein (1994) and Hatav (1993).

According to König (1995), the list of tenses in those systems that distinguish six English tenses often comprises the following:

- a. Present
- b. Past
- c. Future tense

- d. Present perfect (= perfect)
- e. Past perfect (= pluperfect)
- f. Future perfect (= future II)

This model is frequently based on the Latin grammar model and the premise that combinatorial tenses like the last three are only ostensibly compositional, or from a morphological perspective, while being largely non-compositional semantically ("the combinatorial formal make-up of present perfect, past perfect, and future perfect has no parallel in a compositional derivation of their meaning").

Simple phrases like perfect and pluperfect illustrate the more-than-two tense approach.

### 3. Eight tense approach

The conditional tense and the conditional perfect are two additional tenses that Declerck (1990) adds to the preceding six. Declerck argues against analyzing combinatorial tenses from a compositional perspective. He makes two additional assumptions in order to explain how tenses are used in narrative speech because, in his opinion, they do not fit into any other category: At 6 o'clock, She would have left the restaurant.

The present and past are the only two tenses that can be distinguished morphologically. Auxiliaries are used to create all other tenses. The initial auxiliary (= the operator, i.e. either have or will) in these other tenses is morphologically in the present tense or the past tense, respectively (Declerck 2006). These other tenses are known as "complex tenses."

A present time sphere is created by all tenses that display present tense inflection (present perfect, future, and future perfect). The past time-sphere is created by all tenses

that exhibit past tense morphology (past perfect, conditional tense, and conditional perfect; see Declerck 2006).

According to Declerck, the term "time-sphere" means: The split of time into the past and future is reflected in English tenses. The fact that all tenses contain either a past or a nonpast (present) tense morpheme serves as the primary support for this. Future tense morphemes don't exist (2006). The many tenses are located in two time-spheres, which is how Declerck depicts this mental division of time.

Tenses are regarded as the most significant and essential components of speech in the English language. Every statement is illogical without tenses. We must understand the proper way to employ tenses in sentences in order to structure a sentence and clearly communicate the information. We can explain the context of the material and communicate more effectively by using different tenses.

The term "tense" in English is derived from the Latin word "tempus," which meaning "time." Talking about tenses involves discussing the time that denotes the beginning, continuation, and conclusion of an event or events.

Therefore, English tenses primarily discuss the period at which an event or series of events occurred. Generally speaking, an event can take place now, in the past, or in the future. In contrast to Indonesian, the English language bases the verb's use on a description of time. Consequently, the verb might have been referring to the past, the present, or the future. The tense present is used to refer to the present moment. The sentence that refers to the time of the call will be in the future tense, whereas a phrase that refers to previous time is known as past tense.

There are main tense in english:

1. Present tense
2. Past tense



### 3. Future tense

The third occasion was nonetheless of a generic kind. Each form is broken down into four pieces, namely the simplest form, present participle, perfect form, perfect form, and perfect continuous. The four sections that make up each of the four main tenses in English are as follows:

1. Simple
2. Continuous / progressive
3. Perfect
4. Perfect continuous / progressive

## 1.2 Present Tense

### 1. Simple Present Tense

When speaking generally about anything, the present tense is employed. Additionally, it is employed when referring to recurring events or routine tasks. Adverbs of time like every day, every week, every year, on Mondays, after school, etc. are used in the simple present tense. The simple present tense uses the following frequency adverbs: always, frequently, usually, occasionally, rarely, never, etc.

| Pattern                          |
|----------------------------------|
| {+} S + V1 + O/C                 |
| {-} S + Do/does + not + V1 + O/C |
| {?} Do/does + S + V1 + O/C       |

Example :

{+} Sisca Reads book everyday

{-} Sisca does not Read books everyday

{?} does Sisca Read book everyday

|                                        |
|----------------------------------------|
| Yes He does / No He does not (doesn't) |
| For I, We, You, They = do              |
| He, She, It = Does                     |

Example in sentences :

- a. (+) She is a new person here.
- b. (+) He plays football every morning (-) She isn't a new person here.
- c. (-) He does not play football every morning. (?) Is she a new people here?
- d. (?) How to play football every morning?

## 2. Present Continuous Tense

When discussing an event that is currently occurring, we employ the present continuous tense. When discussing an event that is occurring roughly at the moment of speaking but not definitely at the time of speaking, we also use the present continuous tense. The adverbs of time used in present continuous tense are now, right now, tomorrow, etc.

| Pattern                           | Example                            |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| {+} S + Be + V1 + ing + O/C       | They are playing badminton now     |
| {-} S + Be + not + V1 + ing + O/C | They are not playing badminton now |
| {?} Be + S + V1 + ing + O/C       | Are they playing badminton now?    |

|                                  |
|----------------------------------|
| Yes, They are / no, they are not |
| For I = am                       |
| They, we, you = are              |
| He, She, It = Is                 |

Example in sentences :

- a. (+) He is playing badminton now
- b. (-) He isn't playing badminton now.
- c. (?) Is he playing badminton now.

### 3. Present Perfect Tense

We often use the present perfect tense to give new information or to announce recent happenings.

| Pattern                          |
|----------------------------------|
| {+} S + have/has +V3 + O/C       |
| {-} S + have/has+ not + V3 + O/C |

|                             |
|-----------------------------|
| {?}Have/Has + S + V3 + O/C? |
|-----------------------------|

Example :

(+) you have eaten my apple.

(-) she has not been to Rome

(?) have you finished your lunch?

#### 4. Present Perfect Continuous Tense

We frequently use the present perfect continuous tense to announce or offer information about events that have already occurred at a specific moment but are still ongoing as we speak.

| Pattern                               |
|---------------------------------------|
| (+): S + have/has + been + Ving       |
| (-): S + have/has + not + been + Ving |
| (?): Have/has + S + been + Ving       |

Example :

(+) She has been going to Malang since evening.

(+) We have been riding a horse for three days

(-) She hasn't been going to Malang since evening.

(-) We haven't been riding a horse for three days.

(?) Has she been going to Malang?

(?) Have He been riding a horse for three days?

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# CHAPTER 2

## PAST TENSE

*By Rina Marliana*

Past tense is a form of sentence that expresses events in the past. The time signals are: yesterday, last week, two day ago, last year, and so on.

### 2.1 Simple Past

Simple past tense is a form of time used to describe events or actions that were carried out at a certain time in the past in simple form. This type of tense uses V2 and past auxiliary words (did/was/were).

Some typical time expressions with this tense are yesterday, last week, a year ago, the other day, after that, on Friday in 2001, and so on (Eastwood, 2002).

#### **Formula**

##### **1. Verbal**

- (+) Subject + verb 2 + object
- (-) Subject + did + not + verb 1 + object
- (?) Did + subject + verb 1 + object?

#### **Example:**

- (+) He played badminton yesterday.
  - (-) He did not play badminton yesterday.
  - (?) Did he play badminton yesterday?
- 
- (+) Jessica bought a new dress two days ago.
  - (-) Jessica did not buy a new dress two days ago.
  - (?) Did Jessica buy a new dress two days ago?

- (+) We went to the market last night.
- (-) We did not go to the market last night.
- (?) Did we go to the market last night?

- (+) I walked to campus last week.
- (-) I did not walk to campus last week.
- (?) Did I walk to campus last week?

- (+) Jason joined English Club class at school a year ago.
- (-) Jason did not join English Club class at school a year ago.
- (?) Did Jason join English Club class at school a year ago?

- (+) They wore the white dress the other day.
- (-) They did not wear the white dress the other day.
- (?) Did they wear white dress the other day?

- (+) My niece saw my phone on the table a hour ago.
- (-) My niece did not see my phone on the table a hour ago.
- (?) Did my niece see my phone on the table a hour ago?

- (+) Grace attended Math class this week.
- (-) Grace did not attend Math class this week.
- (?) Did Grace attend Math class this week?

- (+) Siena moved to the class last month.
- (-) Siena did not move to the class last month.
- (?) Did Siena move to the class last month?

- (+) My nephew fell off the bike last year.
- (-) My nephew did not fall off the bike last year.
- (?) Did my nephew off the bike last year?



## 2. Nominal

(+) Subject + to be (was/were) + complement  
(noun/adjective/adverb)

(-) Subject + to be was/were + not + complement  
(noun/adjective/adverb)

(?) To be (was/were) + Subject + complement  
(noun/adjective/adverb)?

### **Example:**

(+) I was a student.

(-) I was not a student.

(?) Was I a student?

(+) Soeharto was the second President of Indonesia.

(-) Soeharto was not the second President of Indonesia.

(?) Was Soeharto the second President of Indonesia?

(+) Jony and I were there last night.

(-) Jony and I were not there last night.

(?) Were Jony and I there last night?

(+) I was born in 2001.

(-) I was not born in 2001.

(?) Was I born in 2001?

(+) They were humble.

(-) They were not humble.

(?) Were they humble?

(+) I was famous singer.

(-) I was not famous singer.

(?) Was I famous singer?

(+) They were a badminton player in 2000.

(-) They were not a badminton player in 2000.  
(?) Were they a badminton player in 2000?

(+) Jack was happy yesterday.  
(-) Jack was not happy yesterday.  
(?) Was Jack happy yesterday?

(+) I was happy to work here.  
(-) I was not happy to work here.  
(?) Was I happy to work here?

(+) Cassandra was an actress.  
(-) Cassandra was not an actress.  
(?) Was Cassandra an actress?

## 2.2 Past Continuous

Past continuous tense is generally used to express actions, conditions or events that were taking place in the past when other conditions or actions occurred.

### Formula

#### 1. Verbal

(+) Subject + was/were + verb-ing + object  
(-) Subject + was/were + not + verb-ing + object  
(?) Was/were + subject + verb-ing + object?

#### Example:

(+) She was calling her father when her friend came yesterday.  
(-) She was not calling her father when her friend came yesterday.  
(?) Was she calling her father when her friend came yesterday?  
(+) They were singing when I came to their house last night.

(-) They were not singing when I came to their house last night.

(?) Were they singing when I came to their house last night?

(+) I was eating when my mother called me.

(-) I was not eating when my mother called me.

(?) Was I eating when my mother called me?

(+) She was reading a novel when I went to the market.

(-) She was not reading a novel when I went to the market.

(?) Was she reading a novel when I went to the market?

(+) My father was fishing in the river last week.

(-) My father was not fishing in the river last week.

(?) Was my father fishing in the river last week?

(+) Jenny and Jonny were swimming at eight o'clock yesterday morning.

(-) Jenny and Jonny were not swimming at eight o'clock yesterday morning.

(?) Were Jenny and Jonny swimming at eight o'clock yesterday morning?

(+) He was eating a bread while I was reading a book.

(-) He was not eating a bread while I was reading a book.

(?) Was He eating a bread while I was reading a book?

(+) George was playing basketball while John was reading a comic.

(-) George was not playing basketball while John was reading a comic.

(?) Was George playing basketball while John was reading a comic?

(+) My brother was washing his bike when I was making a cake.

(-) My brother was not washing his bike when I was making a cake.

(?) Was my brother washing his bike when I was making a cake?

(+) Gabriella was studying English at 10 am last week.

(-) Gabriella was not studying English at 10 am last week.

(?) Was Gabrielle studying English at 10 am last week?

**Note:**

When the past continuous shows that an action occurred first and was still going on when the second action occurred, this tense is paired with the simple past tense.

**Past continuous + when + simple past**

**Example:**

They were watching a drama when the book fell on the floor (*the event occurred before and was still ongoing when the book fell to the floor*)

**Note:**

When the past continuous tense shows two actions taking place simultaneously, these tenses are combined into 2 sentences with the same formula (using the past continuous tense).

**Past continuous + while + past continuous**

**Example:**

She was watching a movie while he was reading a novel (*both events happened simultaneously in the past*)

## 2.3 Past Perfect

Past perfect tense is a form of time that is used to describe an action that was completed in the past or to describe a situation or event that has occurred. In general, it emphasizes the circumstances or events that happened earlier. It uses *had* and *verb 3*.

### Formula

#### 1. Verbal

- (+) Subject + had + verb 3 + object.
- (-) Subject + had + not + verb 3 + object.
- (?) Had + Subject + verb 3 + object?

#### ***Example:***

- (+) I had finished my homework before I went to bed.
  - (-) I had not finished my homework before I went to bed.
  - (?) Had I finished my homework before I went to bed?
- 
- (+) They had slept when she came yesterday.
  - (-) They had not slept when she came yesterday.
  - (?) Had they slept when she came yesterday?
- 
- (+) They had gone to the library before I came here.
  - (-) They had not gone to the library before I came here.
  - (?) Had they to the library before I came here?
- 
- (+) Ibrahim had studied before he took the TOAFL test.
  - (-) Ibrahim had not studied before he took the TOAFL test.
  - (?) Had Ibrahim studied before he took the TOAFL test?
- 
- (+) My teacher had slept.
  - (-) My teacher had not slept.
  - (?) Had my teacher slept?

(+) The cupcake had run out when I came two hours ago.  
(-) The cupcake had not run out when I came two hours ago.

(?) Had the cupcake run out when I came two hours ago?

(+) Sean had come here after his mother called him.

(-) Sean had not come here after his mother called him.

(?) Had Sean come here after his mother called him?

(+) I had read a novel twice before my friend borrowed it.

(-) I had not read a novel twice before my friend borrowed it.

(?) Had I read a novel twice before my friend borrowed it?

(+) I had done my task before you called me.

(-) I had not done my task before you called me.

(?) Had I done my task before you called me?

(+) My father had worked in the garden when my brother came.

(-) My father had not worked in the garden when my brother came.

(?) Had my father worked in the garden when my brother came?

## 2. Nominal

(+) Subject + had + been + Complement  
(Noun/Adjective/Adverb)

(-) Subject + had + not + been + Complement  
(Noun/Adjective/Adverb)

(?) Had + Subject + been + Complement  
(Noun/Adjective/Adverb)?

**Example:**

(+) Lien had been a doctor when she went to abroad.  
(-) Lien had not been a doctor when she went to abroad.  
(?) Had Lien been a doctor when she went to abroad?

(+) They had been angry.  
(-) They had not been angry.  
(?) Had they been angry?

(+) Her mother had been a teacher when she was six.  
(-) Her mother had not been a teacher when she was six.  
(?) Had her mother been a teacher when she was six?

(+) She had been a lecturer in this campus before she moved to Jakarta.  
(-) She had not been a lecturer in this campus before she moved to Jakarta.  
(?) Had she been a lecturer in this campus before she moved to Jakarta?

(+) I had been happy.  
(-) I had not been happy.  
(?) Had I been happy?

(+) My sister had been here for four hours.  
(-) My sister had not been here for four hours.  
(?) Had my sister been here for four hours?

(+) Rahmat had been in USA.  
(-) Rahmat had not been in USA.  
(?) Had Rahmat been in USA?

(+) My uncle had been a writer when I was ten.  
(-) My uncle had not been a writer when I was ten.

(?) Had my uncle been a writer when I was ten?

(+) She had been a princess.

(-) She had not been a princess.

(?) Had she been a princess?

(+) They had been soulmate.

(-) They had not been soulmate.

(?) Had they been soulmate?

**Note:**

*Past perfect tense sentences must be paired with past tense sentences*

**Past perfect + when + simple past**

**Past perfect + before + simple past**

**Past perfect + after + simple past**

## **2.4 Past Perfect Continuous**

Past perfect continuous tense is a form of time used to express an action or situation that started and is still ongoing in the past.

### **Formula**

#### **1. Verbal**

(+) Subject + had + been + verb-ing + object.

(-) Subject + had + not + been + verb-ing + object.

(?) Had + subject + been + verb-ing + object?

### **Example:**

(+) They had been playing badminton before they finished their exam.

(-) They had not been playing badminton before they finished their exam.



(?) Had they been playing badminton before they finished their exam?

(+) I had been watching tiktok all day.

(-) I had not been watching tiktok all day.

(?) Had I been watching tiktok all day?

(+) Juan had been going out for three minutes when I arrived at his house.

(-) Juan had not been going out for three minutes when I arrived at his house.

(?) Had Juan been going out for three minutes when I arrived at his house?

(+) Chiko had been swimming for an hour when it started raining.

(-) Chiko had not been swimming for an hour when it started raining.

(?) Had Chiko been swimming for an hour when it started raining?

(+) Selena had been going to the hospital.

(-) Selena had not been going to the hospital.

(?) Had Selena been going to the hospital?

(+) My father had been working all day.

(-) My father had not been working all day.

(?) Had my father been working all day?

(+) I had been studying in Majene for four years before I moved to another campus.

(-) I had not been studying in Majene for four years before I moved to another campus.

(?) Had I been studying in Majene for four years before I moved to another campus?

(+) She had been cooking here.

(-) She had not been cooking here.

(?) Had she been cooking here?

(+) Zain had been going to the pet shop when I called him.

(-) Zain had not been going to the pet shop when I called him.

(?) Had Zain been going to the pet shop when I called him?

(+) Marcel had been walking ten miles a week before he broke his leg.

(-) Marcel had not been walking ten miles a week before he broke his leg.

(?) Had Marcel been walking ten miles a week before he broke his leg?

### COMMON IRREGULAR VERBS

| Verb 1 | Verb 2 | Verb 3 | Meaning                   |
|--------|--------|--------|---------------------------|
| Buy    | Bought | Bought | Membeli                   |
| Sleep  | Slept  | Slept  | Tidur                     |
| Go     | Went   | Gone   | Pergi                     |
| Eat    | Ate    | Eaten  | Makan                     |
| Break  | Broke  | Broken | Merusak                   |
| Swim   | Swam   | Swum   | Berenang                  |
| Come   | Came   | Come   | Datang                    |
| Do     | Did    | Done   | Mengerjakan,<br>melakukan |
| Read   | Read   | Read   | Membaca                   |
| Take   | Took   | Taken  | Mengambil                 |
| Make   | Made   | Made   | Membuat                   |

| Verb 1 | Verb 2  | Verb 3    | Meaning      |
|--------|---------|-----------|--------------|
| Wear   | Wore    | Worn      | Memakai      |
| See    | Saw     | Seen      | Melihat      |
| Fall   | Fell    | Fallen    | Jatuh        |
| Sing   | Sang    | Sung      | Menyanyi     |
| Hang   | Hung    | Hung      | Menggantung  |
| Leave  | Left    | Left      | Meninggalkan |
| Forbid | Forbade | Forbidden | Melarang     |
| Teach  | Taught  | Taught    | Mengajar     |
| Tell   | Told    | Told      | Menceritakan |
| Write  | Wrote   | Written   | Menulis      |
| Get    | Got     | Got       | Mendapatkan  |
| Fly    | Flew    | Flown     | Terbang      |
| Have   | Had     | Had       | Memiliki     |
| Cut    | Cut     | Cut       | Memotong     |

### COMMON REGULAR VERBS

| Verb 1 | Verb 2  | Verb 3  | Meaning               |
|--------|---------|---------|-----------------------|
| Play   | Played  | Played  | Bermain               |
| Walk   | Walked  | Walked  | Berjalan              |
| Join   | Joined  | Joined  | Mengikuti             |
| Cook   | Cooked  | Cooked  | Memasak               |
| Call   | Called  | Called  | Memanggil             |
| Study  | Studied | Studied | Belajar               |
| Move   | Moved   | Moved   | Memindahkan           |
| Work   | Worked  | Worked  | Bekerja               |
| Start  | Started | Started | Mulai                 |
| Arrive | Arrived | Arrived | Tiba, sampai          |
| Watch  | Watched | Watched | Memperhatikan, nonton |

|         |          |          |                |
|---------|----------|----------|----------------|
| Finish  | Finished | Finished | Menyelesaikan  |
| Borrow  | Borrowed | Borrowed | Meminjam       |
| Wash    | Washed   | Washed   | Mencuci        |
| Attend  | Attended | Attended | Menghadiri     |
| Sign    | Signed   | Signed   | Menandatangani |
| Use     | Used     | Used     | Menggunakan    |
| Visit   | Visited  | Visited  | Mengunjungi    |
| Show    | Showed   | Showed   | Menunjukkan    |
| Push    | Pushed   | Pushed   | Mendorong      |
| Receive | Received | Received | Menerima       |
| Return  | Returned | Returned | Mengembalikan  |
| Like    | Liked    | Liked    | Menyukai       |
| Divide  | Divided  | Divided  | Membagi        |
| Help    | Helped   | Helped   | Menolong       |

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# CHAPTER 3

## FUTURE TENSE

*By Rozita Yusniaty Lodo*

The future is a mystery. We are familiar with the history. We are aware of the current situation. We do not know what will happen in the future. We can be absolutely confident about the past and present. However, we can never be completely confident of the future. To discuss the future in English, there are numerous structures and tenses. Our choice of structure or tense is typically determined by our level of assurance about the future. In English language it is impossible to explain the future with absolute confidence.

### 3.1 What is simple future tense?

Simple future tense is used to refer to future events. The simple future tense is used to describe activities or conditions that occur in the future and end in the future. These events have not yet occurred, but will happen sometime in the future.

|                                             |
|---------------------------------------------|
| Subject + will + root form of verb (verb 1) |
|---------------------------------------------|

Examples:

1. Michaello *will meet* his girl friend at the theater.
2. They *will eat* bread for lunch.

### When should you use the simple future tense?

In general, we employ the simple future tense for a variety of purposes. Here are some of the most prevalent reasons for using this tense.

1. We frequently use the simple future tense to make predictions or assumptions about the future. These predictions can be confident or uncertain.

Examples:

- a. Christie and Michael said they *will come* tomorrow.
  - b. I think I *will go* the mall on Monday.
2. We can also use the simple future tense to ask about the future.

Examples:

- a. *Will* we go to meet our teacher this afternoon?
  - b. *Will* they come to visit us next month?
3. We can also use the simple future tense to indicate future facts.

Examples:

- a. Christie *will* turn 4 next year.
  - b. The price of rice *will* increase by next month.
4. When considering future possibilities or conditions, we employ the simple future tense.

Example:

If I fail the exam, my brother *will* not lend me his phone anymore.

5. We can make commands using the simple future tense.

Example:

You *will* study hard or else you *will* fail.

In American English, the usage of *shall* with *I* or *we* to denote future time is conceivable but unusual. *Shall* is more commonly used in British English than in American English.



## Exercises

Complete the sentences with **I'll** + a suitable verb.

- 1 'How are you going to get home?' 'I think I'll take a taxi.'
- 2 'It's cold in this room.' 'Is it?' '..... on the heating then.'
- 3 'Are you free next Friday?' 'Let me see. .... my diary.'
- 4 'Shall I do the washing-up?' 'No, it's all right. .... it later.'
- 5 'I don't know how to use this phone.' 'OK, .... you.'
- 6 'Would you like tea or coffee?' '..... coffee, please.'
- 7 'Are you coming with us?' 'No, I think ..... here.'
- 8 'Can you finish this report today?' 'Well, ....., but I can't promise.'

Read the situations and write sentences with **I think I'll ...** or **I don't think I'll ...**.

- 1 It's a bit cold. The window is open and you decide to close it. You say:  
It's cold with the window open. I think I'll close it.
- 2 You are feeling tired and it's getting late. You decide to go to bed. You say:  
I'm tired, so ..... Goodnight!
- 3 The weather is nice and you need some exercise. You decide to go for a walk. You say:  
It's a lovely morning. .... Do you want to come too?
- 4 You were going to have lunch. Now you decide you don't want to eat anything. You say:  
I don't feel hungry any more. .... lunch.
- 5 You planned to go swimming today. Now you decide not to go. You say:  
I've got a lot to do, so ..... today.

Which is correct?

- 1 'Did you call Max?' 'Oh no, I forgot. I call / I'll call him now.' (I'll call is correct)
- 2 I can't meet you tomorrow morning. I'm playing / I'll play tennis. (I'm playing is correct)
- 3 'I meet' / I'll meet you outside the hotel at 10.30, OK?' 'Yes, that's fine.'
- 4 'Please don't go yet.' 'OK, I'm staying' / I'll stay a little longer, but I have to go soon.'
- 5 I'm having / I'll have a party next Saturday. I hope you can come.
- 6 'Remember to lock the door when you go out.' 'OK. I don't forget / I won't forget.'
- 7 'Do you have any plans for the weekend?' 'Yes, we're going / we'll go to a wedding.'
- 8 'Are you doing' / Will you do anything tomorrow evening?' 'No, I'm free. Why?'
- 9 'Do you do' / Will you do something for me?' 'It depends. What do you want me to do?'
- 10 'Do you go' / Will you go to work by car?' 'Not usually. I prefer to walk.'
- 11 I asked Sue what happened, but she doesn't tell / won't tell me.

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## 3.2 Be Going To

We can represent the future using "*be going to + infinitive*."  
*subject + be (am/is/are) + going to + infinitive*

1. Be going to= have already determined/decided to do something.

Examples:

- a. I *am going to* class at 10 a.m
  - b. We *are going to* have dinner at the garden this evening.
  - c. My Dad *is leaving* tomorrow.
2. You might also state that something is going to happen in the future.

Examples:

It's 9.50 a.m. The meeting will be started at 10 a.m. Michael *is going to* be late.

When we declare that "something is going to happen," the situation now confirms it.

3. Future events and scenarios (forecasting the future)  
For future events and situations, we employ both will and going to. So you may say:
  - a. I believe the weather will be great later.
  - b. Those are high-quality shoes. They will last for a long time.

## Exercises.

Complete the sentences using **will ('ll)** or **(be) going to**.

- 1 A: Why are you turning on the TV?  
B: I'm going to watch the news. (I / watch)
- 2 A: I forgot my wallet. I don't have any money.  
B: Not to worry. .... you some. (I / lend)
- 3 A: Why are you filling that bucket with water?  
B: ..... the car. (I / wash)
- 4 A: I don't know how to use the washing machine.  
B: It's easy. .... you. (I / show)
- 5 A: I've decided to paint this room.  
B: That's nice. What colour ..... it? (you / paint)
- 6 A: Where are you going? Are you going shopping?  
B: Yes, ..... some things for dinner tonight. (I / buy)
- 7 A: What would you like to eat?  
B: ..... a pizza, please. (I / have)
- 8 A: This food doesn't taste very good, does it?  
B: No, it's horrible. .... it. (I / not / finish)
- 9 A: Tom is starting an evening class next month.  
B: Is he? What ..... ? (he / study)
- 10 A: Did you call Lisa?  
B: Oh, no. I completely forgot. .... her now. (I / call)
- 11 A: Has Dan decided what to do when he leaves school?  
B: Yes. Everything is planned.  
First ..... a holiday for a few weeks. (he / have)  
Then ..... a management training course. (he / do)

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## 3.3 Future Progressive

The future progressive expresses an activity that will be taking place at some point in the future.

**Pattern: Subject + will + be + -ing form**

### Examples:

1. I will go to bed at seven. You will come at eight. I will be sleeping when you come.

2. Do not go to Christie's house at eight because she will not be home. She is going to be studying at the library.

Sometimes there is little or no distinction between the future progressive and the simple future, particularly when the future event occurs at an indefinite point in the future.

Examples:

1. Do not worry. They *will come* soon
2. Do not worry. They *will be coming* soon.

## Exercises

*Directions:* Use the future progressive or the simple present.

1. Right now I am attending class. Yesterday at this time, I was attending class.  
Tomorrow at this time, I *(attend)* \_\_\_\_\_ class.
2. Tomorrow I'm going to leave for home. When I *(arrive)* \_\_\_\_\_  
at the airport, my whole family *(wait)* \_\_\_\_\_ for me.
3. When I *(get)* \_\_\_\_\_ up tomorrow morning, the sun *(shine)* \_\_\_\_\_,  
the birds *(sing)* \_\_\_\_\_, and my  
roommate *(lie, still)* \_\_\_\_\_ in bed fast asleep.
4. A: When do you leave for Florida?  
B: Tomorrow. Just think! Two days from now  
I *(lie)* \_\_\_\_\_ on the  
beach in the sun.  
A: Sounds great! I *(think)* \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_ about you.
5. A: How can I get in touch with you while  
you're out of town?



- B: I (*stay*) \_\_\_\_\_ at the Pilgrim Hotel. You can reach me there.
6. Next year at this time, I (*do*) \_\_\_\_\_ exactly what I am doing now. I (*attend*) \_\_\_\_\_ school and (*study*) \_\_\_\_\_ hard next year.
7. Look at those dark clouds. When class (*be*) \_\_\_\_\_ over, it (*rain, probably*) \_\_\_\_\_.
8. A: Are you going to be in town next Saturday?  
B: No. I (*visit, in Chicago*)\* \_\_\_\_\_ my aunt.
9. A: Where are you going to be this evening?  
B: I (*work, at the library*) \_\_\_\_\_ on my research paper.

Betty Azar. Understanding and Using English Grammar, Third Edition with Answer Key. 2002

### 3.4 Future Perfect

The future perfect defines an activity that will be finished before another time or event in the future.

The future perfect is constructed by combining the future modal *will*, the base verb *have*, and the main verb's *past participle*.

**Pattern: subject + will + have + past participle**

#### Examples:

1. I will have finished my lunch by 12 o'clock.
2. They will have played tennis by 11 o'clock.

### 3.5 Future Perfect Progressive

The future perfect progressive stresses the duration of an action that will take place before to another time or occurrence in the future.

**Pattern: subject + will + have + been + verb -ing**

## Examples:

- Christie will go to bed at eight. Michael will arrive home at nine. Christie will have been sleeping for an hour by the time Michael arrives.

## Exercises

Put the verb into the correct form, will be (do)ing or will have (done).

- 1 Don't phone between 7 and 8. We'll be eating then. (we / eat)
- 2 Tomorrow afternoon we're going to play tennis from 3 o'clock until 4.30. So at 4 o'clock, \_\_\_\_\_ tennis. (we / play)
- 3 Sarah will meet you at the station. \_\_\_\_\_ for you when you arrive. (she / wait)
- 4 The meeting starts at 9.30 and won't last longer than an hour. You can be sure that \_\_\_\_\_ by 11 o'clock. (it / finish)
- 5 Do you think \_\_\_\_\_ in the same place in ten years' time? (you / still / live)
- 6 Lisa is travelling in Europe and so far she has travelled about 1,000 miles. By the end of the trip, \_\_\_\_\_ more than 3,000 miles. (she / travel)
- 7 If you need to contact me, \_\_\_\_\_ at the Lion Hotel until Friday. (I / stay)
- 8 Ben is on holiday and is spending his money very quickly. If he continues like this, \_\_\_\_\_ all his money before the end of his holiday. (he / spend)
- 9 I'm fed up with my job. I hope \_\_\_\_\_ it much longer. (I / not / do)

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# CHAPTER 4

## NOUN

*By Meladina*

### 4.1 Introduction

In the vast landscape of English grammar, one fundamental element serves as the bedrock of expression, providing stability and structure to the sentences: the noun. As we traverse the realms of language, from the simplest utterances to the most eloquent prose, nouns stand as steadfast companions, bringing life and meaning to our words. But beyond their conventional role as naming words, nouns possess a remarkable versatility, bestowing upon them a unique significance within the English language.

This chapter embarks on a captivating journey into the world of nouns in English grammar. We will explore the various forms they take, their indispensable functions in constructing sentences, and the essential role they play in conveying ideas and concepts. From common nouns that identify ordinary objects to proper nouns that give identity to specific entities, we will uncover the nuances and intricacies that make nouns an indispensable aspect of linguistic expression.

Supported by a wealth of research and expert insights, we will unravel the mysteries of nouns, diving into their classifications, inflections, and the ways they interact with other elements of speech. Through illuminating examples and comprehensive analysis, we will discover how nouns serve as the backbone of sentence structures, enabling us to convey our thoughts, emotions, and experiences with clarity and precision.

Throughout this exploration, the explanation will delve into the curious world of pronouns, as they are intrinsically tied to nouns and often relieve us from repetitive language. We will learn how these linguistic chameleons take on the roles of their noun counterparts, deftly sliding into sentences to maintain flow and coherence.

## **4.2 Definition and Classification of Noun**

### **4.2.1 Definition**

A noun is a fundamental part of speech in English grammar. According to Ulfah and Hidayat (2020) noun is the most crucial part in part of speech. It may include living things and non-living things. Besides, Meladina & hermi zaswita (2021) stated that noun is one of the words that used to describe place, things, person, animal, idea or feeling. A noun also serves as the naming word for entities and concepts, allowing us to refer to specific objects or abstract notions in communication. Nouns form the backbone of sentences, providing the subject, object, or complement that gives meaning and structure to language.

### **4.2.2 Classification**

Nouns can be classified into various categories based on different criteria. The primary classifications of nouns are:

#### **1. Common Nouns:**

Common nouns refer to general, everyday entities and are not capitalized unless they begin a sentence. They represent categories of people, places, things, or ideas rather than specific individuals or entities. Examples include:

person: teacher, student

place: city, park

thing: book, table

idea: courage, freedom

## 2. Proper Nouns:

Proper nouns refer to specific individuals, places, organizations, or entities, and they are always capitalized. Proper nouns distinguish unique items from general categories and help to identify them uniquely. Examples include:

person: John, Mary

place: New York, Eiffel Tower

organization: Google, NASA

## 3. Countable Nouns:

Countable nouns are entities that can be counted as discrete units and can take both singular and plural forms. We can use numerals with countable nouns. Examples include:

singular: dog, cat, chair

plural: dogs, cats, chairs

## 4. Uncountable Nouns:

Uncountable nouns, also known as mass nouns, represent substances, concepts, or qualities that cannot be counted as individual units. They only have a singular form and are used with "much" or "some" rather than with numerals. Examples include:

water, sugar, happiness

## 5. Collective Nouns:

Collective nouns refer to groups of people, animals, or objects considered as a single unit. They can take a singular or plural verb depending on whether the emphasis is on the group as a whole or on its individual members. Examples include:

team, family, herd

## 6. Abstract Nouns:

Abstract nouns represent intangible concepts, emotions, qualities, or states that cannot be perceived through the senses. They express ideas and feelings. Examples include:

love, courage, happiness

#### 7. Concrete Nouns:

Concrete nouns refer to tangible objects that can be perceived through the senses. They represent things that can be seen, touched, heard, smelled, or tasted. Examples include:

tree, car, bell

Understanding the different classifications of nouns is essential for constructing grammatically correct and meaningful sentences. Nouns form the foundation of language, allowing us to communicate effectively and express our thoughts, experiences, and ideas with clarity and precision.

### 4.3 Function

The function of nouns in language is of great significance as they play various essential roles in constructing sentences and conveying meaning. Based on expert opinions from linguists and language scholars, here are the key functions of nouns:

#### 1. Subject of a Sentence:

The subject is the central element of a sentence that performs the action or is being described. Nouns often function as subjects, providing the main focus of the sentence. For example:

"The cat" sat on the mat.

"Mount Everest" is the tallest peak in the world.

#### 2. Object of a Verb:

Nouns can also act as objects in a sentence, receiving the action of the verb. There are two types of objects: direct objects and indirect objects. For example:

She bought "a book."

He gave "his sister" a gift.

3. Object of a Preposition:

Nouns frequently serve as the object of a preposition, indicating the relationship between the noun and other words in the sentence. For example:

The bird is "on the branch."

He lives "in the city."

4. Complement:

Nouns can act as complements, completing the meaning of a subject or object in a sentence. There are two types of complements: subject complements and object complements. For example:

"She is a doctor." (subject complement)

"They elected him president." (object complement)

5. Appositive:

Nouns can be used as appositives, which provide additional information about another noun in the sentence. They are set off by commas and offer clarification or description. For example:

My friend, "Alice," is an artist.

The capital of France, "Paris," is a popular tourist destination.

6. Noun of Address:

Nouns can be used to address someone directly in a sentence. This is known as the noun of address. For example:

"John," could you pass me the salt?

"Ladies and gentlemen," thank you for coming.

7. Noun Phrase:

Nouns often form the core of noun phrases, which include modifiers like adjectives, determiners, and other words that provide additional information. Noun phrases can function as subjects, objects, or complements in sentences. For example:

"The tall man" is my uncle.  
She saw "a beautiful sunset."

#### 8. Possession:

Nouns play a crucial role in indicating possession through the use of possessive forms and apostrophes. This shows ownership or relationship between nouns. For example:

"John's car" is parked outside.

"The dog's bone" was buried in the backyard.

Experts agree that understanding the functions of nouns is fundamental to grasping the mechanics of sentence construction in language. Nouns, as the primary naming words, provide the framework for communication, allowing us to express ideas, actions, and relationships with clarity and coherence.

## 4.4 Gender and Noun Forms

Gender in English nouns does not operate in the same way as it does in some other languages, like Spanish or French, where nouns are assigned grammatical gender (masculine, feminine, or neuter). However, there are certain cases in English where gender distinctions or forms can be relevant. Let's explore these aspects in detail:

#### 1. Natural Gender:

English nouns do not have inherent grammatical gender, but they might reflect natural gender when they refer to living beings. For example:

"Boy" (masculine) and "girl" (feminine) reflect natural gender distinctions.

"Mother" (feminine) and "father" (masculine) also exhibit natural gender.

#### 2. Gender-Neutral Language:

Modern English has seen a growing use of gender-neutral language to be inclusive and respectful. This involves

avoiding gender-specific terms and using gender-neutral alternatives. For example:

Instead of "fireman" or "policeman," use "firefighter" and "police officer."

Instead of "stewardess," use "flight attendant."

### 3. Nouns for Occupations:

While many nouns for occupations have become gender-neutral, some still maintain gender-specific forms due to historical usage. However, these forms are evolving to be more inclusive. For example:

"Actor" and "actress": Many prefer to use "actor" for all genders.

"Waiter" and "waitress": "Server" can be used for both genders.

### 4. Pronouns and Gender:

Pronouns are closely tied to nouns and can reflect gender identity. English has traditionally used "he" for males and "she" for females, but the emergence of gender-neutral pronouns (e.g., "they/them") acknowledges non-binary individuals. For example:

"They went to the park."

"Ze is a writer."

Singular "They":

Using "they" as a singular pronoun to refer to a person of unspecified gender is becoming more widely accepted. It's important for language to be inclusive of all genders. For example:

"A friend called, and they left a message."

### 5. Personal Names:

Names are proper nouns and usually do not indicate gender in English, although certain names might be more traditionally associated with a specific gender. However,

names are becoming more diverse, and gender-neutral names are also common.

6. Gender-Neutral Nouns:

Certain nouns, like "person," "individual," and "human," are inherently gender-neutral and can be used to avoid gender assumptions. For example:

"A person needs to eat."

"Every human deserves respect."

7. Role and Identity:

In discussions about gender and language, it's important to respect individuals' identities and use the nouns, pronouns, and terms they prefer. Language is evolving to be more inclusive and sensitive to gender diversity.

In summary, English nouns themselves do not inherently carry grammatical gender, but gender considerations are present in various aspects of language, including natural gender, gender-neutral language, gendered terms for occupations, and pronouns. As societal attitudes toward gender continue to evolve, language usage also adapts to reflect these changes and to be more inclusive and respectful of diverse gender identities.

## **4.5 Pluralization and Possession**

### **4.5.1 Pluralization**

Pluralization refers to the process of indicating that there is more than one of a particular noun. In English, most nouns form their plurals by adding "-s" to the singular form. However, there are both regular and irregular plural forms.

1. Regular Plural Forms:

Regular pluralization involves simply adding an "-s" to the end of the singular noun. This is the most common pluralization rule.

Singular: cat



Plural: cats

Singular: book

Plural: books

2. Irregular Plural Forms:

Certain nouns have irregular plural forms that do not follow the standard "-s" rule. These forms must be memorized, as they deviate from regular patterns.

Singular: man

Plural: men

Singular: child

Plural: children

Singular: foot

Plural: feet

#### 4.5.2 Possession

Possession in English nouns indicates ownership or relationship between nouns. Possessive forms are used to express this concept. There are two main types of possessive forms: singular possessive and plural possessive.

1. Singular Possessive:

To indicate possession for singular nouns, an apostrophe and an "s" are added to the noun.

The cat's tail (The tail belongs to the cat.)

John's book (The book belongs to John.)

2. Plural Possessive:

For plural nouns, the possessive form is created by adding just an apostrophe after the final "s."

The cats' toys (The toys belong to the cats.)

The students' assignments (The assignments belong to the students.)

3. Common Misconceptions:

Misusing the Apostrophe:

A common mistake is adding an apostrophe before the "s" in plural forms that are not possessive.

Incorrect: The cat's are playing.

Correct: The cats are playing.

Confusing Its and It's:

"Its" is the possessive form of "it," while "it's" is a contraction of "it is" or "it has."

Incorrect: The dog wagged it's tail.

Correct: The dog wagged its tail.

Using Apostrophes for Plural Forms:

Apostrophes are not used to form regular plurals. They are only used to indicate possession.

Incorrect: The cat's are cute.

Correct: The cats are cute.

Overusing Apostrophes:

Some people mistakenly use apostrophes for simple plurals, especially with acronyms or decades.

Incorrect: DVD's for sale.

Correct: DVDs for sale.

Understanding the rules for pluralization and possession is crucial for clear and accurate communication in English writing. Regular and irregular plural forms, along with the correct use of possessive apostrophes, help convey ownership and relationships between nouns effectively. It's important to avoid common misconceptions and mistakes to maintain grammatical accuracy in your writing.

## **4.6 Pronoun and Noun Agreement**

Pronoun and noun agreement are a fundamental aspect of grammar that ensures consistency and clarity in sentences. It refers to the principle that pronouns must match the nouns they refer to in terms of number, gender, and person. This

agreement is crucial to avoid confusion and to convey information accurately. Let's delve into the details:

1. Number Agreement:

Pronouns must agree with nouns in terms of singular and plural forms. If the noun is singular, the pronoun must be singular; if the noun is plural, the pronoun must be plural.

Singular noun: The cat is sleeping. It is resting.

Plural noun: The cats are playing. They are having fun.

2. Gender Agreement:

In English, pronouns do not typically have gender distinctions, except for third-person singular pronouns. However, it's important to use pronouns that match the gender identity of the person or entity being referred to.

He is a doctor. She is a lawyer.

They are talented musicians.

3. Person Agreement:

Pronouns must agree with nouns in terms of person. First-person pronouns (I, we) refer to the speaker or speakers. Second-person pronouns (you) refer to the person or people being spoken to. Third-person pronouns (he, she, it, they) refer to the person or thing being spoken about.

I am going to the store. You are welcome to join.

She is reading a book. They are enjoying it.

Common Pronoun Agreement Mistakes:

**Incorrect:** Everybody must bring their own dish.

**Correct:** Everybody must bring his or her own dish. (or use a gender-neutral pronoun like "their")

**Incorrect:** Each student must submit their assignment.

**Correct:** Each student must submit his or her assignment. (or use a gender-neutral pronoun)

**Incorrect:** The team won't start until they are ready.

**Correct:** The team won't start until it is ready.

**Incorrect:** If anyone has questions, they can ask.

**Correct:** If anyone has questions, he or she can ask. (or use a gender-neutral pronoun)

**Incorrect:** My friend and I are going to the party. They are excited.

**Correct:** My friend and I are going to the party. We are excited.

Maintaining proper pronoun and noun agreement is essential for grammatically correct and effective communication. Using pronouns that match the nouns they refer to helps readers or listeners follow the flow of ideas without confusion. As language evolves to be more inclusive, it's also important to be sensitive to the gender identity of individuals and to use gender-neutral pronouns when appropriate.

## 4.7 Noun Phrases and Modifiers

A noun phrase (NP) is a linguistic structure that consists of a noun or pronoun, known as the head noun, and other words that provide additional information about the noun. These additional words are called modifiers, and together they form a complete unit that functions as a noun within a sentence. Noun phrases are essential for providing context, description, and specificity to the nouns they accompany.

Modifiers within a noun phrase enhance the meaning of the noun by answering questions such as "**What kind?**" or "**Which one?**" They can include adjectives, determiners, numerals, and other words that offer more detail about the noun. Let's explore noun phrases and modifiers in more detail:

### 1. Noun Phrase Structure:

A typical noun phrase consists of a head noun and any modifiers that provide information about that noun. The structure of a noun phrase can be as simple as just the head noun or more complex with multiple modifiers.

Simple Noun Phrase: cat

Noun Phrase with Modifiers: the fluffy white cat

## 2. Modifiers in Noun Phrases:

Modifiers enhance the noun's meaning by providing various types of information. Here are some common types of modifiers found in noun phrases:

**Adjectives:** Adjectives describe or qualify the noun by providing attributes, characteristics, or qualities.

a **blue** sky

the **happy** child

**Determiners:** Determiners indicate the specificity or quantity of the noun and can include articles (a, an, the), demonstratives (this, that), possessives (my, his), and more.

**the** book

**some** apples

**her** cat

**Numerals:** Numerals indicate the quantity of the noun and can be cardinal (one, two) or ordinal (first, second).

**five** friends

the **third** floor

**Prepositional Phrases:** Prepositional phrases provide additional information about the noun's location, time, manner, or other relationships.

the book **on the shelf**

the party **at the park**

**Participial Phrases:** Participial phrases use present participles (-ing) or past participles (-ed) to provide information about the noun.

the boy **playing in the garden**

the cake **baked by my mom**

Importance of Noun Phrases and Modifiers:

Noun phrases and modifiers add depth and specificity to sentences, allowing readers to visualize, understand, and differentiate between different entities. They enrich communication by conveying details, qualities, and relationships, making sentences more vivid and informative.

Example:

The old oak tree in the backyard provided shade during the hot summer days.

In this example, "The old oak tree" is the noun phrase, with "The" as the determiner, "old" as the adjective, and "oak tree" as the head noun. The modifiers collectively paint a detailed picture of the specific tree being referred to.

Understanding noun phrases and modifiers is crucial for constructing descriptive and coherent sentences. They enable effective communication by providing the necessary context and vivid imagery that engage readers or listeners.

## **4.8 Proper Noun and Capitalization**

### **4.8.1 Proper Noun**

Proper nouns are a specific type of noun that refers to unique individuals, specific places, organizations, and other particular entities. These nouns are capitalized, which means that the first letter of each word in a proper noun is written in uppercase, regardless of where it appears in a sentence. Proper nouns help distinguish specific items from general categories and play a crucial role in communication by providing clarity and specificity. Let's dive into the details of proper nouns and their capitalization rules:

#### **1. Individuals:**

Proper nouns are used to refer to individual people, both first names and full names.

**Examples:** John, Mary, Albert Einstein

#### **2. Places:**

Proper nouns denote specific locations, whether they are cities, countries, continents, streets, or landmarks.

**Examples:** Paris, United States, Mount Everest

3. Organizations:

Names of organizations, institutions, companies, and brands are considered proper nouns.

**Examples:** Apple Inc., United Nations, Harvard University

4. Titles:

Proper nouns include titles when used to refer to a specific person or entity.

**Examples:** President Lincoln, Doctor Smith

5. Historical and Cultural References:

Names of historical events, time periods, holidays, and cultural references are proper nouns.

**Examples:** The Renaissance, Christmas, The Great Depression

6. Works of Art and Literature:

Titles of books, movies, songs, paintings, and other creative works are proper nouns.

**Examples:** Mona Lisa, The Great Gatsby, Starry Night

#### 4.8.2 Capitalization

Capitalization Rules for Proper Nouns:

1. First Word in a Sentence:

The first word of a sentence, even if it's a proper noun, is capitalized.

**Example:** Paris is known for its art and culture.

2. Names and Titles:

The first letters of each word in a proper noun are capitalized. This includes given names, surnames, and titles.

**Example:** Albert Einstein was a brilliant physicist.

3. Specific Places:

The names of specific places, whether they are cities, countries, streets, or landmarks, are capitalized.

**Example:** We visited Times Square in New York City.

4. Unique Entities:

Proper nouns referring to unique entities, such as organizations, institutions, and brands, are capitalized.

**Example:** She works for Microsoft.

5. Holidays and Events:

The names of holidays, historical events, and cultural references are capitalized.

**Example:** We celebrate Thanksgiving with a big feast.

6. Titles of Creative Works:

Titles of books, movies, songs, artworks, and similar creations are capitalized.

**Example:** Harry Potter and the Sorcerer's Stone is a popular book.

7. Geographical Features:

Names of geographical features, like rivers, mountains, and oceans, are capitalized.

**Example:** The Amazon River is the second-longest river in the world.

Capitalization is a crucial aspect of grammar that adds clarity and structure to writing. By recognizing and correctly capitalizing proper nouns, you provide readers with essential information about specific entities, locations, and references in your text.



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# CHAPTER 5

## ADJECTIVE

*By Ulfah Syam*

### 5.1 Definition of Adjective

Understanding the use of adjectives is important for everyday language, because the better you speak, people will understand what we are talking about.

There are many elements that make up a sentence, such as subjects, verbs, adjectives, nouns, adverbs, pronouns, and many others. The words that describe or modify other words are called Adjectives. By using adjectives our writing and absolutely our speaking become more interesting and also specific. Examples of adjectives are words like *small*, *blue*, and *sharp*. Adjectives in the sentences usually are positioned before noun or pronoun. Several adjectives sentences contain multiple adjectives. Moreover, when you want to identify or quantify individual people and something unique, the adjectives are used. For examples:

1. Suci lives in a ***big, beautiful and crowded city***
2. Ayu was wearing a ***sleeveless*** since it's a ***hot*** day,
3. Ruli received an ***old*** box filled with ***fragrant***.
4. The bridal room was decorates with ***sparkling***

You need to remember, to identify the different types of adjectives is not hard cause the adjectives can modify and describe other words.

## 5.2 Uses of adjectives

The reader will know that adjective means *what kind of* something you're talking about, or *how much* or *how many* of something you're talking about.

In the garage, there are *five blue cars*.

*From the sentence we can see five and blue* are modifying *cars*.

You sometimes should separate the adjectives by using a comma or you can use a conjunction. For more detail, you can see the coordinate adjectives below:

They want a **spacious, strong-sturdy** house for their living.

My new dress is cool, unique-beautiful.

## 5.3 Degrees of adjectives

As we know that in English grammar, in adjectives there are three forms. They are absolute adjectives, comparative adjectives and superlative adjectives.

### 5.3.1 Absolute adjectives mean such as infinite or can be stand-alone or by itself. For example:

*A **tall** man*

***High** temperature*

*A **busy** girl*

*It's an **awful** picture*

*Those are **mischievous** dogs*

***Handsome** boys*

### 5.3.2 Comparative adjectives,

Comparative adjectives, making comparison between two or more things. Mostly, adding the suffix -er if the words consist of one syllable adjective. Especially, in two syllable adjectives, some adjectives use -er to form them while others use the word more to form the comparative.

Generally, adjectives with two-syllables that ending in *-er*, *-le*, *-ow*, *-ure*, or *-y*, they can be added by *-er*. If the adjectives consist of three syllables or more syllables adjectives, the words are added *more*. For example:

A **taller** man

**Higher** temperature

A **busier** girl

It's **more awful** picture

Those are **more mischievous** dogs

**They are more handsome** boys

### 5.3.3 Superlative adjectives

**Superlative adjectives** mean adjective that shows that the object being described has more qualities than other similar object. To form superlative adjectives you can add suffix *-est* or just *-st* for adjectives that already end in *e*. For adjectives that consist of two-syllable you can use *-est*. While others use the word *most*. For two-syllable adjectives ending in *-y*, they will be replaced *-y* with *-iest*.

For adjectives that consist of three or more syllables add the word of *most*.

When you use superlative adjectives, you will almost always definite article (the) rather than a/an.

For example:

The **tallest** man

**Highest** temperature

The **busiest** girl

The **most awful** picture

The **most mischievous** dogs

The **most handsome** boys.

## 5.4 Types of Adjectives

There are some types of adjective that we need to know.  
They are:

### 5.4.1 The Articles

There are only three articles, they are *a/an* and *the*. All of them are adjectives. *A/An* are called indefinite articles because they are used to discuss non-specific things and people.

For example:

1. You need a
2. *She 'd like an*

The article *the* is called the definite article and indicate it's very specific people or things.

For example:

- a. I need the one with *the* green line.
- b. *She'd like to go to The* Borobudur temple.

### 5.4.2 Possessive Adjectives

The Possessive adjectives mean possession. They are consisting of *my, hours, his, her, hers, it, theirs and ours*.

The Possessive adjectives can be function as the possessive pronouns also.

Examples:

1. *Alya described her dream to me*
2. *Yogi and Hani are with their parents*
3. *Bayu lost his keys*
4. *My house costs a lot*
5. *Safira will be very happy if she tastes my homemade tart.*
6. *Our party will be heald successfully*
7. *Her face is very cute*
8. *Our party will be heald successfully*

### 5.4.3 Demonstrative Adjectives

The Demonstrative adjectives mean indicate or explain specific people, animals, or things. They are consisting of *these*, *those*, *this* and *that*. For Examples:

1. *Do you want these pens?*
2. *This* picture is beautiful.
3. Those women are in the office.
4. *This* hospital was where I was born.
5. I am not in a situation to lend you money at *this* moment.
6. The ambience of that cafe is soothing.
7. *That* boy was the one who won the first prize in the Inter-state singing competition.
8. Can you send *those* packages to my sister?

### 5.4.4 Coordinate Adjectives

Talking about Coordinate adjectives mean separated with *commas* or the word *and*, and appear one after another to modify the same noun.

For example:

The sign had *big, bold, and bright* letters.

The adjectives in the phrase *big, bold and bright* letter are coordinate adjectives. In phrases with more than two coordinate adjectives, the word *and* always appears before the last one.

Some adjectives that appear in a series are not coordinate, so you need to be careful. In the phrase green delivery a comma does not separate truck, the words green and delivery because green modifies the phrase *delivery truck*.

Just insert the word *and* between them to eliminate confusion when determining whether a pair or group of

adjectives is coordinate. If *and* works, then the adjectives are coordinate and need to be separated with a comma.

### 5.4.5 Numbers Adjectives

Numbers are almost always adjectives. They answers the question of : “How many?”

For examples:

1. A team of **four** pulls my senior couch.
2. My brother eats **50** burgers during the competition.
3. The brilliant **one** of you can be the leader of this group.
4. **Two** children make a family perfect.
5. **Few** dogs are unhealthy.
6. My legs have **eight** fingers and **two**
7. **Some** women are upset.
8. **Most** of the boys are selected for cricket.
9. **Four** books of the Management Studies are very tough.
10. I wrote **many** letters to you.

### 5.4.6 Interrogative Adjectives

Interrogative adjectives modify nouns. They are consisting of: *Which*, *What*, and *Whose*. All these adjectives are used to ask questions.

1. *Which fruits do you like best?*
2. *What time should I choose?*
3. *Whose bags are mine?*

### 5.4.7 Indefinite Adjectives

To talk about non-specific things like *a* and *an* you use *indefinite adjectives*. You might recognize them because they're formed from indefinite pronouns. The most indefinite adjectives consist of *any*, *many*, *no*, *several*, and *few*.

1. Do you have any suggestions?
2. His mother has been died for *many*



3. There is no purse on my desk
4. I usually write *few* pages of a story book
5. They bought *some* dolls for their daughter.

#### 5.4.8 Attributive Adjectives

Attributive adjectives are used to discuss attributes. They identify specific traits, qualities or features. There are some different kinds of attributive adjectives.

1. Adjectives of observation. They indicate value or talk about subjective measure. For example: *real, perfect, best, interesting, beautiful* or *cheapest*
2. Adjectives of size and shape. They talk about measurable, objective qualities. For example: *big, round, square, large, poor, wealthy, and fast.*
3. Adjectives of age indicate specific ages in numbers or general ages. For example: *young, old, new, and five year old.*
4. Adjectives of color indicate colors. For example: *red, gray, white, and purple.*
5. Adjectives of origin talk about person, place, animal or thing. For example: *Australian, Egypt, England and Indonesian.*
6. Adjectives of material denote what something is made of. For example: *iron, wool, silver, gold, and cotton.*
7. Adjectives of qualifier make nouns more specific, for example: *luxury jewelry, log cabin, and book cover.*

Generally adjectives appear before the noun. For example:

1. A pretty woman
2. Blue sweater
3. A long hair
4. Small house
5. Hot weather

The adjectives of opposite meaning are formed by adding a prefix such as *un*, *in*, or *dis*, commonly - for example:

1. Prefix -un

|             |                 |
|-------------|-----------------|
| clean       | - unclean       |
| realistic   | - unrealistic   |
| dynamic     | - undynamic     |
| believable  | - unbelievable  |
| amuse       | - unamuse       |
| stable      | - unstable      |
| established | - unestablished |
| helpful     | - unhelpful     |
| inspired    | - uninspired    |

2. Prefix -in

|            |                |
|------------|----------------|
| definite   | - indefinite   |
| correct    | - incorrect    |
| comparable | - incomparable |
| complete   | - incomplete   |
| evitable   | - inevitable   |
| expensive  | - inexpensive  |

3. Prefix -dis

|          |               |
|----------|---------------|
| able     | - disable     |
| assemble | - disassemble |
| honour   | - dishonour   |
| infect   | - diinfect    |

You can make some adjectives sentences by arranging them in a set of order when using a string of them in *Size/Shape + Age + Color + Origin + Material*. For example:

1. It's a cube red box
2. A big old Australian desk
3. A beautiful red American leather bag

#### 4. Energetic Indonesian dance

In another sentences, you can make some sentences using the string of this also: *The* + adjective describes a class or group of people and acts as a noun like the old, the young, the poor, the rich, the oppressed, the homeless, etc. For example:

The movie of “*Air Mata di atas Sajadah* “ is loved by ***the young or the old***. The homeless have received asissten from the government

THE LIST OF ADJECTIVES

|           |          |             |             |
|-----------|----------|-------------|-------------|
| Busy      | Fair     | Auful       | Good        |
| Big       | Small    | Delicious   | Old         |
| Lazy      | Greedy   | Gloomy      | Caring      |
| Careless  | Wise     | Angry       | Amusing     |
| Clumsy    | Foolish  | Worried     | Kind        |
| Nimble    | Tricky   | Excited     | Gentle      |
| Brave     | Truthful | Calm        | Quiet       |
| Mighty    | Loyal    | Bored       | Caring      |
| Meek      | Happy    | Hardworking | Hopeful     |
| Clever    | Cheerful | Silly       | Rich        |
| Dull      | Joyful   | Wild        | Thrifty     |
| Afraid    | Carefree | Crazy       | Stingy      |
| Scared    | Friendly | Fussy       | Spoiled     |
| Cowardly  | Moody    | Still       | Generous    |
| Bashful   | Crabby   | Odd         | Quick       |
| Proud     | Cranky   | Starving    | Swift       |
| Stuffed   | Alert    | Sleepy      | Hasty       |
| Rude      | Selfish  | Strict      | Rapid       |
| Surprised | Polite   | Speedy      | Challenging |
| Splendid  | Simple   | Huge        | Grand       |
| Wonderful | Chilly   | Great       | Sturdy      |
| Hard      | Freezing | Vast        | Heavy       |
| Fantastic | Icy      | Long        | Puny        |

|             |             |           |             |
|-------------|-------------|-----------|-------------|
| Difficult   | Steaming    | Deep      | Petite      |
| Easy        | Sizzling    | Plump     | Tine        |
| Muggy       | Cozy        | Small     | Endless     |
| Beautiful   | Rusty       | Lumpy     | Dreadful    |
| Adorable    | Slimy       | Heavy     | Nasty       |
| Shining     | Grimy       | Pretty    | Cruel       |
| Sparkling   | Crispy      | Wrinkly   | Creepy      |
| Glowing     | Spiky       | Smooth    | Loud        |
| Fluttering  | Smelly      | Glassy    | Shrill      |
| Soaring     | Foul        | Snug      | Muffled     |
| Crawling    | Stinky      | Stiff     | Creaky      |
| Creeping    | Curly       | Ugly      | Clear       |
| Sloppy      | Fuzzy       | Hideous   | Expensive   |
| Messy       | Plush       | Horrid    | Cheap       |
| Correct     | Complete    | Definite  | Funny       |
| Wealthy     | Poor        | Hot       | Young       |
| New         | Large       | Slow      | Glooming    |
| Charming    | Cool        | Fantastic | Gentle      |
| Huge        | Perfect     | Rough     | Lovely      |
| Kind        | Exciting    | Grumpy    | Sparkling   |
| Short       | Quick       | Rapid     | Pleasant    |
| Encouraged  | Calm        | Cheerful  | Comfortable |
| Magnificent | Eager       | Bright    | Elegant     |
| Annoyed     | Precious    | Strange   | Swift       |
| Lonely      | Ashamed     | Dizzy     | Envious     |
| Depressed   | Anxious     | Confused  | Frightened  |
| Odd         | Joyful      | Energetic | Glamorous   |
| Gigantic    | Adventurous | Defiant   | Immense     |
| Mammoth     | Massive     | Eager     | Great       |
| Modern      | Aggressive  | Exuberant | Distinct    |
| Thin        | Brief       | Filthy    | Drab        |
| Public      | Exclusive   | Shy       | Jealous     |
| Delightful  | Gorgeous    | Dazzling  | Wonderful   |

**Exercise:**

**A. Write the correct comparative and Superlative forms**

| <b>Positive</b> | <b>Comparative</b> | <b>Superlative</b> |
|-----------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| thin            |                    |                    |
| shy             |                    |                    |
| Busy            |                    |                    |
| Easy            |                    |                    |
| Busy            |                    |                    |
| Short           |                    |                    |
| Delightful      |                    |                    |
| Small           |                    |                    |
| Complete        |                    |                    |
| Hard            |                    |                    |

**B. Choose the appropriate adjectives that of each the numbers below.**

1. Winda and Atikah went to the old mosque, where they saw \_\_\_\_\_ tombs of the kings of the Sultanate.
  - a. A room containing of
  - b. Ancient
  - c. A lot of
  - d. Much
2. He got \_\_\_\_\_ awards at the ceremony today.
  - a. Information about
  - b. The president's
  - c. Motivation at the
  - d. Three
3. Please give me a bag of \_\_\_\_\_ oranges.
  - a. Apples and
  - b. Interesting
  - c. Ripe red
  - d. Real

4. Joko Widodo sat in a \_\_\_\_\_ chair.
- Leather
  - Funny
  - Important
  - Barber's
5. \_\_\_\_\_ weather is the norm in California.
- Small
  - Foggy
  - Big
  - The interesting

**C. Write the correct prefix of the opposite adjective:**

- Aware :
- Evitable :
- Comparable :
- Expensive :
- Ambiguous :
- Correct :
- Definite :
- Clear :
- Complete :
- Assemble :

**D. Choose and underline all the adjectives of these frase.**

- The smart, funny students were usually very famous in the class.
- Putri Ariani is a brilliant, attractive, and young Indonesian singer.
- Andre sold five beautiful new red dresses.
- Yumna faced many difficult, unexpected challenges in her life.
- Aqila placed the ring in a small round metal box

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# CHAPTER 6

## ADVERBS

*By Neneng Yuniarty*

### 6.1 Introduction

An adverb is a part of speech that modifies or provides additional information about a verb, adjective, adverb, or even a whole sentence, making them more descriptive and informative. It is used to describe how, when, where, or to what extent an action or situation is happening. Adverbs can add depth and detail to a sentence, helping to convey nuances in meaning and clarifying the manner or circumstances of an action.

Here are a few examples of adverbs and how they modify different parts of speech:

1. Modifying a verb.

Adverbs often modify verbs to provide information about how, when, where, or to what degree an action is performed.

For example:

- a. She sings *beautifully*.
- b. He ran *quickly*.

2. Modifying an adjective.

Adverbs can modify adjectives to give more detail or intensity to a description.

For example:

- a. The cat is *very* cute.
- b. The movie was *extremely* exciting.

3. Modifying another adverb.

Adverbs can also modify other adverbs to provide additional information or emphasis. For example:

- a. They walked *very* slowly.
- b. The car drove *incredibly* smoothly.

4. Modifying a whole sentence.

Adverbs can modify entire sentences to indicate the speaker's attitude, certainty, or viewpoint.

For example:

- a. Fortunately, the weather improved.
- b. Sadly, they couldn't attend the party.

Adverbs can answer questions such as:

1. How? (He walked happily.)
2. When? (She arrived yesterday.)
3. Where? (They went there.)
4. To what extent? (He is extremely talented.)

It is worth noting that not all adverbs end in "-ly," though many do. Adverbs play a crucial role in making language more precise and expressive by providing context and adding nuances to the information being conveyed.

The function of an adverb, however, is not always easy to define. A few ordinary adverbs do not imply to reply the typical queries; nor do they always, as adjectives do, indicate to definite words in the sentence:

1. She does not call his phone.
2. Soon the result will appear on the screen.
3. Yesterday was indeed a delighted adventure.

The last two sentences, the adverb is occasionally claimed to explain the whole idea of the sentence rather than a certain word.

## 6.2 Adverb Form

Adverbs are divided into two categories:

1. **Simple Adverbs:** These are usually short, single-syllable words that modify verbs. They can provide information about how an action is performed, and they often answer questions like "how?" or "when?" Examples of simple adverbs include:
  - a. He came here yesterday.
  - b. She always sends me a gift in my birthday.
  - c. They arrived late.
2. **Adverbs Derived from Adjectives:** Many adverbs are formed by adding the suffix "-ly" to an adjective. These adverbs often describe how an action is performed and answer questions like "how?" or "to what extent?" They are typically used to modify adjectives or other adverbs, but they can also modify verbs. Examples include:
  - a. He drives slowly.
  - b. She sings beautifully.
  - c. They live happily.

In the examples you provided, "slowly," "happily," and "beautifully" are adverbs derived from the adjectives "slow," "happy," and "beautiful," respectively. These adverbs provide more information about the manner in which the actions are performed.

It is worth noting that while many adverbs are formed by adding "-ly" to adjectives, not all adverbs follow this pattern. Some adverbs have irregular forms or have the same form as the adjective, so it is important to consider the context in which they are used to determine their role in the sentence.

Many adverbs in English are formed by adding the suffix "-ly" to adjectives, this is not the only way adverbs are derived. Some adverbs cannot be recognized by only pointing at the

suffix -ly. There are several other ways that adverbs can be formed as well. Here are a few examples:

1. Adjectives ending in -ly: Some adjectives end in -ly and can also function as adverbs without any changes.  
For example: friendly, likely, monthly.
2. Irregular forms: Some adverbs have irregular forms that do not follow the -ly pattern. For example: well (from the adjective "good"), fast (from the adjective "fast"), Hard (from adjective "hard").
3. Adjective and adverb forms are the same: In some cases, the adjective and adverb forms are the same, without the addition of -ly.  
For example: "hard" (adjective and adverb), "fast" (adjective and adverb).
4. Adverbs with different forms: Some adverbs have a different form altogether, unrelated to the corresponding adjective.  
For example: "soon" (adverb), "early" (adjective).
5. Compound adverbs: Adverbs can also be formed by combining words.  
For example: "sometimes," "anywhere," "everywhere."
6. Phrasal adverbs: These are adverbial phrases that consist of more than one word.  
For example: "in the morning," "on time," "by chance."
7. Conversion: Some adjectives can function as adverbs without any changes.  
For example: "drive slow," "talk loud."

The present and past participle of verbs that forms as adjectives can be turned into adverbs by adding the suffix **-ly**.

For example:

### **PRESENT PARTICIPLE**

#### **Adjectives**

Amusing  
Captivating  
Disgusting  
Surprising  
Terrifying  
Loving  
Exhausting

#### **Adverbs**

Amusingly  
Captivatingly  
Disgustingly  
Surprisingly  
Terrifyingly  
Lovingly  
Exhaustingly

### **PAST PARTICIPLE**

#### **Adjectives**

Amused  
Excited  
Disappointed  
Repeated  
Unaffected  
Whole-hearted

#### **Adverbs**

Amusedly  
Excitedly  
Disappointedly  
Repeatedly  
Unaffectedly  
Whole-heartedly

The spelling of suffix **-ly** in the adverbs in which mostly we want as we put a suffix in front of the consonant.

Adjectives end in silent e keep the e. For example:

#### **Adjectives**

Brave  
Deliberate  
Fierce  
Loose  
Safe  
Separate

#### **Adverbs**

Bravely  
Deliberately  
Fiercely  
Loosely  
Safely  
Separately

False

Falsely

Adjectives end in a consonant y change the y to i before the -ly suffix. For example:

| Adjectives | Adverbs  |
|------------|----------|
| Easy       | Easily   |
| Steady     | Steadily |
| Lazy       | Lazily   |
| Goofy      | Goofily  |
| Noisy      | Noisily  |

There are only a few exceptional spellings for -ly adverbs. For example:

| Adjectives | Adverbs |
|------------|---------|
| Due        | Duly    |
| Gay        | Gaily   |
| True       | Truly   |

Adverb can be applied to describe not only verbs but also adjectives and in other structure. They are placed directly before the structure they describe:

1. Samuel is remarkably popular.
2. Jack had severely injured.
3. My sister will wear an elegantly wedding dress.
4. This is absolutely the house that I dream of!
5. The police nearly caught the thief.

One of the important descriptive aspects of modifying adverbs is that they are by description alternative factors. It is contradictory with the other major parts of speech — nouns, adjectives, and verbs — adverbs are able to be removed without changing the grammaticality of the sentence.

For example:

- a. They will move to the new house immediately.  
The adverb immediately can be removed without making sentence ungrammatical:
- b. They will move to the new house (immediately).  
Adverb provides information about the manner, time, place, frequency, degree, or other circumstances of an action or event. They can often be removed from a sentence without making it ungrammatical, although their presence can add nuance and clarity to the meaning of the sentence.

## 6.3 Types of Adverbs

Adverb can be categorized into several types based on the different ways they modify or provide additional information. Here are some common categories of adverbs:

### 1. Adverb of Manner

Adverbs of manner are words that describe how an action is performed or the manner in which something happens. They provide more information about the verb in a sentence.

- a. Quickly - She ran quickly to catch the bus.
- b. Slowly - The turtle moved slowly across the road.
- c. Carefully - He handled the fragile vase carefully.
- d. Loudly - The music played loudly at the concert.
- e. Quietly - The children whispered quietly in the library.

### 2. Adverb of Time

Adverbs of time are words that provide information about when an action takes place. They help to clarify the timing or frequency of an event. Here are some examples of adverbs of time:

- a. Yesterday - She finished her assignment yesterday.

- b. Today - We are going to the park today.
- c. Tomorrow - They have a meeting scheduled for tomorrow.
- d. Now - He is busy working right now.
- e. Later - She will call you back later.

Adverb of time is divided into two kinds, namely:

1. Adverb of Definite Time

Adverb of definite time is an adverb that is used to indicate a definite time. In general, these adverbs can be placed at the beginning, or at the end of a sentence. Meanwhile, what is included in this adverb is for example: today, tonight, every day, now, Sunday, last week, next year, in the afternoon, at three o'clock, yesterday, tonight, in February.

For example:

- a. She is writing a book right now.
- b. My uncle goes to work by car every day.

2. Adverb of Indefinite Time

Adverb of indefinite time is an adverb used to show an indefinite time. In general, this adverb is located before the infinitive or after to be or in the auxiliary verb, for example: ever, usually, still, seldom, recently, lately, soon, sometimes, often, before, after, never, afterwards, presently, always.

For example:

- a. There is a landslide in Borneo recently.
- b. My aunt often makes pancake for breakfast in the morning.

3. Adverb of Place

Adverb of place is an adverb that is used to indicate the position or place where an action or event occurs. This adverb generally comes from a preposition which is followed by a word that indicates a place or only a word



indicates a place. Some of the words included in the adverb of place are as follows: there, here, about, anywhere, in front of, around, in there, within, in, at where ever, everywhere, somewhere, nowhere.

For example:

- a. My parents live in London.
- b. Bob stood in front of the statue.

Adverb of direction is one type of adverb which is used to explain which way to a place is, where a job, action, deed or quality is carried out or an event occurs. According to experts, this adverb in English grammar can be classified as an adverb of place. Pay attention to the words that include:

|          |          |            |                |
|----------|----------|------------|----------------|
| Above    | Back     | Backward   | Back and forth |
| Below    | Down     | There      | Forth          |
| Thence   | In       | In and out | Inwards        |
| Onwards  | Down     | Downwards  | Forwards       |
| Up there | In there | To         |                |

For example:

- a. Mark goes to Yogyakarta and then to Bali.
- b. The captain went below.

#### 4. Adverb of Frequency

Adverb of frequency is an adverb to express the frequency, how often or how much a job or event occurs. This adverb is usually used to answer questions such as: how often. In addition, this adverb is often placed after the subject in a sentence. These are the common list of Adverb of Frequency:

|        |           |
|--------|-----------|
| Always | Sometimes |
| Often  | Seldom    |
| Rarely | Ever      |

|              |              |
|--------------|--------------|
| Never        | Hardly ever  |
| Frequently   | Generally    |
| Continually  | Occasionally |
| Repeatedly   | Regularly    |
| Periodically | Usually      |

For example:

- He often takes his little sister to the park.
- She rarely has breakfast.

Adverb of frequency can sometimes occur at the first of a sentence. Constantly, however, adverbs of frequency appear in permanent arrangement in a sentence relative to the verb phrase. The explanation below displays the placement of the adverb in the sentence

| POSITION OF FREQUENCY WORDS  |                |                        |                       |                          |                  |                         |
|------------------------------|----------------|------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------|------------------|-------------------------|
|                              | <i>Subject</i> | <i>First Auxiliary</i> | <i>Frequency Word</i> | <i>Other Auxiliaries</i> | <i>Main Verb</i> | <i>Rest of Sentence</i> |
| <b>After be</b>              | Their boss     | is                     | always                |                          |                  | late.                   |
| <b>Before main verb</b>      | Their boss     |                        | always                |                          | arrives          | late.                   |
| <b>After first auxiliary</b> | Their boss     | has                    | never                 | been                     | reprimanded.     |                         |

Adverb of frequency keeps its position in question when the initial auxiliary verb is moved:

- Have your parents leaved late?
- Do the students arrive early?
- Is she usually late?

The adverb of frequency that are commonly used in this form, such as:

| <b>NEGATIVE</b> | <b>POSITIVE</b> |
|-----------------|-----------------|
| Almost          | Always          |
| Rarely          | Usually         |
| Seldom          | Often           |
| Never           | Frequently      |
| Hardly ever     | Generally       |
| Almost never    | Sometimes       |
| Scarcely ever   | Occasionally    |

There is a dissimilarity between the adverb of frequency of **sometimes**, with its meaning of **occasionally**, and the expression **some time**:

- He will send you a letter **some time**.
- At **some time** in next week, I want to visit the dentist.
- My mom **sometimes (occasionally)** bakes a chocolate cake.

Adverb of frequency commonly appears not only in the middle of the sentence but also at the beginning and at the end of the sentence.

For example:

- Sometimes Rudy visits his grandmother in Bali.
- Occasionally culture affects our working atmosphere.
- I love you always.
- He cooks his own dinner occasionally.

Sometimes you will find a negative adverb of frequency positioning at the beginning of a sentence to get an emphasis to the sentence. If it occurs, subject and auxiliary are inverted. Inversion conveys astonishment.

This is actually formal and simple. If needs be, you can use this pattern like the sentence below:

| INVERSION WITH FREQUENCY WORDS |                        |                |                              |
|--------------------------------|------------------------|----------------|------------------------------|
| <i>Frequency Word</i>          | <i>First Auxiliary</i> | <i>Subject</i> | <i>Rest of Sentence</i>      |
| Never                          | have                   | I              | heard such a terrible story! |
| Rarely                         | would                  | anyone         | believe such a story!        |

An adverb may be placed at the beginning, middle, or end of a sentence depending on the type of adverb. If there is more than one adverb in a sentence, we need to follow the rules of adverb order: **manner – place – frequency – time – purpose**

For example:

- Nancy studied hard at senior high school last year to enter the prestigious college.

Note:

Hard = adverb of manner

At senior high school = adverb of place

Last year = adverb of time

To enter the prestigious college = adverb of purpose

## 5. Adverb of Degree

Adverb of degree is an adverb that is used to explain the level or is used to express how far the level or degree of a situation or event is. This adverb is used to answer questions such as how much, how little, is it more/a lot, is it less/little, and in what degree/level. These are the common of adverb of degree:

|           |            |            |           |
|-----------|------------|------------|-----------|
| Almost    | Completely | Entirely   | Greatly   |
| Indeed    | Little     | Perfectly  | Quite     |
| So        | Too        | Absolutely | Decidedly |
| Extremely | Hardly     | Intensely  | Lots      |

There are four special adverbs of degree, such as:

1) Enough

Enough means "sufficient or sufficiently." It indicates a satisfactory amount or level. It can modify adjectives, adverbs, or nouns. There are two placements of **enough** as seen below:

- a. Placed before nouns.

For example:

- I cannot buy the car because I have not got enough money.
- I have enough food for the three of us now

- c. Placed after adjectives and adverbs.

For example:

- The judges get good enough scores for contestants to go on to the next round.

2) Too

Too modifies adjectives or other adverbs. It indicates more than sufficient, excessive amount or level. It occurs before the word they modify, but the meaning is to imply excess as seen below:

- a. **too + adjective**

For example:

- My bathroom is too small.
- The suit was too expensive.
- She eats too much.

- b. **too + adverb/adjective + for + noun or too + adverb/adjective + to + infinitive**

For example:

- This room is too big for both of us.
- They are too poor to go away on vacation.
- He walks too quickly for me to keep up with him.

- It is too hot to play tennis.

### 3) Very

Very modifies adjectives or other adverbs. It occurs before the word they modify, but the meaning is an intensifier or indicates something is done to a high degree. It comes in two forms, such as:

#### a. Very + adjective

For example:

- She is very rich.
- Jimmy has a very luxurious house.

#### b. Very + adverb

For example:

- He speaks Korean very well.
- She does her assignment very quickly.

### 4) So

It indicates an excessive level of standards.

For example:

- You look so pale; you should take some rest.
- Amira seems so happy after she got the call from her mom.

### 6. Adverb of Certainty/Modality/Affirmation

Adverb of modality is an adverb to express the level of belief or expectation, such as: hopefully, likely, maybe, perhaps, possibly, probably, definitely, surely.

For example:

- Hopefully They will come home early.
- She probably does not know what has happened to her children at school.

## 7. Adverb of Comparison

Adverb can be used to make comparisons. This word can change form according to the type of comparison. Positive degree to compare equality, comparative degree to compare two things, and superlative degree to compare three or more things.

For example:

### a. Positive Degree:

- She danced as gracefully as her coach.
- Jim finished the work as quickly as Andrew.

### b. Comparative Degree:

- She danced more gracefully than her coach.
- Jim finished the work more quickly than Andrew.

### c. Superlative Degree:

- She danced the most gracefully of all the dancers in the club.
- Jim finished the work the most quickly of all the workers in the office.

## 8. Interrogative Adverb

Interrogative adverb is an adverb used to ask a question or make a question.

These are some of the examples of question words that used in interrogative adverb:

|      |           |       |       |
|------|-----------|-------|-------|
| When | How often | Where | Why   |
| How  | Whom      | Who   | Whose |

For example:

- How did you go to Bali?
- Why did you take my book without permission?
- How often will you visit your parents in a year?
- Where can you find the nearest bank?

## 9. Adverb of Negation

It expresses negation or denial. This type of adverb is used to indicate the opposite or absence of an action, condition, or quality in a sentence. Adverbs of negation use *never*, *neither*, *nowhere*, *no longer*, *and nor*, *no*, *hardly*, *scarcely*, *rarely*, *contradictorily*, *invalidly*, and *almost* in the sentences to declare that a given statement of fact is false or negative.

For example:

- She is not happy. = the adverb "not" negates the state of being happy.
- They have never met their children.
- Rudy can hardly walk.

## 10. Adverb of Quantity

Adverb of quantity is an adverb used for stating the number or number of times a job is performed or an event occurs. This adverb is usually used to answer questions such as how many times.

Adverbs of quantity are divided into 2 types, namely:

### a. Countable Noun

Adverb of quantity for countable noun:

A lot/lots

A few

Too many/too few

Many/More

For example:

- Jack has too many comic books.
- The students have a lot of homework.

### b. Uncountable Noun

Adverb of quantity for uncountable noun:

A lot/lots of

Little/Less

Much/More



Too much/too little

For example:

- I drink lots of water because I am very thirsty.
- Do you need much money?

## 11. Adverb Phrase

Adverb phrase is a number of words that works as a single adverb to modify action of the verb. There are two kinds of phrases play the role of adverbs: adverbial prepositional phrases and adverbial infinitive phrases. These are the explanations and examples of each kind of phrases:

- a. Adverbial prepositional phrases are composed of prepositions came after noun phrase objects. The noun phrase objects are nouns (with or without modifiers), pronouns, gerunds or noun clauses. Here are examples of adverb prepositional phrases with many kinds of objects. The whole prepositional phrase is underlined, and the object noun phrase is in italic:

Noun phrase: My friends and I will have lunch at *the new restaurant on 58th Street*.

Pronoun: There is a new cafe by *us*.

Gerund: We can finish all the work on time by *everyone's working overtime*.

Noun clause: My uncle bought a house near *where we live*.

- b. Adverbial infinitive phrases are composed of the infinitive pattern of the verb together with that verb's complements and/or modifiers (if any). Here are some examples of infinitive phrases functions as adverbs. The entire infinitive phrase is underlined, and the infinitive verb itself is in italic:

My friends and I will go to the cinema next week to *watch a new movie*.

The student must study to get a good mark.  
Amira needs glasses to read.

Adverbs applied as an infinitive often have the fundamental meaning of describing why somebody does (or needs to do) something. This structure is not in the pattern of a single word, but in the pattern of a phrase (also called an adverb phrase), which can be in the pattern of a prepositional phrase and an infinitive phrase that work as an adverb.

We can also call adverbial of purpose which is formed by a preposition. In a prepositional phrase that acts as an adverbial of purpose, the preposition "**for**" is used, while in an infinitive phrase it is clearly formed with the preposition "**to**".

For example:

- We attend the seminar for a good reason.
- They left the office for lunch.
- Jimmy learns diving for fun.
- Ronald works as a part timer to pay for his college tuition.
- You should study hard to get good grades at school.

## 12. Adverb Clause

Adverb clause is a dependent clause that function as adverb within a sentence. It provides information about when, where, why, how, or to what extent an action in the main clause occurred. Adverb clause often begins with subordinating conjunctions, which help establish the relationship between the main clause and the dependent clause. Here are some common types of adverb clauses:

a. Adverb Clause of Time

This adverb clause indicates when an action took place in relation to the main clause. They are introduced by subordinating conjunctions like "when," "while," "whenever," "before," "after," "since," "until," "as," etc.

For example:

- I will call you when I get home.
- Dora likes drawing since she was a child.
- I had left the library before she came.

b. Adverb Clause of Place

This adverb clause provides information about the location or place where the action in the main clause occurs. They are introduced by subordinating conjunctions like "where," "wherever," etc.

For example:

- She looked under the bed where the cat was hiding.
- The puppy followed me wherever I went.
- I will go everywhere you go.

c. Adverb Clause of Reason (Cause and Effect)

This adverb clause explains the reason or cause for the action in the main clause. They are introduced by subordinating conjunctions like "because," "since," "as," "now that," etc.

For example:

- He couldn't come to the party because he was feeling unwell.
- I listen to old songs because I love them.
- We thought you'd go to the concert since you love rock music.

d. Adverb Clause of Condition

This adverb clause expresses a condition that must be met for the action in the main clause to occur. They are

introduced by subordinating conjunctions like "if," "unless," "provided that," "as long as," etc.

For example:

- If it rains, we will stay indoors.
- He won't pass the final term unless he studies hard for the exam.
- There will be no need to go to court provided you sign the papers.
- As long as you cooperate, there would be no problem.

e. Adverb Clause of Concession

This adverb clause introduces a contrast or concession to the action in the main clause. They are introduced by subordinating conjunctions like "although," "even though," "while," "though," "despite," "in spite of," etc.

For example:

- Although it was raining, they decided to go for a walk.
- Even though he cannot drive, he loves cars.
- Despite the fact that he read very well, he failed the examination.

f. Adverb Clause of Purpose

This adverb clause indicates the purpose or intention behind the action in the main clause. They are introduced by subordinating conjunctions like "so that," "in order that," "lest," etc.

For example:

- She studied hard so that she could pass the exam.
- The ceremony was rounded off in order that attendees might get to their destinations on time.
- You need to shed off some weight lest you should become obese.

g. Adverb Clause of Comparison

This adverb clause compares the action in the main clause with another action. They are introduced by subordinating conjunctions like "than," "as," "just as," "more than," "less than," etc.

For example:

- She sings better than I do.
- She is as loquacious as she is ill-mannered.
- The students were quicker in solving the sums than I expected.

h. Adverb Clause of Manner

This adverb clause describes how an action in the main clause is performed. They are introduced by subordinating conjunctions like "as," "as if," "as though," etc.

For example:

- She danced as if nobody was watching.
- The choir sang as though the heavens would fall.
- My father talked to me like I was a child.

i. Adverb Clause of Result

This adverb clause indicates the result or consequence of the action in the main clause. They are introduced by subordinating conjunctions like "so...that," "such...that," "so that," etc.

For example:

- He was so tired that he fell asleep immediately.
- The kitten was so cute that I had to buy it.
- He is such a kind person that lots of people love him.

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# CHAPTER 7

## PREPOSITION

*By Merla Madjid*

### 7.1 Introduction

Language is a complex and nuanced system that allows us to communicate ideas, experiences, and information. with one another. Prepositions play a crucial role in shaping our expressions by indicating relationships between various elements in a sentence. Among the diverse categories of prepositions, those denoting time and place stand out as fundamental tools for conveying precise details. This article delves into the intricacies of prepositions of time and place, exploring their usage, nuances, and significance in enhancing our communication.

A preposition, defined as a linguistic element, comprises a single word or a group of words strategically positioned before a noun, pronoun, or noun phrase. Its primary function is to convey a range of relational information, encompassing aspects such as direction, time, place, location, spatial relationships, and the introduction of an object into a sentence's structure. These prepositions, often characterized by their diminutive size and omnipresence in language, serve as indispensable signposts within sentences, guiding readers and listeners through the intricate web of meaning. (Merriam-Webster Dictionary: 2023)

For instance, the English language abounds with various prepositions, including but not limited to such commonplace terms as "in," "at," "on," "of," and "to." In practice, a preposition assumes its role within a sentence by elucidating the direction

of an action or movement (as exemplified by "to" in the phrase "a letter to you"), specifying a particular location (as exemplified by "at" in "at the door"), delineating a specific point in time (as showcased by "by" in "by noon"), or introducing and linking an object to the broader context (as illustrated by "of" in "a basket of apples"). Notably, prepositions conventionally necessitate the presence of an object in their vicinity, and this object may manifest as a noun (e.g., "noon"), a more complex noun phrase (e.g., "the door"), or even a pronoun (e.g., "you"), depending on the context and the specific preposition employed.

According to Dahlan (2021) Prepositions in the English language exhibit a significant degree of idiomatic usage. While certain usage guidelines do exist, a considerable portion of preposition usage is influenced by established expressions. In such instances, the most effective approach is to commit the entire phrase to memory rather than focusing solely on the individual preposition.

Furthermore, as per Herring's categorization in the Tafonao (2022) study, prepositions can be categorized into eight broad groups: time, location, direction or motion, agency, instruments or devices, reason or purpose, connection, and origin.

Mastery of prepositions contributes to clear communication, both written and spoken. Learning these intricacies can be challenging, but resources such as grammar guides, language courses, and contextual practice are invaluable tools. Interactive exercises that incorporate real-life scenarios help learners internalize the correct usage of prepositions. Hopefully by reading this part about Preposition, Students can differentiate between prepositions for time and places, both written and spoken.



## Everything to know about prepositions.

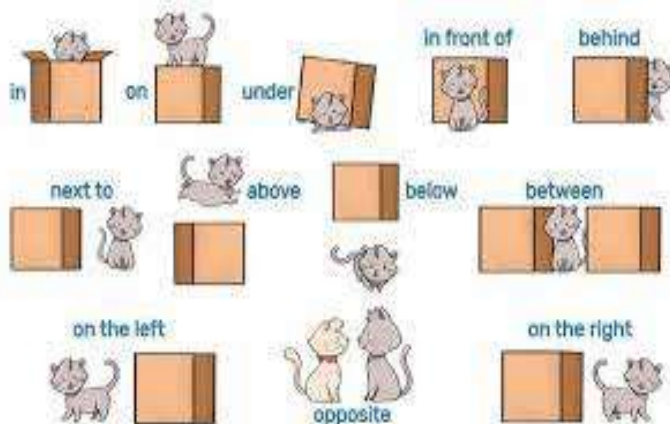
A preposition is a linguistic element that serves as a connecting word, facilitating the establishment of relationships between various components within a sentence. It acts as a glue that holds different components of a sentence together, helping to create context and meaning. There are different types of prepositions, and they can be used to indicate time, place, direction / movement, and manner.

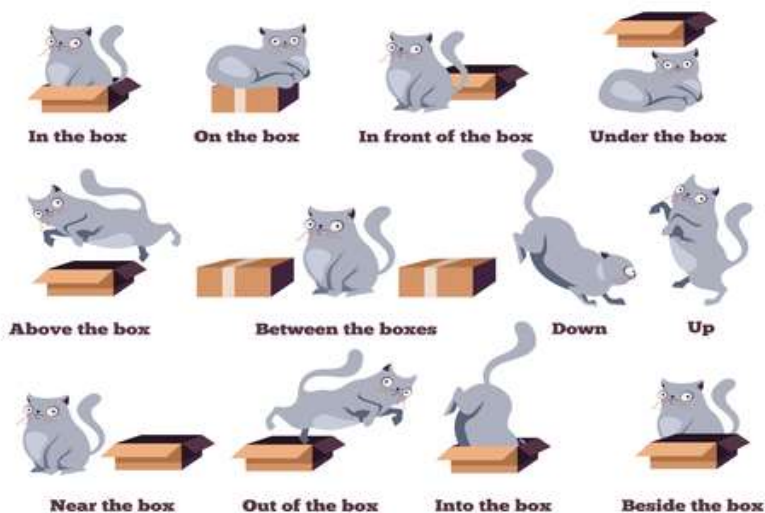
Without proper prepositions, sentences can become confusing and difficult to understand. Therefore, it is essential to have a solid understanding of the different types of prepositions and how they are used.

## 7.2 Types of prepositions

Within the English language, you will find endless . types of preposition examples. It can feel overwhelming and challenging to remember their use and function. To simplify these confusions, experts have proposed different types of prepositions in. English. Broadly, we can find eight of the following categories within prepositions.

### 7.2.1 Preposition of Place





**Figure 7.1.** Example of the use of prepositions of place

Source: Dahlan (2021)

What about prepositions of place? Prepositions of place are specific prepositional expressions within language that pertain to denoting a location or position within a given sentence. Simply put, in Indonesian it can mean "in", "to", or "from" which is used before referring to a specific place. If in English, how do you use it?

Definition of Prepositions of Place Is an English preposition used to indicate a place or position. The place or position is displayed. in a preposition combined with the object (object of preposition) which is called a prepositional phrase.

What is the purpose of using this preposition? The objective is to demonstrate how a preposition's object indicates its relationship to either the subject or object within a sentence. This object of the preposition may take the form

of a noun, a noun phrase, or a pronoun. When employing this prepositional construction, it is essential to be acquainted with the associated formula. **The formula is prepositional phrase = preposition + object of preposition.**

Example: There is a glass of milk on the table.

From this sentence we can see that there is a prepositional phrase, namely on the table.

In this sentence, "On" functions as a preposition indicating a specific location, and "the table" serves as the object of the preposition, denoting the place being referred to.

**Several preposition places are:**

1. **In** (in, in) In denotes that something is in or be inside of A place.

Example:

- a. I live **in** Bandung.
  - b. She put her drinks **in** the refrigerator.
2. **On** use For show more place \_ Specific than in, i.e., on the floor A building, in a street, and above surface something thing.

Example:

- a. That bakery is **on** Beo Street.
  - b. I put my glasses **on** the table.
3. **At** (at) At is used For place or specific location. Usually, the place mentioned Already special.

Example:

- a. I'm leaving my book **at** home.
  - b. She is still waiting for the bus **at** the stop.
4. **Under** which means below used when position the thing in question is below \_ something or other objects and covered.

Example:

- a. There are many coral reefs **under** the sea.
- b. Tora is hiding **under** the table.

5. **Below** also means below, which means is below \_ something too or position lower from something other objects / things. Below can used For show measurement.

Example:

- a. The example is **below** the table.
  - b. You need to write a caption **below** the chart.
6. **Above** is against from below. So, one object be on top or position higher.

Example:

- a. We are sitting **above** the roof and looking at the stars.
  - b. The paragraph **above** the picture is the concluding paragraph.
7. **In front of (in front of)** In front of the point something object be in front something another thing Example:

- a. Mr. Bimo asked us to read the poem **in front of** the class.
  - b. He parked his car **in front of** the house.
8. **Near** means near something object or another place or someone.

Example:

- a. There is a new bookstore **near** the cafe.
  - b. The boy **near** you is my little brother.
9. **Next to (next to)** Next to means be next door something object or someone.

Example:

- a. The guy **next to** you is listening to music.
  - b. The mall is **next to** the hotel.
10. **Beside (on the side)** almost The same It means with next to which means next to or beside. \_

Example:

- a. I always be **beside** you.
- b. The restaurant **beside** the bakery is very popular.

11. **Behind** means position something object is behind other , thing , or someone

Example:

- a. I've been standing **behind** you for five minutes.
- b. We must stand **behind** the lines.

12. **Between** means in between two or more thing, place, or person.

Example:

- a. She stood **between** two trees.
- b. There is a big luggage **between** us.

13. **Among** means also among, however mean in between Lots thing, place , or person.

Example:

- a. His house is **among** those buildings.

### 7.2.2 Preposition of Time



**Figure 7.2.** Example of the use of prepositions of time  
(Source: Learn grammar 2023)

Before we discuss about the preposition of time, it is essential to establish a clear understanding of what a preposition entails. A preposition, in essence, serves as a linguistic bridge, connecting one word to another. Prepositions of Time, on the other hand, are a specific category of prepositions employed to explicitly convey temporal relationships. Preposition of time is the kind of preposition which explains about the time that we use. So, the preposition of time is one form prepositions or prepositions that describe \_ about time. information time the merged with objects so form prepositional phrases. Below, there are the explanation about Preposition time that we are used to using in daily conversation.

### Several Preposition Time are:

1. **AT:** At is used to indicate a very specific time, i.e. hours. Apart from that, at can also be used to indicate a specific time or what is called a particular time, such as at night, at lunch, and so on.
  - a. He will come to my house **at** 9 pm
  - b. they feel free **at** the weekend.
2. **IN:** It is Usually used to describe time, especially to indicate the month, year, or season.
  - a. They always call me **in** the morning.
  - b. he was born **in** Palembang In 1987
3. **ON :** On indicates a more specific time period. If you want to show only the month, you can use in. But if the month begins with a date, you must use the preposition On because it is more specific. Apart from dates, On is also used to describe days, including on the weekdays and on the weekends.
  - a. I will call you **on** Sunday.
  - b. She was born **on** 11 October 1972.

4. **FOR:** For is placed in front of words that indicate a time span.
  - a. I have been waiting **for** you here for 2 hours.
  - b. I love you **for** long time ago.
  - c. he has been here **for** 2 months.
5. **UNTIL (to )** The preposition "until" is used to express how long something will last.
  - a. He asked me to accompany him from morning **until** night.
  - b. Herman will stay here **until** the end of this week.
6. **TO (Less)** The preposition "to" functions to indicate from a certain time to a certain time.
  - a. the time is 5 to 10 minutes (now at 5 to 10 minutes)
  - b. at 9 to 10 minutes, I will come to your house (at 9 to 10 minutes I will come to your house)
  - c. he will call me at 10 to 10 minutes ( He will call me at 10 o'clock 10 minutes to go )
7. **After:** The preposition "after" is often placed before words that indicate events, situations and hours.
  - a. You should pay your debt **after** receiving salary.
  - b. I will meet you **after** 9 o'clock.
8. **BY:** The preposition "by" is used to express up to a certain time.
  - a. Sheila will give you a call **by** tomorrow morning.
  - b. I will arrive at Medan **by** 6 o'clock.
9. **During:** The preposition "during" is placed in front of words that indicate certain conditions and also time.
  - a. **During** holiday, we will come to beautiful place.
  - b. **During** my childhood time, I lived with my grandparents.

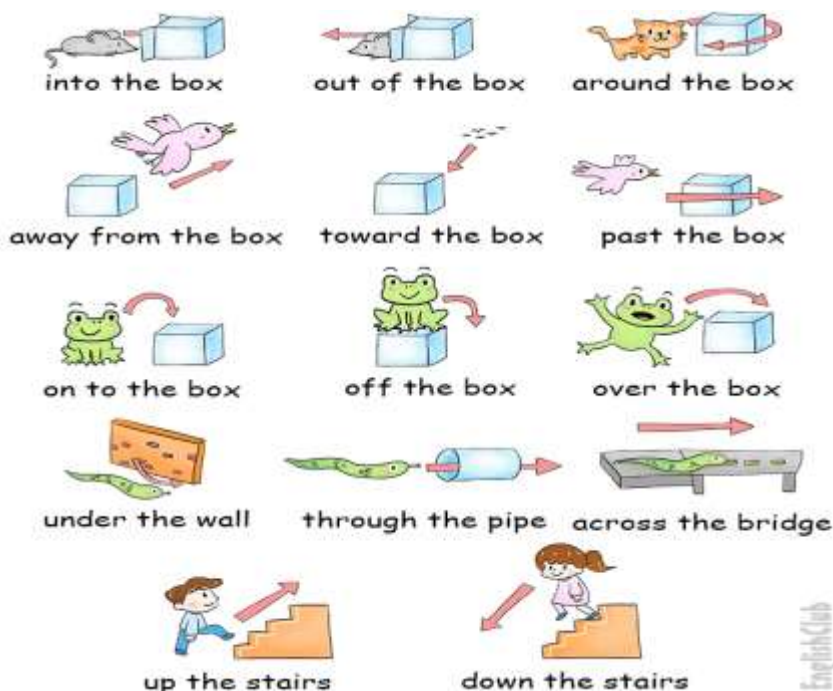
10. **BEFORE:** The preposition "before" is placed in front of words that indicate time and situation.
- Before** we have lunch, we should pray .
  - I will accompany you to go to the market **before** you go.
11. **SINCE:** The preposition since is placed in front of words that indicate a certain time in the past
- Sheila has not been feeling well **since** yesterday evening.
  - It has been 3 years **since** my last trip to Europe.

### 7.2.3 Preposition of Movement

Prepositions of movement delineate the transition from one location to another. These prepositions consistently characterize motion and are typically utilized in conjunction with action verbs. They are alternatively referred to as prepositions of direction. The most frequently employed preposition of movement is "to," signifying progression toward a specific destination., for example:

- Do you go **to** work every Saturday?
- I went to Bali this morning.





**Figure 7.3.** Example of the use of prepositions of direction  
(Source;English Club,2023)

### Prepositions of Movement list

Here is a compilation of frequently used prepositions of movement, accompanied by illustrative sentences for each:

**Across:** signifying motion from one side to the opposite side of an object or area.

1. We spent three days traversing across the expansive desert by car.
2. The dog dashed across the busy road, narrowly avoiding a collision with a car.

**around:** Describing movement around an object or place without going through it, often following a curved path:

1. A large dog was sprawled out on the floor, so she had to carefully walk around it.
2. They strolled around the town for an hour, exploring its various corners.

**away from:** Indicating the starting point of a movement:

1. The mouse swiftly ran away from the pursuing cat, managing to escape its grasp.

**down:** descending or going down from a higher position to a lower position of something.

1. They dashed from the upper slope of the hill to reach the stream below
2. He descended the ladder in order to reach the depths of the well.

**from:** indicating the position where a movement starts.

1. Our journey commenced in Bangkok, and we flew all the way to London.
2. The police confiscated my driving license, starting with taking it from me

**into:** signifying the action of moving into an enclosed space.; illustrating movement that led to physical contact

1. He entered the vehicle and subsequently shut the door.
2. The automobile collided with the wall

**off:** the act of moving away from (and involving a downward motion) something.

1. Don't worry. I will take the papers **off** your desk.
2. Sorry, I didn't mean to drop **off** the glass from the table.

**on to, onto:** the act of moving to the highest point of something.

1. Mr. Joe will give a farewell speech **on to** the stage.
2. Put all the books **onto** the bookshelf.

**out of:** Describing the confined area from which a motion originates.

1. Nyoman Take the wallet **out of** his pockets and pay his dinner.
2. He likes to go **out of** his town every Sunday for sightseeing.

**over:** Motion occurring over and across the upper or highest part of an object or surface.

1. We are flying **over** the mountains.
2. The cat jumped **over** the wall.

**past:** movement from one side to the other side of something

1. We could see children in the playground as we drove **past** the school.
2. We gave the marathoners water as they ran **past** us.

**to:** The act of moving in the direction of something

1. Sinta will buy a new house and give it to his youngest son.
2. Do they plan to fly **to** Rome ?

**through:** moving in one position and out of the other position of something

1. The cat jumped out to the yard **through** my window.
2. The police shouted to the man who just went **through** a red light!

**towards:** Motion toward a particular destination or object

1. The night sky got brighter as they drove toward the city.
2. At last she could recognize the person coming towards her.

**Under:** moving directly below something.

1. The baby crawled **under** the table.
2. Submarines have the capability to navigate **under** water.

**up:** Motion ascending from a lower position to a higher point on something.

1. The dogs, Bengy and Besty climb **up** the tree to look for some birds.
2. I needed three hours going **up** the hill and one and half hour coming down from the hill.

Example The sentences with Prepositions of Movement :

1. James Bond entered the room and retrieved his gun from his pocket.
2. He strolled around the table and headed in the direction of the window.
3. They witnessed someone sprinting away from the school, past a car, and heading towards the road
4. . They ascended to the roof.
5. He leaped from the platform and sprinted across the rails just before the train arrived.
6. The prisoners squeezed through the window, dashed across the grass, and managed to escape beneath the fence.
7. Jack and Jill ascended the hill, and before long, they were tumbling down the slope. • Did you travel here on foot from your house?
8. They skipped school yesterday. Prepositions are commonly used informally in our conversations, and there's a good chance of using them incorrectly.

### 7.2.4 Préposition of source

Prepositions that signify origin or starting points are a crucial aspect of English grammar, and gaining proficiency in their usage can greatly enhance your ability to communicate effectively (Umsi, 2023). These prepositions specify where an event or incident originates. Prepositions of source encompass terms like "from," "out of," "off," "away from," "out from," "originating from," "stemming from," "springing from," and "arising from," among various others.

For example:

1. The gift came **from** my beloved husband.
2. The ideas just came out **of** my mind.
3. Sherina's Flight take **off** to London from New Zealand.
4. Fifteen prisoners ran **away from** the prison last night.
5. The smoke emerged **out from** the burning shop.
6. The research findings **originated from** the brilliant ide of Mr. Bean.
7. The lack of communication **stems from** a problem.
8. Their Love between them **arose from** friendship.

Here are 10 examples illustrating the use of prepositions of source to help you gain an understanding of their correct usage:

1. From: I purchased this book from the bookstore.
2. By: Picasso was the artist behind this painting.
3. Out of: The sculpture was crafted out of clay.
4. In: I discovered the answer in the book.
5. Off: I removed the paint from my hands with soap and water.
6. Out: I retrieved the cookies from the oven.
7. Through: The train traversed through the tunnel.
8. Via: I received the message through email.
9. Originating in: The virus had its origin in China.

10. At: I encountered her at the coffee shop.

### **7.2.5 Preposition of measure**

Prepositions of measure, a category of prepositions, focus on describing the amount or quality of something. They are used to indicate quantity and are commonly represented by words such as "of," "per," "as," "about," and "by." These prepositions serve the purpose of specifying the extent, quantity, or degree of something in relation to a particular standard of measurement. They offer details regarding the size, amount, or dimensions of an object, action, or location and establish a connection between the measure and the noun or pronoun they modify. Prepositions of measure are essential for conveying precise information about measurements, dimensions, quantities, and making comparisons (The English Lime: 2023).

#### **Examples:**

1. To satisfy her thirst, she consumed a glass of water.
2. He ate a plate of spaghetti as his dinner.
3. The bridge spans a distance of 200 meters.

In these instances, the use of "by" serves to denote the method, manner, or approach used to determine or achieve a measurement or quantity. It can pertain to various aspects such as the distance travelled, tools employed, speed, team composition, mathematical calculations, or problem-solving strategies.

1. He reached the city by traveling a distance of 100 miles.
2. She gauged the recipe's ingredients by employing a scale.
3. The marathon runner completed the race by maintaining a pace of 6 minutes per mile.

In these instances, "per" is utilized to signify the rate, expense, or amount linked to a particular measurement. It is frequently employed to convey a proportion or frequency, like the price for each pound, the daily cost, the annual income, the number of cups for each customer, the units each hour, or the velocity per hour.

1. The shop offers apples at a rate of \$0.50 per pound.
2. The car rental company imposes a fee of \$30 for each day of vehicle use.
3. His annual earnings amount to \$50,000.

In these examples, "as" is employed to signify that something serves as a gauge or criterion. It implies that sweetness is determined by the presence of sugar, the board's length is identified as six feet, age is utilized to gauge experience, weight is taken as an indicator of quality, a house's value is assessed to be \$500,000, and a film's duration is a measure of its popularity.

1. The recipe prescribes sugar as a gauge for sweetness.
2. He designated the board's length as six feet.
3. She employed her age as an indicator of her experience.

In these examples, "about" is used to indicate an approximate or estimated measurement or quantity. It can refer to the book having roughly 200 pages, the speech lasting approximately 30 minutes, the project's cost estimated at around \$10,000, travel time, temperature, or a weight calculated as an approximation.

1. The book comprises approximately 200 pages of content.
2. He delivered a speech lasting roughly 30 minutes during the presentation.
3. The projected cost for the project is estimated to be around \$10,000.

### 7.2.6 Préposition of possession

These words suggest the possession or ownership of an object or item. Prepositions of possession are used to indicate who owns or possesses something. The most frequently used examples of prepositions of possession include "with," "to," and "of. Prepositions of possession establish a relationship between the possessor and the object or entity being possessed. They indicate ownership, control, or association. These prepositions convey the idea of ownership, responsibility, or influence over something. They help clarify the relationship between the possessor and the possessed, providing essential information about possession and control. Understanding prepositions of possession is crucial for expressing ownership and describing relationships in language. Examples:

1. The black car belongs to Mrs. Amirah.
2. I think I know the man with the dark coat.
3. The colour of David's house is white blue.

Meaning: As a preposition of possession, "for" expresses the idea of something being intended, designated, or used on behalf of someone or something else. It denotes a sense of ownership or responsibility.

Examples :

1. This book is for you; it belongs to you.
2. The keys on the table are for the new car.
3. The scholarship is for students with outstanding academic achievements.

Meaning: As a preposition of possession, "by" indicates the agent or means through which possession is obtained or achieved. It suggests ownership, authorship, or control over something.



Examples :

1. The novel was written by a renowned author.
2. This painting was created by a famous artist.
3. The car was designed by a team of engineers.

Meaning: As a preposition of possession, “from” indicates the source or origin of possession. It suggests that something is obtained, derived, or belongs to a particular source or starting point.

Examples :

1. She received a beautiful necklace from her grandmother.
2. The book on the shelf is borrowed from the library.
3. I bought this painting from a local artist.

Meaning: As a preposition of possession, “on” denotes a surface or support upon which something is possessed or situated. It implies a sense of ownership, control, or attachment to the object or entity on the surface.

Examples :

1. The name of the author is written on the cover of the book.
2. There’s a sticker on the laptop indicating ownership.
3. The signature on the painting identifies the artist.

Meaning: As a preposition of possession, “in” signifies the location, containment, or presence of something within the possession or control of someone. It implies ownership, belonging, or association with the enclosed space or entity.

Examples :

1. The money is kept in a safe.
2. She found her keys in her purse.
3. He discovered a hidden treasure in the attic.

Meaning: As a preposition of possession, “off” indicates the disconnection or separation of something from the possession or control of someone. It implies the removal or release of an object or entity from its previous state of possession.

Examples :

1. The dog jumped off the couch and onto the floor.
2. He wiped the paint off his hands with a towel.
3. The keys fell off the table and onto the ground.

Meaning: As a preposition of possession, “into” signifies the movement or transition of something from outside to inside the possession or control of someone. It implies a change of ownership or entry into a particular state of possession.

Examples :

1. The dog jumped off the couch and onto the floor.
2. He wiped the paint off his hands with a towel.
3. The keys fell off the table and onto the ground.

Meaning: As a preposition of possession, “onto” denotes the movement or placement of something onto the surface or area of possession. It implies a transfer or attachment of an object or entity onto a specific location or entity.

Examples :

1. She stepped onto the stage with confidence.
2. The cat leaped onto the counter to reach the food.
3. They loaded the boxes onto the truck for transport.

Meaning: As a preposition of possession, “unto” signifies the direction or movement of something toward the possession or control of someone. It implies a sense of giving or transferring ownership, often with a connotation of reverence or dedication.

### Examples

1. The kingdom was given unto the rightful heir.
2. The power of decision-making is entrusted unto the board of directors.
3. The responsibility falls unto the team leader to ensure project completion.

Meaning: As a preposition of possession, “within” denotes the location or presence of something inside the possession or control of someone. It implies ownership, control, or accessibility to the entity or space contained within.

### Examples :

1. The answer lies within yourself; you have the power to find it.
2. The solution to the problem is within reach; we just need to think creatively.
3. The potential for greatness resides within each individual.

Meaning: As a preposition of possession, “inside” denotes the position or location of something within the possession or control of someone. It implies ownership, authority, or control over the entity or object situated within a confined space or boundary.

### Examples :

1. The key is inside the drawer.
2. She keeps her money inside her wallet.
3. The cat likes to sleep inside its cozy bed.

## **7.2.7 Preposition of an agent of instrument**

Finally, these prepositions talk about the agency of something or someone taking responsibility. Prepositions of agency serve to indicate the active involvement, control, or influence of an agent in connection with a specific agency or

action. These prepositions help convey who is responsible for or has an active role in carrying out an action. Some of the most frequently used examples of prepositions of agency include "with" and "by.". These prepositions establish a connection between the agent and the activity or outcome, highlighting the role played by the agent in initiating, directing, or overseeing the described process. They provide valuable information about the active participants and their contributions within a given context.

Examples :

1. The novel of Dibawah Lindungan Ka'bah was written by Buya Hamka.
2. Jeremy used to live with his friend, until he bought his own house.

### **7.2.8 Prepositions of Possession**

Prepositions of possession indicate ownership and include common examples like "with," "to," and "of." Here are some examples:

1. This blue umbrella belongs to Miss Rekha.
2. Who is that person with the black suitcase?
3. David is the owner of this house.

As we have observed, some prepositions can change their category based on how they are used, such as "in," which can be both a preposition of time and place. Additionally, it's important to know two more categories of prepositions:

1. **Single Word Prepositions:** These prepositions consist of only one word, such as "on," "in," "under," "above," and so on.
2. **Complex Prepositions:** Complex prepositions are composed of two or more words, like "on account of," "along with," "apart from," "in spite of," and others.

### Key takeaways

1. Prepositions serve as linking words that establish connections between different parts of language.
2. There exist eight distinct categories of prepositions, encompassing prepositions denoting time, location, motion, method, origin, measurement, ownership, and the agent or instrument.
3. The English language has around 150 prepositions, but the top 25 most used prepositions include about, above, across, after, along, around, as, at, between, but, by, despite, for, from, in, into, like, of, on, to, until then, though, and with.

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# CHAPTER 8

## CONJUNCTION

*Oleh Nining Syafitri*

### 8.1 Introduction

Study this example situation.



**Figure 8.1.** Studying  
(Source: pinterest.com)

*Next year Fariq will study hard to get a graduation. It will be difficult enough to achieve the degree, but he will enjoy it.*

You can say:

**Although it will be difficult enough to achieve the degree,** he will enjoy it. (It will be difficult enough to achieve the degree, *but* he ...)

### 8.2 In Brief of Conjunction

A conjunction is linking a word to connect word to word, sentence to sentence, etc. According to Mas'ud (2005), conjunction is divided into 2 (two) categories, namely *Coordinating Conjunction* and *Subordinating Conjunction*.

**A coordinating conjunction** is a word that connects two words or sentences that are related to each other and are at the same level. There are six words of conjunction, they are **AND, BUT, FOR, NOR, OR, and YET**. Usually, the words are paired with each other, so some of these coordination conjunctions are called *Correlative Conjunctions*. They are:

1. both ... and ...
2. either ... or ...
3. neither ... nor ...
4. as well as
5. so ... as ...
6. whether ... or ...
7. not only ... but also ...
8. if ... then ...
9. although ... yet ...

Mas'ud (2005) stated that Coordinating Conjunction is classified into 4 types based on its definitions, namely:

1. *Cumulative Conjunction*  
(and, both ... and, as well as, and also, not only ... but also, furthermore, likewise, besides, again, moreover, in addition, similarly)
2. *Alternative Conjunction*  
(or, either ... or, or else, otherwise, neither, neither ... nor)
3. *Adversative Conjunction*  
(but, however, still, yet, in spite of, despite, notwithstanding, (al)though, nevertheless, on the other hand, on the contrary, in contrast, conversely)
4. *Illative Conjunction*  
(therefore, accordingly, thus, hence, consequently, so, because of, for this reason, as a result, regardless of)

**A subordinating conjunction** is linking a word to connect a subordinate clause to the main clause. The conjunctions are *after, before, when, while, as soon as, as, as if, because, since, even though, if, in order that, lest, than, though, that, although, until, where, until, etc.*

Here will be explained some examples of the use of conjunctions. Let's learn together.

## 8.3 And, But, Or, So, Because

Murphy (1998) explained conjunctions that connect two sentences, such as **and**, **but**, **or**, **so**, and **because**. These words will make a longer sentence from two short sentences.

Examples:

A short sentence A : **Ali drives a car.**

A short sentence B : **Intan rides a motorcycle.**

The long sentence : Ali drives a car **and** Intan rides a motorcycle.

### 8.3.1 Using AND/BUT/OR

Pay attention to these sentences below.

*Sentence A*

*Sentence B*

|                           |            |                           |
|---------------------------|------------|---------------------------|
| I like learning English   | <b>and</b> | I like teaching English.  |
| My uncle is a doctor      | <b>and</b> | my sister is a nurse.     |
| He doesn't like a cow     | <b>but</b> | he likes eating beef.     |
| Mia likes Math            | <b>but</b> | she doesn't like English. |
| You can wear a pink shirt | <b>or</b>  | a blue one to the party.  |
| Do you prefer meat ball   | <b>or</b>  | fried rice for dinner?    |

In addition, when we use **and** as the conjunction in sentences, it is placed between the last two things:

1. I get up early, take a bath, have breakfast, **and** go to the office.
2. Fariq played a ball, Nadine played dolls, **and** El watched TV.

Besides, Azar (2003) explained some rules in terms of connecting ideas with **AND**, **BUT**, and **OR**.

**Connecting ideas with AND**

**Connecting items within a sentence.**

(a) No Comma : I saw a cat **and** a mouse.

(b) Comma : I saw a cat, a mouse, **and** a dog.

When **and** connects only **two** words (or phrases) within a sentence, NO COMMA is used, as in (a). When **and** connects

**three or more** items within a sentence, COMMAS are used, as in (b). (In a series of three or more items, the comma before **and** is optional. Also CORRECT: *I saw a cat, a mouse and a dog*).

### Connecting two sentences.

(c) Comma : I saw a cat, *and* you saw a mouse.

When *and* connects two complete sentences (independent clauses), a comma is usually used, as in (c).

(d) Period : I saw a cat. You saw a mouse.

(e) *Incorrect* : I saw a cat, you saw a mouse.

Without **and**, two complete sentences are separated by a period/full stop, as in (d), NOT a comma.

A complete sentence begins with a capital letter; note that *You* is capitalized in (d).

### Connecting ideas with **BUT** and **OR**

1. I went to bed **but** *couldn't* sleep.

2. Is a lemon *sweet* **or** *sour*?

3. Did you order *juice, tea, or milk*?

Like **and**, **but** and **or** can connect items within a sentence.

Commas are used with a series of three or more items, as in (c).

4. I dropped the vase, **but** it didn't break.

5. Do we have class on Monday, **or** is Monday a holiday?

A comma is usually used when **but** or **or** combines two complete (independent) sentences into one sentence, as in (d) and (e).

### 8.3.2 Using **SO**

The conjunction of '**SO**' is used to state a result of something.

*Sentence A*

*Sentence B*

I'll have an exam next week **so** I must study hard.

Dika enjoys reading books **so** he often buys books.

Fajri likes learning English **so** he always joins an English club.

### 8.3.3 Using BECAUSE

The conjunction of **'BECAUSE'** is used to state reasons for something.

*Sentence A*

I must study hard

Dika often buys books

Nala is angry

*Sentence B*

**because** I'll have an exam next week.

**because** he likes reading books.

**because** her dress is borrowed her sister

The conjunction **'BECAUSE'** can be also placed at the beginning of a sentence and **comma** is placed between the sentences. For examples:

1. **Because** Nala's dress is borrowed her sister, Nala is angry.
2. **Because** today is rain, the garden party is cancelled.

### 8.3.4 Other Uses

Below are examples of sentences that use more than one conjunction:

1. I went to a café **and** ordered two cups of coffee **because** I invited my friend to meet up there.
2. She likes cooking **and** she wants to make a cake for us **but** she doesn't know what cakes we like, a chocolate cake **or** a cheese cake.

### 8.3.5 Exercises

Please write the sentences below. Choose from the available choices and use **and/but/or**.

#### Sentences 1

1. ~~Dina stays at home.~~
2. Davit played a game on his mobile phone.
3. I don't know whether Anza sends an email.
4. Henny tasted the food in one of the favorite restaurants in this town.
5. My mother will continue her study abroad.

**Sentences 2**

- 1. My father will not agree with the decision.
- 2. ~~She watches Netflix all the time.~~
- 3. He writes a letter to his friend abroad.
- 4. He didn't stop to play the game.
- 5. Will Iwan wait here?

Please write sentences about what you did yesterday.  
Use **and/but/or/so/because**.

- 1. (and) Every morning I always get up early and clean my bedroom.
- 2. (because) Because I want to have a good achievement in my class, I must study hard.
- 3. (but).....
- 4. (so).....
- 5. (or).....
- 6. (because).....
- 7. (and).....

**8.4 Both ... and .../As well as**

**8.4.1 Using BOTH ... AND ...**

Using **both ... and** is to highlight the two things are related (Cambridge Dictionary, 2023b). Compared to **and** alone, this has a stronger connection:

- 1. **Both** you **and** I agree to Dean's decision to prepare all the documents related with accreditation of our department.  
*(Stronger connection than you **and** I agree to Dean's decision to prepare all the documents related with accreditation of our department)*
- 2. I love **both** English listening **and** speaking activities.  
*(Stronger connection than I love English listening **and** speaking activities.)*

### 8.4.2 Using AS WELL AS

Conjunction '**as well as**' is not same with '**and**'. Cambridge dictionary (2023a) stated that **as well as** is a multi-word preposition which has meaning 'in addition' to give additional information, but the main "actor" is the word that comes before **as well as**. Therefore, '**as well as**' emphasizes that one of its elements is more important.

Let's pay attention to use '**as well as**' in sentences, so that we are not confused in its use by Kampung Inggris's explanation (2023).

1. Diana **and** her brother help me bring the stuff from the warehouse.
2. Diana, **as well as** her brother, helps me bring the stuff from the warehouse. (*not only Diana but also her sister, helped me carry things from the warehouse*) (*the author wants to emphasize that Diana is more important than her sister*). (Kampung Inggris, 2023)

## 8.5 Although, Though, Even Though, In Spite of, Despite

Murphy (2012) stated some explanations about using *although*, *though*, *even though*, *in spite of*, and *despite* in sentences.

### 8.5.1 Using Although & Because

We use a subject + verb after using **ALTHOUGH**

1. Although it is difficult, Fariq still studies hard.
2. I will not teach in your class although you force me.

Then, compare the meaning of **although** and **because**.

1. We enjoyed the party in the garden **although** it was rainy.
2. We didn't enjoy the party in the garden **because** it was rainy.

### 8.5.2 Using In Spite Of & Despite

We use a *noun*, a *pronoun* (**this/that/what**, etc.), or **-ing** after using **IN SPITE OF** or **DESPITE**.

1. **In spite of the rain**, we enjoyed the party.
2. My aunt's son isn't well, but **in spite of this** she continued working at his office.
3. **In spite of what** you decided yesterday not to communicate with my friend, I still have friends with you and her.
4. I didn't buy his mobile phone **in spite of having** the necessary qualifications that I want.

**Despite** is the same with **in spite of**. We say **in spite of**, but **despite** without using *of*.

- My aunt's son isn't well, but **despite this** she continued working at his office. (*not despite of this*)

We can say '**in spite of the fact** (that) ...' and '**despite the fact** (that)...':

- I didn't apply for the job **in spite of the fact** (that) I had the qualifications.
- I didn't apply for the job **despite the fact** (that) I had the qualifications.

Compare **in spite of** and **because of**:

- We enjoyed the party **in spite of the rain**. (*or ... despite the rain.*)
- We didn't enjoy it **because of the rain**.

### 8.5.3 Using Although & In Spite Of/Despite:

Compare **although** and **in spite of / despite**:

1. **Although the weather was** rainy, we arrived on time. (*not in spite of the weather was rainy*)
2. **In spite of the weather**, we arrived on time. (*not in spite of the weather was rainy*)



5. I couldn't understand the English lesson **although I studied many times**. (*not* despite I studied many times)
6. I couldn't understand the English lesson **despite studying** many times. (*not* despite I studied many times)

#### 8.5.4 Using Though & Although:

The words of **Though** and **Although** are same.

1. I didn't buy his mobile phone **though** it had the necessary qualifications that I want.

We often use **though** at the end of the sentence in spoken English:

1. I don't get a good score in English test. I like the process to achieve the scores **though**. (= but I like the process to achieve the scores)
2. My father bought many fruit yesterday. I've never tasted **though**. (= but I've never tasted)

We often use **though** at the end of the sentence in spoken English:

1. I don't get a good score in English tests. I like the process of achieving the scores **though**. (= but I like the process to achieve the scores)
2. Fajri knows Fariq that Fariq is Fajri's family. Fajri never speaks to Fariq **though**. (=but Fajri never speaks to Fariq)

**Even though** (*but not 'even' alone*) is similar to **although**:

1. **Even though** Shirazy is sick, he still joins the exam. (*not* even Shirazy is sick)

### 8.5.5 Exercises

Complete **the sentences**. Use **although + a sentence from the list**.

1. I don't really enjoy getting wet.
  2. ~~The salary was lower than he expected.~~
  3. They are not well-prepared for the trip.
  4. The tickets were quite expensive.
  5. She has a very busy schedule.
- 
1. He accepted the job offer **although the salary was lower than he expected**.
  2. I decide to go for a run in the rain \_\_\_\_\_.
  3. They go on a camping trip \_\_\_\_\_.
  4. \_\_\_\_\_, it was a fantastic concert.
  5. \_\_\_\_\_, she always arrives early for meetings.

Complete **the sentences with** although/in spite of/because/because of.

1. **Although** it rained a lot, we enjoyed the party.
2. ... we'd planned everything carefully for the event, some things didn't work.
3. I came home late ... I had a lot of work at the office.
4. I went to school tomorrow ... I was still sick.
5. Fajri didn't accept the job... the salary, which was very low.
6. Nala accepted the job ...the salary, which was rather low.
7. ... there was not a lot of noise, I didn't sleep quite well.
8. I couldn't get to take a rest ... my noisy neighbors.

Use your own ideas to complete the following sentences:

1. He didn't break the rules of traffic although ...
2. He didn't break the rules of traffic because ...
3. I didn't drink much although ...
4. I didn't drink much in spite of ...

Make one sentence from two. Use two the word(s) in brackets in your sentences.

1. He went to bed early. He was tired. (because)  
*He went to bed early because he was tired.*
2. Gina is not good at socializing. Gina is kind. (although)  
.....  
.....
3. The weather is cold. Rini isn't wearing a coat. (even though)  
.....  
.....

Use the words in brackets to make a sentence with **though** at the end.

1. The design of building that office isn't good. (like/the people that work there) *I like the people that work there though.*
2. It's sunny today. (very windy) .....
3. They didn't like the beverage. (drink) .....
4. Dika is very nice. (don't like/friend) I .....

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# CHAPTER 9

## VERB

*By Raynesta Mikaela Indri Malo*

### 9.1 Introduction

In grammar, words are divided into different classes based on their roles or functions in a sentence. These classes are called parts of speech or word classes (Herring, 2016). Based on the structure and function of words within sentences, they are grouped into the major word classes including nouns, verbs, adverbs, and adjectives, and minor word classes like conjunctions, prepositions, pronouns, and interjections (Lehmann, 2013).

Each of this class has their own roles in a sentence. Altenberg and Vago (2010) explain that nouns are typically described as words that represent a person, location, object, or concept and usually fill the position of subject and object in the sentence. Verbs are typically used to convey an action and complete the predicate of a sentence. Adjectives describe the qualities of a noun, while adverbs generally provide details about location, time, intensity, and manner. All the other minor classes also have their own roles in sentences.

This part of the book will focus on the use of verbs. As it mentioned above, verbs are words that describe the actions or the states of being (people, animals, places, or things) (Herring, 2016). A verb is a required part in a sentence, as the predicate, which works together with the subject to form a complete sentence. Verbs show what action the subject does or describe something about the condition of the subject (DeCapua, 2008).

## 9.2 Types of Verbs

### Action Verbs

Action verbs are words that convey the action performed by the subject, typically involving physical movement. It states what the subject is performing, both physically and mentally. This type of verb is divided into two, the physical action verb that expresses the physical activities or movements and the mental action verbs (sometimes called as nonaction verbs) which includes internal processes and actions related to thinking, perceiving, or feeling.

Action verbs has a very important role in forming meaningful sentences in English since they help carry the activities or actions performed by the subject clearly and accurately. Below are some examples of each of the category.

#### 1. Physical action verbs

- a. Run: to go or move faster than a walk  
*I bet Andi can **run** faster than Bryan.*  
*(Aku yakin Andi bisa berlari lebih cepat dari Bryan.)*
- b. Climb: to go upward on or along, to the top of, or over something, such as a hill.  
*He **climbs** over the fence.*  
*(Dia memanjat pagar.)*
- c. Jump: to spring into the air, freely from the ground or other base by the muscular action of feet and legs.  
*The circus dolphin **jumped** through the hoop.*  
*(Lumba-lumba sirkus melompati lingkaran itu.)*
- d. Eat: to take in through the mouth as food.  
*I **eat** lunch with my coworker.*  
*(Saya makan siang bersama rekan kerja saya.)*

- e. Bring: to convey, lead, carry, or cause something to come along, from one place to another.

*She **brings** a lot of books in her bag.*

*(Dia membawa banyak buku di dalam tasnya)*

It can be seen from the examples above that all the verbs imply actions that are physically carry out by the actors because they involve certain body parts in the action.

## 2. Mental action verbs

- a. Think: to form or have in the mind, such as intention and opinion.

*I **think** she is the best manager in that office.*

*(Menurut saya, dia adalah manajer terbaik di kantor itu.)*

- b. Hope: to want or desire something to happen or be true.

*I **hope** you're feeling better soon.*

*(Saya berharap kamu segera sembuh.)*

- c. Decide: to make a final choice, decision, or judgment about something.

*The case will be **decided** by the court.*

*(Kasus ini akan diputuskan oleh pengadilan.)*

- d. Learn: to grasp or gain knowledge or understanding or skill through study or experience.

*They **learn** English in high school.*

*(Mereka mempelajari Bahasa Inggris di SMA.)*

- e. Imagine: to form a mental image of something, which is not present.

*I **imagine** that the company will do better next year.*

*(Saya membayangkan Perusahaan ini akan menjadi lebih baik tahun depan.)*

From the examples above, all the verbs used are mental action verbs since all the actions occur in the mind of the actors, not physically carried out.

## Linking Verbs

Linking verbs carry the state of being in a way that they connect the subject of a sentence with a word that restates or provides additional information about the subject (Stobbe, 2008). Usually, they are used to connect the subject with an adjective or a predicate nominative that describes the subject as the complement (DeCapua, 2008).

The most common linking verbs are all forms of *to be* such as *am*, *is*, *are*, *was*, *were*, *been*, and *being*. Other forms of linking verbs are words such as *become*, and other words that related to our senses as *look*, *sound*, *seem*, and *taste*. Let's take a look at some of the examples below.

1. He **is** my my favorite teacher.  
*(Dia adalah guru favorit saya.)*
2. They **were** the first students of this school.  
*(Mereka dulunya adalah murid pertama sekolah ini.)*
3. Her perfume **smells** nice.  
*(Aroma parfumnya wangi.)*
4. Nora **feels** sick today.  
*(Nora merasa tidak sehat hari ini.)*



5. The food **tasted** too sweet.  
(*Makanan waktu itu terlalu manis.*)

In the examples above, the linking verbs connect the subjects (“he”, “they”, “her perfume”, “Nora”, and “the food”) with the descriptions (“favorite teacher”, “the first students of this school”, “nice”, “sick”, and “too sweet”). The descriptions are the complement of the sentence which comes mostly in the form of adjectives or adjective phrases.

### Helping Verbs

Helping verbs, which are also known as auxiliary verbs, have the role to helping or assisting the main verbs in completing the sentence by providing additional information or expressing time. The three main helping verbs in English are *be*, *do*, and *have* with all their forms. Besides, modal verbs, for example “can,” “may,” etc. also function as helping verbs. They are used together with another verb to show possibility, obligation, capability, and permission. Helping verbs or auxiliary verbs are important because even though the main verb conveys the key concept of the sentence, it may require an auxiliary verb to fully convey its meaning (Stobbe, 2008). Examples of helping verbs in sentences follow:

1. *She **does** love chocolate.*  
(*Dia sangat menyukai coklat.*)
2. *I **am** watching a new show on TV.*  
(*Saya sedang menonton sebuah acara baru di TV.*)
3. ***Do** you like books?*  
(*Apakah kamu menyukai buku?*)

4. *She **may** have dinner with my family tonight.*  
*(Dia boleh makan malam Bersama keluarga saya.)*
5. *I **have** seen this picture before.*  
*(Saya telah melihat gambar ini sebelumnya.)*

From the examples above, there are different types of auxiliary verbs used together with the main verbs in the sentences. In (1), the word “does” (changes from “do” in concordance with the subject) is used alongside the verb “love” to emphasize the meaning of the main verb that the action is done in a serious manner. In (2), the *to be* “am” is helping the verb “watching” to form the present progressive tense to show that the action is still happening at the present moment or is in progress.

In (3), the helping verb is “do” and works to help the main verb “like” in forming a question. “Do” and its other forms, “does” and “did”, are used to help the main verb in forming question and negative forms. In sentence (4), the modal verb “may” is the auxiliary verb that works together with the main verb “have” to show the possibility of the action to be carried out. Lastly, in (5), the helping verb is “have” which come alongside the main verb “seen” to form the present perfect tense of the sentence. This tense is used to describe an action that started in the past and continues into the present. The present perfect tense is utilized to explain an action that began in the past and is still ongoing in the present.

### **9.3 Regular and Irregular Verbs**

In its use for different tenses, verb forms change. It means that the base form, which is usually used in the present tense, will change in form when used in the past tense or in any other tense. Verbs are categorized into two groups, regular

verbs and irregular verbs, based on their patterns of change. The first group uses a predictable pattern in changing form while the latter does not follow a regular pattern (Stobbe, 2008).

## **Regular Verbs**

Regular verbs are verbs that have a consistent (regular) pattern when creating their past tense and past participle forms. Most verbs have the same form for both the past tense and past participle (Herring, 2016). They usually end in "-ed" in the past tense and past participle forms. For example, the verb "talk" becomes "talked" in the past tense and "talked" again in the past participle form. More examples can be seen below.

1. *She opens the door.*  
*She opened the door last night.*  
*She has opened the door for the students.*
2. *They look inside the room.*  
*They looked inside the room yesterday.*  
*They have looked inside the room before renting it.*
3. *We study English at the high school.*  
*We studied English at school yesterday.*  
*We have studied English for 5 years.*

From the examples above, it can be seen that the changes in the verbs "open", "look", and "study" follow a predictable pattern in forming the past tense and past participle, which is by adding -ed at the end of the words. For example, the verb "open" has the form "opened" to be used in past tense and past participle (work together with the auxiliary verb *have/has*).

Additional notes for this category are (1) If a verb ends in *y*, change the *y* to *i* before adding *-ed*. This is the case of the verb *study* as in the example above. (2) With some short verbs that end in a consonant, the consonant must be doubled before adding *-ed*. For example, the verb “grab” will have a double *b* and will change to “grabbed”.

| Regular Verbs End in Y |                | Regular Verbs End in Consonant |                |
|------------------------|----------------|--------------------------------|----------------|
| Study                  | <b>Studied</b> | Grab                           | <b>Grabbed</b> |
| Carry                  | <b>Carried</b> | Wag                            | <b>Wagged</b>  |
| Cry                    | <b>Cried</b>   | Slam                           | <b>Slammed</b> |
| Hurry                  | <b>Hurried</b> | Hop                            | <b>Hopped</b>  |
| Try                    | <b>Tried</b>   | Rob                            | <b>Robbed</b>  |

## Irregular Verbs

Irregular verbs are the group which does not follow a predictable pattern when forming their past tense and past participle forms. They can change in spelling or pronunciation, or both. For example, the verb “go” becomes “went” in the past tense and “gone” in the past participle form.

Since the changes are not predictable, one needs to memorize the verb forms in order to use them accurately. The changes cannot be easily explained, and there is no way to avoid the need to memorize their verb forms (Stobbe, 2008).

Greenbaum and Nelson (2002) explains that the irregular verbs can be categorized into seven classes based on whether or not three features are present in their principal parts.

1. Irregular verbs that have the same base form, past tense, and past participle form.

| Base (V1) | Past Simple (V2) | Past Participle (V3) |
|-----------|------------------|----------------------|
| Let       | Let              | Let                  |
| Cut       | Cut              | Cut                  |
| Put       | Put              | Put                  |
| Bet       | Bet              | Bet                  |
| Hit       | Hit              | Hit                  |

- a. They often **hit** each other using the pillows.  
(Mereka sering saling pukul menggunakan bantal.)
- b. Mary **hit** a home run out of the park yesterday.  
(Mary melakukan home run hingga ke luar taman kemarin.)
- c. She **has hit** fifteen home runs this season.  
(Dia telah mencapai lima belas home run musim ini.)

2. Irregular verbs that have identical past and participles forms.

| Base (V1) | Past Simple (V2) | Past Participle (V3) |
|-----------|------------------|----------------------|
| bend      | bent             | bent                 |
| earn      | earnt            | earnt                |
| build     | built            | built                |
| have      | had              | had                  |
| make      | made             | made                 |
| learn     | learnt           | learnt               |
| smell     | smelt            | smelt                |
| spoil     | spoilt           | spoilt               |

One important note for this category is that the first vowel of the base verb does not change, the past and participles forms still have the same first vowel as the base form.

- a. The factory **makes** jet engines.  
(Pabrik itu membuat mesin jet.)
- b. She **made** the curtains herself.  
(Dia membuat tirainya sendiri.)
- c. The students **have made** a wonderful project.  
(Para siswa telah membuat sebuah proyek yang luar biasa.)

3. Irregular verbs that have identical past and participle forms, with different first vowels from the base form.

| Base (V1) | Past Simple (V2) | Past Participle (V3) |
|-----------|------------------|----------------------|
| buy       | bought           | bought               |
| hear      | heard            | heard                |
| kneel     | knelt            | knelt                |

- a. We **will buy** ice cream after class.  
(Kami akan membeli es krim setelah kuliah.)
- b. We **bought** ice cream after class yesterday.  
(Kami membeli es krim setelah kuliah kemarin.)
- c. We **have bought** ice cream for you.  
(Kami telah membeli es krim untukmu.)

4. Irregular verbs with the past are formed regularly, but the participle has an -n inflection.

| Base (V1) | Past Simple (V2) | Past Participle (V3) |
|-----------|------------------|----------------------|
| mow       | mowed            | mown                 |
| show      | showed           | shown                |

|       |         |         |
|-------|---------|---------|
| shear | sheared | shorn   |
| swell | swelled | swollen |

- a. **Show** your tickets at the gate!  
(Tunjukkan tiketmu di pintu masuk!)
  - b. They **showed** the tickets at the gate last night.  
(Mereka menunjukkan tiket di pintu masuk tadi malam.)
  - c. I **have shown** the tickets to the officer at the gate.  
(Saya sudah menunjukkan tiketnya kepada petugas di pintu masuk.)
5. Irregular verbs have a participle that is inflected, but not the past tense. For certain verbs like "blow," the participle has the same vowel as the base form. However, for verbs like "break," the past tense and participle have the same vowel.

| Base (V1) | Past Simple (V2) | Past Participle (V3) |
|-----------|------------------|----------------------|
| blow      | blew             | blown                |
| see       | saw              | seen                 |
| take      | took             | taken                |
| write     | wrote            | written              |
| break     | broke            | broken               |
| tear      | tore             | torn                 |

- a. I **write** a letter to the sponsor every month.  
(Saya menulis surat ke sponsor setiap bulan.)
- b. I **wrote** the letter last night.  
(Saya menulis surat itu tadi malam.)
- c. I **have written** the letter.  
(Saya telah menuliskan surat itu.)

6. The past and participle forms are the same, but there is a difference in the vowel of the base form and there are no modifications or alterations in the final consonants.

| Base (V1) | Past Simple (V2) | Past Participle (V3) |
|-----------|------------------|----------------------|
| bleed     | bled             | bled                 |
| dig       | dug              | dug                  |
| find      | found            | found                |
| fight     | fought           | fought               |
| get       | got              | got                  |

- a. *I **find** a very interesting book at the bookstore.*  
(Saya menemukan sebuah buku menarik di toko buku.)
- b. *She **found** the wallet on the street last night.*  
(Dia menemukan dompet itu di jalan tadi malam.)
- c. *They **have found** a new house in town.*  
(Mereka telah menemukan rumah baru di kota.)

7. Irregular verbs with the same form for the base and the participle.

| Base (V1) | Past Simple (V2) | Past Participle (V3) |
|-----------|------------------|----------------------|
| come      | came             | come                 |
| run       | ran              | run                  |

- a. *The students **come** from Asia.*  
(Mahasiswa-mahasiswa tersebut berasal dari Asia.)
- b. *We **came** home after the party.*  
(Kami pulang ke rumah setelah pesta itu.)



- c. The team **has come** to work together.  
(Tim tersebut telah datang untuk bekerja sama.)

The seven classes above accommodate most of the irregular verb forms. However, as their name is irregular, there are still many irregular verbs that cannot be accommodated through the classification.

## 9.4 How to Use Verbs

What is a verb? A verb is one or more words answering the question “What is happening?” or “What did happen?” (Stobbe, 2008). In order to form a sentence in English, the minimal unit that must be present is the subject (fulfilled mostly by nouns or pronouns) and the predicate (fulfilled by verbs). The other unit such as objects and adverbs are all additional parts presented when needed to complete the meaning of the sentence. Once the subject is chosen, then what the subject does must be determined.

In this part of this chapter, following Stobbe’s (2008) elaboration, the four principles of the verb will be explained. The word *principle* in the term *principle parts* refers to the idea that these verb forms represent the main forms common to all verbs. The four principles are the base form, the past form, the present participle, and the past participle. These four principles are used to express time. Meaning to say that verbs express time through the tenses.

### 1. The Base Form

The base form of a verb is the simplest form of a verb, which is listed in the dictionary. It is the version of the verb without any endings such as *-s*, *-ing*, and *-ed*. The base form appears in all versions of the present tense except for the third-person singular subjects. Besides, the base form, without any inflection, is also used in the future tense,

together with the *will* or *to be going to* regardless of the subjects. Take a look at the examples in the following chart.

### Simple Present Tense

|                                 |       |                                   |
|---------------------------------|-------|-----------------------------------|
| Base form                       | Walk  |                                   |
| 1 <sup>st</sup> person singular | Walk  | I <b>walk</b> to school today.    |
| 2 <sup>nd</sup> person singular | Walk  | You <b>walk</b> to school today.  |
| 3 <sup>rd</sup> person singular | Walks | She <b>walks</b> to school today. |
| 1 <sup>st</sup> person plural   | Walk  | We <b>walk</b> to school today.   |
| 2 <sup>nd</sup> person plural   | Walk  | You <b>walk</b> to school today.  |
| 3 <sup>rd</sup> person plural   | Walk  | They <b>walk</b> to school today. |

For the subject and verb agreement matter, it can be seen from the chart above that the base form changes when it is attached to the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular subjects. It should be noted that the adding of -s at the end of the verb depends on the final letter of the verbs.

|                                    |                        |                 |
|------------------------------------|------------------------|-----------------|
| Most verbs                         | Base form + -s         | Eat - Eats      |
| Verbs ending in -ch, -s, -x, or -z | Base form + -es        | Fix - Fixes     |
| Verbs ending in -y                 | Base form (- y) + -ies | Study - Studies |

### Simple Future Tense

|                  |                                                           |
|------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------|
| I, You, We, They | They <b>will walk</b> to school tomorrow.                 |
| She, He, It      | Sonia <b>is going to study</b> English at the university. |

## 2. The Past Form

The past form of a verb is used in tenses which describe an action that has already happened in the past. As it is explained above, the past form of a regular verb is transformed by adding -ed to the base form of the verb.

However, there are many irregular verbs in English that do not follow this rule. The past forms of these verbs are formed in different ways. It should be noted that The past tense of a verb remains the same regardless of the subject it is linked to (Stobbe, 2008). Meaning to say that all the past forms are used for any subjects. Look at these examples for simple past tense.

- a. Base form: *walk*

*We **walked** to school yesterday.*

*He **walked** to school yesterday.*

- b. Base form: *sleep*

*The children **slept** late last night.*

*My mom **slept** in my room with me last night.*

### 3. The Present Participle

The present participle is a verb form that ends with *-ing*. It is formed by adding the suffix *-ing* to the base form of a verb. As a verb, the present participle is used to form verb phrases in continuous tenses, such as the present continuous tense and the past continuous tense. The present participle of the main verb is used with a form of the helping verb *to be* (*am, is, are, was, were, has/have/had been*).

- a. Run + *-ing* → running

Present Continuous Tense

*The students **are running** around the field.*

Past Continuous Tense

*We **were running** to the class when the teacher came.*

- b. Swim + *-ing* → swimming

Present Perfect Continuous Tense

*Those toddlers **have been sleeping** for an hour.*

Present Continuous Tense

*He **is smiling** to you.*

#### 4. The Past Participle

The past participle is a type of verb form that is utilized to create the perfect tenses and passive sentences. The perfect tenses are a category of verb tenses used to describe completed actions. They include the past perfect tense, the present perfect tense, and the future perfect tense. The rules for changing regular and irregular verbs from their base form to the past participle form are followed. These verb forms will work together with any form of *have* as the helping verb. Following are some examples of verbs in a perfect tense:

- a. The Past Perfect Tense: conveys the concept that something happened prior to another action in the past (Herring, 2016).
  - *She **had dropped** the money before she arrived at the airport.*  
*(Dia telah menjatuhkan uang itu sebelum dia tiba di bandara.)*
- b. The Present Perfect Tense: demonstrates an action that occurred at an unspecified time in the past.; action begun in the past and continuing into the present.
  - *We **have lived** in this house for five years.*  
*(Kami telah tinggal di rumah ini selama 5 tahun.)*
- c. The Future Perfect Tense: to indicate that something will come to an end or be concluded at a particular time in the future.
  - *I **will have lived** in London for three years by this year.*  
*(Tahun ini, akan genap tiga tahun saya tinggal di London.)*

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# CHAPTER 10

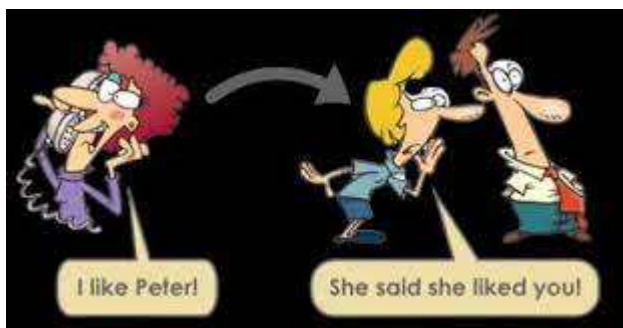
## REPORTED SPEECH

*By Morita*

### 10.1 What is Reported Speech?

According to the Oxford Learner's Dictionary, reported speech is defined as "a report of what somebody has said that does not use their exact words." Additionally, the Collins Dictionary describes reported speech as "speech which tells you what someone said, but does not use the person's actual words". According to the Cambridge Dictionary, reported speech is "the act of reporting something that was said, but not using exactly the same words".

Therefore, reported speech or also known as indirect speech, is a form of speech in which one can deliver a message said by oneself or someone else, usually in the past.



## 10.2 Things to be Considered When Using Reported Speech

As mentioned earlier, reported speech is used to tell what someone said, but without the exact words of the speaker. Here are some points that need to be considered when making reported speech:

1. Quotation marks are not needed as we are not using the exact words of the speaker.
2. The verbs that can be used are ***said, asked, told, ordered, complained, exclaimed***, etc. If we are reporting a ***positive or declarative statement***, we can use verbs such as ***said*** and ***told*** followed by ***that*** and the statement. When we are reporting ***interrogative sentences***, we can use verbs like ***asked*** or ***inquired*** followed by ***if/whether*** and the question itself. Remember, the structure of the quoted speech must follow the statement construction. When reporting ***Wh-Question***, we use the same verbs as interrogative, followed by the Wh-question word. When we are reporting ***imperative sentences***, we can use verbs such as ***commanded, ordered, or told***. Remove the question mark and exclamation mark.
3. The most important thing is that the ***sentence structure, tense, pronouns, modal verbs***, some specific ***adverbs of time*** and ***adverbs of place*** change.

## 10.3 Changing Direct Speech into Reported Speech

When changing direct speech into reported speech, we will have to make changes to the pronouns, tense, and adverbs of time and place used by the speaker. Notice the following tables.



**Table 10.1.** Change of Pronouns

| <b>Direct Speech</b> | <b>Reported Speech</b>  |
|----------------------|-------------------------|
| I                    | He, She                 |
| Me                   | Him, her                |
| We                   | They                    |
| Us                   | Them                    |
| You (S)              | I, He, she, They        |
| You (O)              | Me, Him, her, them      |
| My                   | His, her                |
| Mine                 | His, hers               |
| Our                  | Their                   |
| Ours                 | Theirs                  |
| Your                 | My, his, her, their     |
| Yours                | Mine, his, hers, theirs |

**Table 10.2.** Change of Adverbs of Place and Adverbs of Time

| <b>Direct Speech</b>    | <b>Reported Speech</b> |
|-------------------------|------------------------|
| This                    | That                   |
| These                   | Those                  |
| <b>Adverbs of Place</b> |                        |
| Here                    | There                  |
| <b>Adverbs of Time</b>  |                        |
| Now                     | Then                   |
| Today                   | That day               |
| Tomorrow                | The next day/the       |

| <b>Direct Speech</b> | <b>Reported Speech</b>              |
|----------------------|-------------------------------------|
|                      | following day                       |
| Yesterday            | The previous day                    |
| Tonight              | That night                          |
| Last week            | The previous week/the week before   |
| Next week            | The following week                  |
| Last month           | The previous month/the month before |
| Next month           | The following month                 |
| Last year            | The previous year/the year before   |
| Next year            | The following year                  |
| Ago                  | Before                              |
| Thus                 | So                                  |

**Table 10.3.** Change of Modal Auxiliaries and Auxiliary Verbs

| <b>Direct Speech</b> | <b>Reported Speech</b> |
|----------------------|------------------------|
| <b>will</b>          | <b>would</b>           |
| <b>May</b>           | <b>Might</b>           |
| <b>Can</b>           | <b>Could</b>           |
| <b>Shall</b>         | <b>Should</b>          |
| <b>must</b>          | <b>Had to</b>          |
| <b>Have/has</b>      | <b>Had</b>             |
| <b>Is/am/are</b>     | <b>Was/were</b>        |

**Table 10.4.** Change of Tense

| <b>Direct Speech</b>                                                                           | <b>Reported Speech</b>                                                                         |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b><u>Simple Present</u></b><br><br>Jasmine said, "I cook breakfast."                          | <b><u>Simple Past</u></b><br><br>Jasmine said that she cooked breakfast.                       |
| <b><u>Present Continuous</u></b><br><br>Jasmine said, "I am cooking breakfast."                | <b><u>Past Continuous</u></b><br><br>Jasmine said that she was cooking breakfast.              |
| <b><u>Present Perfect</u></b><br><br>Jasmine said, "I have cooked breakfast."                  | <b><u>Past Perfect</u></b><br><br>Jasmine said that she had cooked breakfast.                  |
| <b><u>Present Perfect Continuous</u></b><br><br>Jasmine said, "I have been cooking breakfast." | <b><u>Past Perfect Continuous</u></b><br><br>Jasmine said that she had been cooking breakfast. |
| <b><u>Simple Past</u></b><br><br>Jasmine said, "I cooked breakfast."                           | <b><u>Past Perfect</u></b><br><br>Jasmine said that she had made breakfast.                    |
| <b><u>Past Continuous</u></b><br><br>Jasmine said, "I was cooking breakfast."                  | <b><u>Past Perfect Continuous</u></b><br><br>Jasmine said that she had been cooking breakfast. |
| <b><u>Present Future</u></b>                                                                   | <b><u>Past Future</u></b>                                                                      |

| Direct Speech                           | Reported Speech                              |
|-----------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------|
| Jasmine said, " I will cook breakfast." | Jasmine said that she would cook breakfast.  |
| <u>Modal Auxiliaries (Present)</u>      | <u>Modal Auxiliaries (Past)</u>              |
| Jasmine said, "I can cook breakfast."   | Jasmine said that she could cook breakfast.  |
| Jasmine said, "I must cook breakfast."  | Jasmine said that she had to cook breakfast. |

### Exercise 1

**Change the following sentences into Reported Speech.**

1. Mia told me, "I am sorry I can't come to your house tomorrow."  
\_\_\_\_\_
2. Father said, " I have had this car for more than ten years."  
\_\_\_\_\_
3. The teacher announced, "You are going to have your final exam next week."  
\_\_\_\_\_
4. I told my mom, "I will buy the groceries tomorrow morning."  
\_\_\_\_\_

5. Dean said, “ My uncle built this house a couple of years ago.”
- 

6. Tom told me, “You need to recheck your schedule this week.”
- 

7. Tina said, “My fiancée asked me to marry him last night.”
- 

8. We told them, “You won’t be able to finish the work on time if you don’t pay off your supplier.”
- 

9. Peter informed us, “Our CEO is having an agreement with our new investor.”
- 

10. I told my sister, “ You have been using my cell phone since an hour ago. I need it now.”
- 

## 10.4 Reporting Questions

When reporting a question, either a yes/no question or Wh-question, its structure must be changed into a statement. Notice the changes in the following tables.

**Table 10.5. Yes/No Questions**

| <b>Direct Speech</b>                                        | <b>Reported Speech</b>                                                           |
|-------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b><u>Simple Present</u></b>                                | <b><u>Simple Past</u></b>                                                        |
| Dika asked me, "Do you like coffee?"                        | Dika asked me <i>if/whether</i> I liked coffee.                                  |
| <b><u>Present Continuous</u></b>                            | <b><u>Past Continuous</u></b>                                                    |
| Diane asked me, "Are you listening to me?"                  | Diane asked me <i>if/whether</i> I was listening to her.                         |
| <b><u>Present Perfect</u></b>                               | <b><u>Past Perfect</u></b>                                                       |
| The teachers asked Mary, "Have you finished your homework?" | The teacher asked Mary <i>if/whether</i> she had finished her homework.          |
| <b><u>Present Perfect Continuous</u></b>                    | <b><u>Past Perfect Continuous</u></b>                                            |
| Tommy asked me, "Have you been waiting for me all morning?" | Tommy asked me <i>if/whether</i> I had been waiting for him all morning.         |
| <b><u>Simple Past</u></b>                                   | <b><u>Past Perfect</u></b>                                                       |
| Jack asked his sister, "Did you stay up late last night?"   | Jack asked his sister <i>if/whether</i> she had stayed up late the night before. |
| <b><u>Past Continuous</u></b>                               | <b><u>Past Perfect</u></b>                                                       |

| Direct Speech                                                                                                            | Reported Speech                                                                                                                                                   |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Julia asked me, "Were you studying for your final test?"                                                                 | <u>Continuous</u><br>Julia asked me <i>if/whether</i> I had been studying for my final test.                                                                      |
| <u>Present Future</u><br>Sinta asked me, "Will you come to my birthday party next week?"                                 | <u>Past Future</u><br>Sinta asked me <i>if/whether</i> I would come to her birthday party the following week.                                                     |
| <u>Modal Auxiliaries (Present)</u><br>Dion asked, "Can I go now?"<br><br>Sally asked me, "Must I clean this room today?" | <u>Modal Auxiliaries (Past)</u><br>Dion asked <i>if/whether</i> he could go then.<br><br>Sally asked me <i>if/whether</i> she had to clean that room on that day. |

**Table 10.6. Wh- Questions**

| <b>Direct Speech</b>                                                                                    | <b>Reported Speech</b>                                                                              |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b><u>Simple Present</u></b><br><br>Dika asked me, "What do you do for a living?"                       | <b><u>Simple Past</u></b><br><br>Dika asked me what I did for a living.                             |
| <b><u>Present Continuous</u></b><br><br>Diane asked me, "What are you eating?"                          | <b><u>Past Continuous</u></b><br><br>Diane asked me what I was eating.                              |
| <b><u>Present Perfect</u></b><br><br>The teachers asked Mary, "How did you solve this math problem?"    | <b><u>Past Perfect</u></b><br><br>The teacher asked Mary how I had solved that math problem.        |
| <b><u>Present Perfect Continuous</u></b><br><br>Tommy asked me, "What have you been doing all morning?" | <b><u>Past Perfect Continuous</u></b><br><br>Tommy asked me what I had been doing all morning.      |
| <b><u>Simple Past</u></b><br><br>Jack asked his sister, "What time did you arrive last night?"          | <b><u>Past Perfect</u></b><br><br>Jack asked his sister what time she had arrived the night before. |
| <b><u>Past Continuous</u></b><br><br>Julia asked me, "Whom were you talking to at                       | <b><u>Past Perfect Continuous</u></b><br><br>Julia asked me whom I                                  |



| <b>Direct Speech</b>                                                                                                                       | <b>Reported Speech</b>                                                                                                                   |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| the party yesterday?"                                                                                                                      | had been talking to at the party the day before.                                                                                         |
| <b><u>Present Future</u></b><br><br>Sinta asked me, "What will you have for dinner tonight?"                                               | <b><u>Past Future</u></b><br><br>Sinta asked me what I would have for dinner that night.                                                 |
| <b><u>Modal Auxiliaries (Present)</u></b><br><br>Dion asked, "How can I help you?"<br><br>Sally asked me, "where must I put these things?" | <b><u>Modal Auxiliaries (Past)</u></b><br><br>Dion asked how he could help me..<br><br>Sally asked me where she had to put those things. |

## **Exercise 2**

**Change into Reported Speech.**

1. My father asked me, "Did you have your breakfast this morning?"

2. He asked me, "What time do you go to work every morning?"

---

3. Tom asked me, "Why did you quit your work?"

---

4. Stanley asked me, "Can you post these letters for me?"

---

5. Dion asked me, "When will you come to my house?"

---

6. James asked Liza, "Have you made any plans for the coming holiday?"

---

7. Tia asked me, "What have you bought for your mom's birthday?"

---

8. Lia asked her brother, "How often do you clean your bedroom?"

---

9. I asked my brother, "Why didn't answer my phone call yesterday?"

---

10. The officer asked me, "How old are you?"

---

11. Mom asked me, "Are you going to stay at your grandma's house this weekend?"

---

12. I asked my dad, "How did you meet mom for the first time?"

---

13. The receptionist asked me, "Do you have an appointment with Mr. Andrews?"

---

14. Anne asked me, "Why has the the GA101 flight been cancelled?"

---

15. The manager asked his secretary, "Have you contacted Mr. Amir about our new arrangement?"

---

16. Danny asked me, "Can you bring these files to your supervisor?"

---

17. Ted asked his wife, "When are you coming back?"

---

18. The police officer asked the man, "Were you driving your car when the accident happened?"

---

19. Miss. Anita asked me, “Are you happy with the quality of our goods?”

---

20. Tom asked his wife, “Do I have to paint the fence today?”

---



**10.5 Reporting Command/Imperative**

When reporting command or imperative, there is no change in the verb form. Let’s pay attention to the following table.

**Table 10.7.** Command/Imperative

| Direct Speech                         | Reported Speech                      |
|---------------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| Positive Imperative                   |                                      |
| The teacher asked us, “Open page 10!” | The teacher asked us to pen page 10. |
| She told me, “Stay calm!”             | She told me to stay calm.            |

| Direct Speech                                                | Reported Speech                                          |
|--------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>Negative Imperative</b>                                   |                                                          |
| <b>Mom said, "Don't play with matches!"</b>                  | <b>Mom told me not to play with matches.</b>             |
| <b>Shane told me, "Don't forget to bring your passport!"</b> | <b>Shane told me not to forget to bring my passport.</b> |

### Exercise 3

#### **Change into Reported Speech.**

1. Liz asked me, "Please, give me your book."  
\_\_\_\_\_
2. The man told the little boy, "Don't go near the lion's cage!"  
\_\_\_\_\_
3. Mom told Bimo, "Put off your shoes!"  
\_\_\_\_\_
4. The coach said to Jack, "Run around this field three times!"  
\_\_\_\_\_
5. The officer told me, "Don't park your car here."  
\_\_\_\_\_
6. Alison asked me, "Help me with my homework."  
\_\_\_\_\_

7. The police officer said to me, "Show me your driving license!"

---

8. I asked him, "Don't forget to lock the door."

---

9. The librarian said to me, "Leave the books over here."

---

10. I told Sammy, "Don't be angry at me, please."

---

#### **Exercise 4: Mixed Reported Speech**

**Choose the best answer.**

1. Mary: "I love jazz."

Mary said that she ..... jazz.

- a. loved
- b. loves
- c. lovingd
- d. would love

2. Tia: "I went skiing last holiday."

Tia said that .....

- a. I went skiing last holiday
- b. she went skiing last holiday
- c. She had gone skiing the previous holiday
- d. she had gone skiing last holiday

3. Maurice: "I will eat pizza for lunch."  
Maurice said that .....
- a. He will eat pizza for lunch
  - b. I will pizza for lunch
  - c. I would eat pizza for lunch
  - d. I would pizza for lunch
4. Dian: "When are you coming?"  
Dian asked me .....
- a. When you are coming
  - b. when am coming
  - c. When I was coming
  - d. when was I coming
5. Brian: Have you ever been to Sydney before?  
Brian asked me .....
- a. If I had ever been to Sydney before
  - b. that I had ever been to Sydney before
  - c. If I have ever been to Sydney before
  - d. that I have ever been to Sydney before
6. Nick: "Please, don't go."  
Nick asked his wife .....
- a. To please don't go
  - b. not to please don't go
  - c. Not to go
  - d. please not to go
7. Tiara: "Can you type this letter for me?"  
Tiara asked her sister .....
- a. If she could type that letter for her
  - b. if she can type that letter for me
  - c. If she could type that letter for me

- d. if she can type this letter for me
8. Stanley: "I am going to move to Ohio next month."  
Stanley said that .....
- a. I was going to move to Ohio next month
  - b. he was going to move to Ohio next month
  - c. I was going to move to Ohio the following month
  - d. He was going to move to Ohio the following month
9. Ali: "I had a cat."  
Ali said that .....
- a. He had
  - b. he had had
  - c. he had
  - d. I had had
10. The teacher: "Come here!"  
The teacher asked me .....
- a. To come here
  - b. to come there
  - c. Not to come here
  - d. not to come there



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# CHAPTER 11

## CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

*By Roikestina Silaban*

### 11.1 Introduction

Conditional sentences are expressions that show a desire that has not been fulfilled, but the speaker intends to do so. Although sometimes the context of the sentence seems like it's just a dream or wishful thinking. It also indicate a condition.

Conditional sentences are part of the sentence structure used to express presuppositions. The sentence structure is organized using a causal relationship to explain past, present, and future activities.

Conditional sentences are natural language sentences that express that one thing is contingent on something else, e.g. "If it rains, the picnic will be cancelled." They are so called because the impact of the main clause of the sentence is conditional on the dependent clause. [Wikipedia](#)

In English, there are several types of Conditional Sentences. According to Alexander (2003, p.276), "Conditional sentences are usually divided into three basic types referred to as present conditional, past conditional, and future conditional." It refers to someone's daily activities to make a wish, dream, hope, and imagine what he or she wants to live.

Betty SchramperAzzar (2003) asserts that conditional phrases function as questions since they contain an if clause (which expresses a condition). There are three different kinds of conditional sentences: Using a conditional statement, describe a behavior that is different from others. Real and unreal conditions are the most generic types of conditions. It is

known as an if-clause at times. It describes imagination in light of reality. The final conditional statement, which is zero conditional and denotes general truth, reflects remorse that occurred in the past.

The conditional sentence contains two clauses: a main sentence and a dependent clause that starts with if (or a nother conjunction serving the same purpose, according to Wishon et al., 1980:249).

The if clause's outcome is the primary clause. The conditional clause states a condition for a result to happen or not happen.

According to Tumijo (2009:67-69), there are three basics patterns of conditional sentences. Each pattern has a different combination of verb forms, it depends on whether the time is present, past or future, and whether the condition is true or not true.

Conditional sentences describe possible previous events that did not take place. Two clauses make up a conditional sentence: the main clause and a dependent clause that starts with if (or another conjunction serving the same basic purpose). According to George E. Wishon and Julia M. Burks (2006), the main clause expresses the outcome of the if clause.

According to Thomson and Martinet (2003:197), a conditional sentence consists of an if clause and a main clause. Additionally, they claim that there are three separate types of conditional sentences, each of which has a unique pair of tenses in some forms. Thomson and Martinet (197–200) classified the three forms of conditional sentences as type I, which is probable or real, type II, which is improbable or unreal, and type III, which is unreal or improbable.

A grammar element in English is the conditional sentence. According to Azar (1989) conditional sentence or clause consist of an if -clause, named sub clause and this result found in the main clause that depends on the if - clause. There

are three different forms of conditional sentences, each of which differs from the others.: if you give me money, I will help you. (Type I) if you gave me money, I would help you. (Type II) if you have given me money, I would have helped you. (Type III). These examples demonstrate how the verb form changes in conditional sentences of type I, type II, and type III in English, but not in conditional sentences of type I, type II, or type III in Indonesian.

In line with the above statement, Nur (2017:36) stated that Indonesian students who learn English encounter the problems in learning conditional sentence. They may understand the syntactic changes of each type, but they may have difficulties in understanding the semantics of all types. So, conditional sentence is really needed to learn in terms form, meaning, and use.

Compound sentences with a condition of hypothesis, speculation, or something that has never occurred are called conditional sentences. These outlined assumptions might or might not come true.

'If' is typically the first word in the independent and dependent clauses of a conditional statement. Only a conditional sentence can be referred to as having these two components. However, 'when' can be used before some sentences.

The form of a conditional sentence is if clause + main clause. If clause is a clause that is part of the supposition. Main clause is a sentence that contains the consequences of the presupposition conditions at the beginning of the sentence. The main clause + if clause format for conditional sentences is another option. Here are some conditional sentence examples.

Examples of conditional sentence:

1. **If I save enough money, I can go to Bali this year**  
(the beginning of this sentence is an if – clause followed by the main clause)
2. **My sister can have dessert if she finishes her homework.**  
(The if - clause comes after the main clause at the start of the sentence.)

However, before you can construct good sentences, you must first understand the grammar in English. You can use the Smart Trick Grammar book to learn various tips and tricks to understand grammar easily.

## **11.2 Types of Conditional Sentence**

If you ask about how many types of if clauses to express delusions and suppositions under different conditions, the answer is generally 4 conditional sentence types. But here, we'll focus on three different kinds of conditional sentences. Where each class uses a distinct tensing structure. An if clause and a main clause are the basic components of all conditional sentences.

### **11.2.1 Conditional Sentence type 1**

Type 1 conditional sentence is used to express something that is very likely to happen in the future if we do something.

Formula:

1. If + simple present tense, simple future tense
2. Simple future tense + if + simple present tense

For example:

1. If I meet him, i will hug him.  
(According to the preceding clause, "if he meets the person, he will hug him." However, there is still a chance that they did not cross paths.)
2. If you study hard, you will be smart  
(The sentence above is a fact that if you study hard, you will be smart)
3. If you hurt me, you will be able to get into trouble  
(The sentence above explains that if someone hurts him, then that person will get into trouble. But if not, there won't be any issues for the individual.)
4. If you come on time, you don't late to enter the class  
(The sentence above explains that if he arrives on time, he will not be late for class)
5. If it rains tomorrow, I will stay at home.  
(The sentence above states the situation that may occur in the future and the results that will occur if the situation is met. Because rain is a possible situation)
6. If I win, my friend and I will go to the movies.  
(The sentence above explains that if he gets the champion, he will go to the movies with his friend. But it also means that he might not succeed, therefore he and his companion won't go to the movies.)
7. If you don't water the plants, they die.  
(The sentence above states the situations that may occur in the future and the results that will occur if those situations

are met. Because not watering the plant is a possible action)

8. If he arrives on time, we will catch the train.  
(The sentence above states the possibility of catching the train will occur if he arrives on time.)
9. If they save money, they will be able to buy a car.  
(The sentence above states the possibility of buying a car will occur if they save.)
10. If she practices every day, she will become a better singer.  
(The possibility of becoming a better singer will happen if he trains every day.)

### **11.2.2 Conditional Sentence Type 2**

Conditional sentence Type 2 used to express something that is unrealistic or very unlikely to happen. Therefore, this type is suitable for expressing our wishful thinking.

Formula:

1. If + simple past, present conditional
2. Present conditional + if + simple past

For example:

1. If rained tomorrow, i would sleep all day  
(The sentence above explains that if it rains tomorrow, he will sleep all day. But there's still a chance if tomorrow doesn't bring rain.)
2. If I found his address, i would send him an invitation  
(The sentence above explains that if he finds the person's address, he will send him an invitation. The implication is



that there is a potential he did not send the invitation since he might not have been able to find the venue.)

3. If it were sunny, i would hang my clothes outside  
(The sentence above explains that if there is a possibility of sunny weather, he will dry his clothes. However, it implies that there might not be a sunny day, thus he doesn't dry his garments.)
4. If i didn't see the doctor, my illness would be worse  
(The sentence above a fact that if he does not see a doctor, his illness will become worse)
5. If I overslept, the lecturer would punish me  
(He will suffer the consequences of his tardiness, as stated in the preceding phrase. However, if he doesn't, he won't be penalised.)
6. If I had more time, I would travel the world.  
(The sentence above states he knows he doesn't have more time now, so traveling around the world is hypothetical.)
7. If he were taller, he could reach the top shelf.  
(The sentence above states his current height is insufficient, so reaching the top shelf is a hypothetical situation.)
8. If it snowed in July, we would be surprised.  
(The sentence above states that snow in July is unlikely, so surprise is a hypothetical situation.)
9. If he had more experience, he could apply for the job

(The sentence above states his current experience is insufficient, so applying for a job is a hypothetical situation.)

10. If he were a better cook, he could prepare gourmet meals.

(The sentence above states that his current cooking skills are not good enough, so cooking gourmet meals is a hypothetical situation.)

### **11.2.3 Conditional Sentence Type 3**

Conditional sentence Type 3 used to convey assumptions about events that have occurred in the past. Because it has happened and cannot be changed in reality, we can only express the assumption of what will happen if the event goes differently from reality.

Formula:

1. If + past perfect, perfect conditional
2. Perfect conditional + if + past perfect

For example:

1. If I had followed my doctor's advice, I would have recovered fast

(The sentence above explains that if he followed his doctor's advice, there was a chance that he would recover faster)

2. If you had remember to invite me, I would have attended your party

(The sentence above explains that he will attend his party if invited)

3. if I had known she was there, I would have visited Windy in the hospital.

(He didn't visit Windy since, as was said in the previous clause, he was unaware that Windy was in the hospital.)

4. If I know my uncle will come, I will cook his favorite food  
(The sentence above explains that she didn't know her uncle was coming to her house, so she didn't cook her uncle's favorite food)
5. If he hadn't lied to me previously, he would have had my trust.
6. (The sentence explained that he no longer believed the person because he had been lied to before)
7. If he had been more careful, he wouldn't have broken his phone.  
(The sentence above states that his phone would not have been damaged if he had been more careful in the past.)
8. If they had traveled last year, they would have visited a lot of nations.  
(The sentence above explains that visiting many countries is the result of a trip in the previous year, which they did not do in the past.)
9. If she had taken the job offer, she would have earned a higher salary.  
(The sentence above explains that the higher salary is the result of accepting the job offer, which he did not receive in the past.)
10. If you had studied medicine, you would have become a doctor.

(The sentence above explains that becoming a doctor is a hypothetical situation because you did not study medicine in the past.)

11. If he had repaired the car, it wouldn't have broken down on the trip.

(The sentence above explains that his car broke down on the way because he didn't repair it in the past.)

**Table 11.1. Conditional Sentence type**

| TYPE   | FORMULATION                       | EXAMPLE                                                 | EXPLANATION                                                                                             | DESCRIPTION                                                                                                                                                         | TENSES                                      |
|--------|-----------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------|
| Type 1 | If+S+V1,<br>S+Will+V1+C           | If I meet you at the town, I will buy something for you | <u>If I meet you at the town</u><br>If clause<br><br><u>I will buy something for you</u><br>Main clause | To talk about a present situation which is possible, a hypothetical situation. The situation can be fulfilled because they will go to the same town.                | Simple Present Tense, Simple Present Future |
| Type 2 | If+S+V2,<br>S+Would+V1+C          | If you wore a different outfit, he would adore you      | <u>If you wore a different outfit</u><br>If clause<br><u>he would adore you</u><br>Main clause          | To talk about a future event which is unlikely to happen. The speaker expect her to change her dress. That is, it is unlikely that the condition will be fulfilled. | Simple Past tense, Simple Past Future       |
| Type 3 | If+S+Had+V3,<br>S+Would have+V3+C | If the doctor had not come late, my                     | <u>If the doctor had not come late,</u><br>If clause                                                    | To talk about something that might have                                                                                                                             | Simple Past Perfect, Simple                 |

| TYPE | FORMULATION | EXAMPLE                                | EXPLANATION                                                                             | DESCRIPTION                                                                                                                           | TENSES         |
|------|-------------|----------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------|
|      |             | grandmother<br>would have<br>been safe | <u>my</u><br><u>grandmother</u><br><u>would have</u><br><u>been safe</u><br>Main clause | happened in<br>the past, but<br>didn't. the<br>doctor did not<br>come ontime<br>and,<br>consequently,<br>grandmother<br>did not safe. | Past<br>Future |

Catatan: Tabel bukan dalam bentuk image tapi teks seperti contoh di atas dan sebutkan sumbernya.



**Figure 11.1. Conditional Sentences**  
(Sumber : Copyright 2004 By Glasbergen)

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# CHAPTER 12

## QUESTION WORD

*By Evan Afri*

### 12.1 Definition of Question Words

Question Words are words used to ask about time, people, places, things, objects, reasons, ways, and so on. English Question Words are various Wh-words, which are words that begin with Wh- (What, Where, When, Why, Which, Who, Whom, Whose) or words that contain the letters W and H (How).

WH questions are a set of question words used to ask about something such as asking about time, place, person, object, thing, reason, way, and others. WH questions can also be called open questions because they explain something, not just to get a yes/no answer.

### 12.2 Types of Question Words

There are 2 types of question words, namely:

1. WH question words
2. Yes/ no questions

## Types, Functions and Examples of Question Words

Take a look at the table below:

| Question Words    | Fungsi                                  | Contoh Kalimat                                     |
|-------------------|-----------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------|
| <b>what</b>       | Ask for information about something.    | <i>What is your nickname?</i>                      |
|                   | Asking for repetition, asking why.      | <i>What? I can't hear you. You did what?</i>       |
| <b>what...for</b> | Asking for reasons, asking why.         | <i>What did she do that for?</i>                   |
| <b>when</b>       | Inquire about time                      | <i>When did he move?</i>                           |
| <b>where</b>      | Ask for position or place.              | <i>Where does he live?</i>                         |
| <b>which</b>      | Inquire about options.                  | <i>Which car do you want?</i>                      |
| <b>who</b>        | Ask the subject person.                 | <i>Who close the window?</i>                       |
| <b>whom</b>       | Ask people about objects.               | <i>Whom did you invite?</i>                        |
| <b>whose</b>      | Inquire about ownership.                | <i>Whose are these pens?<br/>Whose turn is it?</i> |
| <b>why</b>        | Ask for reasons.                        | <i>Why do you call him?</i>                        |
| <b>why don't</b>  | Providing advice.                       | <i>Why don't she help me?</i>                      |
| <b>how</b>        | Ask about the method.                   | <i>How does the machine work?</i>                  |
|                   | Inquire about conditions or quantities. | <i>How was your holiday?</i>                       |

| <b>Question Words</b>          | <b>Fungsi</b>                   | <b>Contoh Kalimat</b>                     |
|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------------------------|
| <b>how</b> +<br><b>adj/adv</b> | Inquire about levels            | <i>May I have your attention, please?</i> |
| <b>how far</b>                 | Distance                        | <i>How far is Jakarta from Medan?</i>     |
| <b>how long</b>                | Length (time or space)          | <i>How long will it take?</i>             |
| <b>how many</b>                | Number (countable)c             | <i>How many buildings are there?</i>      |
| <b>how much</b>                | Number (uncountable)            | <i>How much sugar do you need?</i>        |
| <b>how old</b>                 | Age                             | <i>How old is Susan?</i>                  |
| <b>how come (informal)</b>     | Asking for reasons, asking why. | <i>How come I can't see her?</i>          |

## Meaning and Examples of Question Words

| <b>Question Words</b> | <b>Arti</b>     | <b>Contoh Kalimat</b>                                                 |
|-----------------------|-----------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b>who</b>            | People          | <i>Who's that? That's John.</i>                                       |
| <b>where</b>          | Place           | <i>Where does she live? In London</i>                                 |
| <b>why</b>            | Reason          | <i>Why do you come early? Because I've got to have some exercises</i> |
| <b>when</b>           | Time            | <i>When do you come to party? At 9:00</i>                             |
| <b>how</b>            | How to          | <i>How do you go to office? By bus</i>                                |
| <b>what</b>           | Object, idea or | <i>What do you do? I am</i>                                           |

| Question Words   | Arti                             | Contoh Kalimat                                                |
|------------------|----------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------|
|                  | <i>action</i>                    | <i>an Supervisor</i>                                          |
| <b>which</b>     | Options                          | <i>Which one do you prefer? The yellow one.</i>               |
| <b>whose</b>     | Ownership                        | <i>Whose is this book? It's Evan's.</i>                       |
| <b>whom</b>      | <i>Object of the verb</i>        | <i>Whom did you meet? I met the Diretor.</i>                  |
| <b>what kind</b> | Description.                     | <i>What kind of music do you like? I like rock music</i>      |
| <b>what time</b> | Time                             | <i>What time did you leave?</i>                               |
| <b>how many</b>  | Number<br>(countable)            | <i>How many teenagers are there? There are ten.</i>           |
| <b>how much</b>  | Quantity, price<br>(uncountable) | <i>How much time have you got? five minutes</i>               |
| <b>how long</b>  | Duration, length                 | <i>How long did you stay in that villa? For one week.</i>     |
| <b>how often</b> | Frequency                        | <i>How often do you go to the swimming pool? once a week.</i> |
| <b>how far</b>   | Distance                         | <i>How far is your school? It's one mile far.</i>             |
| <b>how old</b>   | Age                              | <i>How old are you? I'm 17.</i>                               |
| <b>how come</b>  | Reason                           | <i>How come I didn't see at the party?</i>                    |

## 12.3 Formula for using WH Question

To form a WH Question statement, there is a formula that is needed so that the sentence makes sense and is in accordance with the applicable grammar rules. The following is the formula of WH Question:

***WH + AUXILIARY VERB (to be, do, have) + SUBJECT + MAIN VERB + ?***

dan

***WH + MODAL AUXILIARY (can, could, will, would, shall, should, may, might, must) + SUBJECT + MAIN VERB + ?***

## 12.4 Functions of WH Question

WH Question has 3 main functions including the following:

### 1. Asking for Subject

Asking for subject is a type of statement that focuses on asking for the subject (doer). There are formulas or patterns for making sentences to ask for a subject.

***WHO/WHAT + VERB + OBJECT***

**Example:**

**Who close the window?**

**What happened last night?**

**Who drove the car?**

### 2. Asking for object

Asking for object is used for statements with a focus.

Asking about an object (suffering) as for a formula or pattern to make a sentence in order to ask about an object.

***WHOM/WHAT + AUXILIARY VERB + SUBJECT + VERB + OBJECT?***

Example:

What did you buy in the supermarket last morning?

Whom will jessica help?

What

### 3. Embedded question

Embedded question, also known as a stored statement sentence, is a type of sentence whose sentence form is included in another sentence or statement. The structure of this sentence is not like in an interrogative sentence but like a news sentence, and the pattern formula is as follows..

***Subject + verb + question + subject + verb + object***

Example sentences:

who called my boss 5 minutes ago?

What inspired him to visit Rome?

#### a. Verbal sentences (containing verbs)

In verbal sentences we will use the auxiliary verb DO or DOES with the following rules: use DO for plural subjects or more than one. And use DOES for a single subject.

**WHAT** is used to ask about objects, or actions

***WHAT + DO / DOES + SUBJECT + VERB 1?***

The pattern :

Contoh kalimat:

1. What does Ronaldo buy in the market?
2. What do they always do in the afternoon?

**WHERE** (used to ask about a place or location)

The pattern

***WHERE + DO + DOES + SUBJECT + VERB 1?***

Examples :

1. Where does Mona go for holiday?
2. Where do Marry and Bryan study?

**WHEN** (used to ask time)

The pattern:

***WHEN + DO / DOES + SUBJECT + VERB 1?***

Examples:

1. When does Yossi watch movie?
2. When does Alex sweep the floor?

**WHY** (used to ask for reasons)

The pattern:

***WHY + DO/DOES + SUBJECT + VERB 1 + OBJECT?***

Examples:

1. Why do Maria and Siera take English course ?
2. Why does Ani go to Surabaya?

**WHO** (is used for questioning the subject). We don't need using modals (do/does).

The Pattern:

***WHO + VERB + OBJECT?***

Examples:

1. Who has the Indonesian restaurant in the city?
2. Who teach English at junior high school?

**WHOM** (used to ask about people, especially objects)

***WHOM + DO/DOES + SUBJECT + VERB 1?***

Examples:

1. Whom do you love very much?
2. Whom does Haris hate?
3. Whom will you marry with?
4. Whom are you going to invite?
5. Whom does she call?

**WHOSE** (used to ask the owner of an item)

The pattern:

***WHOSE + NOUN + (THING) + DO/DOES + SUBJECT + VERB + OBJECT?***

Example:

1. Whose shoes does rani borrow?
2. Whose house do they buy without permission?
3. Whose car does father drive?
4. Whose house does the man buy?



**HOW** (used to ask how)

The pattern:

***HOW + DO/DOES + SUBJECT + VERB 1 + OBJECT?***

Example:

1. How does an old man look at this daughter?
2. How do the lumberjacks cut the woods?
3. How does the rider jump the fence?
4. How do the players kick the ball?
5. How does the girl paint the wall?

**Contoh lain pertanyaan how long:**

Another example of a how long question:

**HOW LONG** (is used to ask for the duration of time)

The pattern:

***HOW LONG + DO/DOES + SUBJECT + VERB 1?***

Examples:

1. How long does the trip from Bandung to Jakarta take time?
2. How long did she meet her close friend?
3. How long do they stay in your house?
4. How long will you visit London?
5. How long did you take the way?

**HOW MUCH** is used to ask for the number of objects that cannot be counted

The pattern

***HOW MUCH + DO/DOES + SUBJECT + VERB 1?***

Examples:

1. How much do you pay for your new T-Shirt?

2. How much sugar do you need?
3. How much water does she drink everyday?

**HOW MANY** is used to ask for the number of countable objects.

The pattern:

|                                                                              |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b><i>HOW MANY + NOUN (THING) + DO/DOES + SUBJECT + VERB 1 + OBJECT?</i></b> |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------|

Examples:

1. How many cars does your uncle have in his garage?
2. How many student join the english club today?

**HOW OFTEN** is used to ask about frequency

The pattern:

|                                                                |
|----------------------------------------------------------------|
| <b><i>HOW OFTEN + DO/DOES + SUBJECT + VERB 1 + OBJECT?</i></b> |
|----------------------------------------------------------------|

Examples:

1. How often does marina usually practice ballet?
2. How often do yusuf and indra swim?

**b. Nominal Sentences (sentences containing the verb "to be")**

In nominal sentences we will use To be: AM, IS or ARE with the following rules: use AM only for subject I, use IS for singular subjects, and use ARE for plural subjects or more than one.

**WHAT** (in nominal simple present tense is usually used)

To ask about someone's profession or status)

The pattern:

***WHAT + TO BE + SUBJECT?***

Examples:

1. What am **I** to you?
2. What are Susi and Alina?
3. What is Charly?

**WHERE** (used to ask about a place or location)

The pattern:

***WHERE + TO BE + SUBJECT?***

Examples:

1. Where am **I**?
2. Where are you?
3. Where is his calculator

**WHEN** (used to ask about time)

The pattern:

***WHEN + TO BE + SUBJECT?***

Examples:

1. When is the closing ceremony?
2. When are the train and plane departure?

**WHY** (is used to ask reason)

The pattern:

***WHY + TO BE + SUBJECT + OBJECT?***



Examples:

1. Why are marina and siena happy?
2. Why is alice angry to you?

**WHO** (used to ask about people)

Who can be used to ask about the subject or object of a nominal sentence.

The formula used asks for the object:

***WHO + TO BE + SUBJECT?***

Examples:

1. Who are they?
2. Who is billy

The formula used to ask for the subject:

***WHO + TO BE + OBJECT?***

Examples:

1. Who is the ceo of the italian restaurant in the city?
2. Who are the teacher of japanese at junior high school?

**WHOSE** (used to ask the owner of an item)

The pattern:

Formula used:

***WHOSE + NOUN (THING) + TO BE + SUBJECT + VERB?***

Examples:

1. Whose jacket is expensive?
2. Whose houses are big and luxurious?

**HOW** (used to ask about a condition or situation)

The pattern:

***HOW + TO BE + SUBJECT?***

Examples:

1. How is arif today?
2. How are the the victims of the floos now?

Other examples of how statements

**HOW LONG** (how long?) is used to ask about the duration of time.

The pattern:

***HOW LONG + TO BE + SUBJECT?***

Examples:

how long is the trip from bandung to jakarta about?

**HOW MUCH** is used to ask about the number of objects that cannot be counted

The pattern:

***HOW MUCH + TO BE + SUBJECT +***

Examples:

How much is the price of the sneakers?

**HOW MANY** is used to ask for the number of countable objects  
Formula:

***HOW MANY + THING (SUBJECT) + TO BE + OBJECT?***

Examples:

how many cars are in the garage?

**HOW OFTEN** is used to ask about frequency

The pattern:

|                                             |
|---------------------------------------------|
| <b><i>HOW OFTEN + TO BE + SUBJECT ?</i></b> |
|---------------------------------------------|

Examples:

how often is the meal?

**HOW FAR** is used to ask about distance.

The pattern:

|                                          |
|------------------------------------------|
| <b><i>HOW FAR + TO BE + SUBJECT?</i></b> |
|------------------------------------------|

Examples:

How far is the nearest gas station from here?

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# CHAPTER 13

## GERUNDS AND INFINITIVES

*Oleh James Sinurat*

### 13.1 Introduction

In English grammar, it is quite easy to see the difference between gerunds and infinitives. A gerund is formed by simply adding the suffix **-ing** to a base verb. Meanwhile, infinitive is a word formed by simply adding **to-** before the base verb. However, there are infinitives **with to** and there are also infinitives **without to**.

Since gerunds and infinitives are derived from verbs, English users should have good ability to understand parts of speech (noun, pronoun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, conjunction, and interjection.) in general and verbs in particular. By having good understanding of verbs, English users will be able to speak well and write well sentences with regard to gerund and infinitives.

In this writing, gerunds consist of five parts.

1. The Simple Gerunds. This part consists of the very basic understanding of gerunds. This part shows how we can write sentences with gerunds in a simple way.
2. The Function of Gerunds. There are five functions of gerunds, as: subject of a sentence; subject complement of a sentence; direct object (after certain verbs); object of preposition; and appositive.
3. The Gerunds Phrases. The gerund phrases are phrases which consist of gerund and any modifiers or objects associated with it.

4. The List of Verbs followed by Gerunds. This part consists of some words that show words directly followed by gerund in a sentence. However, not all verbs are in this form.
5. The Gerund/Gerund Phrases as Direct Object. It is important to know that not every verb in English can take a gerund construction as the the direct object.

In this part of writing, infinitives consist of five parts.

1. The Simple Infinitives. This part consists of the very basic understanding of infinitive. This part shows how to write sentences with infinitive in a simple way.
2. The Function of Infinitives. There are six functions of gerunds, as: noun, subject of the sentence; noun, subject complement; noun, object of the verb; adjective; adjective complement; and adverb.
3. The Infinitive Phrases. The Infinitive Phrases are group of words which consist of infinitive and the modifier(s) and/or (pro)noun(s) or noun phrase(s) that function as the actor(s), direct object(s), or complement(s) of the action or state expressed in the infinitive,
4. The List of Verb followed by Infinitives. This part consists of some verbs followed directly by infinitive in a sentence. However, not all verbs are in this form.
5. The Infinitive/Infinitive Phrases as Direct Object. The infinitive with its subject, object, and modifiers makes up the infinitive phrases.

## 13.2 Gerunds

Gerund is **-ing** form of a verb (Azar, 1989). A gerund is a noun that has been formed from a verb, and verb can be turned into a gerund by simply adding **-ing** to the simple form of the verb (Pollock, 1982; Ibrahim, 2019). According to Yosodipuro (2022), gerund is a flagged-out verb and so it has the same

function with verb. Rafli and Lase (2018) stated “generally, gerund can occupy some positions in a sentence that a noun ordinarily would, which are: subject, direct object, subject complement, and object of preposition”.

According to Priyanto (2022), *gerund* is a verb ending in **-ing** which functions as a noun. This means that *the gerund* can be used as a subject or object. Santoso (2007) mentioned “gerund functioning as a noun, it also retains some of the characteristics of a verb”. Look at the following examples.

| Simple Verb | Gerund    | Meaning   |
|-------------|-----------|-----------|
| walk        | walking   | berjalan  |
| eat         | eating    | makan     |
| play        | playing   | bermain   |
| travel      | traveling | bepergian |
| write       | writing   | menulis   |

### 13.2.1 The Simple Gerunds

The Simple gerunds are **-ing** form of verb used as a noun (Azar, 1989). Examples: talking, playing, understanding, singing, writing. Look at some examples of sentences below.

1. Talking (berbicara).  
My friend likes talking (teman saya suka berbicara). The word **talking** is gerund.
2. Playing (bermain).  
We enjoy playing tennis (kami menikmati bermain tennis). The word **playing tennis** is a gerund phrase.
3. Understanding (pengertian).  
Understanding is important in a good friendship (pengertian adalah penting dalam persahabatan yang baik). The word **understanding** is gerund.

4. Singing (bernyanyi).

We are all excited by the time **singing** national anthem (kita semua gembira pada saat menyanyikan lagu kebangsaan). The word **singing** is gerund.

5. Writing (menulis).

My hobby is **writing** book chapter (kegemaran saya adalah menulis bab buku). The word **writing** is gerund.

### 13.2.2 Function of Gerunds (Pollock, 1982).

As subject of a sentence. Look at the following examples.

1. **Jogging** is good exercise (Jogging adalah latihan yang baik). The word **jogging** is gerund.
2. **Traveling** is enjoyable (Bepergian itu menyenangkan). The word **traveling** is gerund.
3. **Finding** a good hotel is not always easy (Menemukan hotel yang baik tidak selalu mudah). The word **finding** is gerund.
4. **Reading** is my hobby. Membaca adalah kegemaran saya. The word **reading** is gerund.
5. **Wasting** time is not a good habit (Membuang-buang waktu bukan merupakan kebiasaan yang baik). The word **wasting** is gerund.

As subject complement of a sentence. Look at the following examples.

1. My mother's hobby is **cooking** (Kegemaran ibu saya adalah memasak). The word **cooking** is gerund.
2. My favorite form of exercise is **jogging** (Bentuk latihan favorit saya adalah jogging). The word **jogging** is gerund.
3. My father's favorite pastime is **collecting** foreign stamps (Hiburan favorit ayah saya adalah mengumpulkan perangko negara asing). The word **collecting** is gerund.

4. My roommate is against traveling (Teman sekamar saya melawan atau tidak senang bepergian) The word **traveling** is gerund.
5. Her favorit form of excercise is **dancing** (Bentuk latihan favoritnya adalah menari). The word **dancing** is gerund.

As direct object (after certain verbs). Look at the following examples.

1. I have always enjoyed **jogging** (Saya selalu menikmati jogging). **Jogging** is gerund.
2. My family has always enjoyed **traveling** (Keluarga saya selalu menikmati perjalanan). The word **traveling** is gerund.
3. We have always dreaded **staying** in one place (Kami selalu takut tinggal di satu tempat). The word **staying** is gerund.
4. At one time in the past, I decided **moving** to Bali for two years (Pada suatu saat di waktu yang lalu, saya memutuskan pindah ke Bali untuk selama dua tahun). The word **moving** is gerund.
5. I have always enjoyed **writing** book chapter (Saya selalu menikmati menulis bab buku). The word **writing** is gerund.

As object of preposition. Look at the following examples.

1. I have been interested **for learning** about English (Saya telah tertarik belajar tentang bahasa Inggris). The word **for** is preposition. The word **learning** is gerund.
2. My brother is interested **about studying** in Japan for two years. The word **about** is preposition. The word **studying** is gerund.
3. I have been accustomed **of eating** Japanese food (Saya sudah terbiasa makan masakan Jepang. The word **of** is preposition. The word **eating** is gerund.

4. She left me **without speaking** (Dia meninggalkan saya tanpa berbicara). The word **without** is preposition. The word **speaking** is gerund.
5. He is fond **of climbing** (Dia gemar memanjat). The word **of** is preposition. The word **climbing** is preposition.

As appositive. Appositive repeats or adds information about a person or thing already identified. Look at the following examples.

1. My hobby, **writing book chapter**, is enjoyable for me (Hobi saya, **menulis bab buku**, menyenangkan bagi saya).
2. My good friend really enjoys his favorite past time, **collecting stamps** (Teman baik saya sangat menikmati waktu senggang favoritnya, **mengumpulkan perangko**).
3. My mother's hobby, **cooking**, is important for her (Hobi ibu saya, **memasak**, penting baginya).
4. Hartono's plan, **studying abroad**, is challenging for him (Rencana Hartono, **belajar di luar negeri**, menantang baginya).
5. My number one pastime, **visiting garden**, is useful for me (Waktu luang saya nomor satu, **mengunjungi taman**, berguna bagi saya).

### 13.2.3 The Gerund Phrases

Gerunds function as nouns, they are similar to verbs (Pollock, 1982; Priyanto, 2022). It means that gerunds functioning as a noun, *gerunds* are the same as verbs. Just like a verb, a *gerund* can function as an object, a complement, and other *modifiers* Note: a modifier is a word, phrase, or clause that modify—that is, gives information about—another word in the same sentence.

A *gerund phrase* is a phrase which consists of a gerund and any modifiers (adjectival modifiers, adverbial modifiers) or

its objects. As whole, gerund phrase functions in a sentence just like a noun and can act as a subject, an object, or a predicate nominative. Look at the following sentences.

| Sentences                                                           | Meaning                                                                                                              |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| <i>Interviewing old friends</i> is amusing.                         | Mewawancarai sahabat lama adalah sesuatu yang menghibur.<br><i>Interviewing old friends</i> = <i>gerund phrase</i> . |
| <i>Playing tennis</i> is good for health.                           | Bermain tennis adalah baik untuk kesehatan.<br><i>Playing tennis</i> = <i>gerund phrase</i> .                        |
| <i>Writing book chapter</i> is always interesting for me.           | Menulis bab buku selalu menarik buat saya.<br><i>Writing book chapter</i> = <i>gerund phrase</i> .                   |
| <i>Reading academic book</i> is important for scientific community. | Membaca buku ilmiah adalah penting bagi masyarakat ilmiah.<br><i>Reading academic book</i> = <i>gerund phrase</i> .  |

**13.3 The following sentences show the use of gerund phrase in sentences. Words in italic are geund phrases.**

| Sentences                                                    | Meaning                                                        |
|--------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------|
| <i>Making movies</i> is what I like to do the best.          | Membuat film adalah yang terbaik yang saya lakukan.            |
| Do you like <i>playing guitar</i> ?                          | Apakah Saudara suka bermain gitar?                             |
| Are you tired of <i>having a lot of job</i> ?                | Apakah Saudara lelah memilik banyak pekerjaan?                 |
| <i>Going abroad</i> is always interesting for my family.     | Bepergian ke luar negeri selalu menarik bagi keluarga saya.    |
| <i>Studying new language</i> is important for me as teacher. | Mempelajari bahasa baru adalah penting buat saya sebagai guru. |

**13.3.1 The List of Verbs Followed by Gerunds**

In order to have better understanding on how to use verbs followed by gerunds, here are some examples of sentences.

| Number | Common Verbs | Sentences                                  |
|--------|--------------|--------------------------------------------|
| 1      | admit        | He <b>admitted stealing</b> the money.     |
| 2      | advise       | She <b>advised waiting</b> until tomorrow. |
| 3      | appreciate   | I <b>appreciated hearing</b> from them.    |
| 4      | delay        | He <b>delayed leaving</b> for school.      |
| 5      | dislike      | The <b>dislike driving</b> long distances. |
| 6      | enjoy        | We <b>enjoyed visiting</b> them.           |
| 7      | finish       | She <b>finished studying</b> about ten.    |
| 8      | mention      | She <b>mentioned going</b> to a movie.     |



| Number | Common Verbs | Sentences                                               |
|--------|--------------|---------------------------------------------------------|
| 9      | practice     | The athlete <b>prcaticed throwing</b> the ball.         |
| 10     | tolerate     | I <b>won't tolerate cheating</b> during an examination. |

Source: Understanding and Using English Grammar (Azar, 1989: 168).

### 13.3.2 Gerund/Gerund Phrases as Direct Object

The gerund/gerund phrase may follow a verb and function as the direct object. However, not every verb in English can take a gerund construction as the the direct object. According to Harper (in Rafliis & Lase,1018), in the majority of gerund phrases, especially those functions as objects of verbs or preposition, the “subject” is either understood or is found in another part of the sentence. The following verbs are commonly used in this pattern.

|            |                 |             |
|------------|-----------------|-------------|
| admit      | enjoy           | practise    |
| appreciate | escape          | prevent     |
| avoid      | excuse*         | quit        |
| can't help | finish          | recall      |
| consider   | forgive         | recommend   |
| defer      | imagine         | resent      |
| delay      | keep (continue) | resist      |
| denay      | mention         | risk        |
| detest     | mind (dislike)  | suggest     |
| discuss    | miss            | tolerate    |
|            | postpone        | understand* |

Source: Communicate What You Mean (Polloock, 1982: 264).

The following examples show how to write sentences which consist of subject, verb (or verb phrase) with gerund or gerund phrase.

| Number | Subject         | Verb              | Gerund/Gerund Phrase                 |
|--------|-----------------|-------------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1      | Bob             | admitted          | <b>borrowing</b> Tom's car.          |
| 2      | He              | should appreciate | <b>having</b> such a nice room-mate. |
| 3      | I               | can't help        | <b>leaving</b> him.                  |
| 4      | No teachers     | enjoys            | <b>failing</b> students.             |
| 5      | No one          | can escape        | <b>being</b> punished.               |
| 6      | You             | must keep         | <b>trying</b> to do your best.       |
| 7      | At the time, I  | recall            | <b>thinking</b> about the children.  |
| 8      | Some passengers | resented          | <b>being</b> in the airport so long. |
| 9      | I               | could not resist  | <b>worrying</b> about the weather.   |
| 10     | The airlines    | could not risk    | <b>having</b> an accident.           |

### 13.4 Infinitives

The formula of infinitives is **to + the simple form of a verb** (Azar, 1989). The to + the simple form of a verb makes up the the simple infinitive (Pollock, 1982). Yosodipuro (2022) stated "Infinitive is a base verb or verb of origin for which there is no any addition." Santoso (2007) stated "in many ways, infinitives resemble verb, however infinitives also have functions as other parts of speech". Ibrahim (2019) stated

"infinitives are the "to" form of the verb, and are often used when actions are unreal, abstract, or future."

There are two types of infinitives (Yosodipuro, 2022).  
Type number 1: **Infinitive with to** (Infinitive dengan to). Look at the following sentences.

1. He wanted **to play**. Infinitive **to play** stands alone.
2. He wanted **to go for a picnic** to Sydney. Infinitive **to go for a picnic** takes the form of a phrase.
3. **To drive a car** must be carefull. Infinitive **to drive a car** takes the form of a phrase and acts as a subject.
4. **To be a good teacher** must be patient. Infinitive **to be a good teacher** takes the form of a phrase and acts as a subject.
5. **To have been often late** is not good for students. The perfect infinitive **to have been often late** acts as subject.
6. **To have been disturbed many times** make me very upset. The perfect infinitive **to have been disturbed many times** acts as a subject.

Type number 2: **Infinitive without to** (Infinitive tanpa to). Look at the following sentences.

1. Right after auxiliary: **can, may, must, will, could**, etc.
  - a) I **can swim** well.
  - b) You **may go** home now.
  - c) They **must finish** their job quickly.
  - d) Mr. President **will visit** Japan next week.
  - e) My friends **could buy** new book.
2. Right after **had better** and **would rather**.
  - a) You **had better** bring an umbrella.
  - b) You **would rather** walk to school.
3. Right after **have, let, make + object + verb infinitive**.
  - a) I **had the mechanic repair** my handphone; (*the mechanic* is object).

- b) The kids **make** *me* **clean** the room; (*me* is object).
- c) The police **let** *the people* **go**; (*the people* are object).

### 13.4.1 The Simple Infinitives

The simple infinitive is formed by “**to**” + **the simple form of a verb** (Azar, 1989). Examples: to talk, to play, to listen, to write, and to go. Look at some sentences below.

1. **to talk** (berbicara).

I want to talk with my English teacher (Saya ingin berbicara dengan guru bahasa Inggris saya).

2. **to play** (bermain).

I will play tennis with my friends (Saya akan bermain tennis dengan teman-teman saya).

3. **to listen** (mendengarkan)

The students listen to the teaching of their Economic Development teacher (Murid-murid mendengarkan ke pengajaran guru Ekonomi Pembangunan mereka).

4. **to write** (menulis). I spend my time to write a special letter to my friend (Saya menggunakan waktu untuk menulis surat khusus untuk sahabat saya).

5. **to go** (pergi). I ask permission to my father to go to Jakarta next week (Saya meminta izin kepada ayah saya untuk pergi ke Jakarta minggu yang akan datang?).

### 13.4.2 Function of Infinitives.

There are five functions of infinitives in a sentence (Pollock, 1982). They are as: noun (subject of a sentence; subject complement; object of a verb), adjective, adjective complement, and adverb. Look at the following examples.

As noun (subject of a sentence). Look at the following sentences.

- 1. **To practice** needs a lot of time.
- 2. **To travel** spends a lot of money.

3. **To be** a good student is important.

As noun (subject complement). Look at the following sentences.

1. My goal is **to get** the best grades.
2. His desire has been **to study** in United States of America.
3. My last summer job was **to guide** tourists.

As noun (object of a verb). Look at the following sentences.

1. I like **to climb mountain**.
2. I have always liked **to explore** new languages.
3. My friends are planning **to live** in Europe next year.

As an adjective. Look at the following examples.

1. Modifies the noun **work**. I have a lot of work **to do**.
2. Modifies the noun **problems**. Our teacher gave us five problems **to solve**.
3. Modifies the noun time. I won't have time **to go anywhere tonight**.

As adjective complement. As complement of adjective, the infinitive/ infinitive phrases completes the meaning started by the adjective. Look at the following examples.

1. The problem is difficult **to do**. Complement the adjective **difficult**.
2. I'm glad **to see you in class today**. Complement the adjective **glad**.
3. We were eager **to hear about his trip**. Complement the adjective **eager**.

As adverb. As an adverb, the infinitive/infinitive phrases modifies a verb or an entire sentence. Look at the following axamples.

1. We came here **to study**. Infinitive modifies the verb **came**.
2. I'm leaving now **to get to class on time**. Invinitive phrase modifies the verb **am leaving**.
3. **To keep warm at night**, you should buy an electric blanket. Invinitive phrase modifies the verb should **buy**.

### 13.4.3 The Infinitives Phrases

An infinitive may have its own subject or object or both. The infinitive with its subject, object, and modifiers makes up the infinitive phrases ( Pollock, 1982).

An infinitive phrase is a group of words that start with an infinitive followed by other modifiers including nouns, pronouns, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions and conjunctions. It is important to know that like an infinitive, *the infinitive phrase* can perform the functions of an adverb, an adjective and a noun. For better understanding, look at the following sentences.

| Number | Sentences<br>(Meaning)                                                                                      | Explanation                                                          |
|--------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1      | My father wants <b>me to succed</b> brilliantly.<br>(Ayah saya menginginkan saya berhasil secara gemilang). | me = subject of invinitive<br><i>to succed</i> = infinitive          |
| 2      | I have always like <i>to study</i> <b>business law</b> .<br>(Saya selalu menyukai belajar hukum bisnis).    | business law = object of infinitive.<br><i>to study</i> - invinitive |
| 3      | He advice my brother                                                                                        | my brother = subject of                                              |

| Number | Sentences<br>(Meaning)                                                                                                                          | Explanation                                                                                            |
|--------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
|        | <i>to take</i> <b>economy</b> .<br>(Dia menyarankan saudara saya mengambil ekonomi)                                                             | infinitive.<br>economy = object of infinitive.<br><i>to take</i> = infinitive.                         |
| 4      | My son wants <b>his father</b> <i>to travel</i> abroad.<br>(Anak saya menginginkan ayahnya bepergian ke luar negeri).                           | his father = subject of infinitive<br>abroad = object of infinitive.<br><i>to travel</i> = infinitive. |
| 5      | I encourage <b>my students</b> <i>to study</i> hard.<br>(Saya mendorong mahasiswa saya untuk belajar keras).                                    | my students = subject of infinitive.<br><i>to study</i> = infinitive.                                  |
| 6      | I ask <b>my team</b> <i>to work</i> together in harmony.<br>(Saya meminta tim saya untuk bekerja bersama secara harmonis).                      | My team = subject of infinitive.<br><i>to work</i> = infinitive.                                       |
| 7      | We provide <b>good services</b> <i>to make</i> happy all guests.<br>(Kami menyediakan pelayanan yang baik untuk membuat semua tamu berbahagia). | Good services = subject of infinitive<br><i>to make</i> = infinitive.                                  |

In addition, to and/or object, an infinitive may also take modifier.

| Number | Sentences                                                                              | Explanation                                                                    |
|--------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1      | All people like <i>to live happily</i> .                                               | The infinitive <i>to live</i> is modified by <b>happily</b> .                  |
| 2      | Professor Smith is the person <i>to see about student scholarship</i> .                | The infinitive <i>to see</i> is modified by <b>about student scholarship</b> . |
| 3      | My English favorite teacher is the right person <i>to ask for serious discussion</i> . | The infinitive <i>to ask</i> is modified by <b>for serious discussion</b> .    |
| 4      | All new students want <i>to adopt quickly</i> .                                        | The infinitive <i>to adopt</i> is modified by <b>quickly</b> .                 |
| 5      | My students want <i>to study seriously</i> .                                           | The infinitive <i>to study</i> is modified by <b>seriously</b> .               |
| 6      | My best friends like <i>to talk humorously</i> .                                       | The infinitive <i>to talk</i> is modified by <b>humorously</b> .               |
| 7      | I wish all the students <i>to feel confidently</i> .                                   | The infinitive <i>to feel</i> is modified by <b>confidently</b> .              |



### 13.4.4 The List of Verbs Followed by Infinitives

| Number | Common Verbs | Sentences                                                      |
|--------|--------------|----------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1      | agree        | They <b>agree to help</b> us.                                  |
| 2      | appear       | Our guests <b>appear to be</b> tired.                          |
| 3      | ask          | They <b>ask to come</b> with us.                               |
| 4      | claim        | I <b>claim to know</b> a movie star.                           |
| 5      | demand       | The teachers <b>demand to know</b> who is responsible for job. |
| 6      | hope         | I <b>hope to arrive</b> soon.                                  |
| 7      | need         | I <b>need to have</b> your excellent opinion.                  |
| 8      | prepare      | We <b>prepare to welcome</b> our guests.                       |
| 9      | refuse       | I <b>refuse to beleive</b> his story.                          |
| 10     | want         | I <b>want to tell</b> you the truth.                           |

Source: Understanding and Using English Grammar (Azar, 1989: 168-169).

### 13.5 Infinitive/Infinitive Phrase as Direct Object

Verbs followed by object + infinitive construction or by an infinitive construction only

Pattern 1: Subject + verb + object + infinitive phrase

I want you to help him

Pattern 2: Subject + verb + infinitive phrase

I want to hekp him

The following verbs may be followed by a noun or pronoun object + infinitive phrase or by infinitive phrase only. However, notice that the mening of each pattern is different.

|        |        |                |
|--------|--------|----------------|
| ask    | expect | <b>promise</b> |
| beg    | like   | want           |
| choose | need   | wish           |
| dare   |        | prefer         |

Source: Source: Communicate What You Mean (Pollock, 1982: 239).

Note that only verb **promise** keeps the same meaning in both pattern. Please play attention to the following examples.

| Number | Subject + Verb + Infinitive                                                   | Subject + Verb + Object + Infinitive                                                            |
|--------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1      | I have <b>asked to see</b> the doctor.                                        | I have <b>asked</b> <i>my son</i> <b>to see</b> the doctor.                                     |
| 2      | The little boy <b>begged to go</b> home.                                      | The little boy <b>begged</b> <i>his friend</i> <b>to go</b> home.                               |
| 3      | I <b>expected to be</b> in school on time.                                    | I <b>expected</b> <i>my friend</i> <b>to be</b> in school on time.                              |
| 4      | He <b>promised to be</b> on time.                                             | He <b>promised</b> <i>us</i> <b>to be</b> on time.                                              |
| 5      | Most people <b>don't like to be</b> in hospital                               | Most family <b>don't like</b> <i>the members of their family</i> <b>to be</b> in hospital.      |
| 7      | I <b>prefer to have</b> a new car.                                            | I <b>prefer</b> <i>my best friend</i> <b>to have</b> a new car.                                 |
| 8      | My brother <b>dare to leave</b> the hospital without the doctor's permission. | My brother <b>dared</b> <i>me</i> <b>to leave</b> the hospital without the doctor's permission. |
| 9      | My friend <b>prefer to go</b> abroad next moth.                               | My friend <b>prefer</b> <i>his parents</i> <b>to go</b> abroad next month.                      |
| 10     | The teachers <b>wish to congratulate</b> their students.                      | The teachers <b>wish</b> <i>other teachers</i> <b>to congratulate</b> their students.           |

## 13.6 Conclusion

Gerund is the **-ing** form of a verb. A gerund is a noun that has been formed from a verb, and verb can be turned into a gerund by simply adding “-ing” to the simple form of the verb. Gerund is a flagged-out verb and so it has the same function with verb. Generally, gerund can occupy some positions in a sentence that a noun ordinarily would, which are: subject, direct object, subject complement, and object of preposition.

There are five function of gerunds, as: subject of a sentence; subject complement of a sentence; direct object (after certain verbs); object of preposition; and appositive which repeats or adds information about a person or thing already identified.

The formula of infinitives is “to” + the simple form of a verb. “to” + the simple form of a verb makes up the the simple infinitive. Infinitive is a base verb or verb of origin for which there is no any addition There are two types of infinitives: infinitive with to and infinitive without to.

There are five function infinitives, as: noun (subject of a sentence; subject complement; object of a verb); adjective; adjective complement’ and adverb. The infinitive/ infinitive phrases completes the meaning started by the adjective.

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