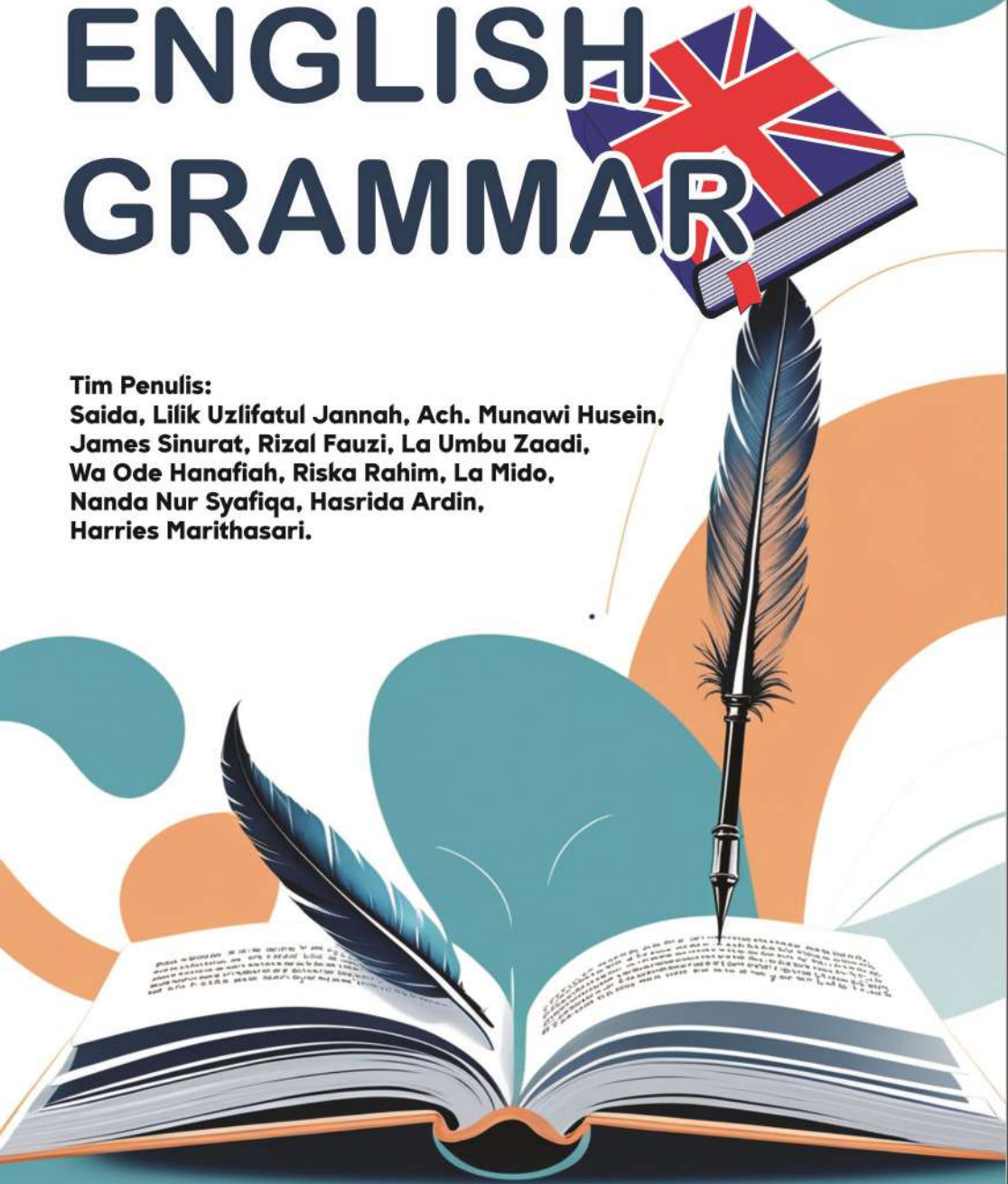# ENGLISH GRAMMAR

Tim Penulis:
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PREFACE

Praise and gratitude be to God Almighty, who has granted us the strength and inspiration to complete this book, English Grammar. This book is designed as a comprehensive guide for learners who seek to develop a strong foundation in English grammar. Understanding grammar is an essential aspect of mastering any language, as it provides the structure needed to communicate effectively and accurately.

This book covers a wide range of topics essential for both beginners and advanced learners. The chapters include Introduction to Grammar, Part of Speech, Basic Sentence Structure, Tenses: Understanding Time in English, Modal Verbs, Active and Passive Voice, Conditional Sentences, Reported Speech, Title, Gerund and Infinitive, Articles, Adjective Clause, and Adverb Clause. Each section is structured to facilitate a step-by-step learning process, with clear explanations and examples to aid comprehension. By mastering these topics, learners will be able to enhance their writing and speaking skills, making their communication more precise and effective.

We extend our sincere gratitude to all those who have contributed to the completion of this book. Special appreciation goes to educators, linguists, and colleagues who have provided valuable insights, feedback, and encouragement. Without their support, this book would not have been possible.

It is our hope that this book will serve as a useful resource for students, teachers, and anyone who wishes to refine their English grammar skills. By utilizing this book, learners will gain confidence in using English in various contexts, both academic and professional. May this book be a valuable tool in your journey towards mastering the English language.

April, 2025

Author

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Saida, S.Pd., M.M.

MTs Ihsan Kamboy

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION TO GRAMMAR

A. INTRODUCTION

1. Understanding the Fundamentals of Language

Every world's language has grammar; it is surely different from one to another country. Grammar is the study of the rules and structures that govern the formation of words, phrases, sentences, and texts in any given language (Chomsky, 1957). It is the blueprint that shapes how language functions, allowing people to convey thoughts, ideas, emotions, and information in a coherent and understandable way. Just as a building needs a strong framework to ensure its integrity, language relies on grammar to maintain structure and meaning. Without grammar, communication would be unclear, ambiguous, or even impossible. While grammar can often seem like a rigid set of rules, it is an incredibly flexible and dynamic system that evolves over time to reflect changes in culture, technology, and communication needs. By studying grammar, learners gain the ability to structure their thoughts and ideas in a way that others can easily understand, whether in spoken or written form.

Grammar forms the foundational framework of any language, acting as the structure that governs how words are arranged and how meaning is conveyed. It serves as a set of rules that allow speakers to combine words into meaningful units such as phrases, clauses, and sentences. Without grammar, language would lack coherence and clarity, making communication difficult, if not impossible. Just as the framework of a building determines how its various components fit together and function, grammar dictates how words and phrases should be arranged to form intelligible expressions. For instance, in English, word order typically follows a Subject-Verb-Object (SVO) pattern ("John eats an apple"), but variations in word order can convey different meanings or produce questions, commands, or exclamations. The purpose of grammar is not to

impose rigid restrictions but to ensure that language remains organized and intelligible, allowing people to express their ideas clearly and accurately.

Grammar is a broad system that encompasses several interconnected components, including syntax, morphology, and semantics (Harris, 1992 and Bloomfield, 1933). Syntax is the study of how words are combined to form sentences and how different parts of a sentence relate to one another. It focuses on the rules governing sentence structure, such as the order in which words should appear and how they are linked. Morphology, on the other hand, deals with the internal structure of words, examining how smaller units of meaning, known as morphemes, combine to form larger linguistic units like words and affixes. For example, the word "unhappiness" consists of three morphemes: "un-" (a prefix meaning "not"), "happy" (the root word), and "-ness" (a suffix meaning "state or quality"). Semantics refers to the study of meaning, both at the level of individual words and larger linguistic units. Grammar helps structure meaning by organizing how words and phrases fit together to create coherent messages.

While every language has its own unique set of grammatical rules, all human languages share certain universal features. These shared principles suggest that grammar is a fundamental aspect of human cognition. For example, every language has ways of expressing relationships between nouns and verbs, using mechanisms such as word order or case markings. While the specific structures may vary (e.g., English uses word order to indicate subject-verb agreement, while languages like Latin use inflectional endings), the underlying necessity of grammar for coherent communication remains constant across languages. The existence of these universal features supports the idea that grammar is not merely a set of arbitrary rules but rather a reflection of the cognitive processes involved in language production and comprehension. By studying grammar cross-linguistically, linguists can uncover the fundamental structures that underlie all human languages and gain insight into how language evolved as a tool for communication.

Meanwhile, grammar enables speakers to express complex and abstract ideas by providing a system for combining basic elements of meaning into more intricate structures (Chomsky, 1965). For example, grammatical features like tense, aspect, and mood allow speakers to convey information about when an action occurs, how it unfolds, and under what conditions. The tense system in English, for example, enables speakers to differentiate between actions that happened in the past ("I walked"), actions that are happening in the present ("I am walking"), and actions that will happen in the future ("I will walk"). Additionally, modality—expressed through modal verbs like "can," "may," "must," and "should"—allows speakers to express necessity, possibility, or obligation. Through these grammatical structures, speakers are able to nuance their thoughts, express hypothetical situations, and discuss potential or unrealized events. Grammar, in this sense, is not just a tool for basic communication but a means of articulating complex ideas, reasoning, and abstract concepts.

Furthermore, grammar provides structure to language, it also allows for flexibility and creativity. In everyday communication, speakers often bend or manipulate grammatical rules to achieve certain stylistic effects, to express emotions, or to adapt to specific social contexts. For example, writers and poets often play with syntax and morphology to create rhythm, emphasis, or meaning that would not be possible with strictly "correct" grammar. The famous example of Shakespeare's use of language—such as his creative manipulation of word order and invention of new words—illustrates how grammar can be bent to suit the speaker's or writer's needs. This flexibility does not mean that grammar is irrelevant; rather, it highlights the role grammar plays as a dynamic system, one that both shapes and is shaped by the ways in which humans use language to communicate. Thus, grammar is not a rigid, unchanging system but a flexible tool that adapts to the evolving needs of speakers and the demands of different communicative contexts.

B. ELEMENTS OF GRAMMAR IN A LANGUAGE

The elements of grammar, in this case is English grammar refers to the various components that work together to form the structure of language. These elements are the building blocks that enable us to create meaningful sentences and convey our thoughts clearly. Grammar includes a wide range of features, but the following are some of the core elements:

1. Syntax

Syntax is the set of rules that governs how words are arranged into sentences. It focuses on sentence structure, ensuring that words and phrases are organized in a way that makes sense. For example, in English, a typical sentence follows a Subject-Verb-Object (SVO) order, such as "The cat (subject) caught (verb) the mouse (object)." Syntax also dictates how different types of phrases (noun phrases, verb phrases, etc.) interact with each other in a sentence. Proper syntax helps ensure that sentences are grammatically correct and that the intended meaning is conveyed clearly.

2. Morphology

Morphology is the study of the structure and formation of words. It examines how smaller units of meaning, called morphemes, combine to create words. Morphemes include root words (the basic unit of meaning), prefixes, and suffixes. For example, in the word "unhappiness," "un-" is a prefix, "happy" is the root word, and "-ness" is a suffix. These smaller morphemes come together to form a new word with a distinct meaning. Morphology also involves the study of inflections, such as changing a verb to reflect tense (e.g., "run" vs. "ran") or a noun to reflect plurality (e.g., "dog" vs. "dogs").

3. Phonology

Phonology refers to the study of sounds in language. It focuses on the way sounds are produced, perceived, and organized in speech. Phonology is concerned with understanding patterns of sounds (phonemes) and how they function within a particular language. For instance, in English, the sounds /p/ and /b/ are distinct phonemes because they change the meaning of words (e.g., "pat" vs. "bat"). Phonology also studies aspects of

speech such as intonation, stress, and rhythm, which can alter the meaning or emphasis of a sentence.

4. Semantics

Semantics is the study of meaning in language. It looks at how words, phrases, and sentences convey meaning, both at the level of individual words and in larger contexts. Semantics includes understanding the meaning of words in isolation as well as how those meanings change in different contexts. For example, the word "bank" can refer to a financial institution, the side of a river, or a place to store something (as in "data bank"). Semantics helps explain how the context of a sentence determines the specific meaning of words and phrases.

5. Pragmatics

Pragmatics is the study of how context influences the interpretation of meaning. Unlike semantics, which deals with literal meaning, pragmatics focuses on the use of language in real-world situations. It takes into account factors like speaker intent, social context, and cultural norms. For example, when someone says, "Can you pass the salt?" in a dinner setting, pragmatics helps us understand that this is a polite request, not a literal question about the listener's ability to pass the salt. Pragmatics is essential for understanding indirect speech acts, politeness, and conversational implicature.

6. Parts of Speech

Parts of speech refer to the categories into which words are classified based on their function in a sentence. The main parts of speech are:

a. **Noun**: it is a part of speech that refers to a person, place, thing, idea, or concept. It is one of the most fundamental components of a sentence, often serving as the subject or object. Example: names of people, places, things, or ideas (e.g., "cat," "garden, house").

b. **Verb**: it is a part of speech that expresses an action, occurrence, or state of being. Verbs are essential components of a sentence because they convey what the subject. Verbs are typically conjugated to reflect tense (e.g., past, present, future), aspect (e.g., continuous or perfect),

mood (e.g., indicative, imperative, subjunctive), and voice (e.g., active or passive). For example, the verb "to run" can change to "runs" (present tense) or "ran" (past tense), depending on when the action is taking place is doing or what is happening to the subject. Words that express actions or states of being (e.g., "run," "is").

c. **Adjective**: it is a part of speech that modifies or describes a noun or pronoun, providing more information about its qualities, characteristics, or attributes. Adjectives help to specify, distinguish, or clarify the noun or pronoun they modify by answering questions. In other words, adjective is the words that describe or modify nouns (e.g., "happy," "tall").

d. **Adverb**: it is a part of speech that modifies or describes a verb, adjective, or another adverb. Adverbs provide additional information about how, when, where, to what extent, or under what conditions something happens. They help to clarify or enhance the meaning of the words they modify. In other words, adverb that describes or modifies verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs (e.g., "quickly," "very").

e. **Pronoun**: it is a word that takes the place of a noun to avoid repetition and simplify sentences. Pronouns stand in for specific nouns (which are known as the *antecedents*) and can represent people, things, or ideas. By using pronouns, we can make language more concise. In other words, pronoun is the word that take the place of nouns (e.g., "he," "she," "they").

f. **Preposition**: it is a part of speech that shows the relationship between a noun (or pronoun) and another word in the sentence, often indicating direction, location, time, or manner. Prepositions are typically used to introduce phrases that provide additional detail, such as where something happens, when it happens, or how it happens. In other words, preposition is the word that shows relationships between nouns (or pronouns) and other elements in a sentence (e.g., "on," "under," "between").

g. **Conjunction**: it is a part of speech that connects words, phrases, clauses, or sentences, showing the relationship between them. Conjunctions help to link different elements of a sentence, creating a smoother flow and enabling more complex, meaningful expressions.

They are essential for coordinating ideas and establishing logical connections between parts of a sentence. In other words, conjunction is the word that connects words, phrases, or clauses (e.g., "and," "but," "although").

h. **Interjection**: it is a part of speech that expresses a strong feeling, emotion, or reaction, often standing alone and not grammatically connected to other parts of the sentence. Interjections are typically brief words or phrases that convey surprise, joy, frustration, excitement, or other intense emotions. They often serve to express a spontaneous response or exclamation, and they can be punctuated with an exclamation mark or a comma, depending on the intensity. In other words, interjection is the word or phrase that expresses strong emotions or reactions (e.g., "Wow!," "Ouch!").

7. Tense

Tense refers to the grammatical expression of time in a sentence, indicating when an action or event takes place. English primarily uses three main tenses: past, present, and future. Each tense has different forms that express when the action occurs (e.g., "I walk" vs. "I walked" vs. "I will walk"). Tense is essential for situating actions in time and conveying temporal relationships between events.

8. Voice

The voice indicates the relationship between the action and the participants in a sentence. The two main voices in English are:

a. **Active voice**: The subject of the sentence performs the action (e.g., "The cat chased the mouse").

b. **Passive voice**: The subject of the sentence receives the action (e.g., "The mouse was chased by the cat").

9. Mood

Mood expresses the speaker's attitude toward the action or event being described. English has three primary moods:

a. **Indicative**: Used for statements of fact or questions (e.g., "She is studying").

b. **Imperative**: Used for commands or requests (e.g., "Study harder!").
c. **Subjunctive**: Used for hypothetical, wishful, or non-real situations (e.g., "If I were you, I would study more").

10. Modifiers

Modifiers are words, phrases, or clauses that provide additional information about other elements in a sentence. They typically describe or limit the meaning of another word, often a noun or verb. Adjectives and adverbs are common types of modifiers. For example, in the sentence "She wore a red dress," "red" is an adjective modifying the noun "dress."

11. Clauses and Phrases

A **clause** is a group of words that contains a subject and a predicate (verb), and can express a complete thought (independent clause) or an incomplete thought (dependent clause). For example:
a. Independent: "She ran fast."
b. Dependent: "Because she ran fast..."

A **phrase** is a group of related words that does not contain both a subject and a predicate. It functions as a single unit within a sentence. For example, "in the park" is a prepositional phrase.

12. Agreement

Agreement refers to the correspondence between different parts of a sentence, such as subject-verb agreement (e.g., "She runs" vs. "They run") and noun-pronoun agreement (e.g., "John lost his keys" vs. "The boys lost their keys"). Agreement ensures grammatical harmony within a sentence.

13. Word Order

Word order refers to the sequence in which words are arranged in a sentence. In English, the typical word order is **Subject-Verb-Object** (SVO). For example, "She (subject) eats (verb) an apple (object)." Word order can vary in different languages and may change to form questions, commands, or to emphasize certain parts of the sentence.

C. DEFINITION OF GRAMMAR

Some grammarians define that grammar is the system of rules and structures that govern how words, phrases, and sentences are constructed in a language. It involves syntax (word order), morphology (word forms), and punctuation, among other elements, to ensure that communication is clear, consistent, and comprehensible (Saussure, 1916). The study of grammar provides the foundation for understanding how language functions in both written and spoken forms, guiding users in expressing ideas accurately and effectively.

Generative grammar, developed by Noam Chomsky in the mid-20th century, is a theory of grammar that proposes the existence of a set of universal principles underlying all human languages. According to this theory, the structure of language is not just learned through external exposure but is also guided by innate cognitive structures in the human mind. Chomsky's theory emphasizes that human beings have an inborn ability to generate an infinite number of grammatical sentences using a finite set of rules, allowing for creativity and variation in language use.

Structural grammar, associated with the linguistic school of structuralism (especially Ferdinand de Saussure and Leonard Bloomfield), views grammar as a system of interrelated components that work together to create meaning. It emphasizes the analysis of language based on its structure, particularly focusing on phonology, morphology, and syntax. In this view, language is seen as a self-contained system of signs, where the relationships between words and their components are what give language its meaning, rather than individual word meanings in isolation.

Functional grammar, developed by linguists like Michael Halliday, views grammar not just as a set of rules but as a tool used by speakers to fulfill communicative functions. This theory focuses on how language structures are shaped by their social and communicative purposes. Functional grammar stresses the importance of understanding how language is used in context, incorporating not only syntactic rules but also the roles of speakers, their intentions, and the context in which communication occurs. It suggests that grammar is flexible and can vary according to different social functions and the needs of the speaker.

Descriptive grammar refers to the study of how language is actually used by speakers in real-life situations, rather than how it "should" be used according to prescriptive rules. Descriptive grammar aims to observe and document the natural patterns, variations, and constructions that occur in everyday speech and writing. It does not enforce strict rules about "correctness" but instead seeks to understand the full range of grammatical phenomena in use. This approach recognizes that language evolves over time, and different dialects, social contexts, and individual preferences shape how grammar is used.

D. ADVANTAGES OF USING GRAMMAR IN A LANGUAGE

Using grammar in a language offers a wide range of advantages, ensuring that communication is clear, effective, and meaningful. Here are some key benefits of using grammar in language:

1. **Clarity and Precision**

   Grammar provides structure to sentences, allowing speakers and writers to convey ideas with clarity. It helps ensure that the meaning of a sentence is specific and unambiguous. For example, proper word order and punctuation ensure that the listener or reader can easily understand the intended message. Without correct grammar, sentences could become confusing or misleading, making it difficult to communicate effectively.

2. **Consistency in Communication**

   Grammar rules help establish consistency in language use, which is essential for both written and spoken communication. Consistent grammar usage allows for smoother and more predictable exchanges of ideas. When everyone follows the same grammatical rules, there is less room for misunderstandings or confusion. This consistency is especially important in formal contexts, such as professional communication, academic writing, or legal documents.

3. **Facilitating Complex Ideas**

   Grammar provides the necessary tools to express complex thoughts and ideas. By following grammatical rules for sentence structure, punctuation, and word choice, speakers can articulate intricate concepts clearly. For example, conjunctions, clauses, and relative

pronouns allow for the connection of multiple ideas within a single sentence, making it easier to express detailed or nuanced points.

4. **Improved Understanding in Multilingual Contexts**

   Grammar is essential in a globalized world where people from different linguistic backgrounds communicate with one another. Even when different languages are spoken, understanding the grammar of a language helps bridge communication gaps. For instance, when learning a second language, mastering its grammar makes it easier to comprehend its structure and syntax, facilitating better comprehension and expression.

5. **Enhances Writing Skills**

   Good grammar is crucial for strong writing skills. It helps create more polished, professional, and readable texts. Well-structured sentences that follow grammatical conventions are easier to read and more persuasive. This is particularly important in contexts such as business correspondence, academic essays, and creative writing, where correct grammar can improve the impact of the writing.

6. **Facilitates Learning and Cognitive Development**

   Learning grammar helps with cognitive development, particularly in the way we process language. Understanding how sentences are structured improves our ability to comprehend spoken and written language. It also aids in acquiring new vocabulary and understanding the relationships between words and their meanings. Grammar encourages analytical thinking, as learners must examine the components of language and how they function together.

7. **Cultural and Social Identity**

   Language and grammar play an important role in expressing cultural and social identity. Using grammar correctly aligns the speaker with the linguistic norms of a community or group. It can signify education, professionalism, and respect for the language. Conversely, deviations from grammatical rules can indicate informality or regional dialects, offering insights into a person's background or social group.

8. **Enhances Listening and Speaking Abilities**
   Grammar isn't just about writing—it's also crucial for speaking and listening. When we understand grammatical structures, we are better able to comprehend spoken language and respond appropriately. In conversation, grammar helps in asking questions, forming statements, and ensuring mutual understanding. Similarly, being familiar with grammar allows for clearer speech and more confident communication.

9. **Improves Language Learning**
   For anyone learning a new language, understanding its grammar is fundamental to building a solid foundation. Grammar helps learners understand how different elements of the language fit together, how verbs conjugate, and how sentences are formed. Without grammar, learners would only be able to memorize vocabulary without understanding how to use it effectively in communication.

10. **Support for Creativity in Language Use**
    While grammar may seem restrictive to some, it actually supports creativity by providing a framework within which language can be manipulated in expressive ways. Writers, poets, and speakers use grammatical rules to craft sentences that are more impactful, poetic, or unique. The structure provided by grammar allows for flexibility in how ideas are presented and makes language more adaptable to various styles and genres.

E. DISADVANTAGES OR CHALLENGES OF USING GRAMMAR IN A LANGUAGE

1. **Rigidity in Expression**
   Grammar, particularly in its formal sense, can sometimes restrict creative expression. For instance, poets, artists, or writers may feel constrained by strict grammatical rules when they are trying to convey emotions or abstract ideas. Some people argue that rigid adherence to grammar can stifle creativity, making language less flexible or fluid in artistic contexts. Non-standard grammar structures can sometimes be used deliberately to evoke a particular tone or style, and strict grammar rules might limit this freedom.

2. **Difficulty for Language Learners**

For individuals learning a new language, grammar can be overwhelming and complicated. Every language has its own set of grammatical rules, which can vary significantly from one's native language. The nuances of tense, gender, sentence structure, and word agreement can pose challenges for learners, leading to confusion or frustration. Additionally, in some cases, people may struggle with irregular grammatical forms or exceptions to rules, which can make mastering a language more difficult.

3. **Overemphasis on Correctness**

In formal settings, there can sometimes be an overemphasis on "correct" grammar, which may overshadow the intended message or meaning. For instance, in everyday conversation, people often understand each other even when grammar isn't perfect. Focusing too heavily on grammar might detract from the overall communication, causing anxiety or hesitation, particularly in non-native speakers or those who are not familiar with formal language standards. This can even lead to social or professional exclusion if people are judged too harshly for minor grammatical errors.

4. **Cultural and Dialectal Variations**

Grammar rules can sometimes be seen as rigidly tied to particular cultural norms, which may not always accommodate regional dialects or non-standard forms of speech. Many languages, including English, have various regional variations that don't always follow the "standard" rules of grammar. This can create a sense of linguistic inequality, where speakers of non-standard dialects may be unfairly judged or marginalized based on their grammatical choices, even though their speech is valid within their community.

5. **Overcomplication of Simple Ideas**

In certain contexts, overly complex grammatical structures can lead to overcomplication of relatively simple ideas. For example, excessive use of passive voice, long-winded sentences, or unnecessarily formal language may obscure the message instead of clarifying it. In these cases, grammar, instead of simplifying communication, can make it more difficult for the audience to understand the point being made.

This is particularly problematic in situations where brevity and clarity are crucial, such as in instructions, advertisements, or casual conversations.

In conclusion, while grammar is undeniably important for clarity and effective communication, an overemphasis on rigid grammar rules can sometimes be restrictive or counterproductive, especially in informal, creative, or multicultural contexts. Understanding when to prioritize grammatical correctness and when to allow for flexibility in expression is key to ensuring that grammar serves its purpose without becoming a barrier to communication.

F. SUMMARY

We need to know that grammar is the foundational system of a language that governs the rules and structures used to create meaningful communication. At its core, grammar is the study of how words, phrases, and sentences are formed and arranged, ensuring that language is comprehensible and effective in conveying ideas. It provides a framework for speakers and writers to combine individual words into coherent and syntactically correct statements. Without grammar, language would lack the structure needed for mutual understanding, making communication not only challenging but potentially chaotic. Grammar is typically divided into several key components, including *syntax*, which governs the arrangement of words in sentences; *morphology*, which deals with the structure and formation of words; *phonology*, focusing on sounds and their combinations; and *semantics*, which pertains to meaning. These elements work in concert to create sentences that are not only grammatically correct but also semantically meaningful.

One of the most important aspects of grammar is the system of rules that governs the relationships between words within a sentence. Syntax plays a central role in this by determining the correct word order to express meaning. For example, the subject-verb-object structure in English ensures that the message is clear: "She (subject) kicked (verb) the ball (object)." If the word order were rearranged, the meaning could become unclear or nonsensical. In addition to syntax, *morphology* helps us

understand how words are formed and how they change depending on tense, number, person, or case. For example, adding "-ed" to a verb like "walk" turns it into the past tense "walked." These small morphological changes can significantly alter the meaning of a sentence and the time frame of the action being described.

In addition, grammar also encompasses the use of punctuation, which plays a critical role in both written and spoken language by providing visual cues about how sentences should be interpreted. Commas, periods, question marks, and other punctuation marks separate ideas, clarify relationships between parts of a sentence, and guide readers through the text. For example, the placement of a comma can change the meaning of a sentence dramatically: "Let's eat, Grandma" versus "Let's eat Grandma." This illustrates how grammar—specifically punctuation—can prevent ambiguity and ensure that the intended meaning is conveyed accurately.

Moreover, grammar helps distinguish between different types of sentences, including declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory sentences. Each of these sentence types follows specific grammatical rules that influence their function. A declarative sentence states a fact or opinion (e.g., "The sun rises in the east."), while an interrogative sentence asks a question (e.g., "What time is it?"). An imperative sentence gives a command (e.g., "Close the door."), and an exclamatory sentence expresses strong emotions (e.g., "What a beautiful day!"). The use of these sentence types enables speakers to express a wide range of ideas, from simple statements to complex emotions, thereby enriching communication.

Grammar also includes an understanding of verb tenses and their corresponding forms, which allow speakers and writers to convey when an action takes place. The tense system in English, for example, helps distinguish between actions occurring in the past, present, or future. The use of perfect tenses (present perfect, past perfect, etc.) further allows speakers to express nuances about the timing of actions, such as completed actions or ongoing situations. Modality (expressed through modal verbs like "can," "should," and "might") also enables speakers to indicate necessity, possibility, or permission, adding layers of meaning to sentences. These grammatical tools enable speakers to create

sophisticated and precise statements, moving beyond simple descriptions to convey complex relationships between time, possibility, and obligation.

In conclusion, grammar is not just a set of arbitrary rules but a comprehensive system that shapes how language functions. It helps us organize words and ideas into meaningful structures, facilitating clear communication and enhancing the precision of our messages. A solid understanding of grammar is essential for mastering a language, whether for everyday conversations, academic writing, or professional communication. By mastering grammar, speakers can effectively convey their thoughts, avoid confusion, and participate in the linguistic community in a meaningful way. Whether in spoken or written form, grammar ensures that we communicate with clarity, coherence, and efficiency, making it a vital part of language learning and usage.

TASK AND EVALUATION
1. How does proper sentence structure impact the clarity and meaning of communication in both written and spoken language?
2. In what ways does understanding the rules of grammar enhance language learning, particularly when learning a second language?
3. What is the role of punctuation in grammar, and how does it influence the interpretation of written texts?
4. How do grammatical elements like tense, mood, and voice shape the meaning and tone of a sentence?
5. Why is subject-verb agreement important in maintaining grammatical accuracy, and what common mistakes do people often make in this area?

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR

CHAPTER 2: PART OF SPEECH

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SMPN 1 TIKUNG

CHAPTER 2
PART OF SPEECH

A. DEFINITION PART OF SPEECH

Part of speech is a part of English grammar in the form of a classification of words which are divided into several categories based on their role and function in the structure of a sentence in a language. By knowing the parts of speech, someone can find out the function of words in a sentence. Apart from that, parts of speech are the first step you need to learn when learning English and to understand sentence forms in English.

Parts of speech in English are divided into eight types, namely :
1. Noun
2. Verb
3. Pronouns
4. Adjectives
5. Adverb
6. Preposition
7. Conjunction
8. Articles
9. Interjections

B. KINDS PART OF SPEECH
1. *Noun*s

Definition: Nouns are words that name people, places, things, ideas, or qualities.
Examples:
People: John, teacher, artist
Places: London, school, park
Things: book, table, car

Ideas: happiness, freedom, love

Qualities: beauty, honesty, kindness. In simple terms, nouns are a classification of words used to name objects, people, places, ideas, even actions. Nouns can be singular (singular) and plural (plural). In a sentence, a noun can function as a subject, direct object, indirect object, subject complement, or object of a preposition. As the name suggests, nouns are used to mark an object. Usually at the beginning of noun words there are particles a, an or the. Nouns can be singular or plural and concrete or abstract. In a sentence, a noun can function as a subject, object or preposition.

Nouns are divided into seven types, namely
a. Common noun,
b. Proper noun countable
c. Countable noun
d. Uncountable noun
e. Mix noun
f. Abstract noun
g. Concrete noun
h. Singular noun
i. Plural noun
j. Collective noun.
k. Compound noun
l. Noun Phrase
m. Possessive Noun

Types of nouns and examples:
a. Common nouns
Common Noun, the opposite of a proper noun, a common noun is a common noun, so the first letter of the common noun is not capitalized. For example, country, city, mount, month. These four nouns do not specifically mention the name of the country, city, mount and month referred to in a sentence. Common nouns are words that are still general from a category. For example: year, month, day, plant, lady, man.

b. *Proper noun*

A proper noun is a noun that takes the form of a name or nickname, so that the first letter is capitalized. A proper noun can also be called a specific noun that refers to the naming of an object, nickname or name. For example, Indonesia, England, Everest, Sahara, Simone and so on. Proper nouns are the opposite of common nouns, namely specific names of people, things, places, and so on. So, because it is specific, the initial letters are written in capitals. This writing applies if the noun is located at the beginning, middle or end of the sentence. Example: December, Maya, Indonesia, Surabaya, etc.

c. *Countable noun*

Countable nouns are words that allow you to count them, even though there are a lot of them. For example book, car, phone, bottle. This sentence is a countable noun, because it is clear that the number can be counted easily. Examples of countable nouns include cat, apple, table, chair, and many more.

If the number is more than one (plural), in writing it usually begins with some, any, a few, few. When singular, the prefix can be the, a, or an These prefixes are articles which are also part of parts of speech.

d. *Uncountable noun*

Uncountable nouns are nouns that cannot be counted. Even though the number is large or small, this noun still cannot be quantified with number units. Uncountable, is the opposite of countable. Examples are sand, rice, milk, snow, coffee, oil, sugar, milk, etc.

e. **Mixed nouns**

Mixed nouns are nouns that can be countable or uncountable, depending on the context. For example, hair

f. **Abstract noun**

Abstract nouns are nouns that cannot be perceived by the five senses. So it is abstract and intangible. Abstract noun, as the name suggests, this noun expresses abstract things such as ideas, concepts, situations, feelings and so on. For example, time, idea, imagination. Examples: loneliness, sadness, motivation, courage, affection, age, etc.

g. *Concrete noun*

Concrete nouns are anything that can be observed by the five senses. is something that is tangible and the word is material. For example cheese, chocolate, table, hat, pillow, fan, mirror, clock**,**

h. **Singular noun**

As the name suggests, a singular noun is a single noun, i.e. there is only one in number. For example, a cat, an umbrella, an elephant, and many more.

i. **Plural nouns**

A plural noun is a noun that has more than one in number, but can still be counted. For example: apples, books, candles, etc.

j. **Collective nouns**

Collective noun is a collective noun that shows a combination or collection of objects, people or places. Collective noun, is a noun or noun that is collective or a collection or name of a group or refers to a group of animals, people or objects. For example couple, staff, government, utensils, family, committee, pair, etc.

k. *Compound noun*

Compound nouns are nouns that consist of two or more nouns which have a different meaning than if each noun stood alone. For example: post office, airport, boyfriend, breakfast, and many more**.**

l. **Noun phrases**

A noun phrase is a phrase consisting of a combination of a noun, a pronoun or a number. For example, the fair-skinned woman.

m. **Possessive Noun**

Possessive noun is a word to indicate ownership of an object. Examples include Ferdy's house, Switzerland's capital city, lecture's book, etc.

2. *Verb* **(Kata Kerja)**

The next part of speech is the verb. In English, a verb is a form of a verb that functions to explain an action or situation directly or indirectly, visible or invisible. The types of verbs in English are very diverse, namely:

a. **Action verbs**

   Action verbs are verbs in the form of actions that can be seen by other people. Action verbs are also known as dynamic verbs. Examples of action verbs are swim, run, sing, work, and many more. Action verbs often appear in verbal sentences.

b. **Stative verbs**

   Stative verbs are verbs that refer to a condition or situation. Stative verbs are used to describe things like your likes and dislikes, qualities, opinions, beliefs, and emotions. For example: Love, want, know, dislike, needs, and so on.

c. **Transitive verbs**

   Transitive verbs are verbs that function to explain the direct object carried out by the subject. For example: Kick, buy, bake, paint.

d. **Intransitive verbs**

   Intransitive verbs are verbs that do not explain the direct object of what the subject does. Therefore, this verb is not followed by a noun that acts as an object. For example lives, sounds, etc.

e. **Linking verbs**

   Linking verb is a verb to connect the subject and description. For example: be, become, seem, appear, grow.

f. **Helping verbs**

   Have you ever used auxiliary verbs? Well, another name is helping verb. So, as the name suggests, this helping verb means an auxiliary verb that is added to another verb to change the meaning of a different sentence according to the purpose and atmosphere. Examples are be (is, am are, was, were, been, being) and others that this verb is used in nominal sentences.

g. **Modal verbs**

   Modal verbs are very closely related to future tenses. In fact, modal verbs are derivatives of auxiliary verbs. However, modal verbs function to show ability, possibility, or need in a sentence. Examples of modal verbs are can, will, may, shall, have to.

h. **Regular verbs**

Regular verbs are regular verbs in the past tense. These verbs are identical with the addition of -ed and -d at the end of the word. For example jumped, cried, walked, borrowed, and so on.

i. **Irregular verbs**

This verb usually has different forms of verb 1, verb 2, and verb 3. For example, eat (verb 1) becomes ate (verb 2), and eaten (verb 3).

j. **Phrasal verbs**

Phrasal is a verb that can be used in the form of a combination of two or more words to become a meaningful phrase. This verb is also known as an idiom. Examples include run out, kick off, etc.

k. **Infinitive and Gerund**

The infinitive is a verb whose role is to explain a noun or adjective. The formula for the infinitive is to + verb 1. For example to listen, to read, etc.

Do you still remember the formula for the present continuous tense? Yep, this tense uses the gerund as a verb in its formula. A gerund is a verb (verb 1) that ends in -ing.

l. **Causative verbs**

Causative verb is a verb that is used to show that the subject is not directly responsible for the action that occurred. Examples are get, have, lead, make.

3. *Pronoun* **(Kata Ganti)**

Definition: Pronouns are words that substitute for nouns to avoid repetition.

Interrogative pronouns: who, whom, whose, which, what. A pronoun is a word whose job is to replace a noun to avoid repetition. The following are the types of pronouns**:**

a. **Personal pronouns**

A personal pronoun is a word that replaces a person's noun. Examples of personal pronouns are I, You, We, They, He, She, It, Them**.**

b. **Demonstrative pronouns**

Demonstrative pronouns are words that function to replace demonstrative words according to number and distance. For example this, that, these, those.

c. **Interrogative pronouns**

Interrogative pronouns are pronouns to ask questions. For example who, which, whom, whose, what.

d. **Relative pronouns**

Relative pronouns function as pronouns for relative clauses. A relative clause is part of a dependent clause which is in the form of a sentence consisting of a subject and a verb but cannot stand alone as one sentence. Examples include the words who, which, whom, whose, what, that.

e. **Indefinite pronouns**

An indefinite pronoun is a pronoun to express things that are general or general in nature. For example another, anything, everyone, everything, someone, none, nothing, anywhere.

f. *Reflexive pronoun and intensive pronoun*

A reflexive pronoun is an object that refers back to the subject of the sentence itself. Meanwhile, an intensive pronoun is a pronoun that is used to emphasize the subject in a sentence.

So, what distinguishes these two types of pronouns is only the purpose of use in a sentence. For both of them have the same example, such as myself, ourselves, themselves, himself, himself, itself.

g. **Reciprocal pronouns**

Reciprocal pronouns are pronouns to indicate words when there are two/more subjects who carry out the same action towards each other. For example, each other, one another**.**

h. **Possessive pronoun**

Possessive pronoun is a pronoun to show someone's possessions. For example mine, yours, hers, his.

4. Adjective

Definition: Adjectives modify nouns or pronouns, providing more information about their qualities or characteristics.

Examples:

Descriptive adjectives: beautiful, tall, happy, sad, interesting

Quantifying adjectives: many, few, some, all, several

Demonstrative adjectives: this, that, these, those. Adjectives to explain, describe, or limit pronouns or nouns that are still general. This adjective is usually placed after the noun.

In essence, with adjectives, a noun can be more specific. There are 7 types of adjectives in English, namely:

a. *Absolute adjective*

Absolute adjective is an adjective that has no comparison or is already a description of the highest. Examples include dead, alive, starving, extinct, and others.

b. Attributive and predicative adjectives

Attributive adjectives are adjectives that are usually placed before nouns, and function to describe or change the state of the noun in more detail, without any linking verb. For example fat, slim, handmade, and others.

Meanwhile, predicative adjectives are the opposite, they usually do not appear before nouns or nouns, but appear after linking verbs. For example be, become, grow, look.

c. Appositive adjectives

Appositive adjectives are a series of adjectives that usually accompany nouns, and begin with a comma. In a sentence, for example:

"Lisa is a tall girl, slim, strong, and short haired."

These appositive adjectives appear in the form of adjective pairs. From the example above, namely tall, slim, strong, and short.

d. Comparative and superlative adjectives

Comparative adjectives are a form of adjectives that function to compare things, better or worse, more or less, also bigger or smaller. For example easier, sharper, harmless.

Meanwhile, superlatives are comparisons that have a form or degree of adjective that shows the most or least, best or worst of something. For example biggest, shortest, least.

e. **Compound adjectives**

Compound adjectives are two or more adjectives that describe a condition of a noun. Examples include well-known, slowly, etc.

f. *Denominal adjectives*

Denominal adjectives are forms of nouns that usually have a suffix to make them adjectives. For example, the noun hope with the suffix -less becomes hopeless. Another example is jobless, clueless**.**

g. **Participial adjectives**

Participial adjectives are adjectives in English that come from verbs with the suffixes -ing, -ed, or -en. However, it is still an adjective, not a noun. For example lying.

5. **Adverbs (Adverbs)**

Definition: Adverbs modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs, providing information about how, when, where, or to what extent something is done.

Examples:

Degree: very, quite, extremely, too adverbs are adverbs to explain or provide additional information about the adjective, verb, sentences, or adverb itself. But, adverbs never describe a noun.

The types of adverbs in English are:

a. **Adverbs of time**

Adverb that are describing of time, for example yesterday, this morning, this afternoon, daily, recently, tonight, early, now, then, yesterday, tomorrow, soon.

b. **Adverb of manner**

is an adverb to show how an action, action, or something happens. For example happily, hardly, slowly, softly, quickly**.**

c. **Adverb of degree,**

This adverb is usually used to express the intensity of something. Or, these adverbs can help us to express "how much" or "to what extent"

something happened. Examples of adverbs of degree are enough, quite, so, too, very.

d. The adverb of modality

is an adverb that can be used when you want to show the level of confidence or hope. Examples include likely, maybe, perhaps, possibly, unlikely.

e. *Adverb of frequency*

The adverb of frequency is an adverb to express how often something happens. So, the adverbs of frequency include always, barely, daily, often, sometimes, usually/normally, and never.

f. An adverb of place

is an adverb that shows where an action or something occurs. Examples include away, behind, here, nearby, there, everywhere, nowhere.

g. The adverb of focus

is an adverb for focusing or concentrating attention on a part of a sentence. Examples include also, even, just, mainly, only.

6. Preposition

Definition: Prepositions show the relationship between a noun or pronoun and other words in a sentence, often indicating location, direction, or time. Preposition is a front word that functions to show the relationship of space or time between one object and another. Prepositions function to connect nouns with pronouns to form phrases that modify other words.

Examples:

in, on, at, to, from, for, with, by, of, above, below, behind, in front of. Prepositions are divided into six types, namely:

a. Preposition of time,

namely prepositions used to express time. In this case, "time" has a broad scope, it could be days, hours, seasons, and so on. Examples are after, before, during, since, until, etc.

b. Preposition of place

is a preposition to express a place. For example above, at, in, on, under.

c. **The preposition of movement**
is a preposition used to indicate movement from one place to another. Examples include inside, into, off, toward(s), up, and many more.

d. **Preposition of manner**
which is a preposition to show the relationship "manner" between the object and other words in a sentence. For example, by, in, like, on, with(out).

e. **Preposition of purpose**
is a preposition to express the "purpose" relationship between an object and other words in a sentence. The most frequently used example is for.

f. **The preposition of quantity/measure**
is a preposition that functions to introduce information in the form of a "quantity" or "size" relationship between an object and other words in the sentence. For example, for and by.

7. **Conjunction (Conjunction Words)**
Definition: Conjunctions join words, phrases, or clauses together. Conjunctions are words used to unite equivalent language units (connecting words with words, phrases with phrases, clauses with clauses, sentences with sentences, and so on).
Examples:
Coordinating conjunctions: and, but, or, nor, for, so, yet
Subordinating conjunctions: because, since, although, while, if, unless, when
In simple terms, a conjunction is responsible for connecting the main sentence with the subordinate sentence. Conjunctions are divided into several types, what are they?
   Conjunction based on function:
a. **A subordinate conjunction**
is a conjunction to combine two dependent clauses that cannot stand alone, meaning they must be combined with another clause to produce meaning. Examples are since, although, after, additionally, besides, etc. This type of conjunction is also usually called a conjunctive adverb, or an adverb that acts as a conjunction.

b. **A coordinating conjunction**

is a word to connect two sentences that have grammatically equivalent positions. Examples of coordinating conjunctions are for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so.

Conjunctions based on form:

c. **A correlative conjunction**

is a conjunction that consists of two words, but they must be separated in the sentence. Examples include not only ... but also, either ... or, neither ... nor, etc.

d. **Single word**

is a conjunction that consists of one word. For example, but, and, also, and so on.

e. **Compound conjunctions**

are hyphens that consist of more than one word, but are not separate like correlative conjunctions. Examples include as if, as long as, provided that, in order that, and so on.

8. **Article and Determiner (Explanatory Words)**

Definition: Conjunctions join words, phrases, or clauses together.

Examples:

a. Coordinating conjunctions: and, but, or, nor, for, so, yet

b. Subordinating conjunctions: because, since, although, while, if, unless, when Articles in parts of speech function to show the clarity of an object. If you still remember, we discussed this a little in the noun section. Oh yes, the articles themselves are divided into two, namely definite and indefinite.

Examples of definites are the and the. Huh? What is the difference? Yep, the writing is the same, but the way to read it is different. Apart from that, these two teas don't have the same function, you know. One follows nouns that start with a vowel, the other follows nouns that start with a consonant.

So, examples of indefinites are a and an.

Meanwhile, determiners are words placed in front of a noun to clarify the noun itself. Examples are these, that, those, enough, much, few, which, what.

9. **Interjection (Interjection)**
   Definition: Interjections express strong emotions or sudden feelings. Interjection is a word to express someone's emotions towards a situation or action.
   Examples:
   Wow!, Oh!, Ah!, Oops!, Hey!, Hurray! wow, hey, oy, alas, and many more.

   Understanding the role of each part of speech helps in:
   Sentence construction: Building grammatically correct and meaningful sentences.
   Reading comprehension: Analyzing and understanding the meaning of texts.
   Writing effectively: Using language with precision and clarity.
   Improving communication skills: Expressing ideas and thoughts more effectively.
   By mastering the concepts of parts of speech, you can enhance your language skills and become a more proficient communicator.

C. **SUMMARY**
   Parts of speech are categories that classify words based on their function and role within a sentence.
   Key Parts of Speech:
   - Nouns: Name people, places, things, ideas (e.g., dog, city, happiness)
   - Pronouns: Replace nouns (e.g., he, she, it, they)
   - Verbs: Express actions or states of being (e.g., run, eat, is, become)
   - .Adjectives: Describe nouns (e.g., beautiful, tall, happy)
   - Adverbs: Modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs (e.g., quickly, very, extremely)
   - Prepositions: Show relationships between words (e.g., in, on, at, to, from)

- Conjunctions: Join words, phrases, or clauses (e.g., and, but, or, because)
- Interjections: Express strong emotions (e.g., Wow!, Oh!, Oops!)

Understanding parts of speech is crucial for:
- Grammatically correct sentence construction.
- Effective communication (both written and spoken).
- Improved reading comprehension.

By recognizing the function of each word in a sentence, you can better understand and interpret the intended meaning.

TASK AND EVALUATION
Exercise 1 – Identify the Adverb
Go through the given sentences and identify the adverb.
1. We have seen this before.
2. The postman comes to her daily.
3. The man repeated the same thing thrice.
4. Your friend called again.
5. Please walk forward.

Exercise 2 – Use the Appropriate Pronoun
Fill the blanks with correct pronouns.
1. Doni is my brother. ___ study in the same class
2. Between Roni and me, __ am the younger one.
3. Do you see this book with my name on it? It is ___.
4. Mrs.Daisy is our new class teacher. ___ is very sweet.
5. While cutting vegetables, Ita cut ___.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR

CHAPTER 3: BASIC SENTENCES STRUCTURE

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CHAPTER 3
BASIC SENTENCES STRUCTURE

A. INTRODUCTION TO BASIC SENTENCE STRUCTURE

Understanding basic sentence structure in English is a fundamental component of language proficiency. Basic sentence structure includes key elements such as subject, predicate, and object, which form clear and communicative sentences. By understanding the arrangement of these elements, speakers can construct sentences effectively to convey ideas and information precisely. As stated by (Liusti et al., 2021), a good command of sentence patterns is essential to ensure that writing and speech become more organized and easy to understand.

The importance of understanding basic sentence structure can also be seen in its impact on speaking and writing skills. A strong understanding of how sentences are structured allows individuals to respond better in oral and written communication. When speakers understand how to organize sentence elements, they can express their thoughts more creatively and variably. According to Saddhono et al. (2018) that the skill of understanding sentence structure is closely related to the ability to write coherent and cohesive descriptive texts (Saddhono et al., 2018).

Furthermore, basic sentence structures not only serve as a basis for communication, but also play an important role in learning more complex languages. By mastering simple sentences first, a learner can more easily transition to more complex sentences, such as compound sentences and complex sentences. According to research conducted by (Zhang et al., 2019), a deep understanding of basic sentence patterns is the key to mastering more complex sentence forms, thus increasing students' confidence in communication (Zhang et al., 2019).

Understanding basic sentence structure also improves one's ability to analyze text. When a reader is able to identify the elements in a sentence, they can better understand the overall meaning of the text. This is

emphasized by Krishnaveni and Balasundaram (2022), who state that the analysis of syntactic elements in sentences is beneficial for a deeper understanding and interpretation of text information (Demirezen, 2019). Therefore, mastery of basic sentence structure is very important in various aspects of communication, both oral and written.

The difference between complete and incomplete sentences is an important aspect that influences effective communication. A complete sentence is equipped with a clear subject and predicate, so that it can convey information in its entirety. For example, the sentence "He goes to school" is a complete sentence because it has the subject "He" and the predicate "goes to school." Thus, this sentence can stand alone and be fully understood (Kosonozhkina et al., 2023).

On the other hand, incomplete sentences may lack one of these elements, but can still be understood in a certain context. For example, if in a conversation someone only says "To school," the listener will understand that the speaker is conveying information about himself without needing to mention the subject. According to Hasan's (2020) study, the use of incomplete sentences is often found in oral conversations, where the situational context helps to explain the missing meaning (Mirowski & Vlachos, 2015).

In English grammar, a sentence is a construction consisting of several key elements that together form a clear and understandable meaning. These main elements include subject, predicate, object, and complement. The subject functions as the actor or the one who performs the action, while the predicate describes the action. The object, on the other hand, adds information about what the subject's action is applied to. Complements provide additional details that explain or clarify the relationship between the subject and object. According to Alghazo and Alshraideh (2020), a good understanding of these elements is essential to produce coherent and effective expressions in communicating in English (Alghazo & Alshraideh, 2020) (Kosonozhkina et al., 2023).

B. ELEMENTS OF A SENTENCE

A good sentence is not only composed of words, but also of elements that are interrelated and form a complete structure. In this section, we will discuss the various important components in a sentence, from the subject, predicate, object, complement, to the modifier. Understanding these elements is the first step in developing the ability to construct sentences that are precise and effective in the English-speaking context.

1. Subject

The subject in English grammar is a key element that shows who or what performs the action in a sentence. The subject is usually a noun or pronoun and functions as the core of the sentence, providing important information about the actor or focus of an action. Understanding the structure of the subject is important in the process of forming correct and clear sentences. Green (2012) explains that the subject in a sentence plays a role in building the clause hierarchy in English and has an influence on how information is conveyed in communication.

There are various types of subjects that can be found in English grammar. First, a simple subject consists of a single noun or pronoun. For example, in the sentence "The cat is sleeping," "The cat" acts as a simple subject. Second, a compound subject is formed when two or more subjects are combined using a conjunction. For example, in the sentence "Mom and Dad went to the market," "Mom and Dad" is a compound subject that indicates more than one actor. Finally, complex subjects involve phrases that have additional information, as in the sentence "Children who study hard get good grades." Here, "Children who study hard" adds complexity to the subject (Marty et al., 2017).

The importance of the subject in English grammar cannot be ignored, because it forms the basis of many other grammatical principles. Awareness of the different types of subjects and the challenges that may arise in their use is very useful in improving the ability to communicate effectively. Therefore, planned and directed grammar teaching is very important to equip students with the tools necessary to use English correctly and well.

2. Predicate

The predicate has an important role in the sentence structure in English. The predicate can be broadly defined as the part of a sentence or clause that tells us what the subject is doing or what it is like. Basically, the predicate is a verb along with the objects or modifiers needed to make a complete thought (Afifah et al., 2023). Understanding of the predicate is very important in syntactic studies, because the predicate provides insight into the dynamics of sentence construction and the relationship between the various components of the sentence (Afifah et al., 2023). In addition, the predicate conveys important semantic information, specifying the actions, circumstances, or events associated with the subject, which is crucial for effective communication (McCord, M. C., Murdock, J. W., & Boguraev, B. K. (2012).

In terms of structure, standard predicates in English usually begin with a verb that can stand alone or be accompanied by an object, subject complement, and modifier. For example, in the sentence "The cat sleeps," "sleeps" is a predicate that describes the action performed by the subject, "the cat" (Afifah et al., 2023). In addition, in more complex structures, the predicate can combine various elements such as adverbs or additional clauses, thus expanding its function and depth of meaning (Liusti et al., 2020). Predicate complexity can also reflect variations in grammar and usage, especially as observed in written texts, which highlight nuanced ways of using language (Liusti et al., 2020).

Predicate is therefore an important component in English grammar, intricately connecting subjects with their actions or states. Its structure and complexity contribute significantly to a holistic understanding of sentence formation.

3. Object

In English grammar, the object is an important element in sentence structure that helps to provide a more complete meaning. In general, objects are divided into two main categories: direct objects and indirect objects. A direct object is a word or phrase that receives the action of a verb, while an indirect object is the recipient of the action. According to

Azar (2003), a clear understanding of objects in sentences is essential for constructing effective and communicative sentences.

A simple example of a direct object can be found in the sentence "He is reading a book." In this example, "book" is the direct object that receives the action of the verb "reading." On the other hand, in the sentence "He gave me a book," "me" is an indirect object that receives the benefit of the action "to give," while "book" remains a direct object. This shows how two types of objects can function in one sentence to provide richer and more detailed information (Baker, 2003).

4. Complement

In sentence structure, elements such as subject, predicate, and object have a very important role. However, one element that is often overlooked is the complement. The complement serves to complete the meaning of the subject or object in a sentence. There are two main types of complement, namely subject complement and object complement.

A subject complement is a word or phrase that follows and describes the subject, often consisting of an adjective or nominal phrase that provides additional information about the subject. An example of its use can be found in sentences such as "The winner is John," where "John" serves as a subject complement that refers back to "the winner." In linguistic analysis, the role of subject complement is very important because it determines the identity or state of the subject. This is also related to syntactic theory where subject complement often follows verb linking (such as "is") that connects the subject to its complement (Tollan & Palaz, 2021; Haegeman & Koppen, 2012).

On the other hand, an object complement is an element that provides additional information about the object in the sentence. Serving to explain or further characterize the object involved, object complements often function as nominal phrases or adjectives. An example of its use appears in the sentence "They elected him president," where "president" functions as an object complement that provides further detail about "him" (Engels, 2011; Dikken, 2018).

In sentence structure analysis, the presence of object complements can change the way we understand the role that objects play in the context of sentences. For example, the placement of objects and their complements shows a deeper relationship and more complex action between subjects and objects, often creating nuances in the interpretation of sentences (Engels, 2011). Some linguistic theories even emphasize the importance of in-depth analysis of object complements in the development of more flexible and dynamic grammar (Alrenga, 2005; Gentens & Rudanko, 2019).

5. Modifiers

The use of modifiers in sentences, especially adverbs and adjectives, is very important in clarifying meaning and providing additional nuances to the information conveyed. The two main forms of these modifiers, adverbs and adjectives, perform different roles in sentences, although they have the same purpose: to enrich the contextual understanding of the subject or predicate.

Adverbs function to modify verbs, adjectives, or even sentences as a whole, providing additional information about manner, time, place, or degree. (Lewis, 2020), adverbs can be found before verbs or adjectives, and they define the actions, behaviors, and qualities involved in sentences (Lewis, 2020). For example, in the sentence "She sings beautifully," the adverb "beautifully" describes the way she sings. In addition, adverbs are also divided into two main groups: VP-adverbs, which modify sentences in the context of verb phrases (VP), and sentence adverbs, which modify full propositions expressed by clauses (Koronkiewicz, 2022).

According to (Huda, 2022), adverbs in English can be classified based on the element they modify, where sentence adverbs modify the entire sentence and VP adverbs provide more specific context to the verb (Huda, 2022). Experts also note that adverbs have a dynamic and flexible structure, can be placed in various positions in a sentence, including at the beginning, middle, or end of a sentence (Huda, 2022). Thus, the use and placement of adverbs depends heavily on the context of the sentence, both in spoken and written language.

Meanwhile, adjectives serve to explain or characterize nouns, making the information about the subject in the sentence more specific. According to Gómez et al. (2017), adjectives not only serve to modify nouns, but can also influence the overall meaning conveyed in a sentence (Gómez et al., 2017). For example, in the sentence "The tall building is impressive," the adjective "tall" describes the characteristics of the "building." Adjectives can be placed before nouns, and this placement greatly influences the interpretation of the sentence (Lewis, 2020).

Adjectives can also function as part of a predicate when combined with a linking verb, such as "is" in the example above. In this context, Chatzikyriakidis and Luo (2017) explain that the combination of adjectives and adverbs shows how these two elements can complement and enrich sentence structure (Chatzikyriakidis & Luo, 2017). The proper use of adjectives can give depth and complexity to the information conveyed in sentences, both in everyday communication and in academic contexts.

Adverbs and adjectives are important elements in language that function as modifiers, enriching the meaning of sentences and providing further clarity to information. Understanding their use and function is not only useful in language mastery, but also in linguistic analysis and translation.

C. TYPES OF SENTENCES BASED ON STRUCTURE

Sentences in English are not only different based on the purpose of communication, but also based on their structure. Variations in sentence structure allow writers or speakers to convey ideas in more varied and effective ways, depending on the interide relationships they want to convey. In this section, we will discuss several types of sentences based on their structure, from simple sentences to more complex forms, including combinations of different types of sentences. Understanding these variations is important for building more dynamic and structured writing and speaking skills.

First, a simple sentence is defined as a sentence structure containing a subject and a predicate, which conveys a complete thought. A simple sentence usually consists of one independent clause that has no dependent or additional clauses. As a basic element in sentence

construction, simple sentences are very important for clarity of communication (Demirezen, 2019). The main components of simple sentences include noun phrases (NP) and verb phrases (VP), which can be further complemented by adverbs (AdvP) or adjectives (AdjP) depending on the complexity of the expression intended by the writer or speaker (Anggoro et al., 2022).

For example, "The cat is sleeping," is an example of a simple, easy sentence that accommodates the basic requirements of the subject ("cat") and the predicate ("sleeping"). This simplicity allows for direct and impactful communication of ideas. In addition, simple sentences are often used in speech and educational contexts because of their accessibility, especially in speech, as they help to engage audiences effectively (Anggoro et al., 2022).

Then a compound sentence is defined as a sentence that contains at least two independent clauses joined by a coordinating conjunction such as "and", "but", "or", "or", "for", "however", and "so" (Zulhakim & Ma'mun, 2023). This structure allows writers to create more complex ideas and improve the flow of their writing by connecting related thoughts. The use of coordinating conjunctions is very important in forming compound sentences because these elements function as connectors that show the relationship between clauses.

For example, the sentence "I want to take a walk, but it's starting to rain" shows how the conjunction "but" juxtaposes two independent clauses that express contrasting ideas.

The grammatical function of coordinative conjunctions in compound sentences is to indicate the relative weight and importance of each clause in the overall sentence structure. According to Bánréti (2022), coordinative conjunctions can reflect different pragmatic meanings, such as causality or contrast, depending on the context of their use (Bánréti, 2022). The ability to create nuanced relationships between clauses is invaluable in academic and literary writing, where clarity and depth of thought are essential.

As well as complex sentences, consisting of one independent clause and one or more subordinate clauses, which show a hierarchical relationship between ideas. Subordinate clauses, which cannot stand

alone, serve to provide context or additional details about the actions or circumstances expressed in the independent clause. For example, in the complex sentence "Because it was raining, I stayed at home," the phrase "Because it was raining" functions as a subclause that explains the reason for the action in the independent subclause, "I stayed at home." This structure facilitates a more nuanced understanding of the relationship between clauses, enriching the overall meaning of the sentence (Silawati, 2019).

Subordinate clauses can be classified into several types, including adverbial clauses, relative clauses, and noun clauses, each of which has a unique function in a sentence. Adverbial clauses modify verbs in independent clauses, providing important information about the time, condition, cause, or manner of an action (Silawati, 2019). For example, a relative clause introduces additional details about the noun mentioned in the main clause, as in the sentence "The book I borrowed was very good," where the clause "that I borrowed" provides specific information about "the book." The ability to embed additional information directly into this sentence increases writing sophistication (Haryanti et al., 2021).

Then complex-compound sentences, defined as having at least two independent clauses in addition to at least one subordinate clause. This structure allows writers to articulate more sophisticated ideas, reflecting the complex relationships between thoughts. For example, a sentence like "Even though it was raining, I went for a run, and my friend joined me" illustrates the coordination of two independent clauses with a subordinating clause that provides context. By utilizing independent and subordinating clauses, complex sentences create richer and more nuanced expressions compared to simpler sentence structures (Daud et al., 2024).

D. TYPES OF SENTENCES BASED ON FUNCTION

Each sentence is not only distinguished by its structure, but also by the communicative function it is intended to achieve. In everyday use, we often state something, ask a question, give an order, or express emotions—all of these are reflected in different types of sentences based on their function. This section will review the types of sentences used for specific communication purposes, from declarative sentences to

exclamatory sentences, in order to understand how language is used effectively in different contexts.

First, declarative sentences function as the basis of communication in many languages, serving primarily to make statements or express ideas. According to Erawati and Sulibra (2017), declarative sentences present a predicate and may include additional phrases, thus emphasizing information or providing a description (Rosdiana, 2024). For example, a simple statement such as "The sky is blue" conveys a clear and factual statement. Such sentences are commonly used in everyday language and are very important in conveying information without expecting a response or action from the listener.

The role of declarative sentences is more than just making statements; these sentences are also used in various contexts to influence interpersonal meaning. (Herman et al., 2024) discuss how advertisements use declarative moods to inform consumers about products, illustrating how declarative sentences can effectively convey persuasive information (Herman et al., 2024). In the context of advertising, declarative sentences provide clarity about the features or benefits of a product, fulfilling both informative and persuasive functions. This dual role emphasizes the importance of declarative sentences in various communication settings, from casual conversations to professional discourse.

Second, interrogative sentences are very important in communication, with the main function of obtaining information from respondents. These sentences can generally be categorized into two groups: yes/no questions and what questions. Yes/no questions are structured to elicit a binary response, usually to elicit an affirmation or negation. For example, the question "Are you coming to the meeting?" invites a "yes" or "no" answer. According to Yessenbayeva et al. (2020), interrogative sentences not only fulfill the speaker's cognitive intent, but also convey nuanced pragmatic meaning, illustrating the importance of interrogative sentences in effective communication.

On the other hand, wh-questions, begin with the word wh (who, what, where, when, why, or how) and are designed to gather specific information. For example, the question "What time is the meeting?" asks for more detailed information than just a yes or no. Shiamizadeh et al.

(2018) discuss the intricacies involved in the formation of wh-questions in Persian, highlighting how the acoustic nature of these sentences can convey specific meanings and nuances, which further underline their significance in communication. This shows that wh-questions operate at a different level from simple yes/no questions, as they require a more detailed response and thus encourage deeper interaction.

Third, imperative sentences are mainly used to issue orders, make requests, or convey prohibitions. These sentences are characterized by verbs in their base form and often omit the subject, because the subject is usually implied as "you". For example, in the instruction "Close the door," the subject "you" is understood as "you". As explained by (Dewi et al., 2021), imperative sentences not only function to command but also as requests depending on the context and tone of the speaker (Dewi et al., 2021). This underlines the flexibility of imperatives in facilitating communication that influences the behavior of others.

The function of the imperative sentence in everyday conversation varies greatly, because it can be used to express orders, polite requests, or even suggestions (Zalmetri, 2024). highlights that in the context of conversation, the imperative form often appears in the form of a request, which shows how the structure can soften the directive nature of an order to make it sound more polite and approachable (Zalmetri, 2024). For example, saying "Can you get me some salt?" conveys a request rather than an order, which shows how imperative sentences can be adapted based on social interaction and the desired tone.

Finally, exclamations are used primarily to express strong emotions or sudden feelings. These sentences often include an exclamation mark at the end to convey the intensity of the emotion. For example, the sentence "What an amazing performance!" expresses excitement and appreciation. As noted by Yuliana et al. (2022), exclamation points provide a means for speakers to emphasize their emotional response to a subject, making them an important component of spoken and written language. Exclamation point structures typically use interrogative words such as "what" or "how" to intensify emotional expression, enhancing the overall communicative effect.

The impact of exclamation points extends to various forms of discourse, including poetry and impromptu speeches. According to (Dewi et al., 2021), these sentences are very prominent in the literary context, where writers use them to increase emotional involvement and create dramatic effects. In literature, exclamation points can serve to summarize the internal state of a character or reinforce the emotional weight of a scene. This reinforcing effect is essential to draw readers into the narrative and foster a deeper relationship with the text.

E.   COMMON SENTENCE ERRORS AND HOW TO AVOID THEM

Correct sentence is not only about choosing the right word, but also understanding common mistakes that often occur in sentence construction. Some mistakes, such as incomplete sentences, connecting ideas without proper structure, or confusing modifier placement, can interfere with the clarity and meaning of a writing. Therefore, this section will discuss various types of commonly found sentence errors, as well as provide ways to avoid and correct them, so that written communication becomes clearer, more effective, and more professional.

First, a sentence fragment is an incomplete sentence that does not have a complete subject, verb, or idea, so it is not grammatically correct. This fragment can occur in various contexts, such as when a dependent clause is presented without an independent clause to complement the idea. For example, the fragment "Even though I went to the store" makes the reader expect additional information, because it does not provide a complete thought. According to Sundari et al. (2021), sentence fragments often appear when writers try to combine thoughts or transitions between ideas but fail to develop one of them. Detecting these fragments is essential to achieve clarity and coherence in writing.

One effective strategy for improving sentence fragments is to ensure that each sentence contains at least one independent clause. This means that for a fragment like "Before sunrise," the sentence can be revised to include a complete thought, such as "Before sunrise, I went jogging." This revision turns the fragment into a complete sentence by adding an independent clause that provides a complete idea. Gunady Gunady (2018) shows that understanding sentence structure - especially the difference

between independent and dependent clauses - is very important for students to minimize fragmentation errors in their writing.

Second, run-on sentences occur when two or more independent clauses are incorrectly linked without proper punctuation or conjunction. This error can obscure meaning and make sentences difficult to read. For example, the sentence "I like to read but I don't have time" combines two complete thoughts without punctuation to clarify their relationship. As shown by Berninger et al. (2010), individuals may have difficulty with wordy sentences due to a lack of understanding of how to properly connect ideas using conjunctions or punctuation, which emphasizes the need for clarity in writing.

To avoid wordy sentences, writers must learn to identify independent clauses and understand how to separate them correctly. One commonly used technique is to use punctuation, such as a period or semicolon, to separate clauses. For example, the run-on sentence mentioned earlier can be corrected to "I like to read. I don't have time," which effectively conveys separate thoughts. Alternatively, a comma followed by a coordinating conjunction such as "and", "but", or "so" can also connect clauses well, as seen in the revision: "I like to read, but I don't have time." Zheng et al. (2018) highlight the importance of proper punctuation in clearly conveying the relationship between ideas, underscoring the importance of grammar education for effective communication

Comma splices occur when two independent clauses are inappropriately joined together with only commas, creating a grammatical error. For example, in the sentence "I like to read, I feel relaxed," the writer does not adequately connect the two complete thoughts with commas without a suitable connecting word. This mistake is common among writers who try to shorten sentences or avoid using more complex punctuation. According to Al-Marrani Al-Marrani (2024), many students have difficulty with commas, which highlights the importance of understanding sentence structure to convey ideas clearly and effectively.

To correct comma splices, writers can use several approaches. One effective method is to replace commas with periods, separating two independent clauses into separate sentences. For example, the corrected version would read, "I like to read. I feel relaxed." Alternatively, writers

can also use semicolons to closely connect independent clauses, thus maintaining the relationship between ideas, as seen in the sentence "I like to read; I feel relaxed." This strategy not only addresses comma splices, but also improves the flow and clarity of the writing as a whole.

Another way to correct comma splices is through the use of coordinating conjunctions. By using conjunctions such as "and", "but", or "so", writers can create compound sentences that correctly connect independent clauses. For example, the sentence can be rewritten to "I like to read, and I feel relaxed." As discussed by Octaviani and Wijaya (Octaviani & Wijaya, 2024), understanding the function of conjunctions is very important for students in the EFL context, as this helps them avoid common punctuation mistakes, such as comma splices, while improving their ability to construct more complex sentences.

Misplaced and dangling modifiers are common grammatical errors that can obscure the intended meaning of a sentence. Misplaced modifiers occur when the modifier is not placed next to the word it is intended to modify, causing confusion. For example, in the sentence "He almost drives his children to school every day," the word "almost" inappropriately modifies the act of driving, not the frequency of driving. According to Smith et al. Panda et al. (2014), misplaced modifiers can cause ambiguity that distorts the intended message, so clarity in sentence structure is essential for effective communication.

On the other hand, dangling modifiers are phrases that are not clearly attached to the word they are intended to modify. For example, the sentence "After reading the book, the movie was disappointing" implies that the movie read the book, which doesn't make sense. This error occurs when the subject of the introductory modifier is absent from the sentence or not properly connected. As noted by Wang et al. (Lyakhova et al., 2014), dangling modifiers can mislead the reader, reducing the impact of the writing. To correct this, it is important to ensure that the subject of the modifier is in the main part of the sentence, leading to a clearer relationship. The revised version could read: "After I read the book, I found the movie disappointing," which explains who performed the action.

One effective strategy for avoiding misplaced or dangling modifiers is to carefully review the sentence structure during the editing process. This involves checking the placement of the modifier and ensuring that it corresponds to the noun or verb being modified. Lyakhova et al. Sun et al. (2012) emphasize that writers must pay attention to the use of modifiers to maintain clarity in writing. In addition, restructuring sentences can often prevent this error. For example, using a clear subject and effectively reordering sentences can eliminate ambiguity and provide a more straightforward expression of ideas.

F. SUMMARY

A sentence is a group of words that expresses a complete thought. At its core, every sentence must have a subject and a predicate. The subject tells who or what the sentence is about, while the predicate describes what the subject does or is. A sentence is a group of words that expresses a complete thought. Every complete sentence must have at least a subject and a predicate. The subject tells who or what the sentence is about, and the predicate tells what the subject does or is. Understanding basic sentence structure in English is a fundamental component of language proficiency. Basic sentence structure includes key elements such as subject, predicate, and object, which form clear and communicative sentences. By understanding the arrangement of these elements, speakers can construct sentences effectively to convey ideas and information precisely.

TASK AND EVALUATION

1. Explain why an understanding of basic sentence structure is important in mastering English, both in spoken and written contexts. Include expert opinions to support your answer.
2. Identify the important elements in the following sentence, then classify each as subject, predicate, object, complement, or modifier:
3. "The hardworking students completed the assignment quickly."
4. Compare and explain the differences between compound sentences and complex sentences based on the structure and relationship between clauses. Give one example of each.

5. Describe four types of sentences based on their communicative function. Explain the characteristics and purposes of each type, and give one example sentence for each type.
6. Grammar errors such as run-on sentences and comma splices can interfere with the clarity of written communication. Explain both types of errors and how to fix them. Include examples of incorrect sentences and corrected versions.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR

CHAPTER 4: TENSES: UNDERSTANDING TIME IN ENGLISH

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CHAPTER 4
TENSES: UNDERSTANDING
TIME IN ENGLISH

A. INTRODUCTION

It is well known in English that change times, change tenses. For readers and students, In order to provide a good and basic understanding on how tenses change when times change, this chapter is prepared. In other words, this chapter is a kind of review of the relationship between times and tenses in English.

Sketchily, there are three tenses in English. They are Past Tense, Present Tense, and Future Tense. For more imagination, look at Picture 1.
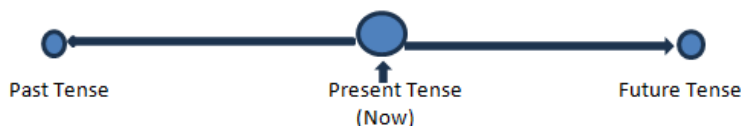
Picture 1: Imaginary Time Line of Tenses

It is a good idea and an important tool for teachers to give basic understanding of English by using imaginary time line in explaining tenses in English. By doing so, the students or the readers of this book may imagine how change times change tenses. The imaginary time line will help students to imagine in their mind regarding tenses (past tense, present tense, and future tense).

In English, there are twelve tenses as described in this chapter, they are:

1. The Simple Tense: (1) simple present tense; (2) simple past tense; (3) simple future tense.
2. The Progressive Tense consists: (1) present progressive tense; (2) past progressive tense; (3) future progressive tense. According to Azar

(1989, The Progressive Tense is also named continuous tense: (1) present continuous tense; (2) past continuous tense; (3) future continuous tense.

3. The Perfect Tense: (1) present perfect tense; (2) past perfect tense; (3) future perfect tense.
4. The Perfect Progressive Tense: (1) present perfect progressive tense; (2) past perfect progressive tense; (3) future perfect progressive tense.

The Simple Present Tense express event or situation that exist always, exist usually, and exist habitually.

The Simple Past Tense express event or situation that exist at one particular time in the past. In addition, the events begin in the past and end in the past. The event did not continue to the present time and future time (Azar, 1989),

The Simple Future Tense express event or situation which will happen at one specific time in the future. However, the event or situation possibly not happen too (Azar, 1989).

The Present Progressive Tense express action or situation which is in progress at the present time. The event is in progress at the moment of speaking. However, the event probably will continue (Azar, 1989).

The Past Progressive Tense express event or situation which was in progress at a particular time in the past. However, the event or situation probably continued (Azar, 1989).

The Future Progressive Tense express events that will be in progress at a particular time in the future. In addition, the event probably will continue (Azar, 1989).

The Present Perfect Tense express event or situation that finished some time before now. In this point, the exact time is not important (Azar, 1989).

The Past Perfect Tense express event or situation that was completely finished before another time in the past. However, the duration of the event is important (Azar, 1989).

The Future Perfect Tense express event or situation which will be completely finished before another time in the future. Moreover, the event will be finished in the future (Azar, 1989).

The Present Progressive Tense express event or situation which is in continuing before now, or up to now. In addition, the event or situation will have been happening (Azar, 1989).

The Past Perfect Progressive Tense express event or situation which is in progress before another event in the past. In addition, the event would have been happening in the past (Azar, 1989).

The Future Perfect Progressive Tense express event or situation which is in progress before another event or situation in the future. In addition, the event or situation will have been happening in the future (Azar, 1989).

B. ELEMENTS OF TENSES

Tense is an infected forms in conjunction with verb which indicates time: (1) past; (2) present; (3) future, as well as the completion of an action or situation. A set of tense forms or indicates a particular time. Meanwhile, time is a nonspatial continum in which event or situation occurs in apparently irreversible succession from the past through the present, and to the future ((The American Heritage College Dictionary, 1993). Talking about tenses can not be separated from talking about times. That is why, change times, change tenses.

In the following paragraphs, every single tense is described based on not only imaginary time line and examples of sentences but also necessary explanations.

C. THE SIMPLE TENSE

The Simple Tense consists of: (1) Simple Present Tense; (2) Simple Past Tense; (3) Simple Future Tense. Azar (1989) stated that the formula and meaning of the Simple Tenses are shown in the follow pictures.

1.   Simple Present Tense

Picture 2: Imaginary Time Line of Simple Present Tense

Sentences and explanation	
Sentences: 1) It *snows* in Alaska. 2) I *watch* television every evening.	Explanation: In general, the Simple Present express events and situations that *exist always*, *usually*, *habitually*; they exist now, have existed in the past, and probably exist in the future.

According to Pollock (1982), Simple Present Tense:
1) Makes factual statements.
   Example: My father has an agricultural farm.
2) Express customs and habitual activity.
   Example: I always wake up early in the morning.
3) May express future time when it is used with a future time word and phrase.
   Example:
   My wife leaves for Tokyo next week
   Susan: What is the matter?
   My wife: I don't have time for lunch.
   Susan: Don't worry. The lunch package arrives in a few moment.
4) Express nonactions.
   Example: I hate bitter coffee.

The Simple Present Tense express something which was true in the past, is true in the present time, and will be true in the future. It is used for general statement of fact (Azar, 1989). It is also used to express general truth, the truth in which the fact is accepted by the public in general. For better understanding, look at the following sentences:
a. A week has seven days.
b. A day has twenty-four hours.
c. A year has twelve months.
d. An hour has sixty minutes.
e. A minute has sixty seconds.

2. Simple Past Tense

Picture 3. Imaginary Time Line of Simple Past Tense

Sentences and explanation	
Sentences: 1) It *rained* yesterday. 2) I *watched* television last night.	Explanation: *Rained* and *watched* happened *at a particular time in the past.* They began and ended in the past.

According to Pollock (1982), Simple Past Tense:
1) Describes actions of short time in the past.
   Example: I met him yesterday, and we talked for a while.
2) Describes actions which happened in a period of time in the past.
   Example: Dr. Made Sandi taught at University of Indonesia for twenty years.
3) Describes past habitual actions.
   Example: When Dr. Mad Sandi at University of Indonesia, he rode his bike to class.

3. Simple Future Tense
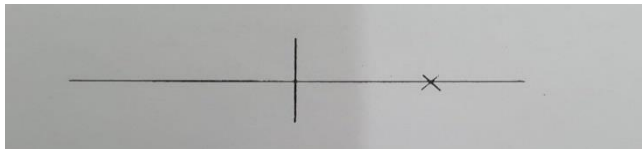
Picture 4. Imaginary Time Line of Simple Future Tense

Sentences and explanation	
Sentences:	Explanation:
1) It *will snow* tomorrow.	At one particular time in the
2) I *will watch* television tonight.	future, this will happen.

The Simple Future Tense express action that happen in the future (Pollock, 1982). For more information, look at the following sentences.
1) Simple Present. Example: I leave for Bandung tomorrow morning.
2) Present Progressive. Example: I am leaving for Bandung tomorrow morning.
3) Will + main verb. Example: I will leave for Bandung tomorrow morning.
4) Be + going to. Example: I am going to leave for Bandung tomorrow morning.

D. THE PROGRESSIVE TENSE

The Progressive Tense consists of three different times. They are: (1) Present Progressive Tense; (2). Past Progressive Tense; (3) Future Progressive Tense. Azar (1989) stated that the form and meaning of the progressive tenses are as follows.

Form	:	*be + -ing* (*present participle*)
Meaning	:	The progressive tenses give the ideas that an action is *in progress* during a paticular time. The tenses expresses action *begins before*, *is in progress during*, and *continues after* another time or actrion.

1. Present Progressive Tense

Picture 5. Imaginary Time Line of Present Progressive Tense

Sentences and explanation	
Sentence: I am *studying* right now.	Explanation: I started to study at 10.00 tonight. It is now 11.00. My studying began in the past, *is in progress at the present time*, and probably will continue in the future.

Roziqin (2008) stated that Present Progressive Tense is used to express event or action which is in progress at the moment of speaking it is also used to express temporary habits. Moreover, it is also used to express event or activity that takes place in a span of time that includes the present.

The form of Present Progressive Tense is **be + verb + ing** (Peterson, 1980. Pollock (1982) stated that Present Progressive Tense:

1) May express an activity at the moment of speaking.
   Example: I usually have a bread for lunch, but I'm having a slice of pizza now.
2) May express an activity which happen over a given period of time, not necessarily at the moment of speaking.
   Example: This semester, Tom is working in the campus cafetaria. He is taking only two courses this semester, so his father let him work in the campus cafetaria.
3) May express future time which is time word or phrase necessarily to distinguish between a present and future time reference.
   Example: My colleagues are meeting with their lawyer tomorrow afternoon.

2. Past Progressive Tense
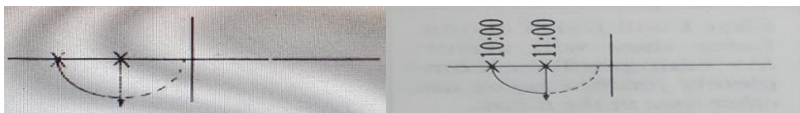
Picture 6. Imaginary Time Line of Past Perfect Progressive

Sentence and explanation	
Sentence: I *was studying* when my friends arrived.	Explanation: I went to study at 10.00 last night. They arrived at 11.00. I still studied. My study began before and *was in progress at a particular time in the past*. It probably continued.

The form of Past Progressive Tense is **be (**in the form of past**) + verb + ing** (Peterson, 1980). Pollock (1982) stated that Past Progressive Tense:

1) Express two actions that were happening at the same time in the past.
   Example: The children were playing while their mother were watching them.
2) Express an action that began before another action in the simple past and probably continued after it.
   Example: As I was playing tennis, a man stopped and asked for the time.
3) Express the beginning and the ending of an action during a period time.
   Example: Form eight to ten yesterday morning, we were playing indoor tennis.
4) Express an action that continued for a rather long time.
   Example: Yesterday morning, I was swimming in the hotel swimming pole.
5) Express an action that began before the time given and probably continued aftrer it.
   Example: At 12, 30, we were having lunch at restaurant.

3. Future Progressive Tense

Picture 7. Imaginary Time Line of Future Progressive Tense

Sentence and explanation	
Sentence: He will be *studying* when we arrived.	Explanation: He will go to study at 10.00 tomorrow night. We will arrive at 11.00. The action of studying will begin before we arrive and it will be in progress at a particular time in the future. Probably his study will continue.

The form of Future Progressive Tense is **will + be + verb + ing** (Peterson, 1980). Pollock (1982) stated that Future Progressive Tense:

1) May express action in progress at a *given time in the future*.
   Example: Don't call him tonight between seven to eleven. He will be studying for a tes in reading.
2) May express action continue happen at *different times* in the future.
   Example: welcome to this class. In this courses, you will have a test after every chapter, a mid term, and a final exam.
3) May express action happen at *unknown time* in the future.
   Example: Tuty: Did you get a letter from your parent in Bandung.
   Tety: No. Not today.

E. THE PERFECT TENSE

The perfect tense consists of three different times. They are: (1) Present Perfect Tense; (2). Past Perfect Tense; (3) Future Perfect Tense. Azar (1989) stated that the formula and meaning of the progressive tenses are as follows. Azar (1989) stated that the formula and meaning of the progressive tenses are as shown below.

Form	:	*have + past participle*
Meaning	:	The perfect tense gives the ideas that one thing *happens before* another time or event.

1. Present Perfect Tense
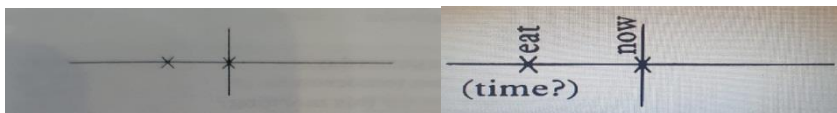
Picture 8. Imaginary Time Line of Present Perfect Tense

Sentence and explanation	
Sentence: I *have* already *eaten*	Explanation: The sentence means that I *finished* eating some time *before now*. The exact time of *finished eating* is not important.

The Present Perfect Tense is formed with **has (has) + past participle** (Peterson, 1980) According to Pollock (1982), Present Perfect Tense:

1) May express action or emotion that started in the past and has continued into the present.
   Example: **Doddy has lived in Jakarta** for many years. (Doddy is still in Jakarta).
2) Express action that started in the past but finished recently or very close to the moment of speaking
   Example between husband and wife:
   Husband: Don't forget to send my lunch package
   Wife: I have **already** sent it. I went to the office cafetaria this noon.
3) May Indicate action that happen at indefinite time in the past.
   Example: **George has finished** his piano performance. **He finished** it two hours ago.

2. Past Perfect Tense
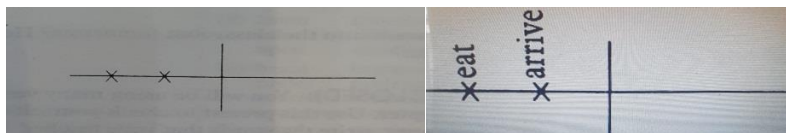
Picture 9: Imaginary Time Line of Past Perfect Tense

Sentence and explanation	
Sentence: I *have* already *eaten* when they arrived	Explanation: First I finished eating. Later they arrived. My eating was completely *finished before they arrived.*

The form of Past Perfect Tense is **had + past partriciple** (Peterson, 1980). Past Perfect Tense has two uses (Pollock, 1982). The first past action is in the past perfect. The second past action is in the simple past.

1) The Past Perfect Tense may indicate the first action was *finished completely* before the second action started.
   Example: When **I got** home, my mother **had** already **prepared** for dinner.
2) The Past Perfect Tense usuallly occurs with the simple past tense, but the past perfect tense can be the only tense in a sentense **if** a specific past time is given.
   Example: I **had** never **heard** him speak English *before last week*. *Until that time*, I **had** not **known** he was such a good English speaker**.**

3. Future Perfect Tense

Picture 10. Imaginary Time Line of Future Perfcct Tense

Sentence and explanation	
Sentence: I *will* aleady *have eaten* when they arrive.	Explanation: First, I will finish eating. Later they arrive. My eating will be completely finished *before they arrive (another time in the future).*

The form of Future Perfect Tense is **will + have + past participle** (Pollock, 1982). She also stated that Future Perfect Tense:

1) May express action that will be finished at the same time in the future.
   Example: **The next time we meet**, I **will have finished** my Doctoral Degree.
2) May express that time expression beginning with "by" or "before" usually accompany this tense.
   Example: **By the end of this week**, we will have finished to review one book.

F. THE PERFECT PROGRESSIVE TENSE

The Perfect Progressive Tense consists of three different times. They are: (1) Present Perfect Progressive Tense; (2). Past Progressive Tense; (3) Future Perfect Progressive Tense. Azar (1989) stated that the formula and meaning of the Perfect Progressive Tenses are as follows.

Form	:	*have + been + -ing* (*present participle*)
Meaning	:	The perfect progressive tense give the idea that ona event *is in progress immediately before*, *up to*, *until another time* or *event*. The tenses are used to express the *duration* of the first event.

1. Present Perfect Progressive Tense

Picture 11. Imaginary Time Line of Present Progrssive Tense

Sentence and explanation	
Sentence:	Explanation:
I *have been exercising* for two hours.	Event in progress: *exercising*.
	When? *Before now*, *up to now*.
	How long? For two hours.

Present Perfect Progressive Tense and Present Perfect are often interchangeable (Pollock, 1982). The Present Perfect Progressive is used in several ways, as shown in the following examples:

1) I have reviewed this chapter for two hours or I have been reviewing this chapter for two hours.
2) Tom has made a lot of money (since 1980) or Tom has been making a lot of money.

2. Past Perfect Progressive Tense
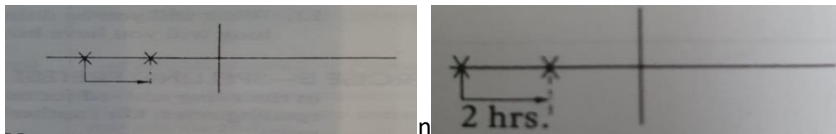
Picture 12. Imaginary Time Line of Past Perfect Progressive

Sentence and explanation	
Sentence: I *had been exercising* for two hours before my teacher came.	Event in progress: exercising When? *Before another event in the past*. How long? For two hours.

The form of Past Present Progressive Tense is **had + been + present participle** (Pollock, 1982). For more information, look at the following sentences:

1) I had been sleeping.
2) You had been sleeping.
3) She, he, is had been sleeping.
4) We had been sleeping.
5) They had been sleeping.

3. Future Perfect Progressive
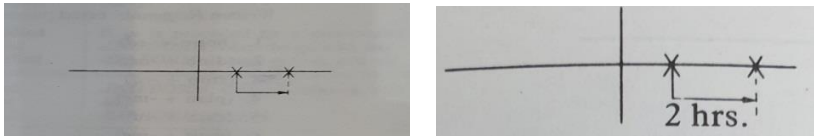
Picture 13. Imaginary Time Line of Future Perfect Progressive

Sentence and explanation	
Sentence:	Explanation:
I *will have been excercising* for two hours by the time you arrive.	Event in progress: exercising. When? Before another event in the future. How long: For two hours.

The form of Future Perfect Progressive Tense is **will + have been + present participle** (Pollock, 1982). For more information, look at the following sentences:
1) I will have been studying.
2) You will have been studying.
3) She, he, is have been studying.
4) We will have been studying.
5) They will have been studying.

G. SUMMARY
1. Simple Present Tense expresses event or situation that always exist, usually exist, and habitually. Event exists now, event has existed in the past, and probably will exist in the future.
2. Simple Past Tense expresses event that exists at one particular time in the past. The event begin in the past and end in the past.
3. Simple Future Tense expresses event that will happen at one specific time in the future. However, the event may not happen too.
4. Present Progressive Tense expresses action which is in progress during a particular time. The event is in progress at the moment of speaking. However, the event probably will continue.

5. Past Progressive Tense expresses event that was in progress in the past. However, the event probably continued.
6. Future Progressive Tense expresses event that will be continuing at one particular time in the future. In addition, the event probably will continue in the future.
7. Present Perfect Tense expresses event that exists at some one time before now. In this point. Moreover, the exact time is not important.
8. Past Perfect Tense expresses event that occured before another action happen in the past. However, the duration of the event is important.
9. Future Perfect Tense expresses event that will have been finished before another time in the future. Moreover, the event will have already happened in the future.
10. Present Progressive Tense expresses event which is in continuing process before now, or up to now. In addition, the event will have been happening.
11. Past Perfect Progressive Tense expresses event which is in progress action before another event in the past. In addition, the event would have been happening in the past.
12. Future Perfect Progressive Tense expresses event which is in continuing process before another time in the future. In addition, the event will have been happening in the future.

TASK AND EVALUATIONS
1. What are the purposes of *imaginary time* line in telling or teaching about tenses?
2. In teaching tenses, it is essential to know well about times and tenses. Why? Give your strong arguments.
3. What are tenses in English? Give your comprehensive understandings.
4. What are timeses in English. Give your comprehensive understanding.
5. What are time markers for the three kinds of Simple Tense? Give your detail explanations.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR
CHAPTER 5: MODAL VERB

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CHAPTER 5
MODAL VERB

A. INTRODUCTION TO MODAL VERBS

Language is a dynamic tool that enables us to communicate effectively. Among its essential components are modal verbs, which play a vital role in expressing necessity, possibility, ability, and permission. This chapter aims to provide a comprehensive understanding of modal verbs, their functions, and their applications in various contexts. By mastering modal verbs, learners can significantly enhance their ability to express themselves clearly and accurately in both spoken and written English (Zhang & Cheung, 2022).

Modal verbs are auxiliary verbs that add meaning to the main verb in a sentence by expressing necessity, possibility, permission, ability, or advice (Álvarez-Gil & Morales, 2021). They are crucial in English grammar and are widely used in both spoken and written communication. Unlike ordinary verbs, modal verbs function uniquely and exhibit specific characteristics that distinguish them from other verb forms (Wang et al., 2022). This chapter provides an overview of modal verbs and their significance in the English language. Modal verbs help convey different levels of certainty, obligation, and intention. For instance, in a sentence like "She must finish her homework," the modal verb "must" indicate strong necessity. On the other hand, "She may finish her homework later" suggests a possibility rather than an obligation. Understanding these distinctions is key to mastering modal verbs.

B. CHARACTERISTICS OF MODAL VERBS

Modal verbs have unique features that set them apart from regular verbs. This chapter explores these characteristics in detail, highlighting their grammatical properties, usage rules, and the nuances that differentiate them from standard verb forms (Kukucz, 2009).

Understanding these characteristics is crucial for mastering their proper use in communication.

1. **Lack of Inflection**

Unlike regular verbs, modal verbs do not change their form based on the subject or tense. Regular verbs usually take different endings to indicate tense and agreement, such as "walks" for third-person singular present tense or "walked" for past tense. However, modal verbs remain the same in all contexts:

✓ She can swim.
✓ They can swim.
✓ He can swim.

In contrast, a regular verb like "run" changes depending on the subject and tense:

✓ He runs every day.
✓ They run every day.
✓ She ran yesterday.

Modal verbs do not follow this pattern, making them unique in the English language. The fact that they remain unchanged regardless of tense or subject simplifies their use, as learners do not need to memorize different conjugations for each subject (Kukucz, 2009). However, it also means that additional words or constructions are sometimes necessary to express past, present, and future meanings when using modal verbs.

For example, since the modal verb "must" does not have a distinct past tense form, speakers use "had to" instead:

✓ Present: "She must finish her work."
✓ Past: "She had to finish her work."

Similarly, "can" is often replaced with "could" when referring to past ability:

✓ Present: "He can swim well."
✓ Past: "He could swim well when he was younger."

These workarounds help compensate for the lack of inflection in modal verbs while maintaining their core meaning. The invariability of modal verbs makes them an essential grammatical tool that allows speakers to convey meaning concisely without complex verb conjugations.

2. Use with the Base Verb

Modal verbs are always followed by the base form of the main verb without "to":
- ✓ She must finish her work. (NOT *She must to finish her work.*)
- ✓ We should leave now. (NOT *We should to leave now.*)

This characteristic makes modal verbs different from other auxiliary verbs, such as "want to" or "have to," which require "to" before the main verb. The absence of "to" maintains the simplicity of modal verb constructions and distinguishes them from semi-modal verbs. The use of modal verbs with the base form allows for more concise and direct expressions (Dreyfus, 2020). For instance, instead of saying "He is able to swim," one can simply say "He can swim." This makes modal verbs efficient tools for communication, eliminating unnecessary words while preserving clarity. Additionally, this rule applies universally across different modal verbs:
- ✓ You might see her later.
  (NOT *You might to see her later.*)
- ✓ They will call you tomorrow
  (NOT *They will to call you tomorrow.*)

However, some exceptions exist when a modal verb is part of a more complex structure. For example, in reported speech or indirect expressions, "to" might appear after a modal-like phrase:
- ✓ He ought to apologize.
- ✓ She used to play the piano.

These cases involve semi-modal verbs, which differ slightly from true modal verbs. Understanding these differences helps learners avoid common grammatical errors and use modal verbs more effectively in their speech and writing.

3. Expression of Modality

One of the most significant features of modal verbs is their ability to express different shades of meaning, including certainty, possibility, necessity, and obligation:

- ✓ Certainty: "She must be at home."
- ✓ Possibility: "He might be late."
- ✓ Necessity: "You have to study for the exam."
- ✓ Obligation: "You should apologize."

Each modal verb modifies the main verb to reflect these nuances, helping to convey the speaker's intent and the likelihood of an event occurring.

Modal verbs are essential in expressing various shades of meaning in English, such as certainty, possibility, necessity, and obligation (Kakzhanova, 2013). For example, **must** is used to express strong certainty, as in "She must be at home," indicating a high level of belief that the action or state is true. On the other hand, **might** or **may** convey possibility, as in "He might be late," showing uncertainty about the outcome. When expressing necessity, **must** is used, as in "You have to study for the exam," emphasizing the importance of completing the action. Similarly, **should** is employed to indicate obligation or advice, as in "You should apologize," suggesting that it is the right or expected thing to do. By using these modals, speakers can convey not only the likelihood of events occurring but also the necessity or appropriateness of actions, giving more depth to their statements. These modal verbs are crucial tools for clarifying the speaker's intentions and conveying different levels of commitment, expectation, or probability in communication.

4. Question Formation and Negation

Unlike regular verbs, modal verbs do not require auxiliary verbs (do/does/did) to form questions or negative sentences. They invert with the subject to form questions and add "not" for negation:

- ✓ Question: "Can you help me?"
  (NOT *Do you can help me?*)
- ✓ Negation: "She cannot (can't) swim."
  (NOT *She doesn't can swim.*)

This simplifies their use in interrogative and negative constructions, making them more flexible than regular verbs. Modal verbs differ significantly from regular verbs when it comes to forming questions and negations. Unlike regular verbs, which require auxiliary verbs (such as "do," "does," or "did") to form questions and negative sentences, modal verbs do not need them (Álvarez-Gil & Morales, 2021). Instead, they follow a simpler structure by inverting with the subject to form questions and adding "not" to indicate negation.

For example, when forming a question with a modal verb, we invert the subject and the modal verb without needing an auxiliary verb. In the sentence "Can you help me?" the modal verb "can" directly follow the subject "you," without the need for an additional auxiliary verb like "do" (which would be used in a regular verb construction, e.g., "Do you help me?").

Similarly, negation with modal verbs is straightforward. Instead of using a structure like "doesn't" or "didn't," we simply add "not" to the modal verb itself. For example, "She cannot swim" (or "She can't swim") uses the modal "can" with "not" to indicate negation. This contrasts with regular verbs, where negation would require the auxiliary verb "do," as in "She doesn't swim" for a regular verb structure. These features make modal verbs more flexible and easier to use in forming both questions and negative sentences (Kukucz, 2009). The lack of additional auxiliary verbs simplifies their application, offering a more efficient way of structuring sentences, especially when asking questions or expressing negations.

5. Absence of Past Tense Forms

Most modal verbs do not have distinct past tense forms. Instead, alternative expressions are used:

✓ "Can" → "Could" (past ability): "He could swim when he was young."
✓ "Must" → "Had to" (past necessity): "She had to leave early."
✓ "May" → "Might have" (past possibility): "He might have forgotten."

While some modal verbs have a past equivalent, their usage often depends on context and meaning rather than a direct tense conversion. One of the unique characteristics of modal verbs is that they do not have distinct past tense forms like regular verbs (Kakzhanova, 2013). Instead, alternative expressions are used to indicate past meanings. For example, **"can"** is used in the present to express ability, but in the past, it changes to **"could,"** as in "He could swim when he was young." Similarly, for past necessity, **"must"** is replaced with **"had to"** in the past tense, such as "She had to leave early." **"May"** changes to **"might have"** to express past possibility, as in "He might have forgotten." While some modal verbs have these past equivalents, their usage depends on the context and meaning, rather than being a simple tense conversion. This difference makes the past tense of modal verbs less straightforward than regular verbs.

6. Dependency on Main Verbs

Modal verbs cannot stand alone and must always be accompanied by a main verb to form a complete sentence. For example, in the sentence **"She can sing,"** "can" is a modal verb that needs the main verb "sing" to make sense. Without the main verb, such as in **"She can,"** the sentence would be incomplete and grammatically incorrect. However, in spoken English, it is common to omit the main verb when it is understood from the context. For example, in a conversation:

A: "Can you drive?"

B: "Yes, I can." In this exchange, "drive" is implied, and the sentence is still clear. This dependency on the main verb makes modal verbs different from regular verbs, which can function independently in a sentence.

This dependency makes modal verbs different from standalone verbs, which can function independently.

7. Differences Between Modal Verbs and Semi-Modal Verbs

Some verbs, such as "need to," "ought to," and "have to," function similarly to modal verbs but have different grammatical properties. Unlike true modal verbs, these semi-modals can change according to tense and subject:

✓ She has to leave early. (Present)
✓ She had to leave early. (Past)

Semi-modal verbs provide additional ways to express modality but follow different grammatical rules. This flexibility in tense and subject makes semi-modals different from pure modal verbs, which do not inflect for tense. Semi-modals provide more options for expressing modality, but they follow different grammatical rules compared to true modal verbs

8. Modal Verbs in Different Sentence Structures

Modal verbs appear in various sentence types, including:

✓ Declarative sentences: "You should rest."
✓ Interrogative sentences: "Should I call her?"
✓ Imperative sentences: "You must be quiet."
✓ Conditional sentences: "If I were you, I would apologize."

Understanding how modal verbs function in different structures is essential for using them effectively in communication.

Modal verbs are an integral part of English grammar, providing speakers with a way to express different shades of meaning related to certainty, possibility, necessity, and obligation (Kukucz, 2009). Their unique characteristics, such as lack of inflection, use with base verbs, and dependency on main verbs, set them apart from regular verbs. By mastering these features, learners can improve their proficiency in English and communicate more effectively.

C. CLASSIFICATION OF MODAL VERBS AND THEIR FUNCTIONS

Modal verbs are versatile linguistic tools used to express a variety of meanings, ranging from ability and possibility to necessity and advice. Understanding how different modal verbs function can significantly

enhance a speaker's ability to convey precise nuances in communication (Depraetere et al., 2021). Below, we will explore the various categories of modal verbs and their specific roles in sentence construction.

1. **Ability & Possibility: Can, Could, May, Might**

   When discussing ability or possibility, certain modal verbs play a crucial role in expressing the potential for actions to occur. **Can** and **could** are primarily used to indicate ability, with **can** referring to present capabilities and **could** referring to past abilities or polite requests. On the other hand, **may** and **might** are used to express possibilities, with **may** suggesting a stronger possibility and **might** indicating a more uncertain chance of an event taking place. These modals help to shape the level of certainty in the statements they accompany.

2. **Necessity & Obligation: Must, Have to, Need to**

   For expressing necessity or obligation, **must**, **have to**, and **need to** are commonly used. **Must** conveys a strong sense of requirement, often reflecting a personal or moral obligation, such as in the statement, "You must complete your assignment." **Have to** is frequently used in everyday language, indicating an external necessity or obligation, like "I have to finish this project by tomorrow." Meanwhile, **need to** is more flexible and less forceful, often used to express general necessity or a need for action: "You need to improve your skills."

3. **Permission & Prohibition: May, Might, Can, Must not**

   Modal verbs also serve to express permission or prohibition. **May** and **can** are the primary modals for granting permission, with **may** being more formal and **can** being more common in informal settings. For example, "You may leave now" offers formal permission, while "Can I go home?" seeks permission. **Must not** indicates prohibition, clearly stating that something is not allowed, such as in the sentence, "You must not interrupt the speaker.

4. **Advice & Suggestion: Should, Ought to, Had better**

   When offering advice or suggestions, modal verbs like **should**, **ought to**, and **had better** are commonly used. **Should** and **ought to** both express recommendations but **should** is generally more widely used and can apply to a broad range of situations. For instance, "You should

eat healthier" offers general advice. **Had better** suggests a stronger recommendation, often accompanied by a sense of urgency or caution, as in, "You had better study for the test.

5. **Prediction & Future Intention: Will, Shall, Would**
Modals like **will**, **shall**, and **would** are used for making predictions or expressing future intentions. **Will** is the most used modal verb to indicate future actions or predictions, as in "I will call you later." **Shall** is more formal and often used in questions or offers, such as "Shall we go to the movies?" **Would** expresses future intentions in the past or is used to describe hypothetical situations, such as "I would help you if I had the time.

6. **Hypothetical Situations & Conditionals: Would, Could, Might**
In hypothetical situations or conditional sentences, **would**, **could**, and **might** are used to describe outcomes that depend on certain conditions. **Would** is often used to describe what would happen if something were true, like in "If I won the lottery, I would travel the world." **Could** suggests a possibility in hypothetical situations, such as "If you studied more, you could pass the exam." **Might** conveys a lower degree of possibility, like in "If it rains, we might cancel the picnic."

Understanding the roles of modal verbs in expressing various shades of meaning is essential for achieving clarity and precision in communication. By using these modals correctly, speakers can more effectively convey their intentions and navigate different contexts in both written and spoken language.

D. SUMMARY

Modal verbs are auxiliary verbs that express necessity, possibility, ability, and permission, making them essential for effective communication. Unlike regular verbs, they do not change form based on tense or subject, which simplifies their usage. Modal verbs are always followed by the base form of the main verb, ensuring concise and direct expressions. They also play a crucial role in expressing different shades of meaning, such as certainty (*must*), possibility (*might*), necessity (*have to*),

and obligation (*should*). Additionally, they form questions and negations without auxiliary verbs, making sentence structures more efficient. Since most modal verbs lack past tense forms, alternative expressions like *had to* for *must* and *could* for *can* are used to convey past meanings. Modal verbs cannot stand alone and must always accompany a main verb, though in conversation, the main verb is sometimes implied. Furthermore, some verbs like *need to* and *have to* function similarly to modal verbs but follow different grammatical rules. Modal verbs appear in various sentence types, including declarative, interrogative, imperative, and conditional sentences, demonstrating their versatility in communication. Mastering modal verbs allows speakers to express themselves more accurately and effectively in both written and spoken English.

TASK AND EVALUATION

Here are higher-order thinking (HOTS) practice questions based on the points discussed:

1. Analyze the role of modal verbs in expressing different levels of certainty, obligation, and intention. Based on the provided passage, how does the use of "must" in the sentence "She must finish her homework" contrast with "may" in "She may finish her homework later"? What are the implications of using these different modals in terms of the speaker's intent and the level of commitment to the action?

2. Analyze the following sentence and explain the modal verb's role:
   "If I had known about the traffic, I might have left earlier."
   Question: How does the modal verb "might have" convey a sense of possibility in the past, and what does it imply about the speaker's actions?

3. Create your own sentence using a modal verb to express obligation in the present, then change the sentence to express the same meaning in the past. Explain the transformation and why the past modal verb form is used in your revised sentence.
   Example: Original sentence: *"You should study for the test."*
   Revised   sentence: _____

Question: What grammatical structure changed when you transformed the sentence, and how does it affect the meaning?

4. How does the choice between "must," "have to," and "should" influence the level of obligation or recommendation in a sentence? Provide examples to justify your answer.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR

CHAPTER 6: ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICE

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CHAPTER 6
ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICE

A. INTRODUCTION

1. Active Voice

Like so many other features of grammar that we have been practising, voice describes something simple that occurs in our everyday speech. Understanding how it works and having words with which we can talk about it enables us to manipulate our own language or learn to use another one with greater skill. The terms 'active' and 'passive' apply only to verbs. A verb can be one or the other, and the verb form actually is telling us more about its subject.

A verb in the active voice is one in which the subject performs the action of the verb. *For example:* Jasmin kicked the ball. The word 'passive' is from Latin *passivus* meaning 'suffering'. A verb in the passive voice is one in which the subject suffers the action (Dykes, 2007: 13), i.e. it happens *to* the subject. So we can say: The ball was kicked by Jasmin.

In this sentence, the subject is 'the ball' and it suffered the action of being kicked.

The passive form is composed of an auxiliary verb plus a participle. Logic tells us that the passive voice can be formed only with a transitive verb, as the verb must act on an object. A sentence written in the active voice and having a transitive verb (i.e. it has an object) can be turned around to make it passive.

The object of the active verb has become the subject of the passive one (Dykes, 2007: 14). The choice between the use of active or passive voice in a sentence depends on where the speaker or writer wishes to lay the emphasis. In writing we choose to use the active or passive voice according to which is most effective in our narrative.

Active voice is a grammatical construction in which the subject of the sentence performs the action of the verb. In other words, the subject is the doer of the action. Active voice and passive voice are two different ways of expressing the same idea, but they focus on different parts of the sentence. In an active voice sentence, the subject performs the action expressed by the verb, as in the following examples. *The cat chased the mouse*.

Description: the Subject (the cat) performs the action (chased) on the object (the mouse).

2. Passive Voice

The Passive voice is a grammatical construction in which the object of an action becomes the subject of the sentence, and the focus is on the action or the recipient of the action, rather than on who is performing it. In a passive voice sentence, the subject receives the action expressed by the verb. The focus is on the action itself, rather than who is performing it. - Example: *The mouse was chased by the cat*. Subject (the mouse) receives the action (was chased) performed by the agent (by the cat). Furthermore, a passive structure uses part of the verb *(be)* plus the past participle form of the verb. Why use the passive and not the active?

The question we must ask is *what is the sentence about?* In the two sentences above, the first is about *a dog* (that is why it is mentioned first) and the second sentence is about *Peter.* The structure- active or passive - depends on how the sentence starts. Sometimes the passive is the more natural choice. Think of the situations where you would read the following and you will see why the passive is the obvious choice:

1. Children must be carried.
2. Outdoor shoes must not be worn in the gym.
3. These gates will be locked at 8 pm daily.
4. Hard hats must be worn at all times.

1. No. 1 is a sign in the London Underground at the top and bottom of escalators. It has more impact than *If you have a child with you, please carry him or her.*
2. No. 2 is a sign in a school outside the gymnasium. It is more direct than *you mustn't wear your outdoor shoes in the gym.*
3. No. 3 is a sign on the gates of a park warning people to be out of the park before the gates are locked. Warning signs are always as short as possible.
4. No. 4 is a common sign on building sites. Again, it is an important safety sign and needs to be as short as possible. *You must wear a hard hat at all times* does not have the impact or authority of the passive.
   The passive is used to describe actions:
   a) when we don't know who does, or did the action:
      My briefcase was stolen last night.
      (I don't know who stole it).
   b) when it is not important to know who does, or did the action:
      The cars are taken to Europe every week. (It doesn't matter who takes them)
      These televisions are made in Japan. (It doesn't matter who makes them)

B. DEFINITION OF ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICE

Active voice is a grammatical construction in which the subject of the sentence performs the action of the verb. In other words, the subject is the doer of the action. Active voice and passive voice are two different ways of expressing the same idea, but they focus on different parts of the sentence (Zaadi, 2024: 54). In an active voice sentence, the subject performs the action expressed by the verb, as in the following examples. Active voice, the subject of the sentence performs the action. It is the most straightforward and common sentence structure in English. Active voice is typically used in informal communication, scientific writing, and any situation where clarity and directness are required. Example: Lionel Messi kicks the ball. Passive constructions are useful when the focus is on the action itself or when the agent is unknown, unimportant, or irrelevant

to the context. Example: The ball is kicked by Lionel Messi. Furthermore, in passive voice, the subject of the sentence receives the action, and the **doer** of the action (the agent) is either omitted or placed after the verb, often preceded by "by".

Using active voice and passive voice in language has different benefits, depending on the context and communication goals. The following are the advantages of using both. One of the theories of defining active and passive voice comes from traditional grammar rules, which focus on the syntactic structure of sentences (Chomsky, 1957). According to this theory, in active voice, the subject of the sentence performs the action expressed by the verb, while in passive voice, the subject is acted upon by an external agent. This distinction is based on the sentence's grammatical subject and how it interacts with the verb. For example, in the active sentence "The teacher explained the lesson," the subject "teacher" is performing the action.

In contrast, in the passive sentence "The lesson was explained by the teacher," the subject "lesson" is receiving the action. This theory primarily emphasizes the sentence structure and the relationship between the subject, verb, and object. Another theory for defining active and passive voice focuses on focus and information structure in communication. In this approach, the choice between active and passive voice is seen as a tool for directing attention to different elements of the sentence. In active voice, the focus is placed on the agent (the doer of the action), which makes it more dynamic and engaging.

In passive voice, the emphasis shifts to the recipient of the action or the action itself, which can be useful when the agent is unknown, irrelevant, or less important. This theory suggests that the use of passive constructions allows for greater flexibility in conveying information, making it particularly useful in contexts where the action is more significant than the one performing it, such as in scientific or formal writing. In Halliday's view (1985), active and passive voice are not simply grammatical structures but are tools for managing information flow in communication. By choosing between active and passive constructions, speakers and writers can highlight or background different participants

and aspects of an action, allowing for greater control over how information is presented and perceived in discourse.

In addition, Celce-Murcia (1999) also defines that active Voice: In the active voice, the subject of the sentence performs the action. The structure follows the format of Subject + Verb + Object. This is the typical construction in English, where the subject is the agent who carries out the action. In the passive voice, the focus shifts from the agent (the doer of the action) to the receiver of the action. The subject of the sentence is the recipient of the action, and the agent may be omitted or included after the verb using the preposition "by."

C. ADVANTAGES OF USING ACTIVE VOICE

There are some advantages of using active voice in English, they are as follows:

1. Clarity and Directness:
   Active voice is generally clearer and easier to understand because it follows a straightforward subject-verb-object structure, example: The teacher explains the lesson. (Clear and direct).

2. Engagement:
   Active voice tends to be more dynamic and engaging, drawing the reader's or listener's attention to the subject performing the action, example: The company launched a new product. (Focus on the company's actions).

3. Conciseness:
   Sentences in active voice tend to be shorter and more concise, without unnecessary words, example: The dog chased the ball. (Simple and to the point).

4. Emphasizing the Subject:
   Active voice highlights the subject (the one performing the action), which is often more important in many contexts, like storytelling or giving instructions, example: She won the race. (Emphasizes the subject "she").

D. DISADVANTAGES OF USING ACTIVE VOICE

1. Can Omit Important Information:
   In some cases, the focus on the subject can overlook important details, such as the object or the action's consequences. Example: "John broke the window" (While it emphasizes John, the consequence of breaking the window is not highlighted).

2. Less Formal in Some Contexts:
   In certain professional or academic settings, active voice can seem too casual or direct when a more neutral tone is desired.

E. ADVANTAGES OF USING PASSIVE VOICE

You need to know that there are some advantages of using passive voice in English, they are as follows:

1. Emphasizes the Action or Object:
   Passive voice is useful when the object of the action is more important than the subject, or when the action itself is the focus, example: The window was broken. (focus on the broken window rather than the person who broke it).

2. Objectivity and Formality:
   Passive voice is often used in formal writing (like reports, academic papers, or scientific research), where the subject performing the action may not be as important, example: The experiment was conducted. (focuses on the process rather than who conducted it).

3. Avoids Identifying the Doer:
   Sometimes the identity of the doer is unknown, irrelevant, or unimportant, and passive voice allows you to omit the subject, example: The decision was made. (The person making the decision is not identified).

4. Politeness and Tact:
   Passive voice can soften statements, which is useful when you want to avoid sounding accusatory or harsh, example: Mistakes were made. (Rather than directly blaming someone).

F. DISADVANTAGES

Furthermore, besides having advantages, there are also some disadvantages of using passive voice in English, they are as follows:

1. Can Be Wordy and Less Direct:
   Passive voice tends to be longer and less straightforward, often leading to more complex sentence structures, example: The book was read by the student. (More wordy than "The student read the book").
2. Less Engaging:
   Passive voice can make writing feel more distant or detached, which can reduce reader engagement, especially in narrative or creative writing.
3. Potential Ambiguity:
   In some cases, passive voice can obscure who performed the action, leading to vagueness or confusion, example: "The law was passed" (Who passed it?).
4. Can Sound Awkward or Overly Formal:
   In informal writing or conversation, passive voice may sound stilted or overly formal, making it less natural.

G. SUMMARY

Both active and passive voice are essential tools in English grammar. Understanding when and how to use each voice will help improve the clarity, style, and tone of your writing. Active voice tends to be more direct and engaging, while passive voice is valuable for emphasizing actions, results, or when the doer of the action is unknown or irrelevant. By mastering both voices, you can write more flexibly and effectively across various contexts.

Active and passive voice are two different ways to express actions in a sentence. In the active voice, the subject of the sentence performs the action. This construction is straightforward and emphasizes the subject's role in the action. For example, in the sentence "The cat chased the mouse," the cat (subject) is doing the action of chasing the mouse. The focus is on the subject who is actively performing the action. Active voice is often preferred in writing because it is direct, clear, and dynamic, making the sentence more engaging and easier to understand. It typically

follows the subject-verb-object structure, which is familiar and natural to most readers.

On the other hand, the passive voice flips the structure, making the object of the action the subject of the sentence. In passive constructions, the focus shifts from the doer of the action to the recipient of the action. Using the previous example, in the passive voice, the sentence would be "The mouse was chased by the cat." Here, the mouse becomes the subject, while the cat is relegated to the end of the sentence, preceded by "by." The verb "was chased" is in the passive form, indicating that the action is being done to the subject. Passive voice can sometimes sound less direct and more formal, which can be useful in certain contexts, like scientific writing or when the doer of the action is unknown or irrelevant.

The choice between active and passive voice depends on what the writer wants to emphasize. If the writer's intention is to highlight the subject, active voice is generally preferred. It makes the subject more prominent and presents a more energetic, straightforward tone. Conversely, if the focus is meant to be on the action or the object receiving the action, passive voice can be a useful tool. For example, in research papers, scientists often use passive voice to emphasize the procedure or results rather than who performed the action. This allows the writing to remain objective and focus on the findings instead of the researcher. However, overuse of the passive voice can lead to vagueness or a lack of clarity, which is why balancing both voices is important for effective communication.

In some situations, passive voice can also be used to obscure responsibility or avoid specifying who is responsible for an action. For example, in the sentence "Mistakes were made," the passive construction leaves out the agent who made the mistakes, which can sometimes be useful in contexts where the focus should not be on assigning blame. However, this can lead to ambiguity or even manipulation of the information, especially if the identity of the actor is crucial for understanding the situation.

Thus, while passive voice can be employed for tact or emphasis, it must be used carefully to avoid creating confusion or a sense of detachment from the responsibility. Despite the advantages of active

voice, the passive voice has its place in writing. It can offer a variety of stylistic choices and serve specific purposes, particularly in formal or technical writing. While active voice typically enhances clarity and engagement, passive voice can create a more impersonal tone or shift focus away from the subject. Writers should be mindful of these effects and choose the voice that best suits their goals, depending on whether they want to highlight the actor or the action itself. Ideally, a good balance of both active and passive constructions will lead to more nuanced, flexible writing.

TASK AND EVALUATION

1. What is the Difference Between Active and Passive Voice in English? What are the key differences between active and passive voice in English, and how are they used in different contexts?
2. Why is Active Voice Preferred in Writing? Why is active voice preferred in various types of writing, such as reports, news articles, and academic papers?
3. In What Situations is Passive Voice More Appropriate Than Active Voice?
   In what situations is passive voice more appropriate than active voice, especially when the subject is unknown or not important?
4. How Does Active Voice Contribute to Academic Writing? How does the use of active voice contribute to academic writing, and what benefits does it provide in terms of clarity and readability?
5. What is the Effect of Passive Voice on Clarity and Reader Engagement? How does the use of passive voice affect clarity and reader engagement in a text, both positively and negatively?

Exercise 1
Identify whether the sentences are in active voice or passive voice.
1. The cake was baked by Mary.
2. The students are studying English grammar.
3. The letter was written by him.
4. The window was broken by the storm.
5. The company will launch a new product next month.

Exercise 2

Rewrite the sentences in the opposite (active) voice.

1. *The cake was baked by Mary*.
2. *They will finish the project tomorrow*.
3. *The book was written by the famous author*.
4. *The chef prepares delicious meals every day*.
5. *The concert tickets were bought by my friend were bought by my friend*.

Exercise 3

Change the following sentences from active to passive voice!

1. The students are writing essays.
2. The chef prepares delicious meals.
3. They will announce the winners tomorrow.
4. The dog chased the cat up the tree.
5. The teacher gave us homework assignments.
6. The company awarded him a promotion.
7. The storm destroyed many houses.
8. They are discussing the new project in the meeting.
9. The mechanic fixed my car yesterday.
10. The police caught the thief last night.

Exercise 4

1. Rewrite the following sentences in the passive voice!
2. She reads novels in her free time.
3. They are renovating the old building downtown.
4. He will sign the contract tomorrow.
5. The children are watching a movie.
6. The doctor prescribed medication for the patient.
7. I clean the house every Saturday.
8. They have already booked the tickets for the trip.
9. The gardener is planting flowers in the garden.
10. The committee will announce the results next week.
11. The team won the championship last year.

The following is how to form or to change active into passive voice based on each tense; they are as follows:

1. **Present Tense**

   The pattern of active voice in the form of present tense can be displayed in the table and examples as follows:

S + Verb 1 + -/-es + O

   - Jack shoots the lion. → Active Voice
   - George calls my friend. → Active Voice
   - They water the flower. → Active Voice

   These sentences can be changed into passive voice with the following pattern.

S + To Be (am, is, are) +Verb 3 + by + O

   - The lion is shot by by Jack. → Passive Voice
   - My friend is called by George. → Passive Voice
   - The flower is watered by them. → Passive Voice

2. **Past Tense**

   The pattern of active voice in the form of pats tense can be displayed in the table and examples as follows:

S + Verb 2 + O

   - Jack shot the lion. → Active Voice
   - George called my friend. → Active Voice
   - They watered the flower. → Active Voice

   These sentences can be changed into passive voice with the following pattern.

S + To Be (was, were) +Verb 3 + by + O

   - The lion was shot by by Jack. → Passive Voice
   - My friend was called by George. → Passive Voice
   - The flower was watered by them. → Passive Voice

3. **Present Continuous Tense**

The pattern of active voice in the form of present continuous tense can be displayed in the table and examples as follows:

S + (am, is, are) + Verb ING + O

- Jack is shooting the lion. → Active Voice
- George is calling my friend. → Active Voice
- They are watering the flower. → Active Voice

These sentences can be changed into passive voice with the following pattern.

S + To Be (am, is, are) +being + Verb 3 + by + O

- The lion is being shot by by Jack. → Passive Voice
- My friend is being called by George. → Passive Voice
- The flower is being watered by them. → Passive Voice

4. **Past Continuous Tense**

The pattern of active voice in the form of past continuous tense can be displayed in the table and examples as follows:

S + To Be (was, were) + Verb ING + O

- Jack was shooting the lion. → Active Voice
- George was calling my friend. → Active Voice
- They were watering the flower. → Active Voice

These sentences can be changed into passive voice with the following pattern.

S + To Be (was, were) +being + Verb 3 + by + O

- The lion was being shot by by Jack. → Passive Voice
- My friend was being called by George. → Passive Voice
- The flower was being watered by them. → Passive Voice

5. **Present Perfect Tense**

    The pattern of active voice in the form of present perfect tense can be displayed in the table and examples as follows:

    > S + have/has + Verb 3 + O

    - Jack has shot the lion. → Active Voice
    - George has called my friend. → Active Voice
    - They have watered the flower. → Active Voice
    - The people have killed the pigs. → Active Voice

    These sentences can be changed into passive voice with the following pattern.

    > S + have/has been +Verb 3 + by + O

    - The lion has been shot by by Jack. → Passive Voice
    - My friend has been called by George. → Passive Voice
    - The flower has been watered by them. → Passive Voice
    - The pigs have been killed by the people. → Passive Voice

6. **Past Perfect Tense**

    The pattern of active voice in the form of past perfect tense can be displayed in the table and examples as follows:

    > S + had + Verb 3 + O

    - Jack had shot the lion. → Active Voice
    - George had called my friend. → Active Voice
    - They had watered the flower. → Active Voice
    - The people had killed the pigs. → Active Voice

    These sentences can be changed into passive voice with the following pattern.

    > S + had been +Verb 3 + by + O

    - The lion had been shot by by Jack. → Passive Voice
    - My friend had been called by George. → Passive Voice
    - The flower had been watered by them. → Passive Voice
    - The pigs had been killed by the people. → Passive Voice

7. **Simple Future Tense**

    The pattern of active voice in the form of past perfect tense can be displayed in the table and examples as follows:

S + will/shall + Verb 1 + O

    - Jack will shoot the lion. → Active Voice
    - George will call my friend. → Active Voice
    - They will water the flower. → Active Voice
    - The people will the pigs. → Active Voice

    These sentences can be changed into passive voice with the following pattern.

S + will/shall be +Verb 3 + by + O

    - The lion will be shot by by Jack. → Passive Voice
    - My friend will be called by George. → Passive Voice
    - The flower will be watered by them. → Passive Voice
    - The pigs will be shot by the people. → Passive Voice

8. **Past Future Tense**

    The pattern of active voice in the form of past future tense can be displayed in the table and examples as follows:

S + would/shaould + Verb 1 + O

    - Jack would shoot the lion. → Active Voice
    - George would call my friend. → Active Voice
    - They would water the flower. → Active Voice
    - The people would kill the pigs. → Active Voice
    - Armin would lift the rocks. → Active Voice
    - William would drink cocacola. → Active Voice

    Those sentences above can be changed into passive voice with the following pattern.

S + would/shaould be +Verb 3 + by + O

- The lion would be shot by by Jack. → Passive Voice
- My friend would be called by George. → Passive Voice
- The flower would be watered by them. → Passive Voice
- The pigs would be killed by the people. → Passive Voice
- The rocks would be lifted by Armin. → Passive Voice
- Cocacola would be drunk by William → Passive Voice

9. **Simple Future Perfect Tense**

The pattern of active voice in the form of simple future perfect tense can be displayed in the table and examples as follows:

S + will/shall have + Verb 3 + O

- Jack will have shot the lion. → Active Voice
- George will have called my friend. → Active Voice
- They will have watered the flower. → Active Voice
- The people will have killed the pigs. → Active Voice

These sentences can be changed into passive voice with the following pattern.

S + will/shall be +Verb 3 + by + O

- The lion will be shot by by Jack. → Passive Voice
- My friend will be called by George. → Passive Voice
- The flower will be watered by them. → Passive Voice
- The pigs will be killed by the people. → Passive Voice

10. **Past Future Perfect Tense**

The pattern of active voice in the form of past future perfect tense can be displayed in the table and examples as follows:

S + would/should have + Verb 3 + O

- Jack would have shot the lion. → Active Voice
- George would have called my friend. → Active Voice
- They would have watered the flower. → Active Voice
- Harry would have written the document. → Active Voice

- I would have typed your homework on my computer. → Active Voice

These sentences can be changed into passive voice with the following pattern.

S + would/should + have been +Verb 3 + by + O

- The lion would have been shot by Jack. → Passive Voice
- My friend would have been called by George. → Passive Voice
- The flower would have been watered by them. → Passive Voice
- The document would been written by Harry. → Passive Voice
- Your homework would have been typed by me on my computer. → Passive Voice

11. Present Perfect Continuous Tense

The pattern of active voice in the form of present perfect continuous tense can be displayed in the table and examples as follows:

S + have/has + been + Verb ING + O

- Jack has been shooting the lion. → Active Voice
- George has been calling my friend. → Active Voice
- They have been watering the flower. → Active Voice
- The people have been killing the pigs. → Active Voice

These sentences can be changed into passive voice with the following pattern.

S + have/has + been + being + Verb 3 + by + O

- The lion has been being shot by by Jack. → Passive Voice
- My friend has been being called by George. → Passive Voice
- The flower has been being watered by them. → Passive Voice
- The pigs have been being killed by the people. → Passive Voice

12. Past Perfect Continuous Tense

The pattern of active voice in the form of past perfect continuous tense can be displayed in the table and examples as follows:

S + had + been + Verb ING + O

- Jack had been shooting the lion. → Active Voice
- George had been calling my friend. → Active Voice
- They had been watering the flower. → Active Voice
- My father had been watching television. → Active Voice
- Sudianto had been making some toys. → Active Voice

These sentences can be changed into passive voice with the following pattern.

> S + had + been + being + Verb 3 + by + O

- The lion had been being shot by by Jack. → Passive Voice
- My friend had been being called by George. → Passive Voice
- The flower had been being watered by them. → Passive Voice
- Television had been being watched by my father. → Passive Voice
- Some toys had been being made by Sudianto. → Passive Voice

13. Simple Future Continuous Tense

The pattern of active voice in the form of simple future continuous tense can be displayed in the table and examples as follows:

> S + will/shall + be + Verb ING + O

- Jack will be shooting the lion. → Active Voice
- George will be calling my friend. → Active Voice
- They will be watering the flower. → Active Voice
- She will be singing a song. → Active Voice

The above sentences can be changed into passive voice with the following pattern.

> S + will/shall be + being + Verb 3 + by + O

- The lion will be being shot by by Jack. → Passive Voice
- My friend will be being called by George. → Passive Voice
- The flower will be being watered by them. → Passive Voice
- A song will be being sung by her. → Passive Voice

14. Past Future Continuous Tense

The pattern of active voice in the form of past future continuous tense can be displayed in the table and examples as follows:

> S + would/should + be + Verb ING + O

- Jack would be shooting the lion. → Active Voice
- George would be calling my friend. → Active Voice
- They would be watering the flower. → Active Voice
- We should be typing the letter. → Active Voice
- The pilot would be flying the plane. → Active Voice
- The cat would be chasing the mouse. → Active Voice

These sentences can be changed into passive voice with the following pattern.

> S + would/should be + being + Verb 3 + by + O

- The lion would be being shot by by Jack. → Passive Voice
- My friend would be being called by George. → Passive Voice
- The flower would be being watered by them. → Passive Voice
- The letter should be being typed by us. → Passive Voice
- The plane would be being flown by the pilot. → Passive Voice
- The mouse would be being chased by the cat. → Passive Voice

15. Future Perfect Continuous Tense

The pattern of active voice in the form of future perfect continuous tense can be displayed in the table and examples as follows:

> S + will/shall have + been + Verb ING + by + O

- Jack will have been shooting the lion. → Active Voice
- George will have been calling my friend. → Active Voice
- They will have been watering the flower. → Active Voice
- I shall have been sending that company document to Puerto Rico. → Active Voice
- Lionel Messi will have been kicking the ball to Brazil's goal. → Active Voice

The above sentences can be changed into passive voice with the following pattern.

> S + will/shall have + been + being + Verb 3 + by + O

- The lion will have been being shot by by Jack. → Passive Voice
- My friend will have ben being called by George. → Passive Voice
- The flower will have been being watered by them. → Passive Voice
- The ball will have been being kicked by Lionel Messi to Brazil's goal. → Passive Voice

16. Future Past Perfect Continuous Tense

The pattern of active voice in the form of future past perfect continuous tense can be displayed in the table and examples as follows:

> S + would/should have + been + Verb ING + O

- Jack would have been shooting the lion. → Active Voice
- George would have been calling my friend. → Active Voice
- They would have been watering the flower. → Active Voice
- I should have been sending that company document to Puerto Rico. → Active Voice

These sentences can be changed into passive voice with the following pattern.

> S + would/should have + been + being + Verb 3 + by + O

- The lion would have been being shot by by Jack. → Passive Voice
- My friend would have ben being called by George. → Passive Voice
- The flower would have been being watered by them. → Passive Voice

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR

CHAPTER 7: CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

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CHAPTER 7
CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

A. INTRODUCTION

Conditional sentences are sentences used to express situations and events that depend on specific conditions. These sentences often present hypothetical situations, stating that something could or would happen if a certain condition is me (Quirk, 1985) t. A conditional sentence typically consists of two main clauses: the "if-clause," which describes the condition, and the "main clause," which describes the result or consequence of that condition. Understanding the structure and different types of conditional sentences is essential for effective communication in English, as they allow speakers to discuss possibilities, offer advice, or reflect on past situations.

In general, conditional sentences are classified into four main types: zero conditional, first conditional, second conditional, and third conditional. Each type has its own unique structure and usage, depending on the time frame and the likelihood of the condition being fulfilled. A clear understanding of these structures helps in both spoken and written English, as it enhances the ability to describe relationships of cause and effect or present hypothetical scenarios.

A conditional sentence is used to express a situation or event that depends on a certain condition (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002). In English, conditional sentences allow speakers to discuss what might happen in the future, what could occur under certain circumstances, or even what would have happened differently in the past. The general structure of a conditional sentence involves two parts: the if-clause (which states the condition) and the main clause (which explains the result or consequence of the condition). The verb tense used in these clauses changes based on the type of conditional sentence being used.

There are four primary types of conditional sentences, each serving different purposes. These types are distinguished by the verb tenses used in both the if-clause and the main clause (Murphy, 1985). The main goal of understanding conditional sentences is to use them effectively in various contexts, whether you're talking about real or hypothetical situations, giving advice, or speculating about outcomes.

B. DEFINITION OF CONDITIONAL SENTENCE

As we know that conditional sentences are sentences used to express situations and events that depend on specific conditions. The other deffinition is that a conditional sentence is a sentence that refers to something real or unreal, and that generally has an *if* clause and a clause with *would, could,* or *might. (DeCapua, 2008: 418)*

C. TYPES OF CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

1. **Zero Conditional**

   The zero conditional is used to express facts that are always true, such as scientific truths, general rules, or habits (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, and Svartvik, 1985). The structure for this conditional is "if + present simple, present simple." For example: "If you heat water to 100°C, it boils." This means that whenever you heat water to 100°C, it will always boil. The zero conditional expresses certainty.

2. **First Conditional**

   The first conditional is used to talk about real and possible situations in the future. The structure is "if + present simple, will + base verb." For example: "If it rains tomorrow, we will cancel the picnic." This means that if the condition (rain) happens tomorrow, the result (canceling the picnic) will follow. The first conditional expresses a realistic possibility.

3. **Second Conditional**

   The second conditional is used to talk about hypothetical or unlikely situations, often in the present or future. It is used when the condition is not real or not likely to happen. The structure is "if + past simple, would + base verb." For example: "If I were rich, I would travel the

world." This expresses an unreal situation, as the speaker is not rich and does not expect to become rich.

4. **Third Conditional**

   The third conditional is used to talk about past situations that did not happen, expressing regret or hypothetical outcomes. The structure is "if + past perfect, would have + past participle." For example: "If I had studied harder, I would have passed the exam." This talks about a past condition that was not met (studying harder), and the result (passing the exam) did not happen.

Understanding how to use conditional sentences correctly requires knowledge of both the structure and the intended meaning. It is essential to pay attention to verb tense and modal verbs when constructing conditional sentences. Mistakes in tense usage can lead to confusion and misunderstandings. For instance, mixing the tenses in the wrong conditional type (such as using past tense in the main clause of the first conditional) is a common error.

When constructing a conditional sentence, ensure that the if-clause expresses a condition that is logically linked to the result in the main clause. The type of conditional sentence you choose should depend on the likelihood of the condition being met. A realistic condition calls for the first conditional, while an unlikely or hypothetical condition calls for the second conditional.

D. ZERO CONDITIONAL STRUCTURE AND USAGE

The zero conditional is used to express situations that are always true or facts that do not change. It is commonly used in scientific or general statements that describe cause and effect relationships. Both the if-clause and the main clause in a zero conditional sentence use the present simple tense. For example: "If you mix red and blue, you get purple." This sentence explains a fact that is always true.

Another example: "If you freeze water, it becomes ice." This is a universal truth that does not change depending on circumstances. Zero conditional sentences are often used for general rules or instructions.

E. FIRST CONDITIONAL STRUCTURE AND USAGE

The first conditional is used to talk about possible or likely situations in the future. It is used when the speaker believes that the condition is likely to be fulfilled. The if-clause uses the present simple tense, and the main clause uses "will" + base verb. For example: "If it rains later, we will stay indoors."

In this case, the condition (rain) is possible, and the result (staying indoors) will happen if the condition is met. First conditional sentences are useful when talking about realistic future possibilities.

F. SECOND CONDITIONAL STRUCTURE AND USAGE

The second conditional is used to describe hypothetical or unreal situations that are unlikely to happen. It can express wishes, suggestions, or hypothetical consequences. The if-clause uses the past simple tense, and the main clause uses "would" + base verb. For example: "If I were you, I would take the job offer."

In this example, the condition is hypothetical (the speaker is not the listener), and the result (taking the job offer) is also imagined. Second conditional sentences often describe situations that are not grounded in reality but are used for giving advice or expressing desires.

G. THIRD CONDITIONAL STRUCTURE AND USAGE

The third conditional is used to talk about past situations that did not occur, reflecting on what could have happened if things had been different. The if-clause uses the past perfect tense, and the main clause uses "would have" + past participle. For example: "If I had known about the party, I would have gone."

This structure reflects a situation in the past where the condition (knowing about the party) was not met, and the result (going to the party) did not occur. Third conditional sentences are used for expressing regret, wishes, or hypothetical situations that didn't happen.

H. MIXED CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

Mixed conditionals occur when a conditional sentence combines two different types of conditionals, typically the second and third conditionals. A mixed conditional might combine a past condition with a present result. For example: "If I had studied harder, I would be a doctor now." In this sentence, the past condition (studying harder) has a present result (being a doctor), which is a hypothetical situation.

Mixed conditionals can also combine first and third conditionals, such as in: "If I had known you were coming, I would be making dinner now." In this case, the condition relates to the past (not knowing), while the result affects the present (making dinner).

Conditional sentences are very useful in everyday conversations, where people often discuss future possibilities, make requests, offer advice, or talk about past regrets. For example, in a conversation, someone might say, "If you study more, you will pass the test." This is an example of a first conditional, used to give advice.

In other situations, second conditionals might be used to express hypothetical wishes, such as, "If I could fly, I would travel the world." This expresses an unreal situation in which the speaker wishes for an ability they don't have.

It can be concluded tha conditional sentences play a crucial role in the English language, allowing speakers to discuss potential outcomes, hypothetical scenarios, and past regrets. By mastering the different types of conditional sentences, learners can better express possibilities, provide advice, and describe complex relationships between events. Conditional sentences are an essential tool for both casual conversations and more formal contexts, making them an indispensable part of learning and mastering English. Understanding when and how to use each type of conditional is key to communicating effectively and expressing nuanced meanings.

I. SUMMARY

Conditional sentences in English are used to express situations and events that depend on certain conditions. These sentences typically consist of two parts: the "if-clause," which states the condition, and the

"main clause," which describes the result or consequence of the condition being fulfilled. The structure and verb tenses used in these sentences depend on the type of conditional sentence being used. There are four main types of conditional sentences: zero conditional, first conditional, second conditional, and third conditional. Each type serves a different purpose, depending on the likelihood or time frame of the condition and its result.

Zero Conditional
The zero conditional is used to express general truths, scientific facts, or things that are always true when a certain condition is met. The structure is:

> if + present simple, present simple

Example: "If you heat water to 100°C, it boils."
It is necessary to know that this sentence expresses a fact that is always true under the stated condition.

First Conditional
The first conditional is used for real and possible situations in the future. It is used when the condition is likely to happen. The structure is:

> if + present simple, will + base verb

Example: "If it rains tomorrow, we will stay home."

It is necessary to know that this sentence talks about a possible situation in the future (rain) and its likely result (staying home).

Second Conditional
The second conditional is used for hypothetical or unlikely situations, usually in the present or future. It expresses an unreal or improbable condition. The structure is:

> if + past simple, would + base verb

Example: "If I were rich, I would travel the world."

This sentence describes an unreal situation, because the speaker is not rich and is unlikely to be rich in the future.

Third Conditional
The third conditional is used to talk about past situations that did not happen and the imagined result of those situations. It reflects on a past event and expresses regret or hypothetical outcomes. The structure is:

> if + past perfect, would have + past participle

Example: "If I had studied harder, I would have passed the exam."
This sentence talks about a past situation that didn't occur (studying harder) and the result that would have followed (passing the exam).

Mixed Conditionals
Mixed conditionals combine elements from different types of conditionals to express situations where a past event has a present consequence or vice versa. For example:

> if + past perfect, would + base verb

Example: "If I had known you were coming, I would be making dinner now."

This sentence combines a past condition (not knowing) with a present result (making dinner).

Conditional sentences are commonly used in everyday communication to express possibilities, hypothetical situations, advice, or regrets. They are essential for discussing future events, making suggestions, giving warnings, and reflecting on past choices.

Mastering conditional sentences is crucial for clear and effective communication in English. It allows speakers to describe various possibilities, hypothetical outcomes, and cause-and-effect relationships. Conditional sentences help speakers communicate more nuanced ideas

and intentions, making them an essential part of both written and spoken English.

In summary, understanding the different types of conditional sentences and their structures enables speakers to discuss real, hypothetical, and past situations in a precise and accurate manner.

If you study hard for your exam, you will likely pass with good grades. The first conditional is used to talk about real and possible situations in the future. The structure is if + present simple, then will + base verb. In this case, the condition (studying hard) leads to a probable result (passing the exam).

If I had a million dollars, I would travel the world. The second conditional is used to discuss hypothetical or unlikely situations. The structure is if + past simple, then would + base verb. It refers to an imagined or unreal situation, such as having a lot of money to fulfill a dream.

If I had known about the meeting, I would have attended. The third conditional is used for situations that did not happen in the past. It expresses regret or hindsight. The structure is if + past perfect, then would have + past participle. In this case, the speaker is reflecting on a missed opportunity.

If I had studied harder, I would be in a better job now. The *mixed conditional* combines the second and third conditionals, where the if-clause refers to a past event, and the result refers to a present consequence. The structure is if + past perfect, then would + base verb. When we use modal verbs like might or could in the *first conditional*, it shows uncertainty or possibility. Example: If it rains tomorrow, we might cancel the picnic. This structure is used when the outcome is less certain but still plausible. The zero conditional is used to express general truths, scientific facts, or things that are always true. Example: If you heat water to 100°C, it boils. The structure is if + present simple, then present simple. It applies when the condition always leads to the same result. If you need help, call me immediately. In this case, the first conditional is used with an imperative to suggest an action based on a condition.

The structure is if + present simple, then imperative. It expresses a suggestion or a command if the condition is met. If I were you, I might try a different approach. The ***second conditional*** can also be used with modal verbs like might or could to indicate possibility or advice. It is a way to express a suggestion based on an imagined scenario.

Meanwhile, if I had known about the issue, I might have helped. In this sentence, the ***third conditional*** is used with a modal verb like might to show a past possibility that did not happen. It reflects on a situation that could have been different if the speaker had acted.

In addition, if it doesn't rain tomorrow, we will go hiking. This is a negative first conditional, where the if-clause is in the negative form. It still refers to a real and possible future situation, but with the condition that something does not happen. If I didn't live so far away, I would visit more often. In this ***negative second conditional***, the if-clause is negated to show an impossible or unlikely situation. It expresses a wish or hypothetical scenario that would be different if circumstances were altered.

If you hadn't ignored my advice, you wouldn't have failed the exam. The negative third conditional expresses a regretful situation where something didn't happen as expected in the past. It indicates how a different action could have changed the outcome.

I will go to the park unless it rains. "Unless" is used as a substitute for "if not" in conditional sentences. It implies that the action will occur unless the specified condition (rain) happens.

The, if you don't hurry, you'll miss the train. This sentence uses "if not" to express a negative condition. It shows that if the action of hurrying is not done, the consequence (missing the train) will occur. If you press this button, it should open the door. In the zero conditional, we can also use modal verbs like should to express a general truth or expectation. It suggests that, under normal circumstances, pressing the button is expected to open the door. If I finish work early, I will meet you at 7 pm. Adding a time expression (like "at 7 pm") to the first conditional shows when the action will take place if the condition is fulfilled. It indicates a specific time frame for the result.

The second conditional can be used to discuss purely imaginary or fantastical situations. In this example: If I were a superhero, I would save the world, the speaker imagines themselves as a superhero and describes an action they would take. The third conditional is often used to express regret about past actions that cannot be changed. The speaker reflects on how different choices could have led to a better outcome. Example: If I had studied harder, I wouldn't have failed the test. Meanwhile, the This first conditional sentence is used to make a future prediction. The condition (finishing the project) is likely to happen, and the result (getting a promotion) depends on it. Example: If she finishes her project on time, she will get a promotion. Last but not least, the phrase "even if" is used to emphasize that the action will happen regardless of the condition. It shows a strong intention or plan that will not be affected by the situation. Example: Even if it rains tomorrow, we will still go to the beach.

Conditional sentence is the combination of the two sentences in which one of them is occupying as the conditional sentence and the other is the result of the implementation of the condition. In any case, conditional sentence consists of two parts. One clause is called the *if* class because it is introduced by or begins with the word *if*. The other clause is referred to as the *conditional clause* because this is the part of the sentence that refers to some type of possibility or reality.

There are two types of conditional clauses: (1) real or true and (2) unreal or contrary-to-fact clauses. Both types of conditional clauses are introduced by *if*. *If* clauses, like many adverbial clauses we have already explored, can be reversed. The *if* clause can come in initial position and the main clause can come in second position.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCE TYPE 0

The zero conditional is used to express general truths, scientific facts, and situations that are always true if certain conditions are met. It is often used to talk about habitual actions or established facts. The structure pattern of conditional sentence in type zero is as follows:

> **If + present simple, present simple**

1. General truths: If you mix red and blue, you get purple.
2. Scientific facts: If you freeze water, it turns into ice.
3. Habitual actions: If I go to bed late, I feel tired the next day.

Exercise 1
Complete the following sentences using the zero conditional structure.
1. If you _____ (press) the button, the machine _____ (start).
2. If it _____ (rain), the ground _____ (get) wet.
3. If you _____ (heat) ice, it _____ (melt).
4. If you _____ (drop) an object, it _____ (fall) to the ground.
5. If you _____ (mix) vinegar and baking soda, it _____ (fizz).

Exercise 2
Rewrite the following sentences in the zero conditional form.
1. People die when they don't have food.
   - If people _____.
2. Plants grow when they get enough sunlight.
   - If plants _____.
3. Metals expand when they are heated.
   - If metals _____.
4. You get cavities when you eat too much sugar.
   - If you _____.
5. Water freezes when it reaches 0 degrees Celsius.
   - If water _____.

Exercise 3
Find and correct the mistakes in the following sentences.
1. If you will heat water, it boils.
2. If she studies, she get good grades.
3. If it is raining, the streets gets wet.
4. If you doesn't water plants, they die.
5. If I eat peanuts, I gets a rash.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCE TYPE 1

The first conditional is used to talk about real and possible situations in the present or future. It describes events that are likely to happen if a certain condition is met. The structure pattern of conditional sentence in type 1 is as follows:

> **If + Present Simple, will + Base Verb**

1. Possible future events: If you study hard, you will pass the exam.
2. Promises and warnings: If you touch that wire, you will get shocked.
3. Offers and suggestions: If you need help, I will be here.

Exercise 1

Complete the following sentences using the first conditional structure.
1. If you _____ (call) me, I _____ (help) you.
2. If it _____ (rain), we _____ (cancel) the picnic.
3. If he _____ (have) much money, Ali_____.

Conditional Sentence Type 2

The second conditional is used to talk about hypothetical or unreal situations in the present or future. It describes events that are unlikely to happen or are purely imaginary. The structure pattern of conditional sentence in type 2 is as follows:

> **If + Past Simple, Would + Base Verb**

1. Hypothetical situations: If I had a million dollars, I would buy a mansion.
2. Unreal or unlikely events: If he were here, he would help us.
3. Imaginary outcomes: If I were you, I would study harder.

Exercise 1

Complete the following sentences using the second conditional structure.

1. If I _____ (be) rich, I _____ (travel) the world.
2. She _____ (drive) to the beach if she _____ (have) a car.

J. CONDITIONAL SENTENCE TYPE 3

The third conditional is used to talk about hypothetical situations in the past that did not happen. It describes events that are contrary to reality and their possible results. The structure pattern of conditional sentence in type 2 is as follows:

> **If + Past Perfect, Would have + Past**

1. Regrets or missed opportunities: If I had studied harder, I would have passed the exam.
2. Imaginary past situations: If they had left earlier, they would have caught the train.
3. Hypothetical outcomes: If it had rained, we would have stayed indoors.

Exercise 1

Complete the following sentences using the third conditional structure.

1. If I _____ (have) much money, I _____ (go) to Singapore.
2. Jack _____ (pass) the final test if he ___ (study) hard.
3. Ferdinand _____ (call) if I _____ (have) much time.
4. If William _____ (have) dinner, he ___ not (be) hungry.

Real conditionals

In *real* conditionals we use tenses as in other kinds of sentences: we use present tenses to talk about the present or unchanging relationships, and past tenses to talk about the past:

- If you leave now, you'll be home in two hours.
- If water is frozen, it expands.
- If I made the wrong decision then I apologise.

However, when we talk about the future, we use a present tense, not will

- I'll give you a lift if it rains, *(not ...if it will rain...)*

Unreal conditionals

In *unreal* conditionals, to talk about *present* or *future* situations, we use a past tense (either simple or continuous) in the if-clause and would + bare infinitive in the main clause:

- If my grandfather was/were still alive, he would be a hundred today.
- If you were driving from London to Glasgow, which way would you go?
- I'd (=would) offer to give you a lift if I had my car here. In *unreal* conditionals, we can also use could/might/should (have) instead of would (have):
- If I lived out of town, I could take up gardening.
- They might have found a better hotel if they had driven a few more kilometres.

In some *unreal* conditionals we use mixed tenses. That is, a past tense in the if-clause and would have + past participle in the main clause, or a past perfect in the if-clause and would + bare infinitive in the main clause:

- If Bob wasn't so lazy, he would have passed the exam easily.
- If the doctor had been called earlier, she would still be alive today.

Notice that in *unreal* conditional sentences:

- we don't use the past simple or past perfect in the main clause:
- If we were serious about pollut

Exercise 1

Are these real *or* unreal *conditional sentences? (A)*

1. If we had travelled together we would have saved money. *Unreal*
2. If you're scared of spiders, don't go into the garden.
3. Where would you choose if you could live anywhere in the world?
4. If he recognized me, he certainly didn't show any sign of it.
5. She'll be furious if she finds out the truth.
6. You would know the answer if you had read the book.

7. You'll have to take a taxi home if you want to leave now.
8. If you had taken that job in Norway, you'd have been able to learn to ski.

Exercise 2

If necessary, correct these sentences!

1. If Jack had been honest, he would return the money.
2. The video pauses if you press this button.
3. If she would have really wanted to see me, she would have come earlier.
4. If he doesn't break the window then who is responsible?
5. If Claire will continue to work hard, she should pass the exams easily.
6. Steve would have been attacked if I hadn't come along.
7. I'd be able to visit Jim first thing in the morning if I stay in Manchester overnight.
8. Speak to Jane if you want to book a room.
9. If you know what it was going to be like, why did you come?
10. You'd be surprised if I told you how much this cost.
11. If I had suddenly announced that the holiday was cancelled, the children had objected.
12. We might soon be making a profit if all will go according to plan.

Exercise 3

Are the underlined parts of the sentences correct? Correct the ones that are wrong.

1. If they will get married, they'll probably move to France. If they get roamed...
2. If it will make you happy, we'll buy a dishwasher.
3. If you will send me a copy of your previous letter, I will reply immediately.
4. If some extra money will help, take this £200.
5. If anyone will ask for me, I'll be in the cafe.
6. If he will continue to improve, he should be out of hospital next week.

TASK AND EVALUATION

1. Explain the difference between the four types of conditional sentences (zero, first, second, and third conditionals) with examples. How does each type express a different level of possibility or hypothetical situation?
2. Conditional sentences are often used in real-life situations to express advice, possibilities, or regrets. Write an essay discussing how conditional sentences can be used in everyday communication, providing examples of each type of conditional sentence in context.
3. Discuss the importance of understanding and using conditional sentences correctly in both written and spoken English. How does mastering conditional sentences contribute to a more effective and nuanced communication style in English?
4. Describe a situation in which you could use a mixed conditional sentence. Provide an example and explain the meaning behind it. What makes mixed conditionals different from the other types of conditionals, and how do they combine elements from different time frames?
5. Imagine you are teaching conditional sentences to a group of English learners. How would you explain the structure and usage of the second conditional? Provide practical examples and activities that could help students understand and use this type of conditional sentence effectively.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR

CHAPTER 8: REPORTED SPEECH

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CHAPTER 8
REPORTED SPEECH

A. INTRODUCTION

Reported speech, also known as indirect speech, is a method of conveying what someone else has said without quoting their exact words. Instead of using the speaker's original phrasing, reported speech involves paraphrasing or summarizing the statement. This linguistic feature is essential for relaying information in a nuanced and contextually appropriate manner. Understanding the distinction between direct and reported speech is crucial. In direct speech, the speaker's exact words are enclosed in quotation marks and attributed directly to them. For example: Jane said, "I am going to the market."

In contrast, reported speech entails rephrasing the statement without quotation marks, often incorporating changes in pronouns, verb tenses, and time expressions to fit the context. For instance: Jane said that she was going to the market. Reported speech is commonly utilized in both written and spoken language, facilitating smooth and cohesive communication. It effectively conveys messages, thoughts, and statements, making it a valuable tool in journalism, storytelling, academic writing, and everyday conversation.

Mastering reported speech enhances one's ability to report events accurately and respectfully while maintaining the flow and coherence of the narrative. It reflects an understanding of the subtleties of language and the ability to adapt to different contexts and audiences. In this discussion, we will explore the intricacies of reported speech, including its types, the changes involved in transforming direct speech into reported speech, and its practical applications and challenges. This exploration will provide a comprehensive understanding of how reported speech functions and its significance in effective communication.

B. DEFINITION OF REPORTED SPEECH

Reported speech, also known as indirect speech, is a method of relaying what someone else has said without quoting their exact words. Unlike direct speech, which replicates the speaker's exact words enclosed in quotation marks, reported speech involves paraphrasing the original statement. This requires adjustments in pronouns, verb tenses, and time expressions to fit the context of the new narrative.

For example:

- **Direct Speech**: Susanti said, "I am going to the store."
- **Reported Speech**: Susanti said that she was going to the store.

In reported speech, the sentence structure changes to maintain grammatical correctness and coherence within the new context. This technique is widely used in both spoken and written communication to convey messages effectively while preserving the meaning of the original statement.

Understanding and mastering reported speech is crucial for effective communication, as it allows one to relay information accurately and appropriately in various contexts. Whether used in everyday conversations, academic writing, journalism, or storytelling, reported speech enhances our ability to share and report what others have said with clarity and precision

C. THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN DIRECT AND INDIRECT SPEECH

1. Direct Speech:

The direct speech involves quoting the exact words spoken by someone. The quoted words are placed within quotation marks and attributed directly to the speaker. Based on its structure, the original words are not altered and are presented verbatim. Example: Susanti said, "I am going to the market."

2. Indirect Speech (Reported Speech):

Indirect speech, or reported speech, involves paraphrasing or summarizing what someone has said without using their exact words. It requires adjustments to pronouns, verb tenses, and time expressions to fit

the context of the new narrative. Based on its structure, the original words are modified to fit grammatically and contextually within the reporting sentence, example: Susanti said that she was going to the market. It needs to know that the key differences of both are:

- **Quotation Marks**: Direct speech uses quotation marks to enclose the exact words spoken, whereas indirect speech does not use quotation marks.
- **Verbatim vs. Paraphrasing**: Direct speech retains the speaker's exact words, while indirect speech involves rephrasing the original statement.
- **Pronoun Changes**: In indirect speech, pronouns are often changed to match the perspective of the reporting speaker.
  - Direct: John said, "I will call you."
  - Indirect: John said that he would call me.
- **Tense Changes**: The tense of the verbs in the original speech is often changed in indirect speech to reflect the sequence of events.
  - Direct: Mary said, "I am reading a book."
  - Indirect: Mary said that she was reading a book.
- **Time and Place Expressions**: Time and place expressions are adjusted in indirect speech to suit the new context.
  - Direct: He said, "I will meet you here tomorrow."
  - Indirect: He said that he would meet me there the next day.

Understanding these differences is crucial for accurately transforming direct speech into indirect speech and ensuring that the reported message remains clear and contextually relevant.

D. PURPOSE OF USING REPORTED SPEECH

It needs to know that the purposes of using the reported speech in English are as follows:

1. **Accuracy and Clarity**: Reported speech allows us to convey what someone else has said accurately while adjusting the language to fit the context. This ensures that the original meaning is preserved while making the statement clearer and more comprehensible to the listener or reader.

2. **Contextual Appropriateness**: By transforming direct quotes into reported speech, we can adapt the original statement to suit the new context. This includes modifying pronouns, tenses, and time expressions, which helps in making the message relevant and coherent in the current situation.

3. **Avoiding Repetition**: When relaying information, especially in writing or reporting, using reported speech helps avoid the monotony of direct quotes. It provides a smoother and more integrated narrative, enhancing the flow of the text.

4. **Formality and Tone**: Reported speech is often more formal and suitable for written communication, such as academic papers, news articles, and official reports. It allows the writer to present information in a polished and professional manner. Furthermore, the reported speech is used when**:**

   a. **Journalism and Reporting**: Journalists use reported speech to convey statements made by individuals, organizations, or authorities. This helps in presenting the essence of interviews and statements without quoting them verbatim.

   b. **Academic Writing**: Scholars and researchers use reported speech to cite previous research and integrate others' viewpoints into their work. It helps in presenting information succinctly and maintaining a formal tone.

   c. **Everyday Conversations**: In daily interactions, people use reported speech to relay what someone else has said. This helps in providing context and clarity without needing to repeat the exact words spoken.

   d. **Storytelling and Narratives**: Authors use reported speech to convey characters' thoughts and dialogues indirectly, allowing for a more seamless and engaging narrative.

   e. **Legal and Official Communication**: In legal documents and official communications, reported speech is used to present statements and testimonies in a clear and formal manner.

By understanding the purpose and appropriate contexts for using reported speech, we can enhance our communication skills and ensure that information is conveyed accurately and effectively. In addition, the reported speech plays a pivotal role in effective communication for several reasons:

1. **Clarity and Precision**: Reported speech allows us to convey messages with clarity and precision. By paraphrasing the original words of the speaker, we can adjust the language to suit the context, ensuring the message is understood correctly by the listener or reader.

2. **Contextual Adaptation**: When reporting speech, it is often necessary to change pronouns, verb tenses, and time expressions to fit the context of the new narrative. This adaptation helps maintain the coherence and relevance of the message, making it easier for the audience to follow and comprehend.

3. **Avoiding Redundancy**: Using reported speech helps avoid the repetition of direct quotes, which can become monotonous and disrupt the flow of communication. Instead, it provides a smoother and more integrated way to relay information, enhancing the overall narrative.

4. **Formality and Tone**: Reported speech is particularly useful in formal writing and speaking. It allows for a more polished and professional presentation of information, which is essential in academic papers, news reports, official documents, and other formal contexts.

5. **Effective Storytelling**: In literature and storytelling, reported speech enables authors to convey characters' thoughts and dialogues indirectly. This technique helps create a seamless narrative, allowing for a deeper exploration of characters' perspectives and emotions without breaking the flow of the story.

6. **Flexibility in Reporting**: Journalists and reporters rely on reported speech to accurately convey statements made by individuals and organizations. This allows them to present the essence of interviews and speeches while integrating them smoothly into their articles and reports.

7. **Enhanced Communication Skills**: Mastering reported speech enhances overall communication skills. It involves critical thinking and the ability to rephrase and summarize information effectively, which are valuable skills in both personal and professional interactions.

8. **Maintaining Respect and Sensitivity**: Reported speech is often used to relay sensitive information or controversial statements in a more respectful and measured manner. This helps maintain diplomatic communication and reduces the potential for misunderstandings or conflicts.

9. **Integrating Research and Citations**: In academic writing, reported speech is essential for integrating research findings and citing other scholars' work. It allows researchers to present various viewpoints and evidence without directly quoting extensive passages, thus maintaining a cohesive and concise narrative.

10. **Everyday Conversations**: In daily interactions, reported speech is used to relay what others have said, providing context and clarity. It helps in sharing information and experiences accurately, ensuring effective communication and understanding between individuals.

By understanding and utilizing reported speech, we can communicate more effectively, ensuring our messages are clear, relevant, and appropriate for the given context. This skill is invaluable in various fields, from academia and journalism to everyday conversations and storytelling.

E. TYPES OF REPORTED SPEECH
1. Direct Speech

Reported speech, according to the Oxford Learner's Dictionary, is defined as "a report of what somebody has said that does not use their exact words." The Collins Dictionary defines 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 defined as "the act of reporting something that was said, but not using exactly the same words." The Macmillan Dictionary defines reported speech as "the words that you use to report what someone else has said." Based on its structure, the reported speech involves rephrasing the

original statement made by someone. The structure of reported speech typically follows these guidelines:

1) Reporting Verb: The sentence usually begins with a reporting verb such as "said," "told," "asked," "explained," etc.
2) Conjunction: Often, the word "that" is used to connect the reporting verb with the rest of the sentence. In informal speech, "that" can sometimes be omitted.
3) Changes in Pronouns, Tenses, and Time Expressions: Adjustments are made to pronouns, verb tenses, and time expressions to ensure the statement fits the new context. Example**:**
   - **Direct Speech**: Mary said, "I am going to the market today."
   - **Reported Speech**: Mary said that she was going to the market that day.

In direct speech, the speaker's exact words are enclosed in quotation marks. However, in reported speech, quotation marks are not used. In direct speech, a comma is often used to separate the reporting clause from the quoted speech. In reported speech, no comma is used since the exact words are not quoted, example:

- Direct Speech: "I will be there," he said.
- Reported Speech: He said that he would be there.

There are some changes that should be followed in changing the direct into the reported speech, they are as follows:

1) **Pronouns**: The pronouns in the original statement are changed to match the perspective of the reporting speaker.
   - Direct: She said, "I need help."
   - Reported: She said that she needed help.

2) **Tenses**: Verb tenses in the original statement often shift back one tense in reported speech.
   - Present Simple to Past Simple: "I like ice cream" -> She said that she liked ice cream.
   - Present Continuous to Past Continuous: "I am eating" -> He said that he was eating.

- Future Simple to Conditional: "I will call you" -> She said that she would call me.

3) **Time and Place Expressions**: Time and place expressions are adjusted to fit the context.
   - Direct: "I will see you tomorrow."
   - Reported: He said that he would see me the next day.

By following these structural guidelines and punctuation rules, you can accurately transform direct speech into reported speech, ensuring the message remains clear and contextually relevant.

2. Indirect Speech

Indirect speech, also known as reported speech, is a method of conveying what someone else has said without quoting their exact words. This involves paraphrasing the original statement and often includes changes to pronouns, verb tenses, and time expressions to fit the new context. Indirect speech allows the speaker to relay information in a way that integrates smoothly into the current conversation or narrative, example:

- **Direct Speech**: She said, "I am reading a book."
  This quotes the speaker's exact words.
- **Indirect Speech**: She said that she was reading a book.
  In this version, the original statement is paraphrased. The pronoun "I" changes to "she," and the present continuous tense "am reading" changes to the past continuous tense "was reading."

Indirect speech is widely used in both written and spoken language to ensure messages are conveyed accurately and appropriately within different contexts. By understanding and mastering indirect speech, we enhance our ability to communicate effectively and relay information clearly. When converting direct speech to indirect speech, several structural changes need to be made to ensure the message is coherent and contextually appropriate. Here are the key changes:

1) **Pronoun Changes**:
   Pronouns are adjusted to match the perspective of the reporting speaker.
   Example:
   - Direct: "I am happy," she said.
   - Indirect: She said that she was happy.

2) **Tense Changes**:
   Verb tenses are often shifted back one tense in indirect speech, known as back shifting.
   Examples:
   - Present Simple to Past Simple:
     Direct: "I like ice cream," she said.
     Indirect: She said that she liked ice cream.
   - Present Continuous to Past Continuous:
     Direct: "I am reading a book," he said.
     Indirect: He said that he was reading a book.
   - Present Perfect to Past Perfect:
     Direct: "I have finished my homework," she said.
     Indirect: She said that she had finished her homework.
   - Past Simple to Past Perfect:
     Direct: "I saw the movie," he said.
     Indirect: He said that he had seen the movie.
   - Future Simple (will) to Conditional (would):
     Direct: "I will call you," he said.
     Indirect: He said that he would call me.

3) **Time and Place Expressions**:
   Time and place expressions are adjusted to reflect the time and location of reporting, example:
   Direct: "I will see you tomorrow," she said.
   Indirect: She said that she would see me the next day.
   Direct: "I am meeting him here," she said.
   Indirect: She said that she was meeting him there.

4) **Changes in Modals**:
   Some modal verbs change when moving from direct to indirect speech, example:
   Can to Could:
   - Direct: "I can swim," he said.
   - Indirect: He said that he could swim.

   May to Might:
   - Direct: "I may come," she said.
   - Indirect: She said that she might come.

   *Must to Had to***:
   - Direct: "I must go," he said.
   - Indirect: He said that he had to go.

5) **Reporting Verbs**:
   Reporting verbs such as "say," "tell," "ask," etc., introduce the reported speech, example:
   Direct: "I need help," he said.
   Indirect: He said that he needed help.
   Direct: "Can you help me?" she asked.
   Indirect: She asked if I could help her.

6) **Question Structures**:
   When reporting questions, the word order is changed to a statement order, example:
   Direct (Yes/No Question): "Are you coming?" he asked.
   Indirect: He asked if I was coming.
   Direct (WH-Question): "What are you doing?" she asked.
   Indirect: She asked what I was doing.

By applying these structural changes, you can accurately transform direct speech into indirect speech, ensuring the reported message is clear and appropriate for the context. The common reporting verbs are verbs used in indirect speech to indicate what someone has said, asked, or

expressed. These verbs help convey the nature of the original statement or question and add context to the reported message. Here are some of the most commonly used reporting verbs along with examples:

1) **Say**
   Usage: Used to report what someone has said.
   Example: She said that she was tired.

2) **Tell**
   Usage: Used to report what someone has told someone else. Often requires an indirect object (the person being told).
   Example: He told me that he had finished his homework.

3) **Ask**
   Usage: Used to report questions.
   Example: She asked if I could help her.

4) **Explain**
   Usage: Used to report explanations.
   Example: He explained that he had missed the bus.

5) **Mention**
   Usage: Used to report brief or passing comments.
   Example: She mentioned that she would be late.

F. CHANGES IN REPORTED SPEECH

1. Pronoun Changes and Examples

Pronouns in reported speech are often changed to match the perspective of the reporting speaker and the context of the conversation. Here are some common rules and examples for changing pronouns when converting direct speech to reported speech:

1) **First Person Pronouns (I, We)**
   Change according to the subject of the reporting clause, example:
   - Direct: "I am hungry," he said.
   - Reported: He said that he was hungry.

2) **Second Person Pronouns (You)**
   Change according to the object of the reporting clause or the person being addressed in the context.

Example:
- Direct: "You are late," she told me.
- Reported: She told me that I was late.

3) **Third Person Pronouns (He, She, They, It)**
Generally, remain the same if the context and reference are clear.
Example:
- Direct: "He will call you," she said.
- Reported: She said that he would call me.

4) **Possessive Pronouns (My, Your, His, Her, Their, Our)**
Change according to the subject and object of the reporting clause, example:
- Direct: "This is my book," he said.
- Reported: He said that it was his book.
- Direct: "Is this your car?" she asked me.
- Reported: She asked me if that was my car.

5) **Reflexive Pronouns (Myself, Yourself, Himself, Herself, Themselves, Ourselves)**
Change according to the subject and object of the reporting clause, example:
- Direct: "I made it myself," he said.
- Reported: He said that he had made it himself.

Pronoun Changes
- o I → he/she
- o We → they
- o You → I/me/we/us (depending on context)
- o My → his/her
- o Your → my/our
- o Our → their
- o Their → their

2. Tense Changes

When converting direct speech to reported speech, the verb tenses in the original statement often need to be shifted to maintain the logical sequence of events and ensure grammatical correctness. This process, known as back shifting, typically involves moving the tense of the verb back one step in time. Examples of changing tenses (e.g., present to past).

1) **Present Simple to Past Simple**:
   Direct Speech: "I like coffee," she said.
   Reported Speech: She said that she liked coffee.
2) **Present Continuous to Past Continuous**:
   Direct Speech: "I am reading a book," he said.
   Reported Speech: He said that he was reading a book.
3) **Present Perfect to Past Perfect**:
   Direct Speech: "I have finished my work," she said.
   Reported Speech: She said that she had finished her work.
4) **Past Simple to Past Perfect**:
   Direct Speech: "I saw the movie," he said.
   Reported Speech: He said that he had seen the movie.
5) **Past Continuous to Past Perfect Continuous**:
   Direct Speech: "I was eating dinner," she said.
   Reported Speech: She said that she had been eating dinner.
6) **Future Simple (will) to Conditional (would)**:
   Direct Speech: "I will call you," he said.
   Reported Speech: He said that he would call me.

3. Time and Place Changes

When converting direct speech to reported speech, it's often necessary to adjust time and place references to align with the context in which the reported statement is made. These changes ensure that the reported message remains coherent and contextually appropriate. Examples (e.g., today to that day, here to there). The different time and place expressions typically change:

1) **Time Expressions**:
   o **Today** becomes **that day**.
      Direct Speech: "I will see you today," she said.

Reported Speech: She said that she would see me that day.

- o **Tomorrow** becomes **the next day / the following day**.
  Direct Speech: "I am going to the meeting tomorrow," he said.
  Reported Speech: He said that he was going to the meeting the next day.
- o **Yesterday** becomes **the day before / the previous day**.
  Direct Speech: "I finished the project yesterday," she said.
  Reported Speech: She said that she had finished the project the day before.
- o **Now** becomes **then / at that time**.
  Direct Speech: "I am busy now," he said.
  Reported Speech: He said that he was busy then.
- o **This week** becomes **that week**.
  Direct Speech: "I am traveling this week," she said.
  Reported Speech: She said that she was traveling that week.
- o **Last week** becomes **the week before / the previous week**.
  Direct Speech: "I visited my parents last week," he said.
  Reported Speech: He said that he had visited his parents the week before.
- o **Next week** becomes **the week after / the following week**.
  Direct Speech: "I have an appointment next week," she said.
  Reported Speech: She said that she had an appointment the following week.
- o **Ago** becomes **before**.
  Direct Speech: "I met him two days ago," he said.
  Reported Speech: He said that he had met him two days before.

2) **Place Expressions**:
   - o **Here** becomes **there**.
     Direct Speech: "I will stay here," she said.
     Reported Speech: She said that she would stay there.
   - o **This** becomes **that**.
     Direct Speech: "I can do this," he said.
     Reported Speech: He said that he could do that.

- These becomes **those**.
  Direct Speech: "I need these books," she said.
  Reported Speech: She said that she needed those books.

G. SUMMARY

Reported speech, also known as indirect speech, is a way of conveying what someone else has said without quoting their exact words. This technique is crucial for effective communication, allowing the speaker to adapt the original statement to fit the new context by making necessary adjustments to pronouns, verb tenses, and time/place expressions. The distinction between direct and reported speech lies in how the original words are presented. Direct speech quotes the exact words within quotation marks, while reported speech paraphrases them, often introduced by a reporting verb such as "say," "tell," or "ask." For instance, the direct statement "I am going to the market," when reported, becomes "She said that she was going to the market," with appropriate changes to pronouns and verb tenses.

Reported speech is widely used in various contexts, including journalism, academic writing, and everyday conversations. Its primary purposes are to ensure clarity, avoid repetition, maintain formality, and adapt messages to fit different contexts. By mastering reported speech, one can enhance their ability to communicate effectively, present information accurately, and maintain the coherence and relevance of their narratives. Types of Reported Speech primarily include the following categories, each serving distinct purposes in communication:

1. **Statements**:
   - **Definition**: Used to report declarative statements made by the original speaker.
   - **Example**:
     - Direct: "I am happy," she said.
     - Reported: She said that she was happy.

2. **Questions**:
   - **Yes/No Questions**: Reported using the conjunction "if" or "whether". For example:
     o Direct: "Are you coming?" he asked.
     o Reported: He asked if I was coming.

   - **WH-Questions**: Maintain the WH-word (who, what, when, where, why, how) but convert the word order to a statement. For example:
     o Direct: "Where are you going?" she asked.
     o Reported: She asked where I was going.

3. **Commands and Requests**:
   - **Definition**: Used to report directives, commands, or requests made by the original speaker. For example:
     o Direct: "Close the door," he said.
     o Reported: He told me to close the door.

When transforming direct speech into reported speech, several key changes occur to ensure the message fits the new context accurately. The brief summary of these changes is as follows:

1) **Pronoun Changes**:
   Pronouns are adjusted to reflect the perspective of the reporting speaker. For example:
   Direct: "I am happy," he said.
   Reported: He said that he was happy.

2) **Tense Changes**:
   Verb tenses are often shifted back one tense (back shifting). For example:
   - Present Simple to Past Simple: "I like apples," she said. → She said that she liked apples.
   - Present Continuous to Past Continuous: "I am eating," he said. → He said that he was eating.
   - Future Simple (will) to Conditional (would): "I will call you," she said. → She said that she would call me.

3) **Time and Place References**:
Time and place expressions are modified to suit the context of the reporting. For example:
- "Today" becomes "that day."
- "Tomorrow" becomes "the next day."
- "Here" becomes "there."

4) **Modals**:
Some modal verbs change to reflect past tense. For example:
- "Can" becomes "could."
- "May" becomes "might."
- "Must" becomes "had to."

5) **Reporting Verbs**:
Verbs like "say," "tell," "ask," etc., are used to introduce the reported speech. For example:
- Direct: "I am leaving," he said.
- Reported: He said that he was leaving.

6) **Question Structure**:
Word order in questions is changed to a statement form. For example:
- Yes/No Questions: "Are you coming?" he asked. → He asked if I was coming.
- WH-Questions: "Where are you going?" she asked. → She asked where I was going.

TASK AND EVALUAION
Instructions: Complete the following exercises to demonstrate your understanding of reported speech. Each section involves converting direct speech into reported speech and analyzing the changes made.
Exercise 1: Statements
Convert the following direct speech statements into reported speech.
1. Direct: "I enjoy reading books," she said.
   o Reported: She said that she enjoyed reading books.

2. Direct: "We are planning a trip," they mentioned.
   o Reported: They mentioned that they were planning a trip.

3. Direct: "He has finished his project," she noted.
   o Reported: She noted that he had finished his project.

Exercise 2: Questions
Convert the following direct speech questions into reported speech.
1. Direct: "Are you coming to the party?" he asked.
   o Reported: He asked if I was coming to the party.

2. Direct: "What time does the meeting start?" she inquired.
   o Reported: She inquired what time the meeting started.

3. Direct: "Can you help me with this?" they asked.
   o Reported: They asked if I could help them with this.

Exercise 3: Commands and Requests
Convert the following direct speech commands and requests into reported speech.
1. Direct: "Close the door," he said.
   o Reported: He told me to close the door.
2. Direct: "Please pass the salt," she requested.
   o Reported: She requested me to pass the salt.
3. Direct: "Don't be late," the teacher warned.
   o Reported: The teacher warned us not to be late.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR
CHAPTER 9: TITLE

La Mido, S.Pd., M.Pd.

Universitas Dayanu Ikhsanuddin

CHAPTER 9
TITLE

A. INTRODUCTION

Punctuation is an important part of how language works and how people can communicate effectively. However a lot of people mess up their punctuation, which affects their performance in writings and makes them look bad. Still, the basic rules of grammar are easy to understand. You need to know how to use the full stop, the comma, and the apostrophe as much as possible. These are the same as stopping, shifting gears, and signaling while driving. They are just as easy to learn as these basic driving skills. There is more to punctuation than these three points, but you can be a good writer without using something as complicated as a semicolon. Nevertheless the apostrophe, comma, and full stop are very important, and you need to learn how to use them. With the right capitalization, you can get your point across in an essay. It will do this because it wants to help you understand better by showing how words or ideas relate to each other and by defining the limits of what you mean. Good punctuation will also help make a good image of careful and thoughtful work, which is a further benefit.

In writing, punctuation marks serve as symbols to structure sentences, show pauses, and clarify content. In written communication, they aid in establishing a feeling of flow, emphasizing particular words or phrases, and communicating tone. Sentences that lack punctuation may be unclear or challenging to understand. Thus, becoming proficient with punctuation is crucial for clear communication and efficient writing.

Periods, commas, colons, semicolons, and quote marks are only a few of the symbols used in punctuation. Every mark has a distinct function and, when used improperly, can significantly alter a sentence's meaning. The readability and impact of your work can be significantly increased by being aware of punctuation standards and knowing when to use each mark.

Writers can guarantee that their message is precisely and successfully communicated to their readers by becoming proficient in punctuation.

A statement might lose its intended meaning or become unclear if it is not punctuated correctly. For instance, a statement may become unclear or ambiguous due to a missed comma. Conversely, effective punctuation can highlight specific ideas, establish a pause for emphasis, or show how one sentence's various sections relate to one another. In the end, learning punctuation is about improving the overall caliber of your writing and successfully communicating your point to your audience, not just about adhering to the rules.

B. THE DEFENITION OF PUNCTUATION

In written language, punctuation marks are very important because they help to make meaning clear, show pauses, and split different parts of a sentence. They are important signs of correct language and syntax that help the reader follow along with the text and understand it better overall. When you write something, not using the right grammar can make it hard to understand. Punctuation marks like commas, periods, question marks, and exclamation points are very important for getting a message throughout in writing. They help put ideas in order, give attention to certain parts, and make the text flow better, which makes it easier to read. Punctuation is basically the key to good written communication; it makes sure that the writer's ideas get across correctly to the reader. Being able to follow the rules of grammar can greatly improve your writing and make your work more clear and logical. Writers can avoid mistakes and make sure their message gets across clearly and strongly by following the rules for punctuation. When you don't use punctuation, words can run together and lose their meaning, which makes it hard for readers to figure out what you mean. Because of this, writers need to pay close attention to punctuation rules and use them correctly to make their work easier to read and more effective. Finally, knowing how to use punctuation correctly is an important skill that can make written communication much better and help writers get their thoughts across to others more clearly.

When you're writing, punctuation is the most important part of language and learning how to use it well. Here are some details of punctuation from experts. (Woods, 2006) defines that punctuation is the traffic signs that help the reader to arrive at the writers meaning. Signs here mean that the symbol that is used in writing to guide us through the maze of words and ideas in some pieces of writing presents. This definition is almost same with (Woods, 2006) defines that punctuation marks are the guidance symbol for the reader which give the information to slow down, notice, stop and etc. in order to the meaning of passage is clear. It means that punctuation is voice rising, pausing, and hand waving in the form of dots, commas, and etc which means a good punctuation is vital if the reader want to get the message across loud and clear.

Another definition comes from (Stilman, 1997) defines that punctuation is a tool that is used to make the meaning clear, it is like stress, intonation, rhythm, pauses, etc that present when the text be read or someone speak English. Because of punctuation clarifying the meaning, so every punctuation mark has one or more particular jobs to do, and everyone should be used always and only to do those jobs. If the reader does not give attention in punctuation, she will have trouble with the meaning of passage.

C. IMPORTANCE OF PUNCTUATION IN WRITTEN COMMUNICATION

Punctuation is very important for making written communication clearer because it shows pauses, emphasis, and the structure of words. Furthermore, punctuation helps show the mood and meaning behind the words, giving the message more depth and subtlety. Because of this, punctuation is an important part of clear and accurate communication because it helps writers say what they mean, (McCaskill, 1990). Writers need to pay attention to and follow the rules of punctuation to make sure their message gets across correctly and successfully. Every punctuation mark, from the simple stop to the more complex question mark, helps the reader understand what is being said. Writers can improve the clarity of their writing and avoid mistakes by learning how to use punctuation

correctly. Punctuation is an important part of written language that you should not forget when you're talking or writing something.

In addition, sentences can get hard to understand and lose their sense if they don't have the right punctuation. (Geisa, 2022) stated that to understand what they read and to make clear communication in writing all the students have to understand the uses of punctuation mark. Punctuation gives writing order and clarity, making it easy for readers to follow the flow of ideas. So, if you want to be a good writer, learning punctuation is just as important as learning language and vocabulary. When writers take the time to learn and follow the rules of punctuation, they can make their words more powerful and get their point across more clearly. By using commas correctly, writers can draw attention to important points, make their writing clear, and lead readers through their work. Each punctuation mark is used for a different thing, like using commas to separate things in a list, periods to end sentences, or question marks to make people want to know more. So, paying attention to the little things like punctuation can make your work better and more interesting to read. In conclusion, punctuation is an important part of writing that shouldn't be taken lightly because it has a big impact on how clear and effective written communication is as a whole.

D. TYPES OF PUNCTUATION MARKS

1. Periods, question marks and exlamation points are all types of punctuation that are used for different things in writing. To end a sentence, use a period. To ask a question, use a question mark. To show excitement or strain, use an exclamation point. Knowing the different uses of each punctuation mark can help writers get their style and message across more clearly. Mastering grammar can also make a piece of writing easier to read and make it flow better, which makes it more interesting and powerful for readers. It is important for writers to use proper punctuation so that their message is clear and easy to understand. A research found by (Karima, 2016) that the effective use of punctuation marks; more precisely the right use of the comma and the period helps in conveying the exact meaning and preventing ambiguity. Different types of punctuation can be used to

improve writing besides periods, question marks, and exclamation points.

2. Commas, semicolons, and colons. Here are a few punctuation marks that can help writers get their point across clearly and precisely. For example, commas are used to separate things in a list, start clauses, and show pauses in a sentence. These are used to separate ideas that are closely related or to separate things in a list that already have commas between them. A colon is often used to start a list or draw attention to a certain point. By learning the subtle differences of each punctuation mark and how to use them correctly, writers can improve their work and leave an impression on readers that remains.

3. Apostrophes, quotation marks, and parentheses are also important punctuation marks that writers use to show what they mean and how their work is put together. Apostrophes are often used to show that someone owns something or to make a word shorter. Quote marks are used to show straight speech or the title of a piece of writing. In a sentence, parentheses are used to add more information or make a point clearer. Each of these punctuation marks is used to improve the clarity and efficiency of written communication in a certain way. By learning how to use these punctuation marks correctly, writers can get their point across and keep readers interested.

Punctuation consists of two types. They are Graphic and Prosodic punctuation. (Hall, 2003) defines graphic punctuation is the use of punctuation which is dominated by the positioning of the marks in the passage. Whereas prosodic punctuation is the meaning of the assage is in sound and syntax. (Lukeman, 2006) Says Punctuation gives all texts their basic flow, and since it's like the rhythm of language, it affects the reading experience, shows how to read something, and brings out the best or worst in a text. On the other hand, graphic punctuation is split into two groups: autonomous and ideological. When punctuation is autonomous, it means that it follows the rules of its role. When it comes to ideology, it means that it helps make sense of things based on the situation.

According to (Stilman, 1997) there are fourteen kinds of punctuation marks, namely comma, semicolon, period, exclamation point, question mark, dash, ellipsis, parentheses, hyphen, slash, brackets, quotation mark, and apostrophe. Another expert said by (King, 2005) there are twenty one kinds of punctuation, they are: capital letter, italic, bold emphasis, asterisk, semicolon, comma, parenthesis, colon, full stop, double quotation marks, contraction apostrophe, question mark, exclamation mark, underline, dash, hyphens, possessive apostrophe, square brackets, single quotation marks, and three- dot ellipsis.

E. RULES FOR USING PUNCTUATION CORRECTLY

When joining two independent sentences, you should always put commas before conjunctions. This is an important rule for correct punctuation. This makes the sentence easy to read and helps to separate the two ideas. Another trick is to use a colon to start a list or make a point stand out. In writing, you can use a colon to separate titles and subtitles. It is also important to use semicolons to separate ideas that are closely related or to separate things in a list when there are already commas. By following these guidelines and norms for punctuation, you can make your writing much clearer and more effective.

1. Capital Letter. Capitalization refers to the practice of writing a word with its initial letter in uppercase and the subsequent letters in lowercase. Experienced writers are stingy with capitals. It is best not to use them if there is any doubt, (Straus, 2014).

   Rule 1. Capitalize the initial word of a document and the first word following a period.

   Rule 2. Capitalize proper nouns and adjectives that are derived from proper nouns.

   Examples: the Golden Gate Bridge
   the Grand Canyon
   a Russian song
   a Shakespearean sonnet
   a Freudian slip

Several words initially derived from proper nouns have gained autonomy and authority, no longer necessitating capitalization.

Examples: herculean (from the ancient-Greek hero Hercules)

quixotic (from the hero of the classic novel Don Quixote)

draconian (from ancient-Athenian lawgiver Draco)

The main function of capitals is to focus attention on particular elements within any group of people, places, or things. We can speak of a lake in the middle of the country, or we can be more specific and say Lake Michigan, which distinguishes it from every other lake on earth.

Rule 4. Capitalize titles when they precede names, except when a comma follows the title. Do not capitalize the title when it follows a name or substitutes for a name.

Examples: The president will address Congress.

Chairman of the Board William Bly will preside at the conference.

The chairman of the board, William Bly, will preside.

The senators from Iowa and Ohio are expected to attend.

Also expected to attend are Senators Buzz James and Eddie Twain.

The governors, lieutenant governors, and attorneys general called for a

special task force.

Governor Fortinbrass, Lieutenant Governor Poppins, and Attorney General

Dalloway will attend.

2. End Marks.

   a. Periods in a sentence show that the writer doesn't want to keep going back to the starting point to continue to the next part. The rules in using the end marks (periods, questionmarks and exlamation marks respectively can be seen in the folowing, (Straus, 2014).

   Rule 1. Use a period at the end of a complete sentence that is a statement.

   Example: I know him well.

Rule 2. If the last item in the sentence is an abbreviation that ends in a period, do not follow it
with another period.

> Incorrect: This is Alice Smith, M.D..
> Correct: This is Alice Smith, M.D.
> Correct: Please shop, cook, etc. We will do the laundry.

Rule 3. Question marks and exclamation points replace and eliminate periods at the end of a sentence.

b. Question marks. The purpose of the usage question mark relies on the number of questions the writer answers. The rules in using the question mark can be seen in the following:

Rule 1. Use a question mark only after a direct question.

> Correct: Will you go with me?
> Incorrect: I'm asking if you will go with me?

Rule 2a. A question mark replaces a period at the end of a sentence.

> Incorrect: Will you go with me?.

Rule 2b. Because of Rule 2a, capitalize the word that follows a question mark.
Some writers choose to overlook this rule in special cases.

> Example: Will you go with me? with Joe? with anyone?

Rule 3a. Avoid the common trap of using question marks with indirect questions, which are statements that contain questions. Use a period after an indirect question.

> Incorrect: I wonder if he would go with me?
> Correct: I wonder if he would go with me.
> OR
> I wonder: Would he go with me?

Rule 3b. Some sentences are statements—or demands—in the form of a question. They are called rhetorical questions because they don't require or expect an answer. Many should be written without question marks.

> Examples: Why don't you take a break.
> Would you kids knock it off.
> What wouldn't I do for you!

Rule 4. Use a question mark when a sentence is half statement and half question.

> Example: You do care, don't you?

Rule 5. The placement of question marks with quotation marks follows logic. If a question is within the quoted material, a question mark should be placed inside the quotation marks.

> Examples: She asked, "Will you still be my friend?"
> The question is part of the quotation.
> Do you agree with the saying, "All's fair in love and war"?
> The question is outside the quotation.

c. Exclamation marks. The exclamation marks are light-hearted, express enthusiasm, and even show curiosity.

Rule 1. Use an exclamation point to show emotion, emphasis, or surprise.

> Examples: I'm truly shocked by your behavior!
> Yay! We w o n!

Rule 2. An exclamation point replaces a period at the end of a sentence.

> Incorrect: I'm truly shocked by your behavior!.

Rule 3. Do not use an exclamation point in formal business writing.

Rule 4. Overuse of exclamation points is a sign of undisciplined writing. Do not use even one

of these marks unless you're convinced it is justified.

3. Pausing Marks.

a. Comma (,). Punctuation marks most often used are commas and periods. Usually show a quick stop; they are not as definitive as period. Commas are a significant category of punctuation. Commas indicate to the reader where to pause. Commas additionally separate phrases, concepts, and elements in a list. In each part of pausing marks (comma, semicolons and colon) is explained with the rules in using them. The rules according to (Straus, 2014).

Rule 1. Use commas to separate words and word groups in a simple series of three or more   items.

Example: My estate goes to my husband, son, daughter-in-law, and nephew.

Rule 2. Use a comma to separate two adjectives when the adjectives are interchangeable.

Example: He is a strong, healthy man.

We could also say healthy, strong man.

Example: We stayed at an expensive summer resort.

We wou l d no t s ay summer expensive resort, so no comma.

Rule 3a. Many inexperienced writers run two independent clauses together by using a comma

instead of a period. This results in the dreaded run-on sentence or, more technically, a comma splice.

Incorrect: He walked all the way home, he shut the door.

There are several simple remedies:

Correct: He walked all the way home. He shut the door.

Correct: After he walked all the way home, he shut the door.

Correct: He walked all the way home, and he shut the door.

Rule 3b. In sentences where two independent clauses are joined by connectors such as and, or, but, etc., put a comma at the end of the first clause.

Incorrect: He walked all the way home and he shut the door.

Correct: He walked all the way home, and he shut the door.

Rule 4a. Use a comma after certain words that introduce a sentence, such as well, yes, why, hello, hey,etc.

Examples: Why, I can't believe this!

No, you can't have a dollar.

Rule 4b. Use commas to set off expressions that interrupt the sentence flow (nevertheless, after all, by the way, on the other hand, however, etc.).

Example: I am, by the way, very nervous about this.

Rule 5. Use commas to set off the name, nickname, term of endearment, or title of a person

directly addressed.

Examples: Will you, Aisha, do that assignment for me?

Yes, old friend, I will.

Good day, Captain.

Rule 6. Use a comma to separate the day of the month from the year, and—what most people

forget!—always put one after the year, also.

> Example: It was in the Sun's June 5, 2003, edition.
>
> No comma is necessary for just the month and year.
>
> Example: It was in a June 2003 article.

Rule 7. Use a comma to separate a city from its state, and remember to put one after the

state, also.

> Example: I'm from the Akron, Ohio, area.

Rule 8. Traditionally, if a person's name is followed by Sr.orJr., a comma follows the last name: Martin Luther King, Jr. This comma is no longer considered mandatory. However, if a comma does precede Sr.orJr., another comma must follow the entire name when it appears midsentence.

b. Semicolons (;). A period on top of a comma is called a semicolon. Like commas, semicolons mark an audible pause. They are a little longer than a comma's but not as long as a period's full stop.

Rule 1. A semicolon can replace a period if the writer wishes to narrow the gap between two closely linked sentences.

> Examples: Call me tomorrow; you can give me an answer then.
>
> We have paid our dues; we expect all the privileges listed in the contract.

Rule 2. Use a semicolon before such words and terms as namely, however, therefore, that is, i.e., for example, e.g., for instance, etc., when they introduce a complete sentence. It is also preferable to use a comma after these words and terms.

> Example: Bring any two items; however, sleeping bags and tents are in short supply.

Rule 3. Use a semicolon to separate units of a series when one or more of the units contain commas.

> Incorrect: The conference has people who have come from Moscow, Idaho,

Springfield, California, Alamo, Tennessee, and other places as well.

Note that with only commas, that sentence is hopeless.

Correct: The conference has people who have come from Moscow, Idaho;

Springfield, California; Alamo, Tennessee; and other places as well.

Rule 4. A semicolon may be used between independent clauses joined by a connector, such as

and, but, or, nor, etc., when one or more commas appear in the first clause.

Example: When I finish here, and I will soon, I'll be glad to help you; and that is a promise I will keep.

c. Colon. A colon means "that is to say" or "here's what I mean." Colons and semicolons should never be used interchangeably.

Rule 1. Use a colon to introduce a series of items. Do not capitalize the first item after the colon (unless it's a proper noun).

Examples: You may be required to bring many things: sleeping bags, pans, utensils, and warm clothing.

I want the following items: butter, sugar, and flour.

I need an assistant who can do the following: input data, write reports, and complete tax forms.

Rule 2. Avoid using a colon before a list when it directly follows a verb or preposition.

Incorrect: I want: butter, sugar, and flour.

Correct: I want the following: butter, sugar, and flour.

OR

I want butter, sugar, and flour.

Incorrect: I've seen the greats, including: Barrymore, Guinness, and Streep.

Correct: I've seen the greats, including Barrymore, Guinness, and Streep.

Rule 3. When listing items one by one, one per line, following a colon, capitalization and ending punctuation are optional when using single words or phrases preceded by letters, numbers, or bullet points. If each point is a complete sentence, capitalize the first word and end the sentence with appropriate ending punctuation. Otherwise, there are no hard and fast rules, except be consistent.

Examples: I want an assistant who can do the following:
(a) input data
(b) write reports
(c) complete tax forms

The following are requested:
• Wool sweaters for possible cold weather.
• Wet suits for snorkeling.
• Introductions to the local dignitaries.

These are the pool rules:
1. Do not run.
2. If you see unsafe behavior, report it to the lifeguard.
3. Did you remember your towel?
4. Have fun!

Rule 4. A colon instead of a semicolon may be used between independent clauses when the second sentence explains, illustrates, paraphrases, or expands on the first sentence.

Example: He got what he worked for: he really earned that promotion.

If a complete sentence follows a colon, as in the previous example, it is up to the writer to decide whether to capitalize the first word. Although generally advisable, capitalizing a sentence after a colon is often a judgment call.

Note: A capital letter generally does not introduce a simple phrase following a colon.

Example: He got what he worked for: a promotion.

Rule 5. A colon may be used to introduce a long quotation. Some style manuals say to indent one-half inch on both the left and right margins; others say to indent only on the left margin. Quotation marks are not used.

Example: The author of Touched, Jane Straus, wrote in the first chapter:

Georgia went back to her bed and stared at the intricate patterns of

burned moth wings in the translucent glass of the overhead light.

Her father was in "hyper mode" again where nothing could calm him down.

4. Quotation and Parenthetical Marks.
   a. Quotation Marks (" "). There are different meanings for question marks based on how many are used. The followings are the rules stated by (Straus, 2014).

      Rule 1. Use double quotation marks to set off a direct (word-for-word) quotation.

      Correct: "When will you be here?" he asked.

      Incorrect: He asked "when I would be there."

      Rule 2. Either quotation marks or italics are customary for titles: magazines, books, plays, films, songs, poems, article titles, chapter titles, etc.

      Rule 3a. Periods and commas ALWAYS go inside quotation marks.

      Examples: The sign said, "Wa l k ." Then it said, "Don't Walk," then, "Wa l k ," all within thirty seconds.

      He yelled, "Hurry up."

      Rule 3b. Use single quotation marks for quotations within quotations.

      Example: He said, "Dan cried, 'Do not treat me that way.' "

      Note that the period goes inside both the single and double quotation marks.

Rule 4. As a courtesy, make sure there is visible space at the start or end of a quotation between adjacent single and double quotation marks. (Your word processing program may do this automatically.)

    Not ample space: He said, "Dan cried, 'Do not treat me that way.'"

    Ample space: He said, "Dan cried, 'Do not treat me that way.' "

Rule 5a. Quotation marks are often used with technical terms, terms used in an unusual way, or other expressions that vary from standard usage.

    Examples: It's an oil-extraction method known as "fracking."

    He did some "experimenting" in his college days.

    I had a visit from my "friend" the tax man.

Rule 5b. Never use single quotation marks in sentences like the previous three.

    Incorrect: I had a visit from my 'friend' the tax man.

b. Parentheses ( ) and Brackets [ ]. Parentheses and brackets must never be used interchangeably.

Parentheses

Rule 1. Use parentheses to enclose information that clarifies or is used as an aside.

Example: He finally answered (after taking five minutes to think) that he did not understand the question.

If material in parentheses ends a sentence, the period goes after the parentheses.

Example: He gave me a nice bonus ($500).

Commas could have been used in the first example; a colon could have been used in the

second example. The use of parentheses indicates that the writer considered the information

less important—almost an afterthought.

Rule 2. Periods go inside parentheses only if an entire sentence is inside the parentheses.

Example: Please read the analysis. (You'll be amazed.)

This is a rule with a lot of wiggle room. An entire sentence in parentheses is often acceptable
without an enclosed period:

Example: Please read the analysis (you'll be amazed).

Brackets

Brackets are far less common than parentheses, and they are only used in special cases. Brackets (like single quotation marks) are used exclusively within quoted material.

Rule 1. Brackets are interruptions. When we see them, we know they've been added by someone else. They are used to explain or comment on the quotation.

Examples:"Four score and seven [today we'd say eighty-seven] years ago…"

"Bill shook hands with [his son] Al."

Rule 2. When quoting something that has a spelling or grammar mistake or presents material in a confusing way, insert the term sic in italics and enclose it in nonitalic (unless the surrounding text is italic) brackets. Sic ("thus" in Latin) is shorthand for, "This is exactly what the original material says."

Example: She wrote, "I would rather die then [sic] be seen wearing the same outfit as my sister." The [sic] indicates that then was mistakenly used instead of than.

Rule 3. In formal writing, brackets are often used to maintain the integrity of both a quotation and the sentences others use it in.

Example:"[T]he better angels of our nature" gave a powerful ending to Lincoln's first inaugural address. Lincoln's memorable phrase came midsentence, so the word the was not originally capitalized.

c. Ellipsis (...).An ellipsis (plural: ellipses) is a punctuation mark consisting of three dots. Use an ellipsis when omitting a word, phrase, line, paragraph, or more from a quoted passage. Ellipses save space or remove material that is less relevant. They are useful in getting right to the point without delay or distraction:

Rule 1. Many writers use an ellipsis whether the omission occurs at the beginning of a sentence,

in the middle of a sentence, or between sentences.

A common way to delete the beginning of a sentence is to follow the opening quotation mark with an ellipsis, plus a bracketed capital letter:

Example:"…[A]fter hours of careful thought, we vetoed the bill."

Rule 2. Ellipses can express hesitation, changes of mood, suspense, or thoughts trailing off. Writers also use ellipses to indicate a pause or wavering in an otherwise straightforward sentence.

Examples: I don't know…I'm not sure.

Pride is one thing, but what happens if she…?

He said, "I…really don't…understand this."

5. Emphasis Marks.
   a. Dash (—).Dashes, like commas, semicolons, colons, ellipses, and parentheses, indicate added emphasis, an interruption, or an abrupt change of thought. Experienced writers know that these marks are not interchangeable. Note how dashes subtly change the tone of the following sentences:

      Examples: You are the friend, the only friend, who offered to help me.

      You are the friend—the only friend—who offered to help me.

      I pay the bills; she has all the fun.

      I pay the bills—she has all the fun.

      I wish you would…oh, never mind.

      I wish you would—oh, never mind.

Rule 1. Words and phrases between dashes are not generally part of the subject.
Example: Joe—and his trusty mutt—was always welcome.

Rule 2. Dashes replace otherwise mandatory punctuation, such as the commas after Iowa and 2013 in the following examples:
Without dash: The man from Ames, Iowa, arrived.
With dash: The man—he was from Ames, Iowa—arrived.
Without dash: The May 1, 2013, edition of the Ames Sentinel arrived in June.
With dash: The Ames Sentinel—dated May 1, 2013—arrived in June.

Rule 3. Some writers and publishers prefer spaces around dashes.
Example: Joe — and his trusty mutt — was always welcome.

b. Hyphen (-). There are two commandments about this misunderstood punctuation mark. First, hyphens must never be used interchangeably with dashes (see the "Dashes" section), which are notice-ably longer. Second, there should never be spaces around hyphens. Hyphens' main purpose is to glue words together. They notify the reader that two or more elements in a sentence are linked. Although there are rules and customs governing hyphens, there are also situations when writers must decide whether to add them for clarity.

Hyphens Between Words
Rule 1. Generally, hyphenate two or more words when they come before a noun they modify and act as a single idea. This is called a compound adjective.
Examples: an off-campus apartment
state-of-the-art design
When a compound adjective follows a noun, a hyphen may or may not be necessary.
Example: The apartment is off campus.

However, some established compound adjectives are always hyphenated. Double-check
with a dictionary or online.
Example: The design is state-of-the-art.

Rule 2a. A hyphen is frequently required when forming original compound verbs for vivid writing, humor, or special situations.
Examples: The slacker video-gamed his way through life.
Queen Victoria throne-sat for six decades.
Rule 2b. When writing out new, original, or unusual compound nouns, writers should hyphenate whenever doing so avoids confusion.
Examples: I changed my diet and became a no-meater.
No-meater is too confusing without the hyphen.
The slacker was a video gamer.
Video gamer is clear without a hyphen, although some writers might
prefer to hyphenate it.
Writers using familiar compound verbs and nouns should consult a dictionary or look
online to decide if these verbs and nouns should be hyphenated.

Rule 3. An often overlooked rule for hyphens: The adverb very and adverbs ending in -ly are
not hyphenated.
Incorrect: the very-elegant watch
Incorrect: the finely-tuned watch

This rule applies only to adverbs. The following two sentences are correct because the -ly
words are adjectives rather than adverbs:
Correct: the friendly-looking dog
Correct: a family-owned café

Hyphens with Prefixes and Suffixes

A prefix (a-, un-, de-, ab-, sub-, post-, anti-, etc.) is a letter or set of letters placed before a root word. The word prefix itself contains the prefix pre-. Prefixes expand or change a word's meaning, sometimes radically: the prefixes a-, un-, and dis-, for example, change words into their opposites (e.g., political, apolitical; friendly, unfriendly; honor, dishonor).

Rule 1. Hyphenate prefixes when they come before proper nouns or proper adjectives.
Examples: trans-American
mid-July

Rule 2. For clarity, many writers hyphenate prefixes ending in a vowel when the root word begins with the same letter.
Examples: ultra-ambitious
semi-invalid
re-elect

Rule 3. Hyphenate all words beginning with the prefixes self-, ex- (i.e., former), and all-.
Examples: self-assured
ex-mayor
all-knowing

c. Apostrophe ('). According to (Woods, 2006) the use of apostrophe means that the reader has to pay attention to the little things. The following general rules govern the use of apostrophes in English:
Rule 1.Usetheapostrophe to show possession. To show possession with a singular noun, add an apostrophe plus the letters.
Examples: a woman's hat
the boss's wife
Mrs. Chang's house

Rule 2. Regular nouns are nouns that form their plurals by adding either the letter s or -es (guy, guys; letter, letters; actress, actresses; etc.). To show plural possession, simply put an apostrophe after the s.
Correct: guys' night out (guy + s + apostrophe)
Incorrect: guy's night out (implies only one guy)
Correct: two actresses' roles (actress + es + apostrophe)
Incorrect: two actress's roles
Rule 3. With a singular compound noun (for example, mother-in-law), show possession with
an apostrophe + s at the end of the word.
Example: my mother-in-law's hat
If the compound noun (e.g., brother-in-law) is to be made plural, form the plural first (brothers-in-law), and then use the apostrophe + s.
Example: my two brothers-in-law's hats

Rule 4. If two people possess the same item, put the apostrophe + s after the second name only.
Example: Cesar and Maribel's home is constructed of redwood.
However, if one of the joint owners is written as a pronoun, use the possessive form for both.
Incorrect: Maribel and my home
Correct: Maribel's and my home
Incorrect: he and Maribel's home
Incorrect: him and Maribel's home
Correct: his and Maribel's home

F. IMPORTANCE OF PROOFREADING FOR PUNCTUATION ERRORS

Finding punctuation mistakes that might have gone unnoticed during the writing process requires proofreading. It enables authors to guarantee that their punctuation is accurate and constant throughout their writing. Punctuation errors can undermine the writing's professionalism and clarity without adequate proofreading, leaving the reader perplexed and misinformed. Writers can improve the overall caliber and impact of their

writing by carefully going over and editing their work for punctuation mistakes.

Proofreading also aids authors in preserving their writing's authority and trustworthiness. It demonstrates that the author has given their work a thorough evaluation and has presented it in the best possible light. Having neat and precise punctuation can have a big impact on how readers view a writer's skill and attention to detail in a world where first impressions are vital. All things considered, checking any written work for punctuation mistakes is an easy yet effective technique that can significantly increase its impact and readability.

Authors can improve the flow and clarity of their sentences by making sure that commas, periods, and other punctuation are utilized correctly. As a result, it becomes simpler for readers to comprehend the writer's point of view and the content being presented. Punctuation is essentially the cherry on top of a well-written work, giving it the last bit of polish and professionalism that makes it stand out from the others. Therefore, it is always worthwhile to take the time to proofread for punctuation issues in any type of writing, be it a blog post, research paper, or job application.

In addition to making the text easier to read overall, punctuation demonstrates the author's concern for organizing and clearly expressing their views. Whether someone is reading for leisure, a teacher, or a prospective employer, it can have a big impact on how they view the writing. Therefore, the next time you write, keep in mind the significance of punctuation and make sure your message is understood clearly. Your efforts won't be overlooked.

Keep in mind that punctuation can significantly impact the final output, just like spice does in a cuisine. You are demonstrating respect for your audience and your own work by taking the time to proofread and fix any mistakes. A well-placed comma or period may take your writing from good to great, so don't undervalue its power. Therefore, make the most of punctuation and embrace it. Your work will appreciate it. The reseacrh by (Simon Mlundi, 2024) showed that proofreading can improve academic wriitng. In editing and proofreading the draft, the author is advised to check the text for grammatical correctness and adherence to the writing conventions, including the appropriate use of discourse vocabulary, formal

style, grammatical clarity such as appropriate sentence structure, word classes, tenses, spellings, and citations, (Cape, 2023).

The effect of punctuation on writing's usefulness and clarity Techniques for checking for punctuation mistakes include employing grammar checkers or reading the text aloud. Eventually, for writing to be clear and effective, one must become proficient in punctuation standards and common errors. Writers can make sure that their words are heard by their audience by adhering to punctuation guidelines and avoiding common errors. In addition to altering a sentence's meaning, punctuation mistakes can cause misunderstandings and impair writing flow. Therefore, it is essential to take the time to proofread for punctuation issues in order to produce written work that is polished and professional. Keep in mind that using appropriate punctuation is essential for clear written communication.

The way a message is understood can be greatly impacted by the proper use of commas, periods, and other punctuation. For instance, a sentence's intended meaning can be totally changed by a poorly placed comma. Furthermore, employing appropriate punctuation not only aids in the straightforward communication of meaning but also demonstrates that the writer has given careful consideration to the message they are trying to portray. All things considered, learning punctuation rules can significantly improve written communication's impact and efficacy. Proper use of punctuation also enhances a piece of writing's overall professionalism and legitimacy. It makes the material easier to read and comprehend by showing consideration for the reader and attention to detail. Additionally, using appropriate punctuation ensures that the message is understood and helps prevent misunderstandings.

Additionally, using appropriate punctuation ensures that the message is accurately transmitted by preventing misunderstandings and confusion. As a result, spending time learning and using punctuation rules can greatly increase written communication's efficacy and clarity. A business email that is punctuated correctly and clearly, for instance, can show recipients that the sender is professional and pays attention to detail. On the other hand, improper punctuation in a report or document may cause misinterpretations and jeopardize the veracity of the data it presents.

Additionally, employing proper punctuation can improve written content's readability by making it simpler for readers to follow and understand the point being conveyed. Writers can organize their sentences by properly using commas, periods, semicolons, and other punctuation symbols.

Keep in mind that punctuation is a tool to help you successfully communicate your ideas, not merely a collection of rules to obey. Therefore, keep in mind the importance of punctuation the next time you write and make use of it to improve your work. The work you put into honing your skill will be appreciated by your readers. For example, adopting appropriate punctuation might help you come out as professional and detail-oriented when writing a formal email to a possible job. The recipient's perception and understanding of your message might be greatly impacted by the placement of your comma or semicolon. It demonstrates that you have given your words considerable thought and that you are meticulous about the specifics. Conversely, ignoring punctuation.

G. SUMMARY

Punctuation is a crucial aspect of language and effective communication. It helps make meaning clear, show pauses, and split different parts of a sentence. It is essential for writers to follow the rules of grammar to make their work more clear and logical.

Punctuation marks like commas, periods, question marks, and exclamation points are important for getting a message throughout in writing. They help put ideas in order, give attention to certain parts, and make the text flow better, making it easier to read. Being able to use punctuation correctly can make written communication much better and help writers get their thoughts across to others more clearly.

Punctuation is defined as traffic signs that help the reader arrive at the writer's meaning. It is a tool that clarifies the meaning, such as stress, intonation, rhythm, and pauses. By paying close attention to punctuation rules, writers can improve the clarity of their writing and avoid mistakes.

Understanding the uses of punctuation marks is just as important as learning language and vocabulary. By using commas correctly, writers can draw attention to important points, make their writing clear, and lead

readers through their work. Each punctuation mark has one or more particular jobs to do, and everyone should be used always and only to do those jobs.

In conclusion, punctuation is an important part of writing that shouldn't be taken lightly because it has a big impact on how clear and effective written communication is as a whole. Understanding the different types of punctuation marks can help writers get their style and message across more clearly. Mastering grammar can also make a piece of writing easier to read and flow better, making it more interesting and powerful for readers.

TASK AND EVALUATION

1. What is the rule for using a capital letter at the beginning of a sentence, and how does it differ when using it for proper nouns within a sentence?
2. Rewrite this sentence with correct capitalization: "john and mary visited paris last summer."
3. How do you decide whether to use a period or a question mark at the end of a sentence?
4. Choose the correct punctuation for this sentence: "did she complete her homework on time_"
5. When should a comma be used in a compund sentence, and when is it appropriate to use a semicolon instead?
6. Add the correct punctuation to the following sentence: "I wanted to go to the park however it started rainning."
7. What are the key differences in the usage of a colon and a dash for introducing lists or explanations?
8. Insert the appropriate punctuation in this sentence: "She bought three items a notebook a pen and a backpack.
9. When are quotation marks used in writing, and how do they interact with parenthetical marks when including additional information?
10. Correctly punctuate this sentence: He said I will finish the project by Monday but it might take longer if issues arise.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR

CHAPTER 10: GERUND AND INFINITIVE

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CHAPTER 10
GERUND AND INFINITIVE

A. INTRODUCTION

Gerunds and infinitives are two of the most fundamental verb forms in English grammar, each serving a unique purpose within sentence structure (Pullum, 2002). While both are non-finite forms of the verb, meaning they are not limited by tense or subject, they are used in different contexts and convey distinct meanings. The gerund, which is formed by adding -ing to the base form of the verb (like "running" or "swimming"), can function as a noun in a sentence. This allows gerunds to serve various syntactic roles such as the subject, object, or complement of a verb. In contrast, the infinitive form of the verb, which is constructed by placing "to" before the base verb (such as "to run" or "to swim"), often expresses purpose, intention, or a future action. Understanding when and how to use gerunds and infinitives is a crucial part of mastering English grammar.

The gerund can be thought of as a verbal noun because, in most cases, it behaves like a noun in a sentence (Jespersen, 1924). For example, in the sentence "Swimming is a great form of exercise," the word "swimming" is a gerund, acting as the subject of the sentence. It's important to note that gerunds can also function as the object of a verb, as in "She enjoys reading." In this case, "reading" is a gerund functioning as the object of the verb "enjoys." Gerunds can also follow prepositions, as seen in the phrase "He is interested in learning French." Here, "learning" follows the preposition "in," and the entire gerund phrase "learning French" acts as the object of the preposition. Therefore, gerunds provide a versatile way to expand the structure of sentences, adding depth and nuance.

One of the most interesting aspects of gerunds is their ability to form compound noun phrases. For example, phrases like "swimming pool," "writing desk," or "singing career" are all based on gerunds. In these cases, the gerund functions as the main noun, which is then modified by other

elements to form a complete noun phrase. Gerunds can also be used in more complex syntactical structures, such as after certain adjectives or nouns. For instance, in the sentence "I am fond of dancing," the gerund "dancing" follows the adjective "fond," showing how gerunds can work with descriptive elements to add meaning.

In contrast, the infinitive is used differently from the gerund, often to express a goal or purpose. Infinitives typically follow verbs that express desires, intentions, or plans, as in "I want to travel" or "He hopes to succeed." Here, the infinitive ("to travel" or "to succeed") gives us information about the intended or desired action. Another common use of the infinitive is to show purpose or reason. For example, in the sentence "She went to the store to buy some milk," the infinitive "to buy" expresses the purpose of the action "went." In this way, the infinitive plays a key role in indicating why something is happening or what the ultimate aim of an action is.

In addition to purpose, infinitives are often used after adjectives or nouns that imply a certain feeling or attitude. For example, in the sentence "It's difficult to understand," the infinitive "to understand" follows the adjective "difficult" to express the complexity of the situation. Similarly, in the sentence "He has a desire to help others," the infinitive "to help" follows the noun "desire" to show the specific action that the subject wants to perform. This pattern highlights how infinitives can be used to elaborate on emotions or states of mind by connecting them to specific actions or outcomes.

Both gerunds and infinitives can appear after certain verbs, but it is crucial to know which form is required because some verbs are followed by one or the other, and using the wrong one can result in awkward or incorrect sentences. For example, the verb "enjoy" is typically followed by a gerund, as in "I enjoy reading books," while the verb "want" is followed by an infinitive, as in "She wants to go to the movies." There are also verbs that can take both forms, but with a change in meaning. For instance, "stop" can be followed by a gerund to mean ceasing an activity, as in "He stopped smoking," or it can be followed by an infinitive to indicate a change in intention or purpose, as in "He stopped to smoke" (meaning he paused what he was doing in order to smoke).

Learning when to use a gerund and when to use an infinitive depends not only on the verb but also on the broader context of the sentence. Some verbs are flexible and can take either form with little change in meaning, such as "like" or "begin." For example, "I like running" and "I like to run" both convey a similar meaning, though the gerund might sound slightly more casual or habitual, while the infinitive might sound a little more formal or future-oriented. However, some verbs change their meaning depending on whether they are followed by a gerund or an infinitive. For example, "remember" followed by a gerund refers to recalling an action that was completed in the past, as in "I remember meeting her," whereas "remember" followed by an infinitive refers to the act of recalling an action that needs to be performed, as in "Remember to call me."

There are also instances where a gerund and an infinitive have distinct meanings depending on how they are used in a sentence. For instance, the verb "regret" can be followed by a gerund to indicate a past action that the speaker wishes they had not done, as in "I regret eating too much." However, when followed by an infinitive, "regret" refers to expressing sorrow about something that is about to happen or is happening in the present, as in "I regret to inform you that the meeting has been canceled." This distinction is important for learners because it helps avoid misunderstandings and makes the speaker's intention clearer.

In addition to the verbs that govern gerunds and infinitives, certain prepositions always require a gerund after them. Common prepositions such as "in," "on," "at," "about," and "for" are typically followed by gerunds. For example, "She is interested in learning new languages" or "He is tired of working overtime." These prepositions are used to introduce an activity or a state of being that the subject is involved in. This is contrasted with verbs that can take both gerunds and infinitives depending on the intended meaning, such as "begin," "start," or "love." Mastery of these distinctions will significantly improve both written and spoken English.

Although gerunds and infinitives can be challenging for learners of English due to their various uses and exceptions, they are essential for fluency and clarity. One of the best ways to become more comfortable

with gerunds and infinitives is to read and listen to native speakers using them in context. Observing how they are used in different situations will help solidify understanding. Practice with exercises and real-life conversations can also help learners internalize the rules and patterns of when to use each form. As with any aspect of language learning, consistency and exposure are key to becoming proficient in the use of gerunds and infinitives.

In formal writing, it's crucial to use gerunds and infinitives correctly to maintain clarity and precision. In academic or professional writing, incorrect usage can make the writer seem unsure or less competent. Therefore, paying attention to the grammatical rules that govern gerund and infinitive use can elevate the quality of writing and improve communication. In informal speech or casual writing, the rules may be more flexible, but consistent usage of gerunds and infinitives will still contribute to effective communication. Understanding when each form is appropriate allows speakers to express themselves more naturally and fluidly.

Both gerunds and infinitives are versatile tools that contribute to the richness and flexibility of English. Whether you are describing activities, expressing emotions, stating intentions, or making decisions, gerunds and infinitives help convey your message with clarity and precision. Mastering these forms requires attention to detail and practice, but the effort pays off in clearer and more effective communication. By becoming familiar with the rules, patterns, and exceptions for using gerunds and infinitives, you can confidently write and speak English with greater fluency. The difference between **gerunds** and **infinitives** lies primarily in their form, function, and the contexts in which they are used. Though both gerunds and infinitives are non-finite verb forms (meaning they are not limited by tense or subject), they serve different grammatical and semantic purposes in English.

1. **Form**
   - Gerund: A gerund is the **-ing** form of a verb (e.g., *swimming*, *running*, *reading*).
   - Infinitive: An infinitive is the base form of the verb preceded by the word "to" (e.g., *to swim*, *to run*, *to read*).

2. **Function and Role in a Sentence**
   - Gerund: A gerund functions as a **noun**. It can serve as the subject, the object, or the complement of a sentence. For example:
     - **Subject**: *Swimming* is good exercise.
     - **Object**: She enjoys *reading* books.
     - **Object of preposition**: He is interested in *learning* French.
       In these examples, the gerund (e.g., *swimming*, *reading*, *learning*) acts like a noun, naming an activity or concept.

   - Infinitive: An infinitive functions primarily as a **noun**, but it can also function as an adjective or adverb in some contexts. For example:
     - **Noun**: I want *to swim* in the ocean.
     - **Adjective**: He has a *lot of work to do*.
     - **Adverb**: She studied hard *to pass* the exam.
       In these examples, the infinitive (e.g., *to swim*, *to do*, *to pass*) expresses a purpose, intention, or goal.

3. **Use with Specific Verbs**
   Certain verbs are followed by either a gerund or an infinitive, depending on their meaning. This is one of the most common sources of confusion for English learners.
   - Verbs followed by a gerund: Some verbs are typically followed by a gerund. For example:
     - *enjoy* → I enjoy *reading*.
     - *avoid* → He avoids *walking* in the rain.
     - *consider* → She considered *going* to the party.
     - *finish* → We finished *eating* dinner.

   - Verbs followed by an infinitive: Some verbs are typically followed by an infinitive. For example:
     - *want* → I want *to leave*.
     - *need* → They need *to study*.
     - *decide* → She decided *to take* the job.
     - *hope* → He hopes *to win* the race.

- Verbs that can be followed by either form (with a change in meaning): Some verbs can be followed by either a gerund or an infinitive, but the meaning may change depending on which form is used:
  o *remember*:
    - Gerund: I *remember* meeting him (I have a memory of the past action).
    - Infinitive: *Remember* to call me (Make sure you do the action in the future).

  o *stop*:
    - Gerund: He *stopped smoking* (He quit the activity).
    - Infinitive: He *stopped to smoke* (He paused what he was doing in order to smoke).
    -
4. Expressing Purpose
- **I**nfinitive is often used to express purpose or intention. For example:
  o I went to the store *to buy* some milk.
  o She studies hard *to pass* her exams.
  The infinitive in these cases indicates the reason or goal of the action (e.g., the purpose of going to the store is to buy milk).
- **Gerund**, on the other hand, does not typically express purpose. It is used to talk about activities or concepts in a more general or descriptive way.

5. After Certain Prepositions
- Gerund: After prepositions, a gerund is used. For example:
  o She is good at *singing*.
  o They are interested in *learning* English.
  o He apologized for *being* late.

- Infinitive: Infinitives are **not** used directly after prepositions. However, in certain constructions, infinitives can follow adjectives or nouns preceded by a preposition:

- o He is ready *to go.*
- o She has the opportunity *to travel* abroad.

6. **Common Pairs of Verbs with Both Gerund and Infinitive Forms**
   Some verbs can be followed by both a gerund and an infinitive, with a slight change in meaning:
   - **Like**:
     - o Gerund: I like *swimming* in the pool. (enjoyment of the activity)
     - o Infinitive: I like *to swim* in the pool. (preference or habit)

   - **Begin**:
     - o Gerund: She began *studying* early. (start an activity)
     - o Infinitive: She began *to study* early. (could imply a planned or deliberate start)

7. **Emphasis on Action vs. State**
   - Gerund: Gerunds tend to emphasize the action or activity itself. For instance, "I enjoy *dancing*" focuses on the activity of dancing.
   - Infinitive: Infinitives can emphasize the goal, result, or intended outcome. For example, "I want *to dance*" emphasizes the intention to engage in the activity.

8. **Time Reference**
   - Gerund: Gerunds generally express actions that are ongoing or habitual.
     - o She enjoys *reading* every night.

   - Infinitive: Infinitives often express actions that are intended or planned for the future.
     - o I plan *to read* later this evening.

It can be concluded that gerunds are used when the verb form acts like a noun and often describe activities or general actions and infinitives are used to express intention, purpose, or a planned action and can also serve as nouns, adjectives, or adverbs. While both can sometimes be used

interchangeably, the choice between a gerund and an infinitive depends on the verb, the structure of the sentence, and the meaning the speaker intends to convey.

B. DEFINITION OF GERUND AND INFINITIVE
1. Gerund

A gerund is the -ing form of a verb that functions as a noun in a sentence (Jespersen, 1924). Unlike other verb forms, which are typically used to convey actions or states of being, a gerund can be used to represent a concept, activity, or process as a noun. For example, in the sentence *"Swimming is my favorite sport,"* the word *swimming* is a gerund because it functions as the subject of the sentence. Although gerunds are formed from verbs, they don't act as verbs themselves; rather, they take on the role of a noun, naming an activity or a concept. This ability to transform a verb into a noun makes gerunds incredibly versatile in the construction of both simple and complex sentences.

One of the most important characteristics of a gerund is that it can be used as the subject of a sentence. This is a crucial distinction between gerunds and infinitives. For instance, in *"Reading helps you learn,"* the gerund *reading* acts as the subject of the sentence. The gerund, in this case, refers to the activity of reading, not the act of performing the action. Using gerunds in the subject position allows speakers and writers to discuss abstract activities or processes as concepts in their own right. This characteristic is especially useful in both formal and informal contexts when a speaker wants to focus on the activity itself rather than the performer of the action.

In addition, gerunds can also function as objects of verbs. In this role, they often follow verbs that describe actions or mental processes. For example, in the sentence *"I enjoy reading,"* the gerund *reading* is the object of the verb *enjoy*. Gerunds as objects allow speakers to specify what action or activity they enjoy, dislike, or are involved in. Many common verbs, such as *enjoy*, *suggest*, *finish*, *avoid*, and *consider*, are often followed by gerunds to form a complete idea. For example, one could say, "I avoid eating late at night," where *eating* is the gerund acting

as the object of *avoid*. This usage allows for greater specificity in expressing what someone is doing or not doing.

In addition to being used as subjects and objects, gerunds can also follow prepositions. It is a general rule in English that prepositions are always followed by a noun (or noun phrase), and gerunds are a common type of noun that follows prepositions. For instance, in the sentence *"She is interested in learning new languages,"* the gerund *learning* follows the preposition *in* and functions as the object of the preposition. The use of gerunds after prepositions is a key feature that differentiates them from infinitives, which are not typically used directly after prepositions. This rule helps create fluid and grammatically correct expressions, particularly in more complex sentences.

Gerunds are also useful when they are used after certain adjectives and noun phrases. This is particularly true for expressions that describe preferences, feelings, or experiences. For example, in the sentence *"I am tired of waiting,"* the gerund *waiting* follows the adjective *tired of*, showing how gerunds work with adjectives to convey a particular sentiment or state. Similarly, in the sentence *"He is capable of succeeding,"* the gerund *succeeding* follows the phrase *capable of* to express the ability or potential for success. The combination of adjectives or noun phrases with gerunds is a powerful way to express states of being, emotions, and experiences in English.

One of the theories that explain the use of gerunds in English is Traditional Grammar, which describes gerunds as verb forms that take on the function of nouns. According to traditional grammatical theory, gerunds are created by adding the suffix **-ing** to a verb, thereby allowing that verb to function as a noun. The transformation of a verb into a noun is the central concept in this theory. In traditional grammar, gerunds are classified as one of the non-finite verb forms, meaning that they do not depend on the subject or tense of the sentence. This allows them to be used in a wide variety of sentence structures, including as subjects, objects, and complements.

From a Cognitive Linguistic perspective, the use of gerunds can be linked to the concept of "nominalization," which is the process of turning actions or events into abstract concepts or things. Cognitive linguistics

posits that gerunds serve as cognitive tools that allow us to conceptualize and categorize activities as discrete objects or phenomena. When we say, *"I love swimming,"* the gerund *swimming* represents not just the action of swimming, but the activity itself as an entity that we can experience, think about, and discuss.

This cognitive shift from action to concept allows for a more abstract way of thinking about activities, transforming verbs into mental objects that we can talk about in an objective way. Another relevant theory is Functional Grammar, which views language as a tool for expressing meaning based on the functions words perform in a sentence. In functional grammar, the gerund is seen as fulfilling the role of a noun while still retaining its original verbal meaning. For example, *"I'm interested in learning"* uses the gerund *learning* as the object of the preposition *in*. Functional grammar focuses on how gerunds serve to convey specific functions, such as indicating an activity, process, or event. The theory emphasizes the flexibility of gerunds in expressing a variety of meanings within different grammatical contexts, making them an essential part of a functional, meaning-driven system.

Transformational-Generative Grammar, a theory introduced by Noam Chomsky, also offers insights into the function of gerunds. In this theory, gerunds are treated as transformations of verbs that can occur in different syntactic structures, depending on how a sentence is formed. According to this view, gerunds are derived from verbs through a process of "nominalization," where the verb shifts from an action to a noun-like entity. This transformation allows gerunds to fit into different parts of a sentence, such as subjects or objects, and enables more complex sentence constructions. Transformational grammar highlights the idea that the use of gerunds is not random but follows specific transformational rules that structure the sentence and contribute to its meaning.

Gerunds also play a significant role in **Pragmatics**, which is the study of language in context and how people use language to achieve communicative goals. In pragmatic terms, gerunds are often used because they can express actions or concepts that are highly relevant to the context. For example, *"I enjoyed meeting her"* communicates not only the action of meeting but also the speaker's positive experience. Gerunds

allow speakers to discuss actions in a way that prioritizes the activity itself over the person performing it. This use of gerunds in real-life discourse helps to emphasize the ongoing nature of actions and the personal experience of those actions, making them particularly useful in informal and conversational contexts.

From a Discourse Analysis perspective, gerunds are often analyzed as part of larger stretches of communication. Gerunds are used to maintain cohesion and flow in spoken and written language. By using gerunds to represent activities and actions, speakers and writers can connect ideas smoothly, ensuring that the discussion remains centered on particular activities. For example, in a conversation about hobbies, one might say, *"I love painting and enjoy traveling,"* where both gerunds (*painting* and *traveling*) create a coherent link between the speaker's interests. This cohesive use of gerunds helps in organizing discourse, ensuring that activities are consistently highlighted and discussed throughout a conversation or text.

Finally, Psycholinguistics, the study of how language is processed in the brain, provides another lens through which to understand gerunds. Psycholinguists are interested in how people understand, produce, and acquire gerunds. They have found that when people hear or read gerunds, their brains process them differently from regular verbs. This is because gerunds are recognized as nominalized forms of verbs, prompting the brain to categorize them as activities or objects rather than actions. This cognitive process shows how gerunds serve a dual function: they retain their verbal roots but behave like nouns in the mental processing of language, allowing for efficient communication of abstract concepts and activities.

In conclusion, gerunds are a vital part of English grammar, and their study is informed by various linguistic theories. Whether through the lens of traditional grammar, cognitive linguistics, functional grammar, or other approaches, gerunds offer a unique way to conceptualize actions and processes as nouns. Their ability to transform actions into abstract concepts allows speakers to express a wide range of ideas, experiences, and intentions in both written and spoken language. Understanding the

function of gerunds in different grammatical and communicative contexts enhances one's grasp of English syntax and usage.

2. Infinitive

An **infinitive** is the **base form of a verb** preceded by the word "to" (e.g., *to run*, *to eat*, *to read*). In English, infinitives are non-finite verb forms, meaning they do not change according to tense, number, or person. The infinitive does not refer to a specific subject performing an action or a particular time when the action occurs. Instead, it generally represents a more abstract, neutral form of the verb, often conveying a sense of purpose, intention, or potential. For example, in the sentence *"I want to swim,"* the verb *to swim* is an infinitive that expresses an intention or desire to engage in the activity of swimming. Infinitives play a significant role in English grammar and can function as nouns, adjectives, or adverbs, depending on the sentence structure.

One of the most prominent uses of the infinitive is as a **noun**. When an infinitive functions as a noun, it can serve as the subject, the object of a verb, or the complement of a subject or object. For instance, in the sentence *"To travel is my dream,"* the infinitive *to travel* is the subject of the sentence. Similarly, in *"She decided to leave,"* the infinitive *to leave* acts as the object of the verb *decided*. In both cases, the infinitive is being used to express an action or goal as a concept rather than focusing on who is performing the action or when it will occur. This use of infinitives to represent actions as abstract ideas is one of the core reasons they are so versatile in sentence construction.

Infinitives can also be used to express purpose or intention. This function is perhaps one of the most common and important uses of the infinitive form. The infinitive is used to explain why an action is performed or what its goal is. For example, in the sentence *"I went to the store to buy some groceries,"* the infinitive *to buy* expresses the purpose of going to the store. Infinitives as purpose clauses provide additional information about the intent or goal behind the action. This usage can be seen in both simple and complex sentences, helping to convey the motivation or reasoning behind actions. For example, *"She practiced every day to improve her skills"* shows that the purpose of practicing was to improve.

In addition to functioning as a noun or expressing purpose, infinitives can also serve as **adjectives**. When an infinitive is used as an adjective, it modifies a noun, typically providing more information about the noun's potential action or state. For example, in the phrase *"a book to read,"* the infinitive *to read* modifies the noun *book* and explains what the book is for (the purpose of reading). Similarly, in *"an opportunity to learn,"* the infinitive *to learn* describes the opportunity and gives more detail about what the opportunity offers. This adjectival use of the infinitive allows speakers to specify purposes or possibilities associated with particular nouns, enhancing the descriptive capacity of language.

The infinitive can also function as an **adverb**, modifying a verb, adjective, or another adverb by explaining the purpose or reason for the action. For instance, in the sentence *"He spoke loudly to be heard,"* the infinitive *to be heard* modifies the verb *spoke* and expresses the purpose behind speaking loudly. Similarly, in *"She ran quickly to catch the bus,"* the infinitive *to catch* explains the purpose of running quickly. When infinitives serve as adverbs, they clarify the reasoning or motivation for the action described by the verb, helping to establish cause-and-effect relationships within a sentence.

In English, some verbs are followed by an infinitive in order to complete their meaning. This is a central feature of infinitives in sentence construction. Certain verbs, such as *want*, *decide*, *need*, *hope*, *plan*, and *promise*, are often followed by infinitives to specify actions or intentions. For example, in *"I want to go to the beach,"* the infinitive *to go* completes the meaning of the verb *want*, specifying what the speaker desires to do. Similarly, in *"She promised to help,"* the infinitive *to help* follows *promised* to indicate the action that was promised. The presence of the infinitive allows the speaker to articulate a clear goal, desire, or commitment, giving structure and clarity to the expression of intentions.

Infinitives are also employed in certain fixed expressions and phrases that often include modal verbs. For example, expressions like *have to*, *need to*, *ought to*, *be able to*, and *want to* commonly take an infinitive after them. In sentences like *"I have to leave now"* or *"She wants to visit her family,"* the infinitive follows the modal verb phrase to express necessity, desire, or obligation. These infinitive constructions help convey

a wide range of meanings related to necessity, permission, or personal desires, and they are an essential part of everyday speech and writing.

A significant theoretical approach to understanding the use of infinitives comes from Generative Grammar, particularly in the work of Noam Chomsky. In generative grammar, infinitives are seen as a core part of sentence structures, where they can function as a type of verb that appears in specific syntactic positions. According to Chomsky's theory, infinitives are derived from the base form of verbs, and their presence in a sentence follows particular transformational rules that govern sentence structure. Infinitives, in this sense, are seen as part of the deep structure of sentences and are generated according to the syntactic rules that determine their function as nouns, adjectives, or adverbs.

Another relevant theory is Lexical-Functional Grammar (LFG), which places a strong emphasis on the relationship between syntax and meaning. In LFG, infinitives are treated as verb forms that can take different syntactic roles depending on their functional relationship with other sentence elements. Infinitives in LFG are particularly important because they help structure the functional components of a sentence. For example, an infinitive phrase like *to eat dinner* may serve as the object of a verb like *want* or *decide*, and this structure reflects how the infinitive interacts with the surrounding elements to contribute to the overall meaning of the sentence. In this framework, infinitives help convey complex meanings, like intention or purpose, by linking the action to the subject's goal.

Cognitive Linguistics provides another useful perspective on infinitives, particularly in terms of conceptualizing action and intention. From a cognitive standpoint, infinitives are often viewed as representing a potential or imagined action rather than a real, performed action. For example, in the sentence *"He wants to learn French,"* the infinitive *to learn* expresses a desire or intention that is yet to be actualized. Cognitive linguistics emphasizes the role of conceptualization in the use of infinitives, with the infinitive form representing a mental schema or intention that exists in the speaker's mind before the action is carried out. This theoretical perspective highlights the relationship between language and thought, showing how infinitives are used to conceptualize future or potential actions.

Finally, Pragmatics examines how infinitives are used in context, particularly in relation to speech acts and communication goals. In pragmatic theory, infinitives are seen as an essential tool for conveying intentions and requests. For example, in a sentence like *"Could you please help me to understand this?"* the infinitive *to understand* is part of a polite request. Pragmatics studies how infinitives are employed not just for grammatical correctness, but also for social and communicative purposes, such as making requests, giving advice, or expressing politeness. The use of infinitives in these contexts is influenced by cultural norms, politeness strategies, and the speaker's relationship with the listener.

In conclusion, infinitives are a versatile and essential part of English grammar, allowing speakers to express abstract actions, intentions, goals, and potentialities. From their use as nouns, adjectives, and adverbs to their role in expressing purpose and intention, infinitives help structure sentences and clarify meaning. Theoretical approaches such as Generative Grammar, Lexical-Functional Grammar, Cognitive Linguistics, and Pragmatics offer valuable insights into the function of infinitives, highlighting their syntactic, semantic, and communicative roles. Understanding infinitives and their various uses is crucial for mastering sentence construction and achieving clarity in both written and spoken English.

Infinitives, in contrast, are often used to express purpose or intention. For instance, in the sentence *"She studied hard to pass the exam,"* the infinitive "to pass" shows the goal or reason for studying. Infinitives can also follow certain verbs such as "want," "need," and "plan." An example would be *"I want to go to the beach,"* where "to go" follows the verb "want." Additionally, infinitives can indicate future or hypothetical actions, as seen in *"I hope to visit Europe next year."* This emphasizes the role of the infinitive in expressing goals, desires, and actions yet to be completed.

Some verbs can be followed by either a gerund or an infinitive, but the meaning may differ based on which form is used. For example, *"I stopped smoking"* means the person quit the habit of smoking, while *"I stopped to smoke"* means the person paused what they were doing in order to smoke. Certain verbs, like "remember," "forget," and "try," also follow either a

gerund or an infinitive, and the choice between the two can alter the meaning.

Recognizing which verbs take either form is key to understanding how gerunds and infinitives function in different contexts. Gerunds are particularly common after prepositions, and this is one area where they differ from infinitives. For example, in the sentence *"She is good at dancing,"* the preposition "at" is followed by the gerund "dancing." Other prepositions, such as "in," "on," "for," "by," and "about," are frequently followed by gerunds. This rule is consistent: when a preposition is used, it must be followed by a gerund, not an infinitive. This helps to clarify the relationship between verbs and their objects or other sentence elements.

Infinitives are often used to explain the purpose or reason behind an action, which is a unique function. In the sentence *"I went to the store to buy groceries,"* the infinitive "to buy" explains why the person went to the store. Similarly, infinitives can follow adjectives to explain a situation or condition. For example, *"It's easy to learn"* uses the infinitive "to learn" to express that the activity of learning is simple. This function makes infinitives essential for articulating intention, purpose, or goals. Infinitives are also commonly used with modal verbs such as "can," "must," "should," and "might." For example, *"I can swim"* uses the infinitive "swim" to express ability. Similarly, *"You must study"* employs the infinitive "study" to indicate necessity. Modal verbs always take the base form of the verb (infinitive) without the "to" unless the verb "need" is used. This structure is fundamental in English, helping to express permission, ability, obligation, and other modal meanings.

Certain verbs are always followed by gerunds, such as "enjoy," "consider," and "mind." For instance, *"I enjoy reading books"* uses "enjoy" followed by the gerund "reading." Recognizing these verb patterns is crucial for using gerunds and infinitives correctly. Gerunds function as nouns, and when used after specific verbs, they help express a continuous or habitual action. This is in contrast to infinitives, which often convey an action that is more goal-oriented or future-focused.

Gerunds can serve as both subjects and objects in sentences. When they act as the subject, they typically refer to an activity in a general sense, as in *"Reading is fun."* When gerunds serve as objects, they follow verbs

like "enjoy," as in *"She enjoys reading."* This dual function gives gerunds flexibility and allows them to be used in many different syntactical positions within a sentence.

Lastly, there are special cases and exceptions with certain verbs that require either a gerund or an infinitive. For instance, the verb "like" can be followed by both forms, but the meaning can subtly change. *"I like reading"* refers to enjoying the activity, while *"I like to read"* may suggest a preference or habit. Similarly, verbs like "hate" can change meaning based on whether they are followed by a gerund or an infinitive. These exceptions require careful attention, as they influence the overall meaning of the sentence.

C. SUMMARY

The gerund and infinitive are two forms of verbals in English, which are verbs that function as other parts of speech. A gerund is formed by adding "-ing" to the base form of a verb (e.g., "running," "swimming," "reading"), and it functions as a noun in a sentence. An infinitive, on the other hand, is the base form of a verb preceded by "to" (e.g., "to run," "to swim," "to read"). Both gerunds and infinitives are used to express actions or states, but their usage depends on the verb they follow, the sentence structure, and the intended meaning. In general, the gerund often refers to an action as a general concept or activity, while the infinitive typically expresses purpose, intention, or a more specific or hypothetical action. However, many verbs in English are followed by either a gerund or an infinitive, sometimes with a difference in meaning.

There are certain verbs that are typically followed by a gerund. These include verbs like "enjoy," "admit," "avoid," "suggest," and "consider." For instance, "I enjoy swimming," uses the gerund "swimming" as the object of the verb "enjoy," highlighting the activity itself. Some verbs, like "stop" and "remember," can be followed by either a gerund or an infinitive, but the meaning can change depending on which form is used. For example, "I stopped smoking" means that the action of smoking was ceased, whereas "I stopped to smoke" implies that the person halted their current activity in order to engage in smoking. Similarly, "I remember meeting him" refers

to recalling an event from the past, while "I remember to meet him" suggests the action of remembering to perform a task in the future.

Infinitives are often used to express purpose or intention. This usage typically answers the question "Why?" and is often seen with verbs such as "want," "need," "hope," "plan," and "decide." For instance, "She went to the store to buy some groceries" shows that the purpose of going to the store was to buy groceries. Infinitives are also used after certain adjectives, especially when expressing an opinion or emotional reaction. For example, "It's important to study regularly" or "I'm excited to visit London." In these cases, the infinitive adds a layer of meaning related to the necessity, importance, or emotional expectation of the action. There are also verbs that can be followed by both a gerund and an infinitive, but the meaning might differ. For instance, "I like swimming" suggests an ongoing preference for the activity, while "I like to swim" suggests that swimming is something the person enjoys doing on occasion, possibly in a more scheduled or intentional way.

When it comes to choosing between gerunds and infinitives, there are several rules and patterns, though English usage can be tricky, and exceptions exist. Some verbs are followed by a gerund in one context but an infinitive in another, depending on whether the action is viewed as a general activity or a specific event. Additionally, the choice can also depend on whether the verb expresses a preference, intention, or necessity. Furthermore, gerunds and infinitives can also function as the subject or object of a sentence. For example, "Swimming is fun" uses a gerund as the subject, while "To swim is fun" uses an infinitive in the same role, though the meaning can be subtly different. Despite these patterns, learners of English must remember that there are many verbs with fixed patterns, and the best way to master their use is through extensive reading, practice, and memorization of common verb patterns.

TASK AND EVALUATION

1. Explain the difference between gerunds and infinitives. Provide examples of each and discuss their usage as subjects, objects, and complements in sentences.
2. Discuss the grammatical and semantic differences between the gerund and infinitive when they follow certain verbs. Provide examples of verbs that are followed by either form and explain how their meanings change.
3. How do gerunds and infinitives function as objects in a sentence? Compare their uses and explain how the meaning of the sentence changes depending on which form is used.
4. Describe how gerunds and infinitives are used after prepositions. How does their use differ, and what are the common prepositions that are followed by gerunds? Provide examples.
5. In some cases, gerunds and infinitives can be used interchangeably. Discuss such cases and explain when it is acceptable to use either form. Provide examples and explain the subtle differences, if any, in meaning or emphasis.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR
CHAPTER 11: ARTICLES

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CHAPTER 11
ARTICLES

A. DEFINITION OF ARTICLES.

English language learners frequently encounter articles in sentences. In English, several nouns are preceded by the word "article" to indicate whether they are common or unique. Furthermore, determiners known as articles in English grammar come before nouns to convey information regarding certainty.

Example:
- Let us bathe in <u>the</u> river
- Let us bathe in <u>a</u> river

Since (the) refers to a word in a particular, unique, or exceptional way, it is a definite article in sentence a, indicating that the object is definite or known. The river in the sentence refers to the river where we typically take a bath, therefore the object is definite or known. However, sentence b's (a) is an indefinite article since it refers to a word in an indefinite or generic sense.

Sometimes "the" denotes a known object even though it cannot be translated into Indonesian. The word "the" may occasionally be followed by either an uncountable or countable noun. Additionally, the word "a" is occasionally not translated. While a/an can be used for uncountable nouns like water and sugar (wrong), it should not be used for uncountable nouns like a glass of, a kilogram of, etc.

B. THE TYPES OF ARTICLES

Definite articles and indefinite articles are the two types of words found in articles. Definite articles, such "the," are reserved for definite or definite forms and are composed of a definite article. On the other hand, indefinite articles, which include "a" and "an," have an ambiguous

meaning. In English, the articles "A," "an," and "the" are used. There are two types of articles: definite and indefinite.

1. **Definite Article**

    Both countable and uncountable nouns can be referred to with definitive articles. Articles fall into a number of categories, including:

a. Used to describe scriptures, locations, oceans, or areas.
    Example: The Sempu Island,
       The North Sea,
       The United Kingdom

b. Used for phrases that describe countries or groups of people.
    Example: The Netherlands,
       The indonesian,
       The Americans

c. Used in ordinal and superlative numeral forms.
    Example: the longest. She is always the first to come.

d. Used for the plural name of a family, meaning family.
    Example: The Ardin, The Barber

e. Used for words mentioned at the beginning of a sentence.
    Example: a book. The book is Important knowledge
    There is a boy. The boy is family

f. A class or group can be represented by a singular noun:
    Example: The rose was bought by me yesterday.
         The Indonesia has various islands

g. The name of the only thing used.
    Example: the sky,
       the air,
       the sun

h. Used for book titles.
    Example: the Koran, the Bible, the Ramayana

i. Used in phrases, or expressions, consisting of a transitive verb and its object:
    Example: To set foot   To keep house
               To give ear   To shake hands
               To give battle   To shake hands
               To give battle   To send word

        To take fire   To catch fire

        To take breath   To leave school

j. The organization name is used in abbreviated form:

    Example: UNO

        UNESCO

        USIS

        SEATO

        NATO

k. Used in general statements for plural countable nouns:

    Example: Dogs   Paintings

        Indonesian films   Amercan films

        Anglo-French relations   Malaysian-Indonesian relations

l. General use of the term "material":

    Example: Gold   Wool

                Silver   Bronze

                Tin, etc

    Some examples of use in sentences are as follows:

- Gold is a precious metal.
- Wool is more precious than cotton

m. "the" is used for nouns whose reference or referent is clear and the context (word relationship):

    Example:

    The house $\rightarrow$ the bedrooms $\longrightarrow$ the drawing $\longrightarrow$ room

    This is the house I live in. The bedrooms are small but the drawing room is quite large.

n. There are times when the relationship of words (context) is not always apparent:

    Example: the room   the lamp

                the floor   the world in the dictionary

                the class, etc.

o. Names and without the

- "The" is not used with people's names (e.g., "Helen," "Helen Taylor," etc.). Similarly, we don't use "the" in the majority of place names.

    For example:

Continents	Africa (not the Africa), South America
countries, states etc.	France (not the France), Japan, Texas
Islands	Baubau, Buru
cities, towns etc.	Jakarta, Surabaya
mountains	Fuji, Tangkuban parahu

- The is not used when a name is followed by Mr., Ms., Captain, Doctor, etc. Thus, we say:
  Example:
  o Mr Johnson / Doctor Johnson / Captain Johnson / President Johnson etc. (not the …)
  o Uncle Robert / Saint Catherine / Queen Catherine etc. (not the …)

Compare:
We called the doctor.
We called Doctor Johnson. (not the Doctor Johnson)
We use Mount (= mountain) and Lake before a name in the same way (without the):
- Mount Fuji (not the …)   Mount Tangkuban Parahu   Lake Superior Lake Victoria
They live near the lake.
They live near Lake Superior. (not the Lake Superior)

Exercise. Which is right?
1) Who is <u>Doctor Johnson</u> / the Doctor Johnson? (Doctor Johnson is correct)
2) I was ill. <u>Doctor</u> / <u>The doctor</u> told me to rest for a few days.
3) <u>Doctor Thomas</u> / <u>The Doctor Thomas</u> is an expert on heart disease.
4) I'm looking for <u>Professor Brown</u> / <u>the Professor Brown</u>. Do you know where she is?
5) In the United States, <u>President</u> / <u>the President</u> is elected for four years.
6) <u>President Kennedy</u> / <u>The President Kennedy</u> was assassinated in 1963.

7) The off icer I spoke to at the police station was <u>Inspector Roberts</u> / <u>the Inspector Roberts</u>.
8) Do you know <u>Wilsons</u> / <u>the Wilsons</u>? They're a very nice couple.
9) Julia spent three years as a student in <u>United States</u> / <u>the United States</u>.
10) <u>France</u> / <u>The France</u> has a population of about 66 million.

2. Indefinite Article

Non-specific nouns that the reader or listener is unaware of are likewise described using the indefinite article. Use the signs "a" and "an" for words that start with a consonant.
Consonant sound: **b, c,d,f,g,h,j,k,l,m,n,p,r,s,t,v,w,x,y,z**
Example: a pen, a book, a teacher, a window, a desk
A dog barked in the night
Vowel sound: **a, i, u, e, o**
Example: an eraser,
an apple,
an umbrella,
an ice cream
An apple a day keeps the doctor away
An elephant can remember faces for many years.
Note: Instead of using "an" before the word "you," we should use "a" or "eu." Examples include "university" , "universities in Europe" , "universities in the United States" , along with "universities in the United States" .

Both countable plural nouns and uncountable indefinite nouns frequently employ the word "some" in the indefinite article. Additionally, for countable plural nouns, speakers may use two, a few, several, a lot of, and so forth; for uncountable nouns, they may use a little, a lot of, and so forth. The word "some" is also reserved for positive nouns and not for negative ones.

Example: I ate some apple
>   *She needs some water to quench her thirst.*

Exercise 1: Use a or an to answer the following questions.

Example: ..an...insect
>   ..a...university

1. .... cat
2. ......football
3. ......aeroplane
4. ....telephone
5. ...... address

6. ....house
7. ....exercise book
8. ....island
9. ....train
10. ....orange

EXERCISE 2: Use indefinite nouns in articles. Directions: Add alan or some to these sentences.

Example: The teacher made <u>an</u> announcement.
>   I saw <u>a</u> bird.
>   I saw <u>some</u> birds.

1. 1. Rosa borrowed   money from her uncle.
2. I had accident.
3. have homework to do tonight.
4. There is table in the room.
5. There is furniture in the room.
6. There are chairs in the room.
7. My father gave me advice.

C. GENERAL VS SPECIFIC

a. When referring to anything that is previously known, the term "the" is used.
   Example: The clothes on the cupboard is mine
b. Use "a" or "an" to refer to something generally or for the first time.
   Example: Please pass the salt. (specific)
>   She has Ø (no article) patience. (General)
c. Using "an" before unpronounced "h" nouns.
   Example:
>   an hour (no pronounced by h)
>   An heir

An honest man (the "h" is not pronounced in some dialects)
An historic event (although different sources allow the use of a, an is more common).

Note: The letter "h" is frequently absent from some English words. "Hour," "respect," "herbal," "history," "heir," "historical," and "herbaceous" are a few examples. However, bear in mind that accent and dialect might affect how the letter "h" is pronounced.
Using the count nouns a, an, and some.

d. Both singular and plural countable nouns are possible:
    Example: a dog, a child, the evening, this party, an umbrella, dogs, some children, the evenings, these parties, two umbrellas
    -   We can use a/an before singular countable nouns.
        Example: Bye! Have a nice evening.
                 Do you need an umbrella?
    -   Singular countable nouns (without a, the, my, etc.) cannot be used alone:
        Example: She never wears a hat.   (not wears hat)
                 Be careful of the dog.
                 What a beautiful day!
                 Did you hurt your leg?
    -   We use a/an to talk about what something is or who someone is:
        Example: That's a nice table
    -   If there are more than one, we use the word by itself (not some):
        Example: Those are nice chairs. (not some nice chairs)
    -   Compare the single and the plural:

A dog is **an animal**	Dogs are **animals**
My father is **a doctor**	My parents are both **doctors**
What **a lovely dress!**	What **awfull shoes!**

- People with a long nose, a nice face, blue eyes, long fingers, etc. are said to have these traits:
  Example:
  Jack has a long nose (not the long nose) jack has a blue eyes (not the eyes)
  When telling someone what their job is, we use a/an:
- Example:
  Sandra is a nurse. (not Sandra is nurse)
  Would you like to be an English teacher?

e. Some can be used with countable nouns in plural. There are two ways we use some.
   - A few (of) / a pair (of) / a quantity (of) = some:
     Example:
     I have seen some good movies recently.   (not I've seen good movies)
     Some friends of mine are coming to stay at the weekend.
     I need some new sunglasses. (= a new pair of sunglasses)
   - You can frequently say the same thing with or without some of these. For instance:
     I need (some) new clothes.
     The room was empty apart from a table and (some) chairs.
   - Avoid using some while discussing topics in general.
     Example: I love bananas. (not some bananas)
              My aunt is a writer. She writes books. (not some books)
   - Some is equal to some but not all.
     Example:
     Some children learn very quickly. (but not all children)
     Tomorrow there will be rain in some places, but most of the country will be dry.

D. SUMMARY

Articles are words that come before nouns to indicate whether they are generic or specific. Two categories of Articles are definite and indefinite. Definite is "The" designates anything that both the speaker and the listener are aware of or specific, Example: She found the book you lost. Indefinite is Words that start with a consonant sound are preceded by "A." Example: He saw a cat. Before words that start with a vowel sound, "An" is used. Example: She ate an orange.

TASK AND EVALUATION

Chef	Interpreter	Journalist	Nurse	Plumber
Surgeon				
	Tour	Guide	Waiter	

1. Sarah looks aft er patients in hospital. .....She's a nurse......
2. Gary works in a restaurant. He brings the food to the tables. He..............
3. Jane writes articles for a newspaper....................
4. Kevin works in a hospital. He operates on people...............................
5. Jonathan cooks in a restaurant..............................
6. Dave installs and repairs water pipes. ....
7. Anna shows visitors round her city and tells them about it. ....
8. Lisa translates what people are saying from one language into another, so that they can understand each other. ....

f. Similarities and differences between the use of "a, an, and the"
   1. Examine these instances to compare a and the:
      Example:
      - A man and a woman were sitting opposite me. The man was American, but I think the woman was British.
      - When we were on holiday, we stayed at a hotel. Sometimes we ate at the hotel and sometimes we went to a restaurant.

2. We employ the when we have a precise idea in mind. Contrast a/an with the
   Example:
   - Tim sat down on a chair. (maybe one of many chairs in the room)
     Tim sat down on the chair nearest the door. (a specific chair)
   - Do you have a car? (not a specific car)
     I cleaned the car yesterday. (= my car)

   When describing the type of thing or person we mean, we use a/an. In contrast:
   Example:
   - We stayed at a very cheap hotel. (a type of hotel)
   - The hotel where we stayed was very cheap. (a specific hotel)

3. When it is obvious what or whoever we mean, we use the. For instance, we discuss the light, the floor, the ceiling, the door, the carpet, and so on in a room.
   Example:
   - Can you turn off the light, please? (= the light in this room)
   - I took a taxi to the station. (= the station in that town)
   - (in a shop) I'd like to speak to the manager, please. (= the manager of this shop)

   Compare "the" and "a":
   Example:
   - I have to go to the bank today.
   - Is there a bank near here?
   - I don't like going to the dentist.
   - My sister is a dentist.

Exercise 1: Put in a/an or the.

1. This morning I bought a book and.......... magazine......... book is in my bag, but I can't remember where I put.............magazine.
2. I saw ....accident this morning........car crashed into tree........driver of .... car wasn't hurt, but...........car was badly damaged.
3. There are two cars parked outside: ....blue one and..........grey one..........blue one belongs to my neighbours. I don't know who .... owner of .... grey one is.
4. My friends live in ....old house in..........small village. There is........beautiful garden behind .... house. I would like to have.......... garden like that.

Exercise 2. Put in a/an or the.

1.
   a. This house is very nice. Does it have .... garden?
   b. It's a beautiful day. Let's sit in .... garden.
   c. I like living in this house, but it's a shame that .... garden is so small.
2. a. Can you recommend .... good restaurant?
   b. We had dinner in .... very nice restaurant.
   c. We had dinner in .... best restaurant in town.
3.
   a. What's .... name of that man we met yesterday?
   b. We stayed at a very nice hotel – I can't remember .... name now.
   c. My neighbour has ....   French name, but in fact she's English, not French.
4. a. Did Paula get .... job she applied for?
   b. It's not easy to get .... job at the moment.
   c. Do you enjoy your work? Is it .... interesting job?
5. a. 'Are you going away next week?' 'No, ... week aft er next.'
   b. I'm going away for .... week in September.
   c. Gary has a part-time job. He works three mornings .... week.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR

CHAPTER 12: ADJECTIVE CLAUSE AND ADVERB CLAUSE

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CHAPTER 12
ADJECTIVE CLAUSE AND ADVERB CLAUSE

A. INTRODUCTION

An **adjective clause** is a type of dependent (or subordinate) clause that functions as an adjective in a sentence. Its primary purpose is to provide more detailed information about a noun or pronoun, making the meaning of the sentence more specific and complete. Since it is a dependent clause, it cannot stand alone as a sentence; it must be connected to an independent clause.

An **adverb clause** is a group of words that acts as an adverb in a sentence. It modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb and answers questions like *how*, *when*, *where*, *why*, *to what extent*, or *under what condition*.

B. ADJECTIVE CLAUSE

An adjective clause (also called a relative clause) is a dependent clause that describes or modifies a noun or pronoun in a sentence. It provides additional information about the noun or pronoun, functioning like an adjective.

Adjective clauses typically begin with relative pronouns such as who, whom, whose, which, or that, or with relative adverbs like where, when, or why. They always contain a subject and a verb.

Key Features of an Adjective Clause:
1. Introduced by Relative Pronouns or Adverbs
   Adjective clauses begin with words that link them to the noun or pronoun they modify. These words are called relative pronouns (e.g., who, whom, whose, that, which) or relative adverbs (e.g., where, when, why).

2. Contains a Subject and a Verb
    Every adjective clause has its own subject and verb, forming a complete idea that adds detail to the noun or pronoun.
3. Placed Directly After the Noun It Modifies
    To maintain clarity, adjective clauses are positioned immediately after the word they describe.
4. Essential vs. Non-Essential Clauses
    Essential (Restrictive) Adjective Clauses: Provide information critical to identifying the noun. These clauses do not use commas.
    Example: The man who fixed my car did an excellent job.
    Non-Essential (Non-Restrictive) Adjective Clauses: Add extra, non-critical information. These clauses are set off by commas.
    Example: My brother, who lives in Canada, is visiting us next week.
    Expanded Examples:
    The artist who painted this mural is very talented.
5. Adjective clause: who painted this mural
    Modifies: artist
    Type: Essential (necessary to know which artist is being referred to).
    The Eiffel Tower, which is located in Paris, is a famous landmark.
6. Adjective clause: which is located in Paris
    Modifies: Eiffel Tower
    Type: Non-essential (additional information about the Eiffel Tower).
    She remembers the day when they first met.
7. Adjective clause: when they first met
    Modifies: day
    Type: Essential (specifying which day is being remembered).
    This is the park where I like to jog every morning.
    Adjective clause: where I like to jog every morning
    Modifies: park
    Type: Essential (defining which park is being referred to).

How to Construct an Adjective Clause?

To construct an adjective clause, follow these steps:

1. Identify the Noun or Pronoun to Modify

   Start by determining which noun or pronoun in the sentence needs additional information. This will be the word the adjective clause modifies.

   Example:

   Noun: "The girl"

   We want to add more detail about the girl.

2. Choose an Appropriate Relative Pronoun or Relative Adverb

   Adjective clauses often start with **relative pronouns** or **relative adverbs**, which connect the clause to the noun or pronoun it modifies. The choice depends on the role of the modified noun in the clause.

   Relative Pronouns:

   Who: Refers to people (as the subject of the clause).

   Example*: The teacher **who helped me** is very kind.*

   Whom: Refers to people (as the object of the clause).

   Example: The man whom we met yesterday is an artist.

   Whose: Shows possession for people or things.

   Example: The girl whose dog is missing is very sad.

   Which: Refers to things or animals.

   Example: The book which I borrowed from the library is very interesting.

   That: Refers to people, things, or animals in essential clauses.

   Example: The house that we bought needs some renovation

   Relative Adverbs:

   Where: Refers to a place.

      Example: This is the restaurant where we had dinner last week

   When: Refers to a time.

      Example: I'll never forget the day when we first met

   Why: Refers to a reason.

      Example: I don't understand the reason why she left so suddenly.

3. Write a Subject and Verb for the Clause
   Every adjective clause needs its own subject and verb. These components make it a clause rather than just a phrase.
   Example:
   Clause: who is singing
   Subject: who
   Verb: is singing

4. Place the Clause Immediately After the Noun
   To avoid confusion, place the adjective clause directly after the noun or pronoun it modifies.
   Correct:
   "The book that I borrowed from the library is fascinating."
   (The clause that I borrowed from the library modifies "book.")
   Incorrect:
   "The book is fascinating that I borrowed from the library."

5. Determine If Commas Are Needed
   Decide whether the adjective clause is essential (restrictive) or non-essential (non-restrictive) to the meaning of the sentence.
   Essential Clauses (no commas): Provide crucial information about the noun.
   Example: "The man who fixed my car is reliable."
   Non-Essential Clauses (use commas): Add extra, non-critical information.
   Example: "My neighbor, who loves gardening, grows beautiful roses."

6. Finalize the Sentence
   Combine all parts into a grammatically correct sentence.
   Example:
   Base sentence: "I like the teacher."
   Adding detail: "I like the teacher who explained the lesson clearly."
   Full sentence: "I like the teacher who explained the lesson clearly."
   Examples of Constructed Sentences
   Base Sentence: "She has a dog."

Adjective Clause: "that loves to play."
Final Sentence: "She has a dog that loves to play."
Base Sentence: "I know the place."

Adjective Clause: "where we first met."
Final Sentence: "I know the place where we first met."
Base Sentence: "He found a reason."

Adjective Clause: "why he should stay."
Final Sentence: "He found a reason why he should stay."

- Adjective Clauses vs. Adjective Phrases
  While adjective clauses have a subject and a verb, adjective phrases are shorter and lack a subject-verb structure. Often, adjective clauses can be reduced to phrases.
  Both adjective clauses and adjective phrases serve the same primary function: to modify or describe a noun or pronoun. However, they differ in structure and complexity. Below is a deeper explanation of each.

  Full Clause: The man who is standing there is my uncle.
  Reduced Phrase: The man standing there is my uncle.

- **How to Reduce Adjective Clauses to Adjective Phrases**
  Sometimes, adjective clauses can be **reduced** to adjective phrases. This happens when the subject of the adjective clause is the same as the noun it modifies, and you can eliminate the relative pronoun and verb.
  Examples of Reduced Adjective Clauses:
  1. **Adjective Clause**:
     - *The book that is on the table belongs to me.*
     - **Reduced**: *The book on the table belongs to me.*
     - The adjective clause *that is on the table* is reduced to the adjective phrase *on the table*.

2. **Adjective Clause**:
   - *The woman who is sitting by the door is my aunt.*
   - **Reduced**: *The woman sitting by the door is my aunt.*
   - The adjective clause *who is sitting by the door* is reduced to the adjective phrase *sitting by the door*.

3. **Adjective Clause**:
   - *The boy who is wearing a blue shirt is my cousin.*
   - **Reduced**: *The boy wearing a blue shirt is my cousin.*
   - The adjective clause *who is wearing a blue shirt* is reduced to the adjective phrase *wearing a blue shirt*.

C. ADVERB CLAUSE

An adverb clause is a group of words that:
- Functions as an adverb in a sentence.
- Modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.
- Contains both a subject and a predicate.
- Begins with a subordinating conjunction (e.g., because, although, when, if, since, etc.).
- Characteristics of Adverb Clauses
- Placement of Adverb Clauses

Adverb clauses can appear at the beginning, middle, or end of a sentence.
1. **Beginning**: *Because it was raining, I stayed home.*
2. **Middle**: *I, because it was raining, stayed home.*
3. **End**: *I stayed home because it was raining.*

When the adverb clause comes first, a comma is typically used to separate it from the main clause. Adverb clauses serve different purposes based on the subordinating conjunction used. Here are the main types:
1. **Time (*When does it happen?*)**
   - Example: *I will call you **when I arrive**.*
   - Explanation: The adverb clause *when I arrive* modifies the verb *call* by answering the question *when?*.

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2. **Cause or Reason (*Why does it happen?*)**
   - Example: *She didn't go out **because it was raining**.*
   - Explanation: The adverb clause *because it was raining* explains why she didn't go out.

3. **Condition (*Under what condition?*)**
   - Example: *If it rains, we'll stay inside.*
   - Explanation: The adverb clause *if it rains* provides a condition for staying inside.

4. **Contrast or Concession (*Even though something happens, what is unexpected?*)**
   - Example: *Although she was tired, she continued working.*
   - Explanation: The adverb clause *although she was tired* contrasts with the main clause.

5. **Purpose (*For what purpose?*)**
   - Example: *He studied hard **so that he could pass the exam**.*
   - Explanation: The adverb clause *so that he could pass the exam* describes the purpose of studying.

6. **Manner (*How is it done?*)**
   - Example: *She sings **as if she were a professional**.*
   - Explanation: The adverb clause *as if she were a professional* modifies the verb *sings* by showing how she sings.

7. **Result (*What is the result?*)**
   - Example: *The noise was so loud **that we couldn't sleep**.*
   - Explanation: The adverb clause *that we couldn't sleep* shows the result of the loud noise.

- **Common Errors with Adverb Clauses**
  1. **Fragment**:
     An adverb clause cannot stand alone.
     - Incorrect: *Because I was late.*

- Correct: *I missed the bus because I was late.*

2. **Misplaced Adverb Clause**:
   Place the adverb clause close to what it modifies to avoid confusion.
   - Confusing: *She only speaks French when she is in Paris.*
   - Clear: *She speaks French only when she is in Paris.*

Examples of Adverb Clauses in Sentences
- **Time**: *She left the room **after she finished her speech**.*
- **Cause**: *He didn't attend the meeting **because he was unwell**.*
- **Condition**: *We will succeed **if we work together**.*
- **Contrast**: *Even though it was raining, they continued playing.*
- **Purpose**: *They left early **so that they could catch the train**.*

D. SUMMARY
An Adjective Clause

An adjective clause is a clause that functions as an adjective in a sentence. This type of clause provides additional information about a noun or pronoun. An adjective clause always contains a subject and a verb and usually begins with a relative pronoun such as who, whom, whose, which, that or a relative adverb like where, when, why. For example, in the sentence The book that I borrowed is very interesting, the phrase that I borrowed is an adjective clause that describes the noun book.

The main function of an adjective clause is to give more details about a noun, making its meaning more specific. It helps combine information into a single sentence instead of creating two separate sentences. Adjective clauses can be restrictive (essential to the meaning of the noun) or non-restrictive (providing extra, non-essential information). For instance, in the sentence The student who studies hard will pass the exam, the clause who studies hard specifies which student is being referred to, making it a restrictive adjective clause.

Using adjective clauses allows for more complex and meaningful sentences. Choosing the correct relative pronoun or relative adverb ensures clarity and grammatical accuracy. Additionally, punctuation is

important—non-restrictive adjective clauses require commas because they only add extra information without limiting the noun's meaning. By understanding and applying adjective clauses correctly, one can improve both writing and speaking skills in English effectively.

An Adverb Clause

An adverb clause is a dependent clause that functions as an adverb in a sentence. It modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb by providing additional information about time, place, reason, condition, contrast, purpose, or manner. An adverb clause always contains a subject and a verb and begins with a subordinating conjunction such as because, although, when, if, since, while, unless, and before. For example, in the sentence I stayed home because it was raining, the clause because it was raining explains the reason for the action, modifying the verb stayed.

The primary function of an adverb clause is to add details that clarify the circumstances of an action or situation. Different types of adverb clauses serve different purposes. For instance, a time clause (e.g., I will call you when I arrive) tells when something happens, while a condition clause (e.g., If you study hard, you will pass the test) sets up a condition for the main clause to happen. These clauses help make writing and speech more informative and nuanced by connecting ideas logically.

When using adverb clauses, it is essential to place them correctly in a sentence. If the clause comes at the beginning of a sentence, it is usually followed by a comma (e.g., Although it was late, she kept working). However, when the clause appears at the end, a comma is not necessary (e.g., She kept working although it was late). Mastering adverb clauses enhances sentence structure, making communication clearer and more sophisticated.

TASK AND EVALUATION
Exercise 1: Identifying Adjective Clauses

Underline the **adjective clause** in each sentence and circle the noun it modifies.
1. The book that I borrowed from the library was fascinating.
2. The woman who lives next door is a doctor.

3. The car which was parked in front of my house belongs to my neighbor.
4. The movie that we watched last night was thrilling.
5. I saw a dog whose tail was wagging furiously.

Exercise 2: Combining Sentences

Combine the two sentences into one sentence using an adjective clause. Use the provided relative pronouns (who, whom, which, that, whose).
1. The man is my teacher. He is wearing a blue shirt.
2. I bought a phone. It has a great camera.
3. The girl helped me. I met her at the library.
4. The artist is famous. Her paintings are in the museum.
5. The book was amazing. I read it last month.

Exercise 1: Identifying Adverb Clauses

Underline the **adverb clause** in each sentence and circle the subordinating conjunction.
1. I stayed home because it was raining.
2. If you study hard, you will pass the test.
3. She smiled when she saw her friend.
4. Although he was tired, he finished his work.
5. The dog barked as if it had seen a ghost.

Exercise 2: Combining Sentences

Combine the two sentences into one using an adverb clause. Use the subordinating conjunction in parentheses.
1. She didn't go to the party. She was feeling sick. (*because*)
2. We will start the meeting. The boss arrives. (*when*)
3. He works hard. He can achieve his goals. (*so that*)
4. I will help you. You ask me for assistance. (*if*)
5. They went for a walk. The rain stopped. (*after*)

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GLOSSARY

A

Adjective: A word that modifies or describes a noun or pronoun, often providing information about its size, color, shape, or other characteristics (e.g., "big," "red," "beautiful").

Adverb: A word that modifies or describes a verb, adjective, or another adverb, typically providing information about how, when, where, or to what extent (e.g., "quickly," "very," "always").

Agreement: The grammatical correspondence between parts of a sentence, such as subject-verb agreement (e.g., "She runs" vs. "They run") and noun-pronoun agreement (e.g., "John lost his keys" vs. "The boys lost their keys").

Antecedent: The noun or noun phrase that a pronoun refers to or replaces (e.g., "Mary lost her book," where "Mary" is the antecedent of "her").

Active Voice: A grammatical construction in which the subject of the sentence performs the action of the verb. Example: "The teacher explains the lesson."

Agent: The doer of the action in a sentence, often placed after the verb in passive constructions. Example: In "The song was sung by the singer," "the singer" is the agent.

Agentless Passive: A type of passive construction in which the doer of the action (the agent) is omitted because it is unknown, unimportant, or irrelevant.

Action verb: A verb that describes a physical or mental action, often followed by a gerund or infinitive (e.g., *enjoy*, *want*).

Adjective: A word that modifies a noun, sometimes used before a gerund or infinitive to give additional meaning (e.g., *easy to learn*, *interested in swimming*).

Adverbial infinitive: An infinitive that modifies a verb, adjective, or adverb, often indicating purpose or reason (e.g., *He ran to catch the bus*).

Advice: Conditional sentences can be used to give advice, especially in the second conditional (e.g., "If I were you, I would...").

B

Back shifting: The process of changing verb tenses backward when converting direct speech to reported speech. **Example**: "I am going," she said. -> She said that she was going.

C

Clause: A group of words containing a subject and a predicate (verb), which can either form a complete sentence (independent clause) or be part of a larger sentence (dependent clause).

Coherence: The logical and smooth connection of ideas in a sentence or paragraph, ensuring the meaning is clear and easy to follow.

Complement: A word or group of words that completes the meaning of a subject, verb, or object in a sentence (e.g., "She is a teacher," where "a teacher" is the complement of the subject).

Conjunction: A word that connects words, phrases, or clauses (e.g., "and," "but," "because," "although").

Complement: A word or group of words that completes the meaning of a verb, often a gerund or infinitive (e.g., *Her goal is to travel*).

Conditional Sentence: A sentence that expresses a condition and its possible result, often involving "if" clauses.

Conjunction (That): Often used to connect the reporting verb with the reported statement, though it can sometimes be omitted in informal speech. **Example**: She said (that) she was happy.

Conditional (Future in the Past): A grammatical construction used to express future actions from a past perspective, often using "would" instead of "will."

Cause and Effect: The relationship between the condition and the result in a conditional sentence, where the condition causes the result (e.g., "If you eat too much, you will feel sick").

Choice and Consequence: Conditional sentences can present a choice and its potential consequences (e.g., "If you choose this path, you will succeed").

Contrary-to-Past Fact: A situation that did not happen in the past but is imagined in a conditional sentence (third conditional).

Condition Clause with Present Perfect: A type of conditional sentence where the condition refers to an action that has been completed in the present, often used in mixed conditionals.

Contrary-to-Fact Conditional: A conditional sentence that refers to a hypothetical situation that is not true or unlikely to happen (often second or third conditional).

Conditional Sentence Type 1: Refers to a sentence expressing a real or possible future situation (e.g., "If it rains, we will stay inside").

Conditional Sentence Type 2: Refers to a sentence expressing a hypothetical present or future situation (e.g., "If I had a car, I would drive to work").

Conditional Sentence Type 3: Refers to a sentence expressing a past hypothetical situation that did not occur (e.g., "If I had studied, I would have passed the exam").

Could: A modal verb in conditional sentences indicating possibility or ability in the past or present.

D

Direct Object: A noun or pronoun that receives the action of the verb directly (e.g., in "She kicked the ball," "ball" is the direct object).

Direct object: A noun or pronoun that receives the action of the verb, often a gerund or infinitive (e.g., *She wants to learn English*).

Direct Speech: The exact words spoken by a speaker, enclosed in quotation marks. **Example**: He said, "I am tired."

E

Ellipsis: The omission of one or more words from a sentence because they are implied or understood (e.g., "She likes coffee; I, tea").

Exclamation: A word or phrase used to express strong emotions or reactions (e.g., "Wow!" "Oh no!").

Ellipsis: The omission of one or more words that are understood from the context, sometimes affecting gerund or infinitive constructions (e.g., *She likes reading, and he likes swimming*).

Even If: A phrase used in conditional sentences to emphasize that the result will happen regardless of the condition.

Expressing Hypotheticals: Referring to the use of conditional sentences to discuss imagined or unreal situations.

Eventuality: A potential event that could occur under certain conditions, often described in the first conditional.

F

Finite verb: A verb form that is limited by subject and tense, which contrasts with the non-finite forms like gerunds and infinitives.

First Conditional: A conditional sentence used to talk about real or possible situations in the future, formed with "if" + present simple, then "will" + base verb.

Future Simple: A tense used in the main clause of a first conditional sentence to indicate the result of the condition in the future (will + base verb).

Future Possibility: Describing an event that might happen in the future, often using the first conditional with modal verbs like "might" or "could."

Future Real Condition: The first conditional describes real conditions that are likely to happen in the future, with the result depending on the condition (e.g., "If it's sunny, we will go hiking").

G

Grammatical Gender: The classification of nouns and pronouns into categories such as masculine, feminine, or neuter, common in languages like Spanish, French, or German.

Gerund: The -ing form of a verb that functions as a noun (e.g., *reading*, *swimming*).
Gerund phrase – A group of words that includes a gerund and its modifiers or objects (e.g., *running every day*).

General Truths in Zero Conditional: The zero conditional is used to express facts that are always true (e.g., "If you mix red and blue, you get purple").

H

Hypothetical Advice: Conditional sentences can be used to give advice based on a hypothetical scenario (e.g., "If I were you, I would study harder").

Hypothetical Present Condition: The second conditional describes hypothetical or unreal present conditions (e.g., "If I were rich, I would travel the world").

I

Imperative Mood: The grammatical mood used to give commands, requests, or instructions (e.g., "Sit down," "Please help me").

Indirect Object: A noun or pronoun that indicates to or for whom the action of the verb is done (e.g., "She gave him the book," where "him" is the indirect object).

Infinitive: The base form of a verb, often preceded by "to" (e.g., "to run," "to eat").

Interrogative Sentence: A sentence that asks a question and ends with a question mark (e.g., "What time is it?").

Infinitive: The base form of a verb, usually preceded by "to" (e.g., *to run*, *to swim*).

Infinitive phrase: A group of words that includes an infinitive and its modifiers or objects (e.g., *to study hard*).

Indirect object: A noun or pronoun that indirectly receives the action of the verb, often found in sentences with infinitives (e.g., *She gave him a book to read*).

Infinitive of purpose: An infinitive used to explain the purpose or reason behind an action (e.g., *I went to the store to buy some bread*).

Intransitive Verb: A verb that does not require a direct object. Intransitive verbs cannot form passive constructions. Example: "He sleeps well." (There is no object to become the subject in a passive construction.)

If-Clause: The part of the conditional sentence that states the condition or event, often starting with "if."

Imperative: A type of verb used for giving commands, suggestions, or requests, often seen in conditional sentences.

Imagination: The process of forming ideas or scenarios that are not based on reality, often used with the second conditional to express hypothetical situations.

Impossibility: A situation that is impossible or extremely unlikely, often described in the second or third conditional sentences (e.g., "If I had wings, I could fly").

J

K

L

Linking Verb: A verb that connects the subject of a sentence with a subject complement (e.g., "is," "seems," "becomes").

M

Modifier: A word, phrase, or clause that provides additional information about another element in the sentence, often adjectives or adverbs (e.g., "a very tall building").

Mood: A grammatical feature that expresses the speaker's attitude toward the action or state described by the verb (e.g., indicative, imperative, subjunctive).

Modal verb: A verb that expresses necessity, possibility, permission, or ability, often followed by an infinitive (e.g., *can*, *must*, *should*).

Main Clause: The part of a conditional sentence that states the result or consequence of the condition in the if-clause.

Mixed Conditional: A combination of the second and third conditionals, expressing a past event with a present or future result.

Modal Verb: A verb that expresses possibility, ability, necessity, or permission (e.g., can, could, might, should).

Modal Verbs: Verbs that indicate possibility, necessity, or obligation (e.g., can, could, will, would, may, might). **Example**: "I can help you," he said. -> He said that he could help me.

Might: A modal verb used to express possibility in conditional sentences.

N

Noun: A word that represents a person, place, thing, or idea (e.g., "dog," "city," "freedom").

Noun clause: A clause that functions as a noun, sometimes replacing a gerund or infinitive (e.g., *What to do next is unclear*).

Non-finite verb: A verb form that does not change according to tense, person, or number, such as gerunds and infinitives.

O

Object: The noun or pronoun that is affected by the action of the verb (e.g., in "She read the book," "book" is the object).

Object: The noun or pronoun that receives the action in a sentence. In active voice, the object typically follows the verb, while in passive voice, the object becomes the subject. Example: "The cat chased the mouse," where "the mouse" is the object.

Object of a preposition: A noun, pronoun, or gerund that follows a preposition in a sentence (e.g., *interested in learning*).

P

Participle: A verb form that functions as an adjective, typically ending in -ing or -ed (e.g., "running water," "broken glass").

Phrase: A group of words that work together to convey a single meaning but do not contain both a subject and a predicate (e.g., "in the park," "under the table").

Pronoun: A word that takes the place of a noun (e.g., "he," "she," "it," "they").

Preposition: A word that shows the relationship between a noun (or pronoun) and another word in the sentence (e.g., "in," "on," "at," "by").

Past participle: A verb form used in perfect tenses and passive voice, which differs from both gerunds and infinitives but shares a non-finite nature.

Phasal verb: A verb phrase consisting of a verb and a preposition or adverb, sometimes followed by a gerund or infinitive (e.g., *give up smoking*, *get to know*).

Phrasal infinitive: An infinitive that is part of a phrasal verb construction (e.g., *have to do*, *need to go*).

Prepositional verb: A verb that requires a preposition, often followed by a gerund (e.g., *insist on doing*).

Predicate: The part of the sentence that contains the verb and tells what happens, often including a gerund or infinitive as a complement or object.

Purpose clause: A clause that explains the purpose of an action, often expressed using an infinitive (e.g., *She studied hard to pass the exam*).

Passive Voic: A grammatical construction in which the subject of the sentence receives the action of the verb. The doer of the action may be mentioned after the verb or omitted. Example: "The lesson is explained by the teacher."

Pronoun Changes: Adjustments made to pronouns to reflect the perspective of the reporting speaker.

Place Expressions: Adjustments to location-related words to fit the context of reporting.

Possible Outcome: The likely result of a condition that is expressed in the first conditional (e.g., "If she calls, I will answer").

Past Simple: A tense used in the if-clause of the second conditional to talk about hypothetical situations.

Past Perfect: A tense used in the if-clause of the third conditional to refer to an unreal situation in the past.

Polite Requests: Using conditional sentences to make polite suggestions or requests (e.g., "If you would be so kind").

Past Regret in Conditionals: The third conditional is often used to express regret about a past event (e.g., "If I had known, I would have helped").

Q

R

Regulated verb: A verb that requires specific forms, such as a gerund or infinitive, depending on the verb itself (e.g., *prefer* + infinitive, *enjoy* + gerund).

Relative pronoun: A pronoun that introduces a relative clause, which sometimes includes gerunds or infinitives to provide more detail (e.g., *the book to read*).

Reporting Clause: The clause in a sentence that introduces the reported speech, typically containing the reporting verb. **Example**: She said that she was tired.

Reported Speech (Indirect Speech): A way of reporting what someone has said without quoting their exact words. Changes in pronouns, verb tenses, and time/place expressions are made to fit the new context. **Example**: He said that he was tired.

Reporting Verb: The verb used to introduce reported speech, such as "say," "tell," "ask," "mention," etc. **Example**: She said that she was happy.

Real Conditional: A conditional sentence that refers to situations that are likely to happen in the future, often using the first conditional.

Regret: A feeling of sorrow for a past event, often expressed using the third conditional.

Result Clause with Future Tense: In the first conditional, the result clause often uses the future tense to indicate a possible outcome (e.g., "If I go, I will call you").

S

Sentence: A set of words that expresses a complete thought, typically containing a subject and a predicate.

Subject: The part of the sentence that indicates who or what is performing the action or being described (e.g., in "The cat sleeps," "The cat" is the subject).

Subjunctive Mood: A verb form used to express wishes, hypotheticals, or conditions contrary to fact (e.g., "If I were rich, I would travel").

Subject of a sentence: The noun or pronoun that performs the action, which can be a gerund (e.g., *Running is good exercise*).

Subordinate clause: A clause that cannot stand alone and is dependent on the main clause, sometimes using an infinitive or gerund (e.g., *I want to leave*).

Subject: The noun or pronoun that performs the action in a sentence (in active voice) or receives the action (in passive voice). Example: In "The cat chased the mouse," "the cat" is the subject.

Second Conditional: A conditional sentence used to talk about hypothetical or unlikely situations in the present or future, formed with "if" + past simple, then "would" + base verb.

Shall: A formal modal verb used in conditional sentences to express future intention or offers.

T

Tense: The grammatical feature that indicates when an action or event took place (e.g., past, present, future).

Transitive Verb: A verb that requires a direct object to complete its meaning. In passive voice, the object becomes the subject of the sentence. Example: "She built a house." In passive voice, it becomes "A house was built by her."

Third Conditional: A conditional sentence used to discuss unreal situations in the past, formed with "if" + past perfect, then "would have" + past participle.

Tense Changes (Back shifting): Shifting verb tenses back one step in time when converting direct speech to reported speech.

Time Expressions: Adjustments to time-related words to fit the context of reporting.

Time Clause: A clause used in conditional sentences that specifies the time when the condition will be met (e.g., "If you finish, we can leave").

U

Unless: A word meaning "if not," used in place of "if" in negative conditional sentences.

Unreal Conditional: A conditional sentence that refers to hypothetical, impossible, or highly unlikely situations, often using the second and third conditionals.

V

Verb: A word that expresses an action, occurrence, or state of being (e.g., "run," "jump," "is," "seem").

Verb complement: A word or phrase that completes the meaning of the verb, often a gerund or infinitive (e.g., *I like to swim*).

Verb pattern: The specific construction a verb requires in terms of the form that follows it, such as gerund or infinitive (e.g., *enjoy* + gerund, *want* + infinitive).

Verb with two possible objects: Some verbs allow either a gerund or an infinitive as their object, though the meaning can change (e.g., *She began to read* vs. *She began reading*).

Verb Tense: The form of a verb that indicates the time of the action. Both active and passive voice can be used in various tenses (e.g., present, past, future).

Voice: A grammatical feature that shows the relationship between the subject and the action of the verb. It includes active and passive voice.

W

Would: A modal verb used in conditional sentences to express hypothetical results or polite requests.

WH-Questions: Questions that begin with WH-words (who, what, when, where, why, how) and retain the question word but change the structure to a statement in reported speech.

X

Y

Yes/No Questions: Questions that require a yes or no answer, often introduced in reported speech with "if" or "whether."

Z

Zero Conditional: A conditional sentence used to express general truths or facts, formed with "if" + present simple, then present simple.

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The writer was born in Kendari on September 7th, 1985. The second of five siblings. Graduating her elementary school in SDN 1 Lepo-lepo, graduating her primary school in SMPN Negeri 12 Kendari, and graduating her secondary school in SMAN 5 Kendari. Furthermore, she continued her strata one (S1) in English major at Haluoleo University and her strata two (S2) in Management Master major at Islam Sultan Agung University - Semarang. Starting her teaching career as an English teacher in SMPN 12 Kendari in 2005. In 2007, she pionered SMP Tondowatu and gradually as an English teacher, taught English in SMPN 3 Motui, in MTSS Lemo Bajo and in SDN 2 Wawoluri, North Konawe Regency. She taught in MTs S and in MA Lemo Bajo from 2007 to 2020, and the same year, she moved teaching in MTs Saragi, Buton Regency until 2021, she became as civil servant officer in 2022 and positioned in MTSN 1 North Konawe until 2023. In 2024, she moved in Kendari City and taught English in Al Manan Boarding School in Kendari City. The compiler has occupied several positions besides as the subject teacher such as Vice School Principal for Students affairs, guardian teacher, school principal of RA, the head of school library, the head of the PKBM Mandiri Pertect, and has ever been as outstanding teacher at the level of Southeast Sulawesi, Cumlaude for Management Master in Unisula Semarang in 2014.

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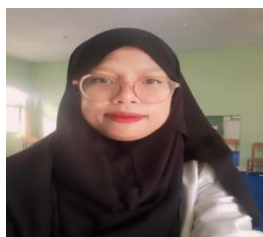
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