



STRUCTURE THEORY



- Sunara
- Fitrahnanda Ayubadiah
- Neneng Yuniarty
- Rozita Yusniaty Lodo
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- Andi Haerati Alimuddin
- Elihami
- Wahyu Adri Wirawati
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- Kusmayra Ambarwati

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PT GLOBAL EKSEKUTIF TEKNOLOGI

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Penulis :

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Kelurahan Pasie Nan Tigo Kecamatan Koto Tangah
Padang Sumatera Barat

Website : www.globaleksekutifteknologi.co.id

Email : globaleksekutifteknologi@gmail.com

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Hak cipta dilindungi undang-undang
Dilarang memperbanyak karya tulis ini dalam bentuk
dan dengan cara apapun tanpa izin tertulis dari penerbit.

FEREWORD

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

This book discusses Adjective Clause, Prepositional Phrases, Causative, To Infinitive Active and Pasive, Direct and Indirect, If Clause, Wish, Past Tense, Perfect Tense, Gerunds, Conjunction.

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

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

Padang, May 2023

Author

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CHAPTER 1

ADJECTIVE CLAUSE

By Sunara

1.1 Klausa (Clauses) Dan Klausa Adjektiva (Adjective Clauses)

Clauses (Klausa), satuan bahasa yang memiliki makna, memiliki unsur yang berfungsi sebagai subjek predikat sehingga memenuhi fungsi kalimat. *Clause* (Klausa) misalnya *dependent clause* merupakan kalimat yang belum selesai, tidak utuh kecuali bersama klausa lain (*main/independent clause*) dalam konteks kalimat kompleks (gabungan klausa), atau *compound-complex sentence* (kalimat kompleks- gabungan).

Clauses (klausa) terdiri dari *main clause* (klausa utama/induk kalimat) yang bisa berfungsi sebagai kalimat dengan sendirinya, sebagai *independent clause* (klausa bebas yang bisa berdiri sendiri), bagian utama kalimat, kalimat utuh, kalimat lengkap yang menjadi pernyataan paling penting. *Clauses* (klausa) lain yang bergabung dengan *main/independent clauses* tersebut, yaitu *dependent clauses* (klausa yang tidak bisa berdiri sendiri), atau disebut juga *subordinate clauses* (anak kalimat). Klausa ini disebut sebagai anak kalimat yang tidak utuh atau tidak sempurna. Karena menggantungkan keutuhan maknanya setelah bergabung dengan *independent clauses*, *dependent clauses* ini tidak bisa berdiri sendiri kecuali bersama *main/independent clauses* (klausa utama) dan gabungan kedua klausa disebut dengan kalimat kompleks.

Adjective clause merupakan salah satu model *dependent clause* (klausa yang tidak berdiri sendiri (anak kalimat)) atau

disebut juga *relative clause* (klausa penghubung). Sebagaimana *adjective* (kata sifat), itu berfungsi menerangkan, menjelaskan, mengidentifikasi, membatasi, (setidaknya) menambah informasi pada seseorang atau sesuatu, memberi informasi lebih tentang kata benda (*a noun*) atau kata ganti dalam klausa lain yang dijelaskan. Kata ganti penghubung yang digunakan yaitu *who(m)*, *which*, *that*, atau kata keterangan penghubung dengan *when*, *where*, *why*. Jika *antecedent* (kata benda, frase, klausa yang dirujuk)nya adalah sesuatu atau benda (yang dianggap benda), maka kata penghubungnya *which* atau *that*. Gunakan kata ganti penghubung *who*, *whoever*, *whom*, *whomever*, *whose* untuk *antecedent* orang atau sesuatu dengan sebuah nama.

Adjective Clause dan *Main Clause* digabungkan akan membentuk kalimat kompleks.

Contoh:

I lost the motorcycle **which I bought last month.**

(=saya kehilangan sepeda motor **yang saya beli bulan lalu**)

Penjelasan Kalimat :

Independent clause	I lost the motorcycle
Adjective clause	Which I bought last month
Kata ganti penghubung	Which
Fungsi kata ganti penghubung	objek dalam I bought last month
Antecedent (kata yang dirujuk)	The motorcycle
Jenis antecedent	The motorcycle : benda
Kesimpulan	Adjective clause : which I bought last month menjelaskan, membatasi kata benda yang menjadi antecedent yaitu motorcycle.

1.2 Tanda Baca Koma (Comma) Dan Adjective Clauses

1. Restrictive/essential/identifying Clause

Adjective clause model ini berfungsi menguatkan makna kalimat secara keseluruhan, dengan benar-benar memberi penjelasan kata yang diterangkan tersebut. Klausa ini tidak memerlukan koma.

Contoh :

- a. **I live in a village which is situated in a mountain.**

(=saya tinggal di sebuah desa yang terletak di pegunungan).

Penjelasan :

Adjective Clause : which is situated in a mountain membatasi, menjelaskan desa tempat saya tinggal yaitu yang terletak di gunung (bukan yang lain).

- b. **The student who speaks Chinese well is the winner of the competition.**(=siswa yang bisa berbicara bahasa Cina dengan baik adalah pemenang lomba itu.)

Penjelasan:

Adjective Klausa: who speak Chinese well tersebut membatasi siswa mana yang dimaksud pemenang lomba pidato tersebut, yaitu yang bisa berbicara bahasa Cina dengan baik.

2. Non Restrictive/essential/identifying Clause

Adjective clause ini, yang diapit oleh tanda baca koma, hanya memberi informasi tambahan kata benda sebelumnya yang diterangkan, yang jika tidak digunakan tidak mengurangi makna kalimat utama. Dalam ujaran lisan, tanda baca koma ini menunjukkan jeda.

Contoh:

- a. **The book on the table, which is mine, is interesting to read.**

(=buku yang terletak di meja, yang milik saya, penting untuk dibaca).

Penjelasan:

Buku yang terletak di meja itu (bukan di tempat lain) adalah penting untuk dibaca, sedangkan bahwa buku itu milik saya (*which is mine*) hanya memberi informasi tambahan. Klausa itu tidak mengidentifikasi, tidak bermaksud menyatakan bahwa buku yang milik saya saja yang penting dibaca, tapi yang utamanya adalah buku yang di atas meja yang penting untuk dibaca.

- b. **The student, who speaks Chinese well, is the winner of the competition.**

(=Siswa, yang bisa berbicara bahasa Cina dengan baik tersebut, adalah pemenang dari perlombaan.)

Penjelasan:

Adjective Clause: who speaks Chinese well tersebut tidak bermaksud mengidentifikasi secara khusus siapa siswa yang menjadi pemenang tersebut. **Who speaks Chinese well** hanya memberi informasi tambahan tentang pemenang lomba bahwa dia selain pemenang, ternyata bisa berbicara bahasa Cina dengan baik.

1.3 Adjective Clause Dan Relative Pronoun

1. **Adjective Clause dengan Relative pronoun (Kata ganti penghubung relatif) sebagai Subjek : *who, which, that*.**

- a. Menggabungkan dua klausa menjadi satu selanjutnya disebut kalimat kompleks (*dependent & independent clause*) dengan *relative pronoun* sebagai subjek pada *adjective clause*. Perhatikan *adjective clause* yang dicetak tebal dan garis bawah berikut.

- 1) Toni saw the man **who closed the window.**
(=Toni melihat orang yang menutup jendela itu)
- 2) The woman **who sits next to me is my mother.**
(=wanita yang duduk di dekat saya adalah ibu saya)
- 3) The driver **which is standing on the road** is friendly.
(=supir yang sedang berdiri di jalan itu sangat ramah)
- 4) The handphone **that was bought by Hamdan** is broken.
(=handphone yang dibeli Hamdan sudah rusak)
- 5) I am using a sentence **which contains an adjective clause.**
(=saya sedang menggunakan kalimat yang mengandung adjective clause)

Penjelasan:

kata yang dicetak tebal bergaris bawah di atas merupakan *adjective clause* yang menjelaskan kata sebelumnya. *who*, *which*, *that* adalah kata yang mengganti kata lain sebagai subjek dari *adjective clause* tersebut. *Who* untuk menerangkan manusia (*people*), *which* untuk menerangkan sesuatu (*things*), dan *that* untuk menerangkan baik manusia (*people*) maupun sesuatu (*things*). Kalimat kompleks (*dependent & independent clause*) di atas berasal dari masing-masing dua kalimat berikut (perhatikan subjek yang digarisbawahi):

- 1) Tono saw the man. **He** closed the window.
- 2) The woman is my mother. **She** sits next to me.
- 3) The driver is standing on the road. **He** is friendly.
- 4) The hand phone is broken. **It** was bought by Hamdan.

- 5) I am using a sentence. **It** contains an adjective clause.

2. **Adjective Clause dengan Relative pronoun** (Kata ganti penghubung relatif sebagai *objek* : *whom, which, that*).

- a. objek manusia menggunakan *whom* dan **that**. Objek sesuatu (*things*) menggunakan *which* dan *that*. Perhatikan *adjective clause* yang dicetak tebal dan garis bawah berikut ini.

Contoh:

- 1) The people **whom we visited yesterday** were very welcoming.
(=orang-orang yang kami kunjungi kemarin sangat ramah)
- 2) The manager saw the man **whom I recommended**.
(=manager melihat orang yang saya ajukan)
- 3) She is the woman **whom I told you about**.
She is the woman **about whom I told you**.
(=dialah wanita yang saya ceritakan kepadamu.)
- 4) The picture **that we are looking at** was beautiful.
(=gambar yang kami lihat indah sekali)
- 5) The Deep Purple music **we listened to** was nostalgic and legendary one.
(=music deep purple yang kita dengar penuh kenangan dan melengenda)

Penjelasan :

Kata yang dicetak tebal bergaris bawah di atas, merupakan *adjective clause* yang menjelaskan, membatasi pada objek klausa tersebut, yang pada *adjective clause* objek itu dihilangkan dan diganti dengan kata ganti penghubung *whom, who, that* agar tidak rangkap. Kata ganti penghubung bisa juga

dihilangkan (contoh nomor 5). Kata depan sebagai *object of preposition* (misalnya *about* pada nomor 3) bisa disimpan sebelum kata ganti *whom* atau *which* (*about whom*) atau di belakang predikat sebagai *object of preposition* (misalnya *whom I told you about*). Posisi *at* nomor 4 harus ada sesudah predikat atau sebagai *object of preposition* (*that we are looking at*) karena menggunakan kata penghubungnya *that*. *Whom* digunakan untuk menggantikan objek manusia (*people*), *which* untuk sesuatu (*things*), *that* untuk objek manusia (*people*) dan sesuatu (*things*).

Kalimat kompleks (*dependent & independent clause*) di atas berasal dari masing-masing dua kalimat berikut (perhatikan objek yang digarisbawahi yang dalam kalimat kompleks di atas digantikan dengan relative pronoun):

- 1) The people were very welcoming. We visited **them** yesterday.
- 2) The manager saw the man. I recommended **him**.
- 3) She is the woman. I told you about **her**.
- 4) The picture is beautiful. We are looking at **it**.
- 5) The Deep Purple music was nostalgic and legendary one. We listened to **it**.

3. **Adjective Clause dengan Relative Pronoun** (Kata ganti penghubung) yang menunjukkan bentuk kepemilikan (**possession**): **whose**

- a. **Adjective clause** mengandung kata ganti penghubung, menggantikan kepemilikan pada **relative pronoun** : **my, her, his, its, their**, yang digabungkan dengan kata bendanya. Perhatikan **adjective clause** yang dicetak tebal dan garis bawah. contoh:

- 1) I met the boy **whose father is my friend**.

(=saya bertemu anak laki-laki yang ayahnya adalah teman saya)

- 2) I live in a dormitory **whose residents come from many countries.**

(=saya tinggal di sebuah rumah kontrakan yang penghuninya berasal dari banyak Negara.)

- 3) She knows the woman **whose husband is the president of Australia.**

(=dia mengetahui istri yang suaminya adalah presiden Australia.)

- 4) Hamzah teaches a class for students **whose native language is Indonesian.**

(=Hamzah biasa mengajar siswa di kelas yang bahasa aslinya adalah bahasa Arab)

- 5) The man **whose wallet was stolen** called the police.

(=orang yang dompetnya hilang itu menelpon polisi.)

Penjelasan :

Kata yang dicetak tebal dan bergaris bawah di atas adalah *adjective clause* yang memberi batasan, atau menerangkan kepemilikan pada orang (*people*) atau sesuatu (*things*) sebelumnya. *Whose* tidak bisa dihilangkan dalam klausa, dan digunakan baik kepemilikan manusia (*people*) maupun sesuatu (*things*). *Whose* disertakan benda yang menjadi kepemilikannya.

Kalimat kompleks di atas berasal dari masing-masing dua kalimat berikut. Perhatikan bentuk kata ganti (*possessive pronoun*) yang bergaris bawah di bawah ini:
Contoh:

- 1) I met the boy. **His father** is my friend.

- 2) I live in a dormitory. **Its residents** come from many countries.
- 3) She knows the woman. **Her husband** is the president of Australia.
- 4) Hamzah teaches a class for students. **Their native language** is Indonesian.
- 5) The man called the police. **His wallet** was stolen.

4. **Adjective Clause dengan Relative pronoun** (Kata ganti penghubung relatif) yang menunjukkan suatu tempat: **where**

- a. Kata **Where** menggantikan nama suatu tempat seperti kota, negara, rumah, dll). Perhatikan **adjective clause** yang dicetak tebal dan garis bawah ini.

contoh:

- 1) The hotel **where she lives is very cold.**
(=hotel tempat dia tinggal sangat dingin sekali)
- 2) That is the restaurant **where I will meet you.**
(=inilah restaurant tempat saya akan bertemu kamu)
- 3) The town **where I grew** is small.
(=kota tempat saya tumbuh dewasa adalah kecil)
- 4) This is the bank **where I keep my money.**
(=inilah kantor bank tempat saya menyimpan uang)
- 5) This is the room **where the examination will be given.**
(=inilah ruangan tempat ujian akan diselenggarakan.)

Penjelasan:

Kata yang dicetak tebal dan bergaris bawah di atas adalah *adjective klausa* dengan menggunakan kata ganti penghubung *where* yang menunjukkan tempat

pada klausa tersebut. Kata depan (*preposition*) misalnya *in* dalam *prepositional verb* tidak disertakan jika kata ganti *where* digunakan sehingga : *where I grew*, dan kata depan disertakan jika kata penghubung *where* digantikan dengan kata ganti lain yang semakna seperti *which*, contoh nomor 1 di atas klausa bisa diubah menjadi *...in which he lives* atau *...which he lives in*, *...that he lives in*. Perhatikan nomor 5, klausa menjadi *In which the examination will be given*, atau *which the examination will be given in*, atau tanpa kata ganti penghubung sama sekali: *...he lives in*, *...the examination will be given*.

Kalimat kompleks (*dependent & independent clause*) di atas berasal dari masing-masing dua kalimat berikut (perhatikan nama tempat yang digarisbawahi yang dalam adjective diganti dengan *where*):

- 1) The hotel is very cold. She lives in **there**.
- 2) That is the restaurant. I will meet you **at that restaurant**.
- 3) The town is small. I grew **in that town**.
- 4) This is the bank. I keep my money **there**.
- 5) This is the room. The examination will be given **in that room**.

5. Adjective Clause dengan Relative Pronoun (kata ganti) penghubung relatif : **when**

- a. Penghubung **when** menggantikan kata yang memberi keterangan waktu (kapan suatu peristiwa terjadi) : **day, time, year, century**, dll. Perhatikan **adjective clause** yang dicetak tebal dan garis bawah.

Contoh:

- 1) The day **when I will meet my old friends** is on Saturday).

- (=Hari waktunya/kapan saya akan bertemu kawan-kawan lama adalah pada hari sabtu.)
- 2) 08.15 is the time **when the train arrives.**
(= Jam 08.15 adalah saat kereta biasanya tiba.)
- 3) Aminah remembers **when she fell in love with him at the first sight.**
(=Aminah teringat ketika dia jatuh cinta pada pandangan pertama.)
- 4) 1945 is the year **when Indonesia declared its independence.**
(=1945 adalah tahun ketika indonesia memproklamasikan kemerdekaannya.)
- 5) January is the month **when the rain falls.**
(=Januari adalah bulan yang biasanya hujan turun.)

Penjelasan:

Kata yang dicetak tebal dan bergaris bawah di atas adalah *adjective klausa* dengan menggunakan kata ganti penghubung *when* yang memberi keterangan waktu. Klausa tersebut menjelaskan kata yang menunjukkan waktu masa lalu, sekarang, akan datang, yang tercermin pada bulan, tahun, waktu, hari, dll. Kata ganti *when* bisa diganti dengan kata penghubung lain seperti *in which*, *on which*, *that*, atau tidak disertakan dalam klausa tersebut.

Kalimat kompleks (terdiri dari *dependent & independent clause*) tersebut di atas berasal dari dua kalimat sederhana berikut (perhatikan kata yang digarisbawahi yang menunjukkan jawaban waktu):

- 1) Saturday is the day. I will meet my old friends (on that day).
- 2) 08.15 is the time. The train arrives (at that time).
- 3) Aminah remembers the day. She fell in love with him at the first sight (on that day).

- 4) 1945 is the year. Indonesia declared its independence (in that year).
5) January is the month. The rain falls.

6. **Adjective Clause dengan Relative Pronoun (kata ganti) penghubung relatif : why**

- a. Penghubung **why** yang menunjukkan keterangan sebab atau alasan. Perhatikan **adjective clause** yang dicetak tebal berikut:

Contoh:

- 1) I don't know the reason **why she left the job.**
(=saya tidak tahu alasan mengapa ia meninggalkan pekerjaannya)
- 2) The game is the reason **why I come to the stadium.**
(=permainan itu menjadi alasan mengapa saya datang ke stadion itu.)
- 3) The answer **why Ronaldo didn't win the game** is unacceptable.
(=Jawaban mengapa Ronaldo tidak memenangkan permainan itu adalah tidak dapat diterima.)
- 4) Can you tell me the reason **why you didn't go to campus yesterday?**
(=dapatkah anda memberi tahu alasan mengapa kamu tidak ke kampus kemarin?)
- 5) Tell me the answer **why he keeps in touch with the man.**
(=katakan jawabannya mengapa dia tetap berkomunikasi dengan orang itu)

Penjelasan:

Kata yang dicetak tebal dan bergaris bawah di atas adalah *adjective klausa* (dengan menggunakan kata ganti penghubung *why*) yang berfungsi menerangkan

kata sebelumnya tentang mengapa, sebab atau alasan suatu peristiwa terjadi.

Perhatikan kata yang menjadi sebab atau alasan berikut.

- 1) I don't know the reason. She left the job.
- 2) The game is the reason. I come to the stadium.
- 3) The answer is unacceptable. Ronaldo didn't win the game.
- 4) Can you tell me the reason? You didn't go to campus yesterday.
- 5) Tell me the answer! He keeps in touch with the man.

7. Adjective Clause dengan Relative Pronoun (kata ganti) penghubung relatif : who(m), which, that dan antecedent Indefinite Pronouns, Those, The Only One(s), Personal Pronoun

a. Kata ganti penghubung *who, that, which* sebagai *subject pronouns* dengan *antecedent* (kata yang dirujuk) berupa *indefinite pronouns* (kata ganti tak tentu) seperti *someone, everything, anything, anybody, everybody, everything, something, nothing*.

- 1) Anybody who wants millionaire will always possible.
- 2) I knew well someone who came to me.
- 3) There is no one who can trust him.

b. Kata ganti penghubung *whom, that* sebagai *object pronoun* biasanya dihilangkan dalam *adjective clause* dengan *antecedent* (kata yang dirujuk) berupa *indefinite pronouns* (kata ganti tak tentu) seperti *someone, everything, anything, anybody, everybody, everything, something, nothing*.

Contoh:

- 1) Everything **he said** was bullshit.
(=segala sesuatu yang dia katakan bohong besar)
 - 2) There is always someone **I love very much in my family.**
(=Selalu ada seseorang yang saya sangat cintai dalam keluarga)
- c. Kata ganti penghubung *whom, which* dalam *adjective clause* dengan *antecedent* (kata yang dirujuk) berupa *the only one(s), those* sebagai subjek klausa.
- 1) He is the only one **who knows the answers.**
(=dia adalah satu satunya orang yang mengetahui jawabannya.)
 - 2) The presents are available for those **who come earlier.**
(=Hadiah tersedia bagi mereka yang datang lebih awal.)
- d. Kata ganti penghubung *whom, which* dalam *adjective clause* dengan *antecedent* (kata yang dirujuk) berupa *the only one(s), those* sebagai objek Klausa.
- 1) Clinton was the only one **he knew well for the candidate of president.**
(=Clinton adalah satu satunya orang yang dulu dia tahu sekali sebagai calon presiden)
 - 2) You are the only one **I love** in my family
(=Kau adalah satu satunya yang saya cintai di keluargaku.)
- e. Kata ganti penghubung *who*, dalam *adjective clause* dengan *antecedent* (kata yang dirujuk) berupa *personal pronoun* misalnya *I* (saya) dalam situasi sangat formal (tidak umum). *He* (dia) yang semakna dengan *indefinite pronoun* (*anyone, any person*), bermakna siapapun dia.

- 1) It is **I who am responsible for the accident.**
(=sayalah yang bertanggung jawab dengan kecelakaan itu)
- 2) He **who laughs last** laughs best.
(=Dia yang tertawa terakhir akan tertawa paling baik.

8. **Adjective Clause dengan kata ganti dan Quantity Expression yang mengandung of : some of, many of, most of, none of, two of, half of, both of, neither of, each of, all of, both of, several of, a few of, little of, a number of, dll**

- a. *Expression of quantity* mendahului kata ganti penghubung untuk manusia (people): *whom*, sesuatu (things) : *which*, kepemilikan : *whose*, dan umumnya dalam bahasa Inggris tulisan, serta menggunakan koma.

Contoh

- 1) There are 30 students in my classroom, **most of whom are female ones.**
(=Terdapat 30 siswa di kelas saya yang kebanyakan diantara mereka adalah siswa perempuan.)
- 2) The teacher gave the questions, **only a few of which were difficult.**
(=Guru memberikan soal, hanya beberapa (sedikit) yang sulit.
- 3) Indonesia discussed the world cup, **one of whose problems was political issue.**
(=Indonesia membahas piala dunia yang salah satu permasalahannya adalah masalah politik.)
- 4) She has three brothers, **all of whom are living in Indonesia.**

(=dia mempunyai tiga saudara, yang semuanya tinggal di Indonesia.)

- 5) The school introduced us English teachers, **both of whom are from America.**

(=Sekolah memperkenalkan kami guru bahasa Inggris, yang dua diantaranya berasal dari Amerika.)

9. Adjective Clause dengan a noun + of which

- a. Pola **a noun of which** mengandung makna sama dengan pola frasa kepemilikan: **whose+noun**, menerangkan kepemilikan sesuatu (**things**) atau benda, dan umum dalam bahasa Inggris formal tertulis, serta menggunakan koma untuk menunjukkan sebagai bagian **adjective clause**.

Contoh frasa:

Whose exterior=the Exterior of which =yang eksteriornya. **Whose value =the value of which**=yang nilainya

Contoh dalam kalimat:

- 1) Indonesia is dependent upon its income from tobacco, **the price of which varies.**
(=Indonesia bergantung pada pendapatannya dari tembakau yang harganya bervariasi.)
- 2) Argentina won the world cup, **the value of which is very impressive for Lionel Messi.**
(=Argentina memenangkan piala dunia, yang nilainya sangat mengesankan untuk Lionel Messi.)
- 3) West java has building called Gedung Sate in Bandung, **the architectural styles of which are complicated and beautiful.**
(=Jawa Barat memiliki bangunan bernama Gedung Sate di Bandung yang gaya arsitekturnya rumit dan indah.)

4) She has a building, **the roof of which is made of glass.**

(=dia memiliki bangunan yang atapnya terbuat dari kaca)

5) The lecturer assigned the students a research paper, **the purpose of which is to acquaint them methods of scholarly inquiry.**

(=Dosen menugaskan mahasiswa sebuah makalah penelitian, yang tujuannya adalah untuk mengenalkan mereka metode penyelidikan ilmiah.)

Penjelasan

Kata yang dicetak tebal dan bergaris bawah di atas adalah **adjective Clause** yang menerangkan dan berkaitan dengan kepemilikan atas sesuatu benda yang disebut sebelumnya.

10. Adjective Clause dan Sentence (kalimat): **that, this, which**

- a. Kata **that, this** bisa menjadi kata ganti dan menerangkan, menunjuk gagasan kalimat yang muncul sebelumnya secara keseluruhan. Terdapat dua kalimat (ada subjek+predikat), yaitu satu kalimat sebagai *antecedent* (yang dirujuk yang muncul sebelumnya), dan kalimat lain yang mengandung misalnya subjek *this, that* yang merujuk kepada kalimat *antecedent* secara keseluruhan.
- b. Kata *which* dalam *Adjective Clause* untuk menerangkan, menunjuk pada gagasan kalimat secara keseluruhan yang muncul sebelumnya. *Which* adalah kata ganti yang sering dalam bahasa ujaran, ucapan dengan suasana informal. Struktur kalimat umumnya tidak sesuai dalam bahasa Inggris tulisan yang formal,

kalaupun ada maka kalimat dengan kata ganti **which** model tersebut didahului oleh tanda baca koma untuk menunjukkan jeda dalam ucapan.

Contoh:

- 1) A. There was an accident on highway. **That** means I will be coming late to work.
B.(=terdapat kecelakaan jalan utama. Hal itu berarti saya akan datang telat ke tempat kerja.)
- 2) There was an accident on highway, **which means I will be coming late to work.**
(=terdapat kecelakaan di jalan utama, yang berarti saya akan telat ke tempat kerja)
- 3) A. She responded my phone call right away. I appreciated **that** very much.
(=dia merespon panggilan telpon saya. Saya sangat menghargai hal tersebut)
B. She responded my phone call right away, **which I appreciated very much.**
(=dia merespon panggilan telpon saya, yang (membuat) saya sangat menghargainya.)
- 4) A. Argetina won the world cup. **That** surprised the world.
(=argentina memenangkan piala dunia. Hal itu mengejutkan dunia)
B. Argetina won the world cup, **which surprised the world.**
(=argentina memenangkan piala dunia yang mengejutkan dunia.)
- 5) A. The war will be coming in Rusia. **That** is too bad.
(=perang akan terjadi lagi di Rusia. Hal itu adalah hal yang sangat buruk)
B. The war will be coming in Russia, **which is too bad.**

(=perang akan muncul lagi di Rusia, yang merupakan hal yang sangat buruk)

A. My daughter is not at home yet. **This** worries me.

My daughter is not at home yet, **which worries me.**

Penjelasan

Kata *that* yang bergaris bawah merupakan subjek (nomor 1,3,4,5) dan objek (no. 2) pada masing masing kalimat yang terpisah. Namun *that* tersebut menerangkan kalimat yang tersebut sebelumnya. Kata **which** yang bergaris bawah merupakan kata ganti sambung dan menjadi bagian **adjective clause**. Bagian A terdiri dari dua kalimat, dan B terdiri dari satu kalimat (dua klausa).

1.4 Perubahan Adjective Clause Menjadi Adjective Phrase

1. **Clause** dan **Phrase** merupakan kumpulan (kelompok) kata. Perbedaan keduanya, pada **clause** terdapat kata dengan fungsi subjek, predikat namun tidak demikian pada **phrase**.
2. **Adjective Clause** dan **Adjective Phrase** keduanya menerangkan, menjelaskan suatu kata yang disebut sebelumnya yang menjadi **antecedent**. **Adjective phrase** merupakan bentuk pengurangan dari **adjective clause**, atau terdapat bagian yang dihilangkan pada **adjective clause** sehingga menjadi **adjective phrase**.

Contoh :

No	Adjective clause	Adjective phrase
1	The girl <u>who is singing in the concert</u> is Agnes.	The girl <u>singing in the concert</u> is Agnes.
2	Soekarno, <u>who was the first president of Indonesia</u> , had a hobby of painting.	Soekarno, <u>the first president of Indonesia</u> , had a hobby of painting.
3	Indonesia has islands <u>that consists of</u> 33 provinces.	Indonesia has islands <u>consisting of</u> 33 provinces.
4	The cars <u>that are in the garage</u> are Fortuner and Camry.	The cars <u>in the garage</u> are Fortuner and Camry.
5	Anyone <u>who wants to be a teacher</u> is now studying in University of Education.	Anyone <u>wanting to be a teacher</u> is now studying in University of Education.
6	The house <u>which is surrounded by fence</u> was built in 2000.	The house <u>surrounded by fence</u> was built in 2000.

Penjelasan:

Bagian kalimat kompleks tersebut (dua klausa: **dependent** dan **independent clause**) yang dihilangkan yaitu kata ganti sambung (**who(m), which, that**) dalam **adjective clause** baik sebagai subjek maupun objek. Kata bantu **to be** juga dihilangkan dan kata kerja berubah dalam bentuk **-ing** pada **adjective clause**. **Adjective clause** yang berubah menjadi **adjective phrase** tetap memiliki makna yang sama.

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CHAPTER 2

PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES

By Fitrahnanda Ayubadiah

2.1 Introduction

In forming sentences, learners should know the components which construct them. It starts from words into phrases, creates clauses, and finally becomes sentences. What kind of words should we use in forming a sentence? It begins with words, the parts of speech, or word classes. Part of speech is an essential component of a sentence. A good sentence is related to the comprehension of parts of speech. According to traditional grammar, parts of speech consist of 8 parts or classes. They start from nouns to prepositions. Each class is divided into several parts. For instance, abstract and concrete nouns, singular and plural, etc., are parts of nouns, regular and irregular verbs, present, past and participle are parts of verbs, and many more.

After comprehending the word class, the next step is grouping words by words into phrases. A phrase is a set of words that are used in a clause or sentence to complete a subject or verb. There are several types of phrases such as noun phrases, adjective phrases, verb phrases, adverb phrases, and prepositional phrases. Since prepositional phrases are a bit different from the other phases, this chapter will discuss prepositional phrases.

2.2 Preposition

Before discussing prepositional phrases, let us review back to the definition of a preposition. Preposition forms a relationship between the noun or pronoun and other word classes such as verbs, adjectives, or even adverbs within a clause. It gives clarity to the clause or sentences, answering the question where? when? how? Which one or what kind. Let's look at the explanation as follows:

1. Amalia works **at a coffee shop**.
2. The committee will hold the annual meeting **on November 23rd**.
3. Amalia always gives us suggestions and bits of advice **in a very nice way**.
4. The dictionary **on the table** is Amalia's.

In (1) '*Amalia works at a coffee shop*'; the preposition '*at*' connects the word '*works*' to '*a coffee shop*' and denotes the meaning of place. Another example is '(2) *the committee will hold the annual meeting on November 23rd*'; the preposition '*on*' expresses the idea of time. Besides denoting time and spatial relations as in example (4) '*on the table*', prepositions also create the meaning of a cause, means, manner, concession, and soon. For example, in (3) the preposition '*in*' and '*a very nice way*' shows manner or answering the question '*how*'. The common preposition used in sentences and in prepositional phrases such as *in, on, at, by, of, with, to, over, during, before, after*, and many more.

2.3 Prepositional Phrase

In a clause or sentence, prepositions cannot stand alone. It is always combined with the other part of speech, mostly

noun or noun phrases. The preposition in which an object is a phrase is called a prepositional phrase, and if the preposition is combined with a clause, it is called a prepositional clause.

2.3.1 Definition

As explained, prepositions can also form a unit if combined with single words or clauses. The prepositional phrase consists of a preposition and its object. The object is a noun, a noun phrase, or a pronoun and modifiers. Meanwhile, if the object of the preposition is in the form of a clause, then it is called a prepositional clause. For example :



Figure 2.1. Example of Prepositional Phrase

The first example is the use of prepositions '*around*' with the object of a preposition, a noun phrase '*the main building*'. The unity between a preposition and its object formed a prepositional phrase.



Figure 2.2. Example of Prepositional Clause

Meanwhile, the second example is the combination of the preposition '*of*' with the clause '*what she will say*'. The

arrangement of a preposition with the object of a preposition which is in a form of a clause is a prepositional clause.

Both prepositional phrases and clauses modify verbs or nouns within a clause or sentence. According to (Ballard, 2013), a prepositional phrase cannot stand alone as the head and needs to be completed with a prepositional complement. The complement is mainly in noun phrases, as in example (1), 'the main building'.

Based on the function, prepositional phrases are divided into adverbial and adjectival prepositional phrases and act as noun prepositional phrases. The following sub-chapter will give the learners an insight into the definition and how it is used in a sentence.

2.3.2 Types of Prepositional Phrases

Based on their function, prepositional phrases are categorized into adjective and adverb prepositional phrases. Moreover, in some cases, prepositional phrases could act as nouns also.

1. Prepositional Phrase as Adjective

A prepositional phrase that acts as an adjective is called an adjectival phrase or a prepositional adjectival phrase. The object of the preposition is in the form of a noun or pronoun, and it modifies the noun or as the predicate of a sentence. For example:

- a. The new building **across the street** is Amalia's.

The prepositional adjectival phrase of example (a) is the preposition *across* with the noun '*the street*'. Why is it called an adjectival phrase? Is the function the same as an adjective in general? Let's look at example (a) again. Notice the word 'new' before the word building, this is the main function of an adjective in a

sentence. The adjective ‘new’ gives additional meaning to the noun ‘building’.

The new building



Figure 2.3. an adjective describes a noun

Next, the prepositional adjectival phrase ‘across the street’ modifies the noun phrase ‘The new building’. The prepositional adjectival phrase which comes after the subject ‘the new building’ gives clarity to it by answering the question, “which one?”

c. Maya always read a book about life motivation



Figure 2.4. Prepositional phrase: adjectival phrase

In terms of function, both adjective and prepositional adjectival phrases have the same function, to modify or give clarity to nouns or noun phrases. The prepositional phrase often has the force of a limiting adjective, pointing out one or more individuals (Curme, 1986). The nouns which prepositional adjectival phrases explain roles as a subject, subject complement, direct object, and indirect object. Here are some examples of prepositional adjectival phrases in sentences.

The new building across the street



Figure 2.5. Adjectival Phrase Modify Subject Complement.

Example (b) the prepositional adjectival phrase ‘of Indonesia’ explain the subject complement ‘the capital city’. It gives clarity about which capital city.

Elijah picks up her sister in pajamas

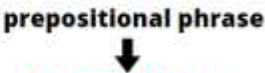


Figure 2.6. adjectival phrase modify direct object.

Meanwhile, example (c), the adjectival phrase modifies the direct object of the sentence. It explains and answers the question “which book?”, the book ‘*about life motivation*’.

b. Jakarta is the capital city of Indonesia



Figure 2.7. Common Mistakes In The Prepositional Phrase

However, the use of prepositional phrases may cause ambiguity in a sentence. The prepositional phrase “*in pajamas*” creates ambiguity in the sentence. It is a question of whether Elijah is the one who wears pajamas, or her sister does. The correct way to give precise meaning to the sentence is by rewriting it to “Elijah picked up her sister while wearing a pajama”.

Thus, it is necessary to evaluate the use of prepositions in a sentence.

2. Prepositional Phrase as Adverb

Besides serving as adjectives, the prepositional phrase also has a function as an adverb. Adverb serves the function to modify a verb, an adjective, and another adverb which is called a prepositional adverbial phrase, or adverbial phrase in short. The object of the preposition is similar to the prepositional adjectival phrase. For example:

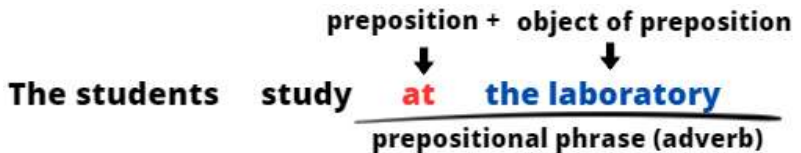


Figure 2.8. prepositional phrase : adverbial phrase

The article "*the*" with the noun "*laboratory*" forms an object of the preposition. Using the preposition "*at*" as the head of the phrase, modify the verb "*study*" by giving clear information about the place.

In this case, the prepositional phrase serves as an adverb because of its involvement with the verb. The prepositional adverb phrases answer questions of when, where, how, why, to what extent, and under what circumstances.

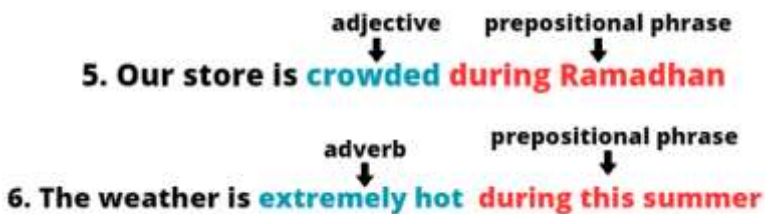


Figure 2.10. Prepositional phrase modify an adjective and adverb

Besides modifying verbs, a prepositional adverb phrase can also modify adjectives and other adverbs. Mostly the prepositional adverbial phrase is located after the verb or adjective or adverb. The position of prepositional phrases as adverb is also an exciting topic of discussion. Like adverbs, prepositional phrases that act as adverbs can be located at the beginning, in the middle and/or at the end of a sentence. This fact is related to the principle that it is possible to use more than one prepositional phrase, both adjective and adverb, in a sentence.



Figure 2.11. Example: the position of the prepositional phrase

In Figure 3.11, there are two prepositional phrases in a sentence. The first prepositional phrase, "Before Christmas" serves as the adverbial phrase modifies the verb

“visit” and explains the time of David’s plan. The second prepositional phrases, “in Illinois” at the end of the sentence explains the direct object, “his cousin” which answers the question of “which one”. Thus, it is possible to have more than one prepositional phrase within a sentence.

However, it should be noted that its use might be confusing. Therefore, it is necessary to understand what must be avoided when using prepositional phrases. One way is to pay attention to the correct position of the prepositional phrase, the object of preposition and the subject-verb agreement in the sentence.

3. Prepositional Phrase as Noun

A prepositional phrase mostly functions as an adjective and an adverb but in some cases, it also serves as Noun. In a sentence, prepositional phrase as a noun employed as the subject of the sentence.



Figure 2.12. The prepositional Phrase as Noun

In the example, the object of the preposition is the noun phrase “the post office” which connects with a preposition “behind” to explain the place. This combination forms a prepositional phrase that acts as a noun of the sentence. It explains the best location for the store. Since the prepositional phrase as a noun is rarely found, the effectiveness of its use needs to be noted. Keep the

prepositions manageable and avoid causing ambiguity in the sentence.

2.4 Exercises

To check your understanding of the prepositional phrases, do the exercises below. Identify the prepositional phrases within sentences and decide their function as an adverb, an adjective, or a noun. Do not look at the answer key before finishing it.

1. David always buys groceries at Walmart.
2. During our meeting, Ahsraf introduces his nephew from Doha.
3. Across the sea is where we are heading to.
4. We finished the book with great effort.
5. The man behind Mr. Amran is a new-hired staff.

If you have finished analyzing the sentences, check your answer below. Remember, if you get less than 3 or more correct answers, read the materials over again.

1. David always buys groceries **at Walmart**.
The prepositional phrase acts as an adverb because it modifies the verb '*buys*' and answers the question of "*where?*".
2. **During our meeting**, Ahsraf introduces his nephew **from Doha**.
There are two prepositional phrases in this sentence such as '*during our meeting*' and '*from Doha*'. However, '*during our meeting*' behaves adverbially since it explains the verb '*introduces*' and '*from Doha*' explains the object '*his nephew*'. In other words, they answer the question of "*when?*" and "*which one?*".

3. **Across the sea** is where we are heading to.

The prepositional phrase in this sentence serves as a noun or as the subject of the sentence. It communicates the location where the people are heading to.

4. We finished the book **with great effort**.

This prepositional phrase is an adverbial phrase since it modifies the verb '*finished*' and explains 'how' they finished the book.

5. The man **behind Mr. Amran** is a new-hired staff.

It has been discussed that the position of prepositional phrases varied from the beginning, the middle, to the end of a sentence. This sentence shows that it is possible to have a prepositional phrase in the middle of the sentence. "*Behind Mr. Amran*" is a prepositional adjectival phrase since it clarifies the meaning of "*the man*" in the sentence.

2.5 Conclusion

In essence, prepositions can associate or connect words located before and after them to form a precise meaning. Prepositions themselves can form a unit called a prepositional phrase. This unit consists of prepositions with the object of the preposition. The object of the prepositions is in the form of phrases and clauses. Prepositional phrases serve as adjectives, adverbs, and nouns. These functions have the same goal, modifying or adding to clarify nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs around them.

In addition, it is necessary to use the preposition effectively. How? The basic things to pay attention to first, avoiding excessive use of prepositional phrases in sentences. Change the passive voice to an active one. Second, be careful in identifying which parts of the sentence need clarification by using prepositional phrases and avoiding ambiguity. Last, do not forget about subject-verb agreement in the sentence.

The prepositional phrase is one of many essential components in forming a sentence. If appropriately used, the sentences or paragraphs we write or say will become more precise and easier to understand.

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CHAPTER 3

CAUSATIVE

By Neneng Yuniarty

3.1 Causative

In English, the causative form is used when we do not do something ourselves, but we ask someone else to do it (Azar, 1982). For example, "She got her house painted.", Subject *She* in the sentence did not paint her own house, but someone else did, with the consent of the subject herself. There are two types of causatives, namely active causative and passive causative.

When it is used in sentences, the causative verb does not have to be in the form of present verb, but can also be in the form of past verb or past participle verb, depending on the type of sentence.

Actually, there are some verbs that can perform as causative verbs, for example:

1. Allow
2. Cause
3. Convince
4. Enable
5. Force
6. Get
7. Have
8. Lead
9. Let
10. Make
11. Motivate
12. Permit
13. Require

Among the causative verbs above, there are four words that are most often used in causative verb sentence structures. The four words are *get*, *have*, *let*, and *make*:

1. *Get* is used to ask someone to do something for the subject.
2. *Have* has the same function as *get* but in different sentence structure.
3. *Let* is used to allow someone to do something.
4. *Make* is used to convince someone to do something.

3.2 Active Causative

There are two patterns for active causative (Azar, 1982):

1. The causative verbs that are immediately followed by bare infinitive.

S + P (causative verb) + agent + action verb (bare infinitive)

a. Have.

It is used when we talk about us cause, persuade, ask, or arrange someone to do something for us.

For example:

- My father has the mechanic check the motorcycle.
- Amira had Tommy tidy up the room yesterday.
- I will have Sam send the package tomorrow.

b. Let.

It means that we allow someone to do something or to give permission something to happen without forbidding it.

For example:

- She let her daughter play with the dirt.
- Norman lets Drake enter her room.
- Messy let the dog steal the food.

c. Make.

It means to show that the subject of the sentence force to do something or cause someone to do something which the subject cannot control it.

For example:

- We made Jessica arrange for yesterday's meeting.
- My little sister makes my big brother do her school project.
- My grandma made me cook dinner.

d. Help.

It is to assist someone to do something which will be easier for the person to finish the job or to handle the problem.

For example:

- He helps me type the report.
- My big brother will help me write the poem.
- They helped the victims get the clean clothes.

2. The causative verbs that are immediately followed by to + infinitive.

S + P (causative verb) + agent + action verb (to + infinitive)

a. Allow

It means that to give permission to someone to do or to have something.

For example:

- The school allow the students to have charity night.
- He allowed his little brother to borrow the shirt.

- The shop keeper allows us to wait at the shop after the heavy rain stops.
- The doctor allows only the mother to accompany the kid.

b. Cause

It means to make someone experience, get, or carry out something.

For example:

- He causes his friend to get into trouble.
- The politician has caused the citizen to suffer for years.
- You will cause me lots of additional work.
- Her manager caused her to resign from the office.
- Due to his fussy attitude, it caused me to question his honesty.

c. Convince

It means to make someone to acknowledge to act or to assure someone about doing something.

For example:

- She convinced him to drive her to the party.
- They will convince the citizen to vote for the new president.
- My mom cannot convince me to stay for the weekend.

d. Enable

It means to get someone or something to carry out something.

- The new machine will enable us to make the job easier.
- He enables us to stay for the thunder to stop.
- The new library system enables us to read the book online.

e. Force

- ❖ It means to get someone reluctantly to do something.

For example:

- They forced the workers to work over time.
- She was forced to give up her baby.
- You force me to accompany you to the party.
- ❖ It means to cause something important for someone to carry out something.

For example:

- I am forced to gather more money for the people in need.
- My mother forces my little sister to have swimming lesson.
- The physician forces my father to do some more test before the operation.
- The aeroplane pilot will be forced to fly for another minute because of heavy traffic.

f. Get.

Its meaning is the same as *have somebody do something* but in different sentence structure. *Have* is followed by *bare infinitive (v1)*, while *get* is followed by *to + infinitive*.

For example:

- He **got** the technician to fix the fridge.
- Darryl will get Diva to teach him math.
- I **get** my cat **to stop** biting.

g. Lead

It means to steer someone to do something by doing the first time.

For example:

- I lead my nephew to like cycling.
- He leads the man to walk the right pats.

- The instructor will lead the staff to start exercising.
- h. Motivate
It means that to make someone do something for a reason.
For example:
 - My mom motivated me to study abroad.
 - He was motivated to help the poor.
- i. Permit
It means that to give permission to someone to do or have something.
For example:
 - Grandma permitted me to go camping with my friends.
 - Her parents will not permit them to marry.
 - He will not be permitted to leave the house at night.
- j. Require
It means that to need someone to do something because it is a necessity.
 - We require the staff to wear uniform every Wednesday.
 - When we are in a construction building, we are required to wear helmet.
 - To enter the room, the customer will be required to take off the shoes.

The *agent* on the two patterns above means that someone or something that takes action. Meanwhile, the action verbs are action that are carried out, either in the form of bare infinitive (basic form of a verb/v1) or to + infinitive (to + v1).

3.3 Passive Causative

The causative verbs used in this type are get and have and the action verbs used are past participle (v3). The passive causative is used when we ask someone else to do something as we instruct for us by focusing on the proses (Azar, 1982).

S + P (causative verb) + agent + action verb (past participle/v3)

1. Get

For example:

- My aunt will get the book arranged on the library shelf.
- He gets his king crab cooked.
- We got the trash dumped.

2. Have

For example:

- They will have their house demolished.
- Barbara has her closet prepared.
- My brother had his glasses cleaned.

3.4 Exercises

Part 1. Choose the correct answer!

1. Grace always _____ her brothers _____ their beds.
a) makes / tidy
b) got / tidy
c) had / tidied
d) get / tidy
e) let / tidying
2. The Harrisons _____ the painter _____ their house every year.
a) get I painting
b) let / paint

- c) have / paint
 - d) got / to painted
 - e) make / to paint
3. The sergeant made the criminal _____.
- a) talked
 - b) to talk
 - c) talk
 - d) talking
 - e) have talked
4. Hilda _____ her older sister _____ her clothes yesterday.
- a) made / to iron
 - b) let / iron
 - c) have / iron
 - d) got / iron
 - e) got / to iron
5. He'll _____ his brother _____ a watch if he passes the exam.
- a) let / have bought
 - b) make / buy
 - c) get / buy
 - d) have / buying
 - e) make / bought
6. The boss _____ him _____ a suit, though he wanted to wear sportswear.
- a) makes / wear
 - b) got / wearing
 - c) had / worn
 - d) made / wear
 - e) have gotten / to wear
7. Ali _____ his credit card _____.
- a) has / change
 - b) get / to change
 - c) made / to change

- d) got / change
 - e) had / changed
8. Heavy music _____ her _____.
- a) gets / to be nervous
 - b) lets / feel nervously
 - c) makes / nervous
 - d) have / nervous
 - e) makes / nervously
9. The manager _____ his secretary _____ the documents.
- a) had / typed
 - b) made / typed
 - c) got / type
 - d) had / type
 - e) got / to be typed
10. I think we will have to _____ the inner designer _____ the house.
- a) get / decorated
 - b) let / decorated
 - c) get / decorate
 - d) have / decorate
 - e) have / decorated
11. The pain of her broken leg _____ her _____.
- a) made / cry out
 - b) got / to cry out
 - c) let / cry out
 - d) may have / cried out
 - e) have / cry out
12. If he does not do this work on time willingly, his boss will _____ him _____ it.
- a) get / done
 - b) make / do
 - c) let / do
 - d) have / to do

- e) have / done
13. It is a very profitable business but I couldn't _____ him _____ up his mind to start it.
- a) made / make
 - b) want / to make
 - c) get / to make
 - d) let / to make
 - e) have / made
14. The orchestra members should _____ their musical instruments _____ and be ready to begin.
- a) make / tuned
 - b) have / tuned
 - c) let / to be tuned
 - d) get / to be tuned
 - e) make / tune
15. When did you _____ your bank accounts _____?
- a) have / check
 - b) get / to check
 - c) make / checked
 - d) have / checked
 - e) get / checking
16. Mum does not _____ me _____ sweets very often.
- a) let / have
 - b) get / to have
 - c) make / have
 - d) have / had
 - e) get / have
17. The naughty boy _____ his father _____ his bicycle talking about it day and night.
- a) got / repair
 - b) had / repaired
 - c) have / repaired
 - d) made / get repaired
 - e) made / repair

18. My roommate doesn't _____ me _____ inside the room.
a) get / to smoke
b) have / to smoke
c) get / smoke
d) let / smoke
e) make / to smoke
19. Mrs. White _____ her daughter _____ the dishes.
a) made / wash
b) got / be washed
c) have / wash
d) got / wash
e) let / wash
20. The bodyguard won't _____ you into the center without your card.
a) have
b) let
c) get
d) make
e) be let

Part 2. Fill in the blank with the word in the bracket using the correct form of causative.

1. The Doctor made the patient _____ in bed. (stay)
3. Mrs. Crane had her house _____. (paint)
4. The teacher made Juan _____ the room. (leave)
5. Ellen got Marvin _____ her paper. (type)
6. Maria is getting her hair _____ tomorrow. (cut)
7. We are going to let her _____ the letter. (write)
8. She always has her car _____ by the same medicine. (fix)
9. I have my hair _____ today. (cut)
10. Mark got his transcripts _____ to the university. (send)
11. The teacher made Juan _____ the room. (leave)

12. Mr. Lincoln had the money _____ last week. (send)
13. Mr. Lambert will have his secretary _____ the report immediately. (type)
14. My father had the furniture _____ to my house yesterday. (deliver)
15. Jack has gotten his colleague _____ the annual report. (help)
16. My mom is getting the shop assistant _____ her a discount. (give)
17. My aunt will get her children _____ the dishes. (do)
18. Becky is going to have the shop seller _____ her food. (deliver)
19. Jeremy should have Anton _____ the article. (edit)
20. Mrs. Wilbert got her washing machine _____ last Wednesday. (repair)
21. I will get my husband _____ the children while I am working. (look after)

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CHAPTER 4

TO INFINITIVE: ACTIVE OR PASSIVE

By Rozita Yusniaty Lodo

4.1 Infinitive

The infinitive is the basic form of a verb. When we talk about the infinitive in English, we are usually referring to the present tense of the infinitive, which is the most common.

Pattern:

An infinitive = **to** + the simple form of a verb (to see, to be, to go, etc.).

Examples:

- I **hope to see** you tomorrow.
- He **decided to go to Italy** by next week.
- Michaello **refused to help** his friends.

The usage of the *to-infinitive*

The *to-infinitive* is used in many sentence constructions and often expresses the purpose of something or someone's opinion about something. The *to-infinitive* is also used after a large collection of different verbs.

1. The *to-infinitive* is used to express a purpose or intention behind an action.

Examples:

- 1) Michael bought some flowers **to give** to his girl friend.
- 2) He locked the door **to keep** his pet out.

2. The *to-infinitive* is used as the subject the sentence.

This formal expression is much more frequently used in written than spoken English.

Examples:

- 1) **To visit** London is my dream

2) **To understand** English, is my goal.

3) It is difficult **to learn** English.

3. The *to-infinitive* is used to express the potential or intended use of something.

In this pattern, a noun or pronoun is followed by the *to-infinitive*.

Examples:

1) Would you like something **to eat**?

2) The little girl needs some toys **to play**.

3) The boys do not have anything **to eat**.

4. The *to-infinitive* following an adjective.

When using the *to-infinitive* with an adjective, there is a common pattern. These words come together to form these expressions.

subject + to be + adjective + (for/of someone) + to-infinitive + (rest of sentence)

Subject	+ to be	+ adjective	(+ for/of someone)	+ to-infinitive	(+ rest of sentence)
I	am	happy		to help	
I	am	happy	for you	to help	me
It	is	easy	for you	to criticise	other people
It	is	difficult	for Christie	to be kind	to her brother

5. The *to-infinitive* with adverbs

The adverbs too and enough are frequently used with the *to-infinitive* to explain why we are satisfied or unsatisfied. Too and enough typically follow the same placement pattern as they would without the *to-infinitive*, coming before or after the adjective, adverb, or noun that they modify. Then, we give an explanation of why the quantity is too much, too little, or just right in the *to-infinitive* that follows. Normally, the *to-infinitive* and the

remainder of the sentence can be dropped while maintaining the sentence's grammatical structure.

Examples:

- 1) There is **too much** salt **to put** in this food.
- 2) Christie has **too many** tasks **to do**.
- 3) The dishes are **too dirty** **to wash**.
- 4) He is **too lazy** **to work**
- 5) This ice cream p is **too cold** **to eat**.
- 6) Michael
- 7) Arrived **too late** **to see** the movie.

6. The *to-infinitive* with question words

The verbs ask, decide, explain, forget, know, show, tell and understand can be followed by an interrogative word such as where, how, what, who and when + the *to-infinitive*.

Examples:

- 1) Christie **tells Michaello how to write** the alphabets.
- 2) Do you **know what to do**?
- 3) **Tell Christie when to light** the candle.
- 4) Michaello has **forgotten where to put** the glasses.
- 5) They are not sure **they know who to call**.

4.2 Active or Passive Infinitive

The present active infinitive, commonly known as the "infinitive", is the base or root form of a verb. In English, it can take two forms: with or without the particle *to*.

Example:

go or to go, leave or to leave, love or to love

We use an active verb to express what the subject does.

The pattern of the active infinitive:

Simple present: **Subject + simple present/-s/-es/-ies**

- Michael **helps** his father everyday.
- Christie **studies** English every Tuesday.
- Francis **goes** to the see the dentist every weekend.

Present progressive: **Subject + be (is, are) + verb-ing**

- Raymurphy **is cleaning** his bedroom.
- Raphaelle and Michaello **are studying** English.

Present perfect: **subject + has/have + past participle**

- Raymurphy **has cleaned** his bedroom.
- Raphaelle and Michaello **have studied**.

Simple past : **Subject + simple past**

- Raymurphy **cleaned** his bedroom.

Past progressive: **subject + be (was, were) + verb-ing**

- Raymurphy **was cleaning** his bedroom.
- Raphaelle and Michaello **were studying** English.

Past perfect : **subject + had + past participle**

- Christabel **had studied** English.

Simple future : **subject + shall/will + simple present**

- Christabel **will help** you.
- We **shall go** to Cambridge.

Be going to : **subject + be going to + simpe present**

- Raymurphy **is going to** help his sister.

Future perfect : **subject + will have + past participle**

- Raymurphy **will have helped** his sister.

The usage of the Passive Infinitive

1. We use the passive infinitive when we want to focus on the receiver (the person who experiences the action) or when we do not want to mention the doer (the person doing the action).

Example:

Christie does not give her phone number, she does not want **to be phoned** by strangers. (Christie is the receiver, the person to be phoned).

2. We use a passive verb to express what happens to the subject.

The pattern of the passive:

Subject + (is/was/have been ect.) + past participle

Present simple: The kitchen **is cleaned** everyday.

Present continuous: The kitchen **is being cleaned**.

Past simple: The kitchen **was cleaned** yesterday.

Past continuous: The kitchen **was being cleaned**.

Future simple: The kitchen **will be cleaned** later.

Present perfect: The kitchen **has been cleaned**.

Past Perfect: The kitchen **had been cleaned**.

When we use passive, who or what causes is usually unknown or unimportant.

Example:

My laptop was stolen in the robbery (someone stole it and we do not know who).

3. The passive infinitive is used in some constructions using the passive form. It is especially common after modal verbs (may, should, could, etc.) to indicate what is possible or correct.

Examples:

- You **will be invited** to the party.
- The bedroom **should have been cleaned**.
- The letter **cannot be sent**.
- They **have to be told** about the headline news.

Exercises

□ EXERCISE 4. Adjectives followed by infinitives. (Chart 15-2)

Directions: Complete the sentences, using the expressions listed in Chart 15-2 and your own words. Use infinitive phrases in your completions.

1. Maria always speeds on the expressway. She's
→ *She's certain to get stopped by the police.*
→ *She's likely to get a ticket.*
2. There have been a lot of burglaries in my neighborhood recently, so I have started taking precautions. Now I am always very
3. I've worked hard all day long. Enough's enough! I'm
4. Next month, I'm going to a family reunion—the first one in 25 years. I'm very much looking forward to it. I'm
5. Some children grow up in unhappy homes. My family, however, has always been loving and supportive. I'm
6. Ivan's run out of money again, but he doesn't want anyone to know his situation. He needs money desperately, but he's
7. Rosalyn wants to become an astronaut. That has been her dream since she was a little girl. She has been working hard toward her goal and is
8. Mr. Wah was offered an excellent job in another country, but his wife and children don't want to move. He's not sure what to do. Although he would like the job, he's
9. Our neighbors had extra tickets to the ballet, so they invited us to go with them. Since both of us love the ballet, we were
10. Sally recently told me what my wayward brother is up to these days. I couldn't believe my ears! I was

□ EXERCISE 6. Adjectives followed by infinitives. (Chart 15-2)

Directions: Work in pairs, in groups, or as a class.

Speaker A: Your book is open. Ask the questions.

Speaker B: Your book is closed. Answer in complete sentences.

1. What are you careful to do before you cross a busy street?
2. What are children sometimes afraid to do?
3. When you're tired in the evening, what are you content to do?
4. If one of your friends has a problem, what are you willing to do?
5. Sometimes when people don't know English very well, what are they reluctant to do?
6. If the teacher announces there is a test tomorrow, what will you be motivated to do?
7. What are you determined to do before you are 70 years old?
8. What are some things people should be ashamed to do?
9. Is there anything you are eager to do today or tomorrow?
10. In what ways are you a fortunate person?
11. Can you tell me something you were shocked to find out?/astonished to learn?
12. Can you tell me something you were disappointed to discover?/sad to hear?

Betty Schramper Azar: Understanding and Using English Grammar, Third Edition with Answer Key (2002)

41.1 Complete these sentences. Use the following verbs in the passive:

arrest carry cause delay do forget keep knock know make repair send

Sometimes you need **have** (might have, would have etc.).

1. The situation is serious. Something must be done before it's too late.
2. I haven't received the letter yet. It might have been sent to the wrong address.
3. A decision will not _____ until the next meeting.
4. These documents are important. They should always _____ in a safe place.
5. This road is in bad condition. It should _____ a long time ago.
6. The injured man couldn't walk and had to _____.
7. If you hadn't shouted at the policeman, you wouldn't _____.
8. I'm not sure what time I'll arrive tomorrow. I may _____.
9. It's not certain how the fire started. It might _____ by an electrical fault.
10. A new school is being built. The old one is going to _____ down.
11. The election is next Sunday. The full results will _____ on Tuesday.
12. Last week they weren't speaking to one another. Now they're happy again. The problem seems to _____.

Murphy, Raymond: *English grammar in use* (2019). Cambridge University Press.

43.2 Make sentences from the words in brackets. Sometimes the verb is active, sometimes passive.

- 1 There's somebody behind us. (We / follow) We're being followed.
- 2 This door is a different colour, isn't it? (you / paint?) Have you painted it?
- 3 My bike has disappeared. (It / steal!) It _____.
- 4 My umbrella has disappeared. (Somebody / take) Somebody _____.
- 5 A neighbour of mine disappeared six months ago.
(He / not / see / since then) He _____.
- 6 I wonder how Jessica is these days.
(I / not / see / for ages) I _____.
- 7 A friend of mine was stung by a bee recently.
(you / ever / sting / bee?) _____ you _____.
- 8 The bridge was damaged recently.
(It / repair / at the moment) It _____.
- 9 Tom's car was stolen recently.
(It / not / find / yet) _____.
- 10 I went into the room and saw that the table and chairs were not in the same place.
(The furniture / move) The _____.

Murphy, Raymond: *English grammar in use* (2019). Cambridge University Press.

43.3 Instead of using 'somebody', 'they' etc., write a passive sentence.

- 1 Somebody has cleaned the room. The room has been cleaned.
- 2 They are building a new road around the city.
A _____ around the city.
- 3 They have built two new hotels near the airport.
Two _____ near the airport.
- 4 When I last visited, they were building some new houses here.
When I last visited, some _____.
- 5 The meeting is now on 15 April. They have changed the date.
The date of _____.
- 6 I didn't know that somebody was recording our conversation.
I didn't know that our _____.
- 7 Is anyone doing anything about the problem?
_____ anything _____ the problem?
- 8 The windows were very dirty. Nobody had cleaned them for ages.
The windows were very dirty. They _____.

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CHAPTER 5

DIRECT & INDIRECT SPEECH

By: Morita, S.S., M.Pd.

5.1 Introduction

When we want to report someone else's utterance, we may use **direct speech** or **indirect speech**. Pay attention to the following examples.

5.2 Direct Speech

- a. John said, "I will go to Yogyakarta next week."
- b. I told him, "I called you several times last night."
- c. Peter asked me, "Where have you been lately?"
- d. My mom said, "Clean your bedroom now!"



Based on the above examples, we quote the actual words of the speaker. On the other hand, we may report what someone said without quoting his exact words as we will see in the following examples.

5.3 Indirect Speech

- a. My sister told me that she had lost her camera.
- b. The police officer told her to show him her driving license.
- c. I asked him whether he understood the new lesson.
- d. The teacher asked me why I hadn't done my homework.

How to change direct to indirect speech?

a. Positive Statement

When using indirect or reported speech, the form changes. Indirect speech is usually introduced by the verb **said** or **told**. This indicates that something was said in the past. Since the introductory verb is in the past, the main verb in the reported sentence also changes. Note the following changes.

Direct Speech	Indirect Speech
<u>Simple Present</u> John said, “I <i>study</i> English every day.”	<u>Simple Past</u> John said (that) <i>he studied</i> English every day.
<u>Simple Past</u> John said, “I <i>studied</i> English last night”	<u>Past Perfect</u> John said (that) <i>he had studied</i> English the previous night .
<u>Present Continuous</u> John said, “I <i>am studying</i> English now.”	<u>Past Continuous</u> John said (that) <i>he was studying</i> English then.
<u>Past Continuous</u> John said, “I <i>was studying</i> English at 9 o’clock this morning.”	<u>Past Perfect</u> John said (that) <i>he had been studying</i> English at 9 o’clock that morning.
<u>Present Perfect</u>	<u>Past Perfect</u>

Direct Speech	Indirect Speech
John said, “I <i>have studied</i> English for two hours.”	John said (that) he <i>had studied</i> English for two hours.
<u>Present Future</u> John said, “ I <i>will study</i> English tomorrow.”	<u>Past Future</u> John said (that) he <i>would study</i> English the next day.
<u>Modal Auxiliaries (Present)</u> John said, “ I <i>can speak</i> English well.” John said, “ I <i>must study</i> English.”	<u>Modal Auxiliaries (Past)</u> John said (that) he <i>could speak</i> English well. John said (that) he <i>had to study</i> English.

If we look at the changes made in the above indirect/reported speech, we may notice that there are other changes that should be made. There are:

Pronouns <i>I/me/my/mine</i> → subject of the main clause <i>You(s)/you(O)/your/yours</i> → object of the main clause We → They	Tommy said to me, “I will send you my paper immediately.” <i>Tommy said to me(that) he would send me his paper immediately.</i>
Adverbs of time <i>Today</i> → <i>on that day</i> <i>Tomorrow</i> → <i>the next day/the following day</i> <i>Yesterday</i> → <i>the day before/the previous day</i>	Lisa told me, “I met your parents at the party last night.” <i>Lisa told me (that)she had met my parents at the party the night before.</i>

<i>Last night → the night before/the previous night</i> <i>Last week → the week before/the previous week</i> <i>Next week → the following week</i> <i>Next year → the following year</i>	I told my mom, "I have an important interview today." <i>I told my mom (that) I had an important interview on that day.</i>
Demonstratives This → that These → those	Tim said, "I need this report for my project." <i>Tim said (that) he needed that report for his project.</i>
Here → there	He said to his sister, "I will wait for you here." <i>He said to his sister (that) he would wait for her there.</i>

b. Negative Statement

Direct Speech	Indirect Speech
<u>Simple Present</u> John said, "I don't study English everyday."	<u>Simple Past</u> John said (that) he didn't study English every day.
<u>Simple Past</u> John said, "I didn't study English last night"	<u>Past Perfect</u> John said (that) he hadn't studied English the previous night.
<u>Present Continuous</u> John said, "I am not studying English now."	<u>Past Continuous</u> John said (that) he was not studying English then.

Direct Speech	Indirect Speech
<u>Past Continuous</u> John said, “I <i>wasn’t studying</i> English at 9 o’clock this morning.”	<u>Past Perfect</u> John said (that) he <i>hadn’t been studying</i> English at 9 o’clock that morning.
<u>Present Perfect</u> John said, “I <i>haven’t studied</i> English for two hours.”	<u>Past Perfect</u> John said (that) he <i>hadn’t studied</i> English for two hours.
<u>Present Future</u> John said, “ I <i>won’t study</i> English tomorrow.”	<u>Past Future</u> John said (that) he <i>wouldn’t study</i> English the next day.
<u>Modal Auxiliaries (Present)</u> John said, “ I <i>can’t speak</i> English well.”	<u>Modal Auxiliaries (Past)</u> John said (that) he <i>couldn’t speak</i> English well.

c. **Interrogatives/Questions**

Direct Speech	Indirect Speech
<u>Simple Present</u> Mira asked me, “Do you like durians?” Mira asked me, “Where does your sister study?”	<u>Simple Past</u> Mira asked me <i>if I liked</i> durians. Mira asked me <i>where my sister studied</i> .
<u>Simple Past</u> Peter asked me, “Did you	<u>Past Perfect</u> Peter asked me <i>if I had studied</i>

study for the exam last night?" Peter asked me, "Where did you go last week?"	for the exam <i>the night before</i>. Peter asked me <i>where I had gone the week before</i>.
<u>Present Continuous</u> Mr. Anderson asked me, "Is your brother studying at Harvard university?" Mr. Anderson asked me, "What is your brother studying at Harvard University?"	<u>Past Continuous</u> Mr. Anderson asked me <i>if my</i> brother <i>was studying</i> at Harvard University. Mr. Anderson asked me <i>what my</i> brother <i>was studying</i> at Harvard University.
<u>Past Continuous</u> Santi asked his brother, "Were you doing your homework at 9 o'clock last night?" Santi asked his brother, "What were you doing at 9 o'clock last night?"	<u>Past Perfect</u> Santi asked his brother <i>if he had been doing his</i> homework at 9 o'clock <i>the night before</i>. Santi asked his brother <i>what he had been doing</i> at 9 o'clock <i>the night before</i>.
<u>Present Perfect</u> Father asked Nina, "Have you finished your homework?" Father asked Nina, "Where have you been?"	<u>Past Perfect</u> Father asked Nina <i>if she had finished her</i> homework. Father asked Nina <i>where she had been</i>.
<u>Present Future</u> John asked Nora, "Will you	<u>Past Future</u> John asked Nora <i>if she would</i>

marry me?" John asked Nora, "When will you leave for Washington?"	<i>marry him.</i> John asked Nora <i>when she would leave</i> for Washington.
<u>Modal Auxiliaries (Present)</u> The man asked me, "Can you speak English?" The man asked me, "When can you start work?"	<u>Modal Auxiliaries (Past)</u> The man asked me <i>if I could speak</i> English. The man asked me <i>when I could start</i> work.

Notice that the structure of the reported clause must be in statements.

d. **Command/Imperative**

There are no changes in the verb form when the reported clause is a command or imperative.

<u>Positive Command</u> The teacher told us, "Open your books page 67!" The police officer told me, "Show me your driving license!"	The teacher told us <i>to open our</i> books page 67. The police officer told me <i>to show him my</i> driving license.
<u>Negative Command</u> Nancy told me, "Don't call me before noon."	Nancy told me <i>not to call her</i> before noon.

Mother said to father, "Don't forget to call Mr. Andrews."	Mother said to father <i>not to forget</i> to call Mr. Andrews.
--	--

5.4 Exercises

Exercise 1: Change the direct speech into indirect speech (Statement)

- Wilson said, "My father works in a bank."

- Maria said, "We went to Mary's birthday party last night."

- Don said, "I'm coming soon."

- Joshua told me, "I was waiting for the bus when you arrived."

- Jessica told me, "I have never been to Bali before."

- Mr. Smith said, "I'll be late for the meeting tomorrow."

- The boy said, "I haven't had my breakfast yet."

8. Joshua told his sister, "I can help you with your homework."

9. Almira said, "I don't like cheese."

10. Jack said, "My parents are living in Paris for a few months."

11. Tiara told me, "I visited my sister in Arlington last week."

12. My sister said, "I'll do the washing-up later."

13. She said, "I was sleeping when Julia called."

14. They said, "We haven't been to an art museum for ages."

15. The girl said, "I can go home by myself."

16. Jack said, "We must leave soon or we'll be late for the meeting."

17. Sisca said, "I didn't go to the movie with my friends last night."

18. Mia said, "I haven't seen my brother for the past five years."

19. The doctor told me, "You are making a good progress with your health."

20. The teacher said, "I won't be here next year. "



Exercise 2: Change the direct speech into indirect speech (Questions)

1. Oliver asked, "Can I have some more cakes?"

2. Mary asked me, "Are you alright?"

3. Nina asked her boyfriend, "Why didn't you call me last night?"

4. A man asked me, "Can I take a photo of you?"

5. Joan asked me, "Where did you buy that hat?"

6. Sam asked Dina, "Are you going to the US?"

7. My mom asked me, "What have you done to your hair?"

8. Jane asked me, "Did your mom make these cakes?"

9. Michiko asked me, "Do you speak Japanese?"

10. I asked the teacher, "Can I go to the restroom?"

11. Tom asked Ashley, "What did you have for breakfast?"

12. Tessa asked me, "Have you ever ridden a camel?"

13. I asked Sally, "Did you see BTS performance in Singapore?"

14. He asked me, "Will you come to my dinner party tomorrow?"

15. Tina asked me, "Why did you arrive so late?"

16. I asked James, "Do you live near the bus station?"

17. Mila asked me, "Where are you staying now?"

18. Ria asked me, "How do you go to work?"

19. Mike asked his sister, "Have you seen my glasses?"

20. Tina asked me, "Has Donny called you back?"

Exercise 3: Change the direct speech into indirect speech
(Imperative)

1. The man told us, "Don't drink this wine."

2. Father said, "Don't smoke in my car."

3. Mother said to me, "Slice the meat carefully."

4. He said to me, "Don't shout at me like that."

5. Mom warned me, "Don't go out after dark."

6. Melly said to me, "Don't forget to bring your umbrella."

7. Father said to me, "Be careful when crossing the street."

8. She told me, "Be quick, please."

9. The girl said to her friends, "Leave me alone."

10. The man said, "Don't mess up with me."

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CHAPTER 6

IF CLAUSE

By Andi Haerati Alimuddin

6.1 Overview of If Clause

If clauses may alternatively be referred to as conditional clauses or conditional sentences. They are used to indicate that a specific condition (in the phrase with if) must be met in order for the action in the main clause (without if) to occur.

Conditional sentences consist of two parts or clauses which explain a condition in the dependent clause and a result in the independent clause. The condition clause usually contains an if statement (Herring, 2016). In addition, a conditional clause expresses hypothesis, wish or potential. In both Indonesian and English, conditional sentences are a type of statement used to communicate speculation, desire, or even possibility.

'If' serves as the foundation for a conditional sentence. A conditional sentence always consists of two parts: a first part that starts with "if" and explains a potential scenario, and a second part that describes the result. For example:

If you study hard, you will pass the exam.

We can also invert the two parts of a conditional sentence therefore the 'if' part comes second, and this is especially common in questions. For example:

What will you do if you miss the bus?

How can you finish the project if you don't have a laptop?

What happens if the students don't pass an exam?

There are four types of if clause, namely:

- 0 – The zero conditional
- 1 – The first conditional
- 2 – The second conditional
- 3 – The third conditional

Conditionals (Type 0-3)			
Type	use	Tense	
		If-clause	Main clause
Facts (0)	Talks about things that are always true	Simple present	Simple present
		If we don't put ice-cream in the fridge,	It melts.
Real situations (1)	Talks about things that can possibly happen	Simple present	Simple future
		If my clothes become dirty,	I will wash them.
Unreal situations in the future (2)	Talks about things that are unlikely to happen in the future	Simple past	Would + infinitive
		If I won Mark Six,	I would buy a house.
Unreal situations in the past (3)	Talks about things that are unreal in the past	Past perfect	Would + have + infinitive
		If I had been free this morning,	I would have visited my uncle.

Figure 6.1. Conditional Sentences Type 0-3
(Source: Magness, 2023)

More explanation of conditional sentence will be explained in the following subchapters.

6.2 If Clause Type 0

If Clause type 0 (The zero conditional), also called real condition, describe potential future or present-day scenarios. They are frequently used to state facts, general knowledge, predictions, habits, advice, or directions. In addition, it is classified as a conditional because it creates a hypothetical situation to describe what would be true each time something

happens. It refers to anything that is always or generally true and uses the present tense in both phrases. The use of the present tense shows that these behaviors are both conceivable and commonplace.

6.2.1 Form

The form of If Clause Type 0 can be seen in the following form :

Form 1: If + simple present, simple present

Form 2: Simple present + if + simple present

Example 1:

If people exercise, they feel better, or
People feel better if they exercise.

Example 2:

If people earn more money, they pay more taxes, or
People pay more taxes if they earn more money.

Example 3:

If you combine blue and yellow, you get green color, or
You get green color if you combine blue and yellow.

6.2.2 Example Sentences

Here are some example os sentences which use If Clause Type 0.

1. If water **reaches** 100 degrees, it **boils**.
2. If I **eat** peanuts, I **am** sick.
3. If people **eat** too much, they **get** fat.
4. If you **touch** a fire, you **get** burned.
5. People **die** if they **don't eat**.
6. You **get** water if you **mix** hydrogen and oxygen.
7. Snakes **bite** if they **are** scared.
8. If babies **are** hungry, they **cry**.
9. If you **eat** a lot, you **put** on weight.

10. If it does not **rain**, plants do not **grow**.

6.2.3 Exercise

Make sentences with the zero conditional.

For example :

(not/rain/the flowers/die)

If it doesn't rain, the flowers die.

1. (I/wake up late/I/be late for work)
2. (children/not eat well/they/not be healthy)
3. (you/mix water and electricity/you/get shock)
4. (people/eat/too many sweets/they/get fat)
5. (you/heat ice/it/melt) (Seonaid, 2023)

6.3 If Clause Type 1

If Clause type I refer to the future. An action in the future will only happen if a certain condition is fulfilled by that time. We do not know for sure whether the condition actually will be fulfilled or not, but the conditions seem rather realistic – so we think it is likely to happen.

Example: If I find his address, I'll send him my wedding invitation.

I want to send an invitation to a friend. I just have to find his address. I am quite sure, however, that I will find it.

Example: If Donna has the money, she will buy a luxurious necklace.

I know Donna very well and I know that she earns a lot of money and that he loves luxurious necklace. Therefore, it is very likely that sooner or later she will have the money to buy the necklace.

6.3.1 Form

The if clause of the first conditional employs the present tense, whereas the result clause uses the future tense. This phrase is used to discuss something that will probably happen in the future as a result of a condition.

Form 1 : If + simple present,

Form 2 : will + base verb if + present simple

Example 1:

If I see you later, I will say hello, or
I will say hello if I see you later.

Example 2:

If I can't find my book, I won't be able to lend it to you, or
I won't be able to lend my book if I can't find it.

6.3.2 Example Sentences

Here are some example sentences which use If Clause Type 1.

1. *If you tell your father the truth, she will forgive you.*
2. *If I win the lottery, I will take you to Bali.*
3. If she **invites** me, I **will go**.
4. If I **get** my bonus, I **will buy** a motorcycle.
5. If they are **late**, I **will go** now.
6. If you **ask** more politely, I **will buy you a meal**.
7. If you **don't behave**, I **will not let you in**.
8. If she **wins** the prize, her mother **will be** proud.
9. If John **gets** proper medical care, he **will survive**.
10. If it **rains**, we **will cancel** the match.

6.3.3 Exercise

Put the verb into the correct first conditional form.

1. If I(go) out tonight, I(go) to the food festival.
2. If they(get) back late, I (be) mad.
3. If she(come), I (be) surprised.
4. If you(wait) here, you..... (be) late.

5. If we(not/see) each other tomorrow, we
(see) each other next week. (Seonaid, 2023)

6.4 If Clause Type 2

If clause type 2 refers to an unlikely or hypothetical condition and its probable result. These sentences are not based on the actual situation. In this type, the time is now or any time and the situation is hypothetical. In addition, it expresses “untrue” (contrary to fact) in the present of future. In type 2, in the main clause, modal verbs can be used in place of "would" to convey the level of assurance, permission, or advice regarding the outcome.

Table 6.1. If Clause Type 2

UNTRUE (CONTRARY TO FACT) IN THE PRESENT OR FUTURE	
(a) If I <i>taught</i> this class, I <i>wouldn't give</i> tests. (b) If he <i>were</i> here right now, he <i>would help</i> us. (c) If I <i>were</i> you, I <i>would accept</i> their invitation.	In (a): In truth, I don't teach this class. In (b): In truth, he is not here right now. In (c): In truth, I am not you. Note: Were is used for both singular and plural subjects. Was (with <i>I, he, she, it</i>) is sometimes used in informal speech: <i>If I was you, I'd accept their invitation.</i>
COMPARE (d) If I had enough money, I <i>would buy</i> a car. (e) If I had enough money, I <i>could buy</i> a car.	In (d): The speaker wants a car, but doesn't have enough money. Would expresses desired or predictable results. In (e): The speaker is expressing one possible result. Could = <i>would be able to</i> . Could expresses possible options.

Source : (Azar and Hagen, 2009)

6.4.1 Form

The second conditional uses the past tense in the if clause and a modal and base verb in the result clause. This form is used to discuss a fictitious circumstance that is either impossible or highly improbable to occur.

Form: If + simple past, modal + base verb

Example 1: If I had a much money, I would buy a luxurious pent house.

Example 2: If I were you, I would do my best for the test.

Note: Although the condition and the result are not past events, the past tense is employed to emphasize how surreal the situation is.

6.4.2 Example Sentences

Here are some example os sentences which use If Clause Type 2.

1. If I had a billion dollars, I would travel around the world.
2. If I owned a supermarket, I might let poor people to buy things free.
3. If I were you, I would continue my study.
4. If I had time, I would go with you.
5. If she met her mother, she would be very happy.
6. If it rained tomorrow, I would sleep all day.
7. If I were you, I'd tell him the truth.
8. I were a man, I would marry her.
9. If they had much money, they would buy a house.
10. I were you, I would let her join the class.

6.4.3 Exercise

Put the verb in to the correct tense to make the second conditional.

1. If I(be) you, I(get) a new job
 2. If I(have) enough money, I (buy) a big house.
 3. If she(not/be) always so late, she (be) promoted.
 4. If you(have) much money, you (be) able to buy a house.
 5. If he(be) younger, he (travel) more.
- (Seonaid, 2023)

6.5 If Clause Type 3

If Clause Type III refers to situations in the past. If a certain condition had been met in the past, an action might have occurred. But then, things were different. We can only speculate as to what may have occurred if the situation had been fulfilled.

Example 1:

If I had found his address, I would have sent him my wedding invitation.

Sometime in the past, I wanted to send an invitation to a friend. I didn't find his address, however. Therefore, in the end I didn't send her my wedding invitation.

Example 2:

If Donna had had the money, she would have bought luxurious necklace.

I knew Donna very well and I know that she never had much money, but she loved luxurious necklace. She would have loved to own necklace, but she never had the money to buy one.

Table 6.2. If Clause Type 3

UNTRUE (CONTRARY TO FACT) IN THE PRESENT OR FUTURE	
(a) If I <i>taught</i> this class, I <i>wouldn't give</i> tests. (b) If he <i>were</i> here right now, he <i>would help</i> us. (c) If I <i>were</i> you, I <i>would accept</i> their invitation.	In (a): In truth, I don't teach this class. In (b): In truth, he is not here right now. In (c): In truth, I am not you. Note: Were is used for both singular and plural subjects. Was (with <i>I, he, she, it</i>) is sometimes used in informal speech: <i>If I was you, I'd accept their invitation.</i>
COMPARE (d) If I had enough money, I <i>would buy</i> a car. (e) If I had enough money, I <i>could buy</i> a car.	In (d): The speaker wants a car, but doesn't have enough money. Would expresses desired or predictable results. In (e): The speaker is expressing one possible result. Could = <i>would be able to</i> . Could expresses possible options.

Source : (Azar and Hagen, 2009)

6.5.1 Form

The third conditional uses the past perfect in the if clause and a modal and present perfect in the result clause. With an outcome that normally did not occur and may even be the opposite of what did occur, this form is used to discuss hypothetical previous events that did not occur.

Form: If + past perfect, modal + present perfect

Example 1: If I had studied hard last month, I would pass the final examination.

6.5.2 Example Sentences

Here are some example sentences which use If Clause Type 2.

1. *Amanda would have been happy if her best friend had come to her birthday party.*
2. *I would have bought you a special present if I had known it was your birthday.*
3. *If I had known Annie was in hospital, I would have visited her.*

6.5.3 Exercise

Put the verb in to the correct tense to make the third conditional.

1. If she(study), she (pass) the exam.
 2. If you(not/be) late, we(not/miss) the bus.
 3. If he(become) a musician, he (record) a CD.
 4. If we(arrive) earlier, we (see) Clara.
 5. If Willy(go) to university, he (study) French.
- (Seonaid, 2023)

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CHAPTER 7

THE CONCEPTS OF THE WISH

By Elihami

7.1 Introduction

The wish is a concept that is frequently used in psychoanalysis' theory and practice as well as in academic psychology, but it is a difficult and elusive concept to define, which has led to its marginalization in study. There aren't many scientific definitions of "wish," "wishing," and "wish fulfillment." The purpose of this paper is to emphasize wish-related mental activity as an effective regulator of a person's well-being by first contextualizing the wish subject and its evolution in psychological research (Erlangga et al., 2020). By (a) concentrating on the cause, function, and impact of mental wish fulfillment while a person is awake (as opposed to dreaming, which has been the subject of scientific research), and (b) by connecting psychoanalytic concepts of the wish and wish fulfillment with research findings and theories derived from the neurosciences, we will further develop this central thesis (Dagdag & Cardona, 2018). Wishes are regarded by motivational psychologists as the beginnings of intention-building and planning processes, by psychoanalysts as hedonically regulative, by neuroscientists as occurring in tandem with reward, "wanting" and "seeking" processes, while wish fulfillment is associated with "luring" and "liking" processes (Grange & Beets, 2005).

In this respect, we investigate specific SEEKING system functions as a potential neuropsychanalytic substrate for wishing. We propose an expansion of the study domain into wish-led mental activity, from nightly dreams to the daily

hedonic regulation processes, such as daydreaming, exuberant anticipation, and narrative embedding of experiences (Jarzebowski & Baggerman, 2014).

7.2 The concept of Wishes

We use the verb **wish** or the phrase *if only* to talk about things which we want but which are not possible:

I wish we had a bigger house.

They are always busy. If only they had more time.

I wish I could see you next week.

If only we could stop for a drink.

Prof. Dr. Elihami was very lazy at school. Now he wishes he had worked harder.

We use *wish* and *if only* with **past tense forms**:

❖ We use past tense **modals** *would* and *could* to talk about **wishes for the future**:



We use **past simple** and **continuous** to talk about **wishes for the present**:

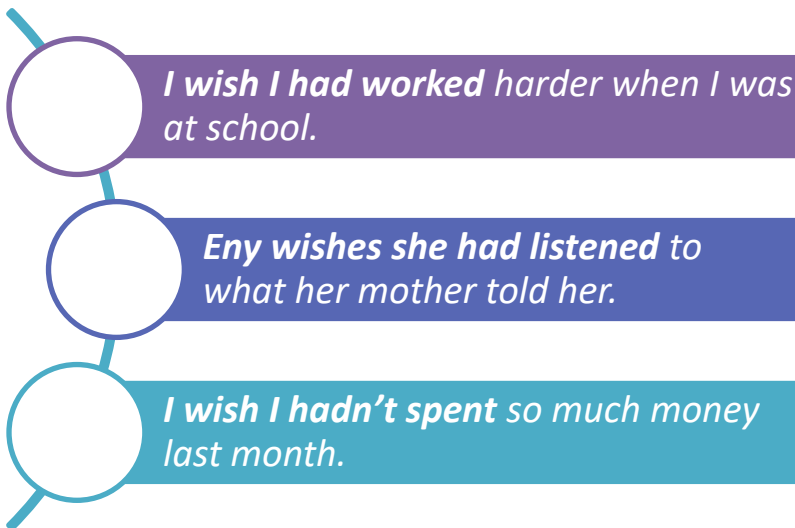
*I don't like this place. **I wish I lived** somewhere more interesting. These seats are very uncomfortable. **I wish we were travelling** first class. **I wish I was** taller. John wishes he **wasn't** so busy. I'm freezing. **If only it wasn't** so cold.*

❖ After *I/he/she/it*, we can use **were** **instead of** **was**:

*I wish I
was/were taller.*

*Edy wishes he
wasn't/weren't
so busy.*

❖ We use the **past perfect** to talk about **wishes for the past**:



7.3 Analysis Bibliometrics about Wish

Bibliometric analysis in curriculum management really helps broaden students' understanding and apply concepts to everyday experiences by using the application to find thousands of references. Different concept activities may include, but are not limited to, additional laboratory investigations, selected readings, relevant problems, computer applications, site visits, audiovisuals and demonstrations. The purpose of application activities through bibliometric analysis in curriculum management is to provide experiences that help organize literature concepts. The purpose of this analysis is to compare "management of curriculum and students" through metadata (Herrera-Viedma *et al.*, 2016).

The process of bibliometric analysis in managing curriculum and e students in order to find findings obtained

from library research. Several suggestions consist of the results presented at the end of the study. Components of bibliometrics, namely: a) bibliometrics for bibliometricians, is the main domain of bibliometric research and is traditionally used as a research methodology; b) bibliometrics for scientific disciplines (scientific information), considering that researchers work scientifically orientated, their interest is very strong in their field of specialization and allows for a joint borderland with quantitative research in information retrieval; c) bibliometric for science policy and management (science policy), is the domain of research evaluation on various research topics (Gutiérrez-Salcedo et al., 2017).

Bibliometric analysis is a study of bibliographic analysis of scientific activities, which is based on the assumption that a researcher carries out his research and must communicate the results to colleagues. This will provide progress and development of knowledge if researchers carry out joint activities to study specific research topics. In research, of course, information is needed from the results of previous scientific work that has also been carried out by colleagues. In the classical input-output model to explain the scientific research process, publications are recommended to present knowledge output. Almost all publications in the form of articles and scientific monographs are known as definitive statements of research results. VosViewer is a free computer program for visualizing, and exploring bibliometric knowledge maps. VOS stands for in VosViewer is Visualization of Similarities. The algorithm used in this program is almost the same as Multi-Dimensional Scaling (MDS). VosViewer generated clusters are automatically shown in color on the map. The cluster algorithm operates with a parameter (γ) which can be changed to get more or less clusters (Sajovic et al., 2018). Cluster density and color can be displayed with VosViewer. The advantage of VosViewer compared to other

analysis applications is that it uses a text mining function to identify relevant noun phrase combinations by mapping and an integrated clustering approach to examine cocitation data networks and co-occurrence. Although there are many programs for analyzing text units and matrix similarity, VosViewer's strengths are in its visualization. The program's options and interactive functions make it easy to access and explore its bibliometric data networks, such as the number of citations or the co-occurrence relationships between key terms and concepts (Rodrigues et al., 2020).

The following bibliometric analysis uses curriculum and student management to identify relevant noun phrase combinations by mapping and an integrated clustering approach to examine co-occurrence and co-citation data networks for the keyword 'meaning of words and terms'. As follows:

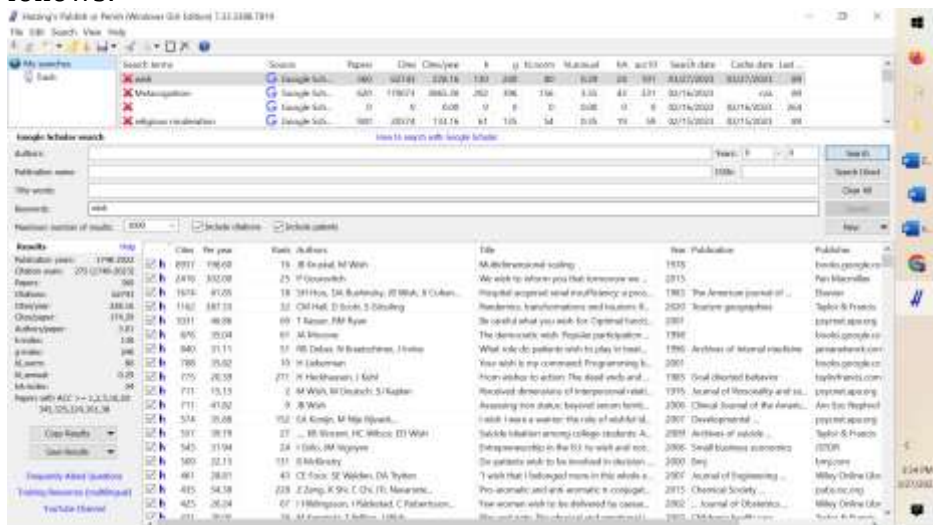


Figure 7.1. Publish or Perish

Research results contributors for the keyword 'curriculum and student management' indexed by Google Scholar with a total of 360 articles from 1748 to 2023.

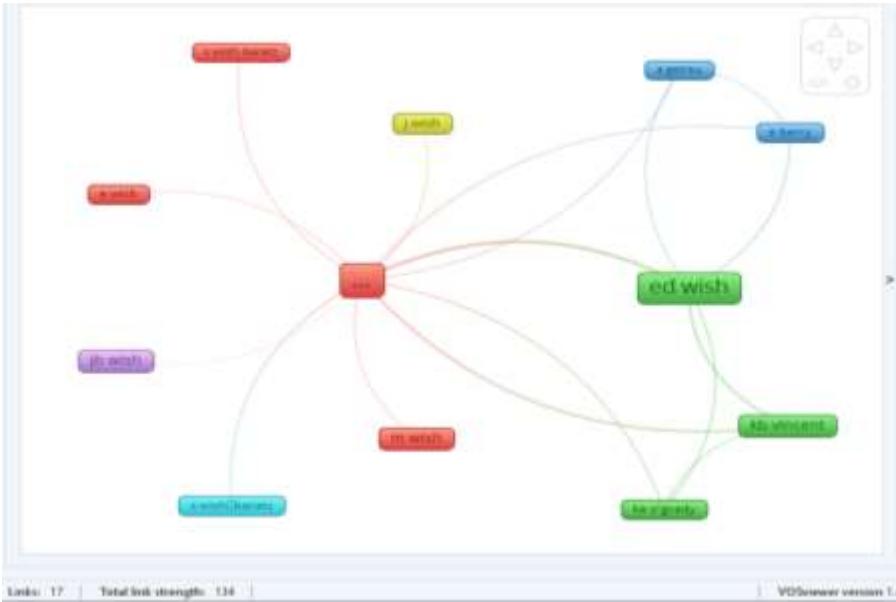


Figure 7.2. VOSviewer

Based on search results with keywords meaning words and terms on Google scholar, 360 publications were obtained. Of these, it is known that national publications on the keyword "Curriculum and Student Management" are more widely published.

7.4 Conclusion

- Future

$S^1 + \text{wish} + S^2 + \text{could/would} + V^1/\text{be}$
--

I wish you would stop saying that.

I wish she would come to my party to night

- Present

$S^1 + \text{wish} + S^2 + V2/\text{were}$
--

I wish you were old enough to marry me.

They wish they didn't have to go to school today.

- Past

$S^1 + \text{wished} + S^2 + \text{had} V3/\text{could have} V3$
--

She wished she had had more time last night.

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CHAPTER 8

WOULD RATHER

By Wahyu Adri Wirawati

8.1 Introduction

Preference is an expression used by someone to express liking one thing or activity more than another. There are several expressions that can be used in showing preference, i.e., prefer, like, would rather, and would prefer. There are two types of preferences, i.e., general and specific preferences (VOA Learning English, 2018). The general preference is the overall preference. The speakers are not tied to a specific event or time. It's just a fact about their taste. For example, you like one style of music more than another or you like some types of food more than others. For general preferences, “prefer” and “like better” are used and they have the same meaning. Whereas, the specific preference is something the speaker like or want more at a particular point of time, in the past, present or future. The specific preference used “would prefer” and “would rather” to talk about the preference. They have the same meaning. In this chapter, the writer will focus on the use of would rather.

8.2 The Formula of Would Rather in Affirmative Sentence

We use would rather in expressing preference of one thing or activity over another thing or activity. The formula of the use of would rather is:

- a) **Subject + would rather + noun + than + noun**

Example:

- We would rather **diamond** than **ruby**.
noun *noun*
- He would rather **noodle** than **spaghetti**.
noun *noun*
- Angela would rather **red dress** than **pink dress**.
noun *noun*
- Dave and Seth would rather **soccer** than **football**.
noun *noun*

b) Subject + would rather + **bare infinitive** + than + **bare infinitive**

Example:

- She would rather **watch** movie than **play** piano.
bare infinitive *bare infinitive*
- Ivan would rather **eat** ramen than **drink** bobba.
bare infinitive *bare infinitive*
- Angela would rather **type** on laptop than **write** on a note.
bare infinitive *bare infinitive*
- They would rather **play** soccer than **go** hiking.
bare infinitive *bare infinitive*

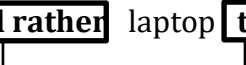
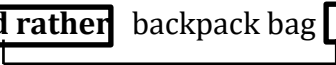
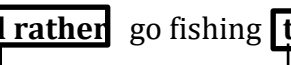
According to Azar (2002), if the bare infinitives that are placed before and after **than** are the same, we do not write the repeated verb. We only write the verb before the word **than** and omit the verb after the word **than**.

Example:

- Sofia would rather play tennis than badminton.
bare infinitive object object
- Lois would rather eat manggo than papaya.
bare infinitive object object
- Diandra would rather go shopping than hiking.
bare infinitive gerund gerund
- The cats would rather eat raw food than dry food.
bare infinitive object object

In using would rather, we should put **than** between two things or activities that become the preference.

Example:

- I **would rather** laptop **than** netbook.

- You **would rather** backpack bag **than** sling bag.

- Wade **would rather** go fishing **than** play basketball.

- Daisy and Deborah **would rather** watch YouTube **than** TV.


Would rather can be shortened into '**d rather** to make a compact sentence.

Example:

- **She would rather** coffee than milk.
 ↓
 She'd rather coffee than milk.
- **They would rather** eat oatmeal than drink water.
 ↓
 They'd rather eat oatmeal than drink water.
- **Dona would rather** blue gown than pink dress.
 ↓
 Dona'd rather blue gown than pink gown.
- **The cats would rather** raw meat than dry food.
 ↓
 The cats'd rather raw meat than dry food.

There are two different constructions of would rather seeing from the subject and the time.

1. a. **The sentence has the same subjects and it happens in present or future**

If the subjects of main clause and the subordinate clause are the same and the sentences happens in present or future, the verbs that are used after would rather are bare infinitives.

The formula:

Subject + would rather + **bare infinitive** + than + **bare infinitive**

Example:

- **Noah** would rather **use** mouse than touchpad.
subject *bare infinitive*
- **Olivia** would rather **buy** Iphone 13 than Iphone 14.
subject *bare infinitive*
- **Jack** would rather **do** gymnastic than **go** to the gym.
subject *bare infinitive* *bare infinitive*
- **Arthur** would rather **listen** to music than **read** a novel.
subject *bare infinitive* *bare infinitive*

b. **The sentence has the same subjects and it happens in past time**

If the subjects of main clause and the subordinate clause are the same and the sentence happens in past, the verbs that are used after would rather are present perfect.

The formula:

Subject + would rather + **have + -ed form**

Example:

- **George** would rather **have watched** the game at the stadium than on TV.
subject *present perfect*
(Meaning: George watched the game on TV.)

- **Freya** would rather **have eaten** the noodles than the rice.
subject *present perfect*
 (Meaning: Freya ate rice)
- **Lily** would rather **have finished** the homework than
Subject *present perfect*
gone to the party.
present perfect
 (Meaning: Lily went to the party)
- **Oscar** would rather **have ridden** manual motorcycles
subject *present perfect*
 than the automatic motorcycle.
 (Meaning: Oscar rode the automatic motorcycle)

2. a. **The sentence has two different subjects and it happens in present or future**

If the subject of main clause (S1) and the subordinate clause (S2) are different and the sentence happens in present or future, the verbs that are used after would rather are simple past tense.

The formula:

Subject + would rather + **simple past** + than + **simple past**

Example:

- **Noah** would rather **Ava used** mouse than touchpad.
S1 *S2 simple past*
- **Olivia** would rather **Ivy bought** iPhone 13 than 14.
S1 *S2 simple past*

- Jack'd rather Leo did gymnastic than went to the gym.
S1 S2 simple past simple past
- Arthur'd rather Mia listened to music than read a
S1 S2 simple past simple past

novel.

b. The sentence has two different subjects and it happens in past time

If the subject of main clause (S1) and the subordinate clause (S2) are different and the sentence happens in past, the verbs that are used after would rather are past perfect tense.

The formula:

Subject 1 + would rather + subject 2 + **had + -ed form**

Example:

- I would rather Florence had talked about herself than
S1 S2 past perfect
 someone else.
 (Meaning: Florence talked about someone else)
- Mia would rather Archie had participated in the race.
S1 S2 past perfect
 (Meaning: Archie did not participate in the race)
- Henry would rather Willow had stopped smoking.
S1 S2 past perfect
 (Meaning: Willow did not stop smoking)

- **Everette** would rather *S1* **Kinsley had been responsible** *S2* *past perfect*
cleaning his room.
(Meaning: Kinsley was not responsible cleaning his room)

Exercise:

Choose the correct words or phrases to make the sentences completed.

1. Braxton would rather than
a. brown sugar, white sugar.
b. spicy, sour.
c. gently, aggressively.
2. Autumn and Winter would rather than
a. likes BTS, likes Blackpink.
b. liked BTS, liked Blackpink.
c. like BTS, like Blackpink.
3. Jemma would rather than
a. build a small house, build a mansion.
b. built a small house, built a mansion.
c. building a small house, building a mansion.
4. She would rather than
a. the beauty, the cleverness.
b. beautiful, clever.
c. beautifully, cleverly.
5. Remington would rather than
a. forgot all the bad things, remembered only one good thing.
b. forget all the bad things, remember only one good thing.
c. forgetting all the bad things, remembering only one good thing.

6. Harry would rather than
 - a. hiding his scar, showing it.
 - b. hid his scar, showed it.
 - c. hide his scar, show it.
7. Edward would rather than
 - a. handsome, rich.
 - b. handsomeness, wealth.
 - c. handsomely, wealthy.
8. Hailey would rather when she was giving a speech in the podium.
 - a. has spoken loudly
 - b. have spoken loudly
 - c. had spoken loudly
9. Breanna would rather than
 - a. throw away the presents, remember her ex-husband.
 - b. threw away the presents, remembered her ex-husband.
 - c. throws away the presents, remembers her ex-husband.
10. They would rather than last year.
 - a. have visited their grandmother, have written a letter for her
 - b. have been visiting their grandmother, have been writing a letter for her.
 - c. visited their grandmother, wrote a letter for her.
11. Stefanie would rather Jennifer at home tonight.
 - a. ate
 - b. eats
 - c. eat

12. Last month, my mother would rather I my prom gown in the prom night.
- wore
 - had worn
 - had been wearing
13. We would rather the driver to pick us up at 7.00 a.m. tomorrow.
- come
 - came
 - coming
14. Gloria would rather Andy on time every day.
- woke
 - wakes
 - have woken
15. He would rather Mrs. Marigold their children last semester.
- had teach
 - had taught
 - had been teaching

8.3 The Formula of Would Rather in Negative Sentence

A negative sentence is a sentence containing negative words such as not, never, or nowhere (Ding, 2013). There are two different constructions of would rather seeing from the subject (Cambridge, 2023).

1. If the subject of main clause and the subordinate clause are the same, the word **not** is placed after **would rather** and followed by **bare infinitives**. The meaning of you would

rather not do something is you do not want to do it although you might have to do it. In this negative statement, the word **than** is usually not used.

The formula:

Subject + would rather + not + **bare infinitive**

Example:

- Noel **would rather not eat** spicy food.
subject *bare infinitive*
↓
Noel **doesn't want to eat** spicy food.
- They **would rather not buy** Tesla.
subject *bare infinitive*
↓
They **don't want to buy** Tesla.
- I **would rather not listen to** what they said.
subject *bare infinitive*
↓
I **don't want to listen to** what they say.
- Hudson **would rather not drive** his car to California.
subject *bare infinitive*
↓
Hudson **does not want to drive** his car to California.

2. When the subject of main clause (S1) and the subordinate clause (S2) are different the word **not** is place after the **second subject** (S2) and in the form of past subjunctive tense.

The formula:

Subject 1 + would rather + Subject 2 + did not + **bare infinitive**

Example:

- Wesley **would rather** Potter **did not use** his wand.
S1 S2 *did not bare infinitive*
- She **would rather** you **did not go** out this evening.
S1 S2 *did not bare infinitive*
- Ashley **would rather** they **did not do** anything to him.
S1 S2 *did not bare infinitive*
- Colton **would rather** Anthony **did not catch** bees.
S1 S2 *did not bare infinitive*

Exercise:

Choose the correct words or phrases to make the sentences completed.

1. Granny Summer salty food because she had hypertension.
 - a. would rather not eat
 - b. would rather not ate
 - c. would rather did not eat
2. Ginger Stephen late in the night.
 - a. would rather not called

- b. would rather not calling
 - c. would rather not call
- 3. Hunter Hazel chocolate for him.
 - a. would rather, did not bring
 - b. would rather not, brought
 - c. would rather, did not brought
- 4. Riley a bucket of flower to his girlfriend.
 - a. would rather did not give
 - b. would rather not gave
 - c. would rather not give
- 5. Peter Amanda the test alone.
 - a. would rather, did not perform
 - b. would rather not, did not perform
 - c. would rather not, perform

8.4 The Formula of Would Rather in Interrogative Sentences

Interrogative sentences are commonly used to ask questions in order to gather information about something. The questions can be casual or specific (BYJU'S, 2023). In interrogative sentences, the subject is placed between would and rather then followed by noun or bare infinitive. In interrogative sentence 'or' is used instead of 'than'.

The formula:

- a. Would + subject + rather + **noun** + or + **noun**?

Example:

- Would you rather a long dress or a pant?
- subject*
noun
noun

- Would **you** rather **a backpack** or a **shoulder bag**?
subject noun noun
- Would **she** rather **apple pie** or **ice cream pie**?
subject noun noun
- Would **they** rather **Coke** or **Pepsi**?
subject noun noun

b. Would + subject + rather + **bare infinitive** + or + **bare infinitive**?

Example:

- Would **you** rather **live** in the country or in the city?
subject bare infinitive
- Would **Ioana** rather **cook** dinner or **do** the dishes?
subject bare infinitive bare infinitive
- Would **he** rather **stay** at home or **go** out?
subject bare infinitive bare infinitive
- Would **the kids** rather **travel** the world or **explore** locally?
subject bare infinitive bare infinitive

Exercise:

Choose the correct words or phrases to make the sentences completed.

1. Easton Would rather chicken steak beef steak.
 - a. than
 - b. or
 - c. of

2. come to the hospital or get home care?
 - a. Would rather Mr. London
 - b. Would Mr. London rather
 - c. Mr. London would rather

3. Would the nurse rather injection or infusion?
 - a. give
 - b. gave
 - c. given

4. Would the accident victims rather in the biggest hospital?
 - a. be hospitalized
 - b. been hospitalized
 - c. be hospitalize

5. Would they rather listen to or pop rock music?
 - a. romantic music
 - b. romance music
 - c. romantically music

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CHAPTER 9

PAST TENSE

By Yetty

9.1 Introduction

Tenses are part of grammar. They are more focused on the use of connected verbs based on the time of use or the time of occurrence. In other words, tenses are different forms of verbs based on differences in the time of an activity or event. An activity or event can occur in the past, or in the present and or in the future. In English, tenses are very important and as the basic when someone wants to learn English because it is used to form a sentence based on the time or event took place. Basic tenses in English are divided into present, past, future, and past future. The four bases are then further divided into 16 tenses.

Past tense is one of the tenses whose function is to explain or describe an activity or event in the past or that has occurred. The verbs used in the past tense are Verb 2 and Verb 3 such as ate, cooked, washed, went, and so on. Examples in the sentences such as *I went to school yesterday, my mother cooked fried rice two days ago, she had eaten the pizza, etc.* Based on the examples above, it can be seen that the change in the verb in the predicate position is followed by the time of the incident, that is, an event that has happened before.

Almost all languages have a past tense with some type of past tense which describes more about the current event. In English, the past tense generally consists of simple present tense, past continuous tense, past perfect tense and past perfect continuous tense. In this chapter, the four parts of the past tense will be discussed in detail.

9.2 Simple Past Tense

In general, the simple past tense is a form of English sentence with the aim of explaining or describing an event or activity that occurred and was completed in the past. In other words, it is used to describe activities that happened in the past and are described in the present.

Based on Riyanto (2011), there are three function of simple past tense, namely:

- a) To talk about activities or situations that began and ended in the past. For instance; *Tini **went** to school yesterday; My father **drank** a cup of coffee yesterday morning; Izza stayed at home last weekend, etc.*
- b) To tell a story. For instance; *A man **walked** to the police station and **asked** him; Long time ago, there **was** a girl. Her name **was** Cinderella.*
- c) To tell about repeated or habitual in the past time. For instance; *I **used to** smoke when I **was** young; Hafizah always **went** to mosque to mosque at night last year.*

Furthermore, in order to recognize whether it is simple past tense or not, it can be seen in the used of time markers. Some time markers in simple past tense are:

- a) Yesterday; *yesterday afternoon, yesterday morning, etc.*
- b) Last: *last year, last month, last week, etc.*
- d) Ago : *two days ago, a week ago, a month ago, a year ago, etc*
- e) In : *in 1975, in 1988, etc.*
- f) At : *at 7.00, at 8.30, at 10.15, etc.*
- g) For: *for 25 years, for ten years, etc.*
- h) From....to.....: *from 5 years to 50, from 1975 to 1985, etc.*
- i) When: *when I was young....., etc.*

Before coming to the formula of simple past tense, it is needed to know the types of sentences which consisted of

nominal or verbal sentences. In verbal sentences, after the subject will be followed by the verb (V). Meanwhile in nominal sentences, after the subject will be accompanied by a non-verb which we usually know as an auxiliary verb or to be (auxiliary verb).

In general, simple past tense formula is **Subject + Verb 2 + Complement** for positive verbal sentence. If the pattern is nominal sentence, then the past tense formula becomes **Subject + Auxiliary Verb (to be; was/were) + Complement**. It can be seen clearly in the explanation below:

a) The Pattern in Verbal Sentence

The formula of positive sentence (+), negative sentence (-), and interrogative sentence (?) of the simple past tense in verbal sentence is:

(+) Subject + **Verb 2** + complement

(-) Subject + **did** + **not** + Verb1 + complement

(?) **Did** + Subject + Verb1 + complement?

The examples of simple past tense based on the verbal sentences pattern are (+) Izza **washed** the dishes last night, (-) Izza **did not wash** the dishes last night, and (?) **Did** Izza **wash** the dishes last night?. Based on the examples, it can be seen that affirmative or positive sentence in predicate position used Verb 2 *washed* while in the negative and interrogative sentence the Verb used is back to V 2 *wash*. Therefore, in using the pattern of simple past tense, learners have to understand well about the changing of the verb in the sentence and recognize the Verb 1 and Verb 2 so it can be easily for them to use this pattern whether in a conversation or in academic writing. Here are more examples; *They **did not go** to China yesterday; Thomas A Edison **invented** Electricity; **Did** Jayusman his homework last night?, etc.*

b) The Pattern in Nominal Sentence

The formula of positive sentence (+), negative sentence (-), and interrogative sentence (?) of the simple past tense in nominal sentence is:

(+) Subject + **To be (was/were)** + complement

(-) Subject + **To be (was/were)** + **not** + complement

(?) **To be (was/were)** + Subject + complement?

The examples of simple past tense based on the verbal sentences pattern are (+) Izza **was** very beautiful at the party last night, (-) Izza **was not** very beautiful at the party last night, and (?) **Was** Izza very beautiful at the party last night?. Based on the example, the auxiliary verb used in the sentence is **was**. It is because the subject of the sentence is a singular or one person. Meanwhile, if the subject is plural or more than one person or one subject, the auxiliary verb used is **were**. For example; *They were at the beach last Saturday; Una and Izza were at school yesterday.*

Furthermore, the pattern if it is used with WH-Questions (What, Where, When, Who, Why, How), the WH-Question is put first then followed by auxiliary verb or DID. For example; **When did she come?**; **Why were they at the station last night?**; **Where did nurul go yesterday?**

9.3 Past Continuous Tense

In the previous chapter, it have been discussed about present continuous tense. As for this section, it will discuss the past continuous tense. This is one of the most frequently used tenses. Basically, past continuous tense is almost similar to present continuous tense. However, it needs to be emphasized that the word *Continuous* shows things or events that are happening. If the present continuous shows an event that is

happening at the present time, the past continuous tense shows that the ongoing event occurred in the past. Thus, past continuous tense is a tense that describes an event or activity that occurred before (began before), during (was in progress during), and can also continued after the events or actions in the past.

Moreover, Riyanto (2011), explained three function of past continuous tense, namely:

- a) To express/to tell an action which was occurring at some specific time in the past. For instance; *What **were you doing** at 5 o'clock yesterday?, I **was writing** a letter at that time; Azka **was eating** a snack at midnight last night.*
- b) To tell an action which was occurring in the past and was interrupted by another action. For instance; *Uman **was watching** television when Jenny **came**; Dina **was walking** when she **lost** his pen.*
- c) To express/to tell two actions which were occurring at the same time in the past. For instance; *Martha **was watching** television while John **was reading** a book; The student **was reading** while the professor **was speaking**.*

Time markers that usually used in past continuous tense are *when, while, at ; for example 9 o'clock,*

The formula of past continuous tense in affirmative sentence is **Subject + to be (was, were) + Verb 1-ing**. For example; *I was watching Korean Drama; Izza and Una were playing dolls*. Meanwhile, the formula in negative sentence is **Subject + to be (was, were) + not+ Verb 1-ing**. For example; *I was not watching Korean Drama; Izza and Una were not playing dolls*. The formula for interrogative sentence is **To be (was, were) + Subject + Verb 1-ing**. For example; *Was she watching Korean Drama?; Were Izza and Una playing dolls?.* The last, formula used 5W+H Question can be seen in the examples;

What was she doing yesterday? Why were they singing together at 5 o'clock last week?

Pyle & Page (2005) described more detail about the pattern of past continuous tense based on the action that occurred. Here is the formula:

Pattern 1

- *An action which was occurring in the past and was interrupted by another action.*

OR

When + Subject 1 + Simple Past Tense + Subject 2 + Past continuous

Subject 1 + Past continuous Tense + **when** + Subject 2 + Simple Past Tense

Examples:

When Susi **came** to the class, Jenny **was reading** a book.

Jenny **was reading** a book when when Susi **came** to the class

Pattern 2

- *Two actions which were occurring at the same time in the past*

OR

Subject 1 + Past continuous Tense + **while** + Subject 2 + Past Continuous Tense

While + Subject 1 + Past Continuous Tense + Subject 2 + Past continuous Tense

Example:

Susi **was reading** a book while Jenny **was writing** an essay.

While Jenny **was writing** an essay, Susi **was reading** a book.

9.4 Past Perfect Tense

One of the English tenses that is often used when someone explains something or tells an event or activity is the past perfect tense. Many people think that the past perfect tense is the same as the simple past tense. However, there are differences that need to be understood because tenses are important things to recognize when someone who wants to learn English.

Riyanto (2011) explained that past perfect tense used for to express an activity that was completed before another activity or time in the past. For instance; *My kittens **had already played** by the time I got home; Until yesterday, I **had never heard** about it; Before Mr President came, all ministers **had arrived** at the presidential palace;* The difference between past perfect tense and simple present tense is in the past perfect tense what is important is the **work or activity or event**, whereas in the past tense what is more important is **the time the event occurred or the time the work was done** as explained by Widjaja (2015).

There are two formulas for past perfect tense; verbal sentence pattern and nominal sentence pattern. It can be seen in the explanation below:

a) The Pattern in Verbal Sentence

The formula of positive sentence (+), negative sentence (-), and interrogative sentence (?) in past perfect tense in verbal sentence is:

(+) Subject + **had + Verb 3**

(-) Subject + **had + not + Verb 3**

(?) **Had + Subject + Verb 3?**

The examples of past perfect tense based on verbal sentences are (+) Izza **had washed** the dishes before I

came, (-) Izza **had not washed** the dishes before I came, and (?) **Had** Izza **washed** the dishes before I came?.

b) The Pattern in Nominal Sentence

The formula of positive sentence (+), negative sentence (-), and interrogative sentence (?) in past perfect tense in nominal sentence is:

(+) Subject + **had + been**+ complement

(-) Subject +**had+ not + been** + complement

(?) **Had**+ Subject + **been** + complement?

The examples of past perfect tense based on nominal sentences are (+) Izza **had been** there before I came, (-) Izza **had not been** there before I came, and (?) **Had** Izza **been** there before I came?.

The other examples such as; *I was sure that I **had seen** that movie; We came late. The class **had already begun**; We couldn't cross the river. The flood **had washed** away the bridge.* Meanwhile, the pattern used 5W+H Question can be seen in the examples; *You were at Jim at eight. Where **had** you **been** before that; Who **had been** there before you?.*

9.5 Past Perfect Continuous Tense

Past perfect continuous tense is a tense that is used when expressing actions that have been completed at a certain point in time in the past. Actions are declared to have a certain duration of time. As mentioned by Riyanto (2011), past perfect continuous tense emphasizes the duration of an activity that was in progress before another activity or time in the past. In other words, it is a longer activity that had happened and continued up to the past moment, ended or stopped just before something else in the past. For instance; *A woman **had been***

*looking for her baby girl for two years before she found her; The client **had been waiting** in meeting room for almost two hours before the chairman finally started the meeting; Jenny finally came at six o'clock. I **had been waiting** for her since six-thirty at the bus stop.* Furthermore, this tense used to express an activity in progress recent to another time or activity in the past. For instance; *When Azka got home, her eyes was still red because she **had been crying**; When Dina got home, he was very tired because he **had been palying** outside all day.*

The formula of past perfect continuous tense in affirmative sentence is **Subject + had + been + Verb 1-ing**. For example; *James **had been working** at Siloam Hospital for fifteen years before he died.*

Meanwhile, the formula in negative sentence is **Subject + had + not+ been + Verb 1-ing**. For example; *James **had not been working** at Siloam Hospital for fifteen years before he died.* The formula of interrogative sentence is **Had + Subject + been + V1-ing?**. For example; ***had James been working** at Siloam Hospital for fifteen years before he died?*

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CHAPTER 10

PERFECT TENSES

By Itha Priyastiti

Grammar, is a set of rules that describes the structure of sentences or parts of them (Larsen-Freeman et al., 2016, p. 1). I celebrate the notion of a descriptive grammar, referring to the perspective that the use of language cannot be stiffly prescribed. Language learners need to understand not only the accurate forms of a language but they also have to know how to use them to convey the meaning under different circumstances. The main reason is because language is a means of communication. Therefore, language learners may have to learn more than just the grammatical forms, structures, and classes. Instead, they have to have a broader comprehension on how to use them to create discourse in different situations (Biber et al., 2002). Further, they suggested:

The vocabulary and grammar that we use to communicate are influenced by a number of factors, such as the reason for the communication, the setting, the people we are addressing, and whether we are speaking or writing. Taken together, these choices give rise to systematic patterns of choice in the use of English grammar (Biber et al., 2002, p. 2).

A similar idea was conveyed by Larsen-Freeman (2014), calling for both focus on form (i.e., grammatical structures) and focus on forms (meaning) in a language learning process. In other words, a language learner has to recognize grammatical

rules (the ‘*what*’) and know *where, when, why*, and to *whom* they can use them.

Despite the promising invitation to focus on form rather than focus of forms, in some situations, learners have to begin their language study with basic grammatical skills. Take for instance, for learners who study English as a foreign language. These types of learners may not have the experience of using the language in a direct communication with native speakers. Therefore, as a language system and skills, grammar can be challenging for EFL learners (Priyastiti, 2021). Departing from that rationale, learning grammatical structure constitutes an important component in a language study.

This chapter is going to discuss tenses as the grammatical expression of time reference. (Lester & Beason, 2019) argue that tenses can either refer to verb form or verb meaning. This is in line with (Berry, 2015) who said that verbs in English are grammatical because they may change, following several factors, including the uses and meanings of the tenses. In the context of learning English tenses for Indonesian students, you may check (Priyastiti, 2022). The chapter begins with the discussion of the differences of Bahasa Indonesia and English in terms of time indicators. The two languages apply different systems to show the time occurrences of events, in which Bahasa Indonesia uses *keterangan waktu* (adverbial of time) whereas English recognize tenses.

Grammatical tense is the variation of the form of a verb in an inflected language to indicate the time, duration, including the continuance or completeness of the action in relation to the time of the utterance or when the action occurred. Departed from the definition, English grammatical tenses are reflected through the inflected verbs. Biber et al., (2002) suggest that

there are two tenses mark the English verbs, i.e., present and past, where each group may carry aspects that adds time meanings to those expressed by tense. The aspects underline the information whether the verb completed, or continuing. There are two aspects in English, i.e., perfect and progressive (some literature refers to the term ‘continuous’) (Biber et al., 2002, p. 156).

10.1 The Meaning of Perfect Tense

Perfect comes from the Latin word *perfectum*, which means “complete” (Brock, 2016). In English tenses, the perfect describes completed, finished, or perfected actions. However, it might be confusing for some learners to understand the meaning of completed, finished, or perfected actions unless there is a clear time relationship on the statements or sentences. Therefore, I would prefer to describe that perfect aspect in English grammar refers to the term ‘prior’, in which perfect tense is used to describe events or states occurring during preceding period of time and it is used in relation to some other point in time (Biber et al., 2002; Larsen-Freeman et al., 2016).

A perfect tense is characterized by the use of one of the auxiliary verbs (*have*, *has*, or *had*) to the past participle form of the main verb, where *have* marks the present perfect and *had* marks the past perfect (Biber et al., 2002, p. 136). In other words, present perfect tense takes the form of *have* + past participle and past perfect tense takes the form of *had* + past participle.

In relation to the basis of their time of completion, there are three types of perfect tense in English, i.e., present perfect tense, past perfect tense, future perfect tense.

Perfect Tenses	Examples	Explanation
Present Perfect 	I have prepared the dinner.	I finished preparing the dinner before now. The exact time of occurrence is not important.
Past Perfect 	I have prepared the dinner before the guests arrived.	First, I finished preparing the dinner. Later, the guests arrived. The dinner preparation was completely finished before another time in the past .
Future Perfect 	I will already have prepared the dinner when the guests arrive.	First, I will finish preparing the dinner. Later, the guests will arrive. The preparation will be completely finished before another time in the future .

Figure 10.1. Types of Perfect Tense
 Source: Adapted from (Azar & Hagen, 2009)

10.2 Types of Perfect Tense

It has been mentioned earlier that there are three types of perfect tense in English, i.e., present perfect tense, past perfect tense, future perfect tense.

10.2.1 Present Perfect Tense

Present perfect is used to refer to a time prior to now. In other words, present perfect tense describes events or actions that happened in the recent past (before now) but still have an effect on the present moment (Hall & Barduhn, 2016; Herring, 2016). The tense is marked with the use of auxiliary verb of ‘have’. Further, Hall and Barduhn suggest that there are some

ways of using present perfect tense to talk about the past events (2016, p. 34):

1. To give information or news.

For examples:

- I **have finished** the project.
- She **has** won three medals.
- Rakha **has** paid all the payments.
- They **have** made **an** appointment to see the governor.

2. To talk about a repeated action that continues to happen over a period of time

For examples:

- Rakha **has** gone to the gym three times a week since he was 20.
- I **have** visited California every summer since I was 18 (Hall & Barduhn, 2016, p. 34).

3. To talk about an event that started in the past and is still happening now

For examples:

- I **have** stayed in this city since 2011.
- Nicho **has** gone to the gym regularly since he was 20.

Although it is mentioned earlier that present perfect tense is marked by the use of auxiliary verb **have**, you may notice from the examples the use of **has**. Of course, you should remember that English recognize subject-verb agreement, where the number of the verb (in this case, the number of auxiliary verbs) must match the number of the subject (Lester & Beason, 2019).

Table 10.1. Subject-verb Agreement in Present Perfect Tense

Subject	Auxiliary verb in present perfect
I	have
You	

They	has
Rakha and Nicho	
She	
He	
Rakha	
It	

A Special Note:
Present Perfect Tense And Past Simple Tense

Present perfect tense in English is frequently discussed together with past simple tense to have clearer discussion on the time reference. See the first row of *Figure 10.1. Types of Perfect Tense* again. As you can see that when we use present perfect tense, despite the event took place in the past (or recent past before now), the time occurrence is not important. Compare the two following situations:

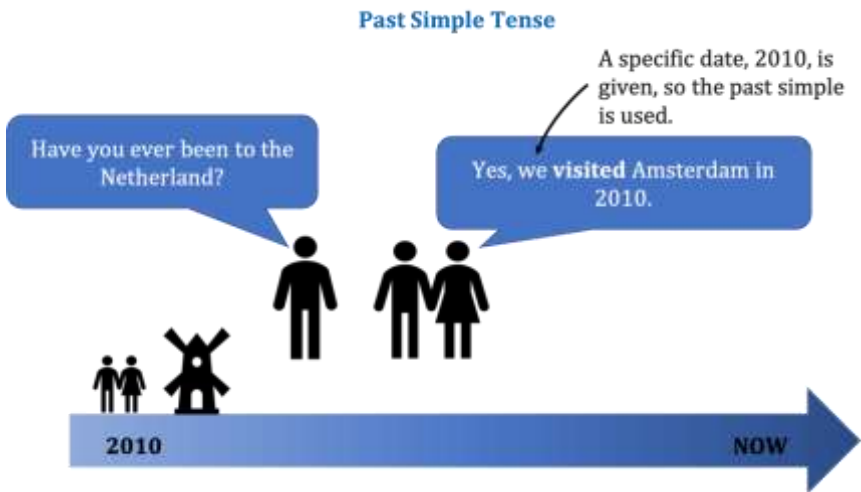


Figure 10.2. Image is adapted from (Hall & Barduhn, 2016, p. 37)

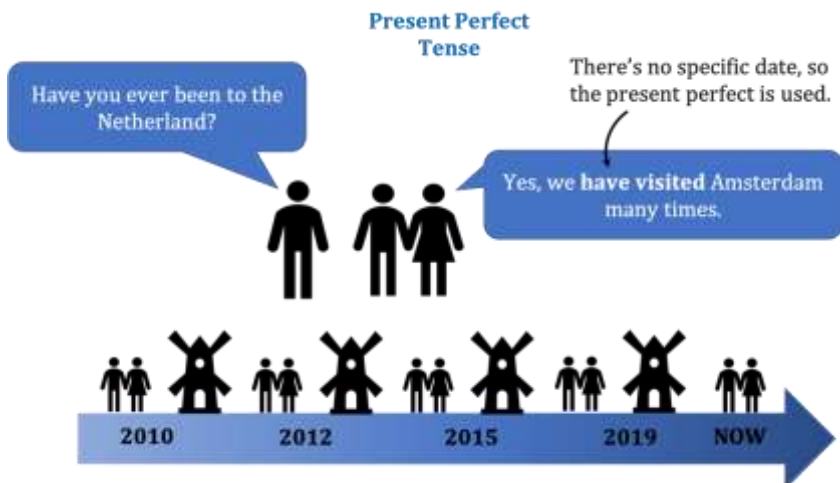


Figure 10.3. Image is adapted from (Hall & Barduhn, 2016, p. 37)

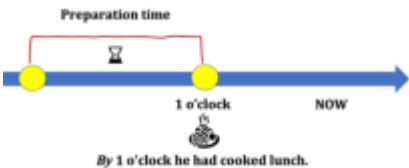
Error! Reference source not found. shows that the answer of “Yes, we **visited** Amsterdam in 2010” uses past simple tense to indicate when the event took place, which is in 2010. However, the answer shown in **Figure 10.** saying, “Yes, we **have visited** Amsterdam many times” uses present perfect tense because there is no specific time mentioned. Therefore, we use past simple to talk about something that took place at some definite period in the past. However, if we wish to refer to something that occurred at some indefinite time period in the past (or recent past before now), we use present perfect (Hall & Barduhn, 2016; Herring, 2016). To put it briefly, use past simple to inform *when* something happened (time of occurrence becomes the focus) and use present perfect if we do not think that time of occurrences is not the main concern (we are more interested on the event).

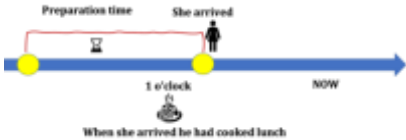
10.2.2 Past Perfect Tense

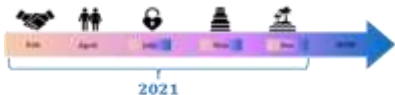
Past perfect tense is marked with the use of auxiliary verb of 'had'. The tense is unique because it talks about the 'past in the past', where, an action has been completed prior to another action in the past (Lester, 2012). Similar to present perfect tense, past perfect tense is usually discussed together with past simple tense to have a better understanding of the chronology. Hall and Barduhn mentioned that when two events took place at different times in the past, the past simple is used to describe the event that is closest to the time of speaking while the past perfect refers to the event further back in the past (2016).

Aitken (1992) presented 6 detailed purposes of past perfect tense. They are described as follows:

Table 10.2. Six Purposes of Past Perfect Tense

Purposes	Explanations	Examples
1. for actions previous to and affecting a nominated time in the past	When the past moment is expressed as a specific time, especially following 'by'. The event that occurred in the past perfect took place first, which resulted in another event. The additional note for this function is that the resulting event was still in force at the same time	 By 1 o'clock he had cooked lunch.

Purposes	Explanations	Examples
	(Aitken, 1992; as cited in Priyastiti, 2022). When the past moment is expressed as an action, usually in the simple past. For this function, usually past perfect tense is used in pair with simple past tense and connected with “when” (Priyastiti, 2022, p. 46).	
2. to show the sequences and relationship of past actions with no time marker in the past perfect clause	Past perfect tense is used when there are two consecutive occurrences where the first happened first, then followed by another (Priyastiti, 2022, p. 47)	
3. to show causal relationship between	The form is usually used with because, although, etc., where a situation	

Purposes	Explanations	Examples
past actions	took place as a result of past perfect action (Aitken, 1992; as cited in Priyastiti, 2022)	
4. as a narrative device to give background	Past perfect tense is used especially in written English where the scene-setting for a story is in the past simple Aitken, 1992	
5. conversational marker	For this function, past perfect tense can be used with verbs of <i>thinking, hoping, etc.</i> , to convey a request or suggestion now abandoned. The use of had in the sentence aims to stress emphatic disapproval or disappointment (Aitken, 1992; as cited in Priyastiti, 2022).	I had thought that you would come to my graduation party (but you didn't). (Aitken, 1992; as cited in Priyastiti, 2022)
6. in reported speech	Past perfect tense is also used in reported speech. In this case, when a	Sheldon : "I have sent the letter." Leonard : "What did you say, Sheldon?" Penny : "Sheldon said that he had sent the letter."

Purposes	Explanations	Examples
	speaker wishes to change a direct speech present perfect to indirect speech (Priyastiti, 2022, p. 53).	

Source: All images were adopted from (Priyastiti, 2022)

10.4.3 Future Perfect Tense

In general, future perfect tense is used when we wish to talk about an event that will overlap with, will finish, or be completed at a specific point in the future (Hall & Barduhn, 2016; Herring, 2016). Herring (2016) further suggested that clauses using future perfect tense frequently include durations of time to indicate how long something has been happening once a future moment in time is reached.

Aitken (1992, p. 86) described three meanings and purposes of the future perfect tense:

1. A point in the future is indicated in the sentence usually with '*by*', *e.g., by tomorrow, by 3 o'clock*

Future perfect tense is used when we predict that the action will be completed by that time, and have a direct effect upon it. Examples for this function can be seen as follows;

- a. With single actions, where the action is wholly in the future. For example:

I will have finished the paper *by 3 o'clock*.

The sentence gives an idea that the paper will not be finished or ready by 3 o'clock.

- b. With prolonged actions; these may or may not have been begun before the time of speaking. For this function, usually we use *just, already, or still*.

For example:

I *still* **won't have finished** the paper *by 3 o'clock* (so I won't be able to submit it on time).



Figure 10.15

2. A period of future time (often 'a lifetime') is implied or stated

The action may be past, in progress or planned at the time of speaking. However, it will be completed before the end of the time, and has direct effect on the remainder of that time. We may find this function and form in conditional sentences, or with expressions such as *at least*. For example:

Whatever happens, *at least* we **will have had** a sufficient investment.

(The economy may not be promising, but whatever the situation, we will benefit from having a good investment to prepare).

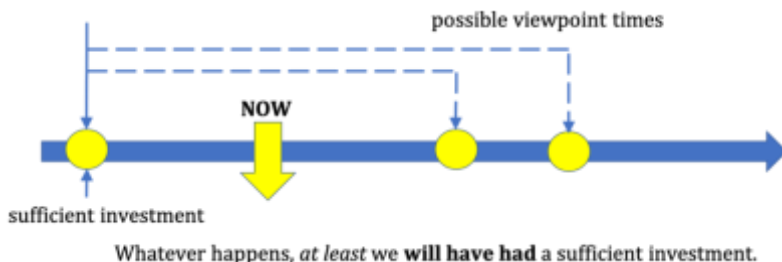


Figure 10.5

3. Logical deduction.

We can also use future perfect to predict/ deduces that actions have already occurred in the past and have a direct result on a present situation (Aitken, 1992; Herring, 2016).

For example:

Your brother **will have left** his office by now (as a result, you are too late to see him at the office).

Now that we have discussed the three types of perfect tenses, let us recall what Biber et al., (2002) suggested about aspect. They described that there are two aspects in English tense, i.e., perfect and progressive. The following sub chapters will discuss the progressive aspects in perfect tense.

10.3 The Progressive Aspects in Perfect Tense

Azar (2009, p. 5) suggested that perfect progressive tenses give the idea that one event is in progress *immediately before, up to, until another time or event*; and that it is used to express the duration of the first event. The form of perfect progressive is as follow:

have + been + -ing (present participle)

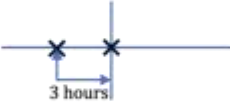
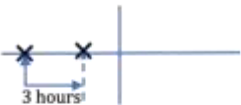
Perfect Progressive Tenses	Examples	Explanation
Present Perfect Progressive 	She has been working for three hours.	Event in progress: working. When? <i>Before now, up to now.</i> How long? For three hours.
Past Perfect Progressive 	She had been working for three hours before her colleague arrived.	Event in progress: working. When? <i>Before another event in the past.</i> How long? For three hours.
Future Perfect Progressive 	She will have been working for three hours by the time her colleague arrived.	Event in progress: working. When? <i>Before another event in the future.</i> How long? For three hours.

Figure 10.6. Types of Perfect Progressive Tense
Source: Adapted from (Azar & Hagen, 2009)

10.3.1 Present Perfect Progressive

The tense is formed by using the present tense of the auxiliary verb ‘have’ (or ‘has’, if used with third-person singular pronouns) along with ‘been’ (the *past participle* of the auxiliary verb ‘be’) and the present participle (-ing form) of the “main” verb (Herring, 2016, p. 660).

We use present perfect progressive (some literatures use the term ‘continuous’) to talk about a continuing activity that has been happening in the past and is still happening now or has an effect on the present moment. Usually, the tense refers to recent past events (Hall & Barduhn, 2016; Herring, 2016; Larsen-Freeman et al., 2016). To better understand the meanings and functions of present perfect progressive tense, let’s discuss it more:

1. To describe an activity that took place over a period of time in the recent past

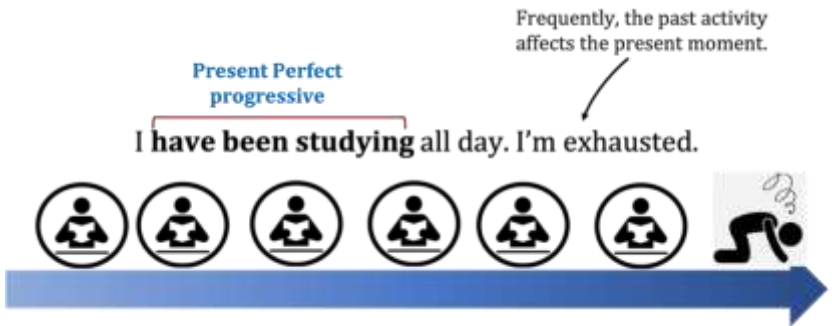


Figure 10.16

Source: adapted from (hall & barduhn, 2016)

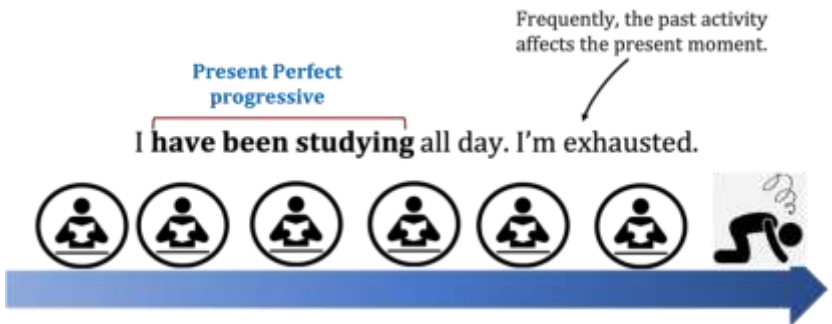


Figure 10.16 shows that the activity of ‘study’ might start in the recent past of the day (at 7 a.m.) And is still happening. It affects the present situation (causes the person to be exhausted). In other words, the present perfect progressive tense can be used “*as an explanation for the present situation or the appearance of the speaker*” (aitken, 1992, p. 29).

2. To emphasize the length of time (duration)

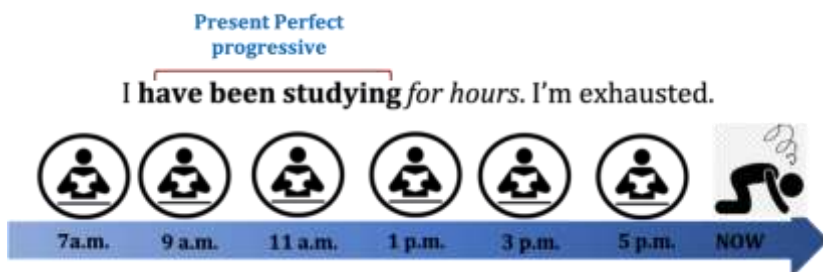


Figure 10.17

Herring mentioned that present perfect progressive can be used when we wish to emphasize the duration or how long the action has taken, as well as the fact that it is still happening (2016, p. 662).

3. For new, temporary habits

present perfect progressive is used to suggest that something is only temporary. However, Aitken (1992) mentioned when we use the tense to show that the temporary habits may have become constant or continuous, a time marker is usually added. For example:

lately as a time marker



Figure 10.18

4. With verbs of wishing or hoping

This function is familiar when we are working with formal utterances. Aitken refers to '*formal device*'. It suggests that the wish or thought was constantly in the speaker's mind (1992, p. 30). One example of this function is:

I've **been looking** forward to meeting you.

A Special Note:

Present Perfect Progressive Tense And Present Perfect Tense

Sometimes, the use of present perfect progressive is confusing regarding the time of occurrence. To better understand it, we can compare it with present perfect.



Figure 10.19

Although the two sentences in

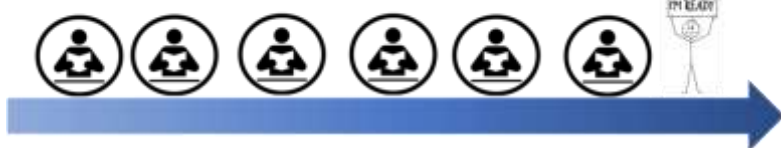
Present Perfect
Progressive

I **have been studying** all day. I'm exhausted.



Present Perfect

I **have studied** all day. Now, I am ready for the exams.



Figure

10.19 seem similar, they have a slight difference in the time of occurrence. The present perfect continuous is used to show that an activity in the past was in progress and possibly is still happening. Meanwhile, the present perfect gives an idea that an activity in the past is completed or finished. See more example as follow:

In conclusion, the main distinction between the two tenses lies on the focus of the time occurrence.

“... We use the present perfect continuous to talk about that which began in the past and is still happening in the present; the focus is on something that continues to happen, as opposed to something which happened (finished) sometime in the past. We can also use the present perfect continuous to emphasize the length of time that has passed while something is happening, or that something is only temporary. We can also use it to talk about something that has been happening lately or only finished very recently.” (Herring, 2016, p. 660)

Table 10.3. Present Perfect Progressive and Present Perfect

Present Progressive	Perfect	Present Perfect
I've been cooking dinner. It will be ready soon (Hall & Barduhn, 2016, p. 39).		I've cooked dinner. It is ready now (Hall & Barduhn, 2016, p. 39).
She has been working hard all year long. Now, she is really tired.		She has worked so hard. Now, she is promoted as a manager.
I've been eating too much cake. I must eat less! (Hall & Barduhn, 2016, p. 39).		I've eaten all the cake. The plate is empty (Hall & Barduhn, 2016, p. 39).
We've been looking at houses. We want to move (Hall & Barduhn, 2016, p. 39).		We've bought a new house. We're moving in June (Hall & Barduhn, 2016, p. 39).

In conclusion, the main distinction between the two tenses lies on the focus of the time occurrence.

"... We use the present perfect continuous to talk about that which began in the past and is still happening in the present; the focus is on something that continues to happen, as opposed to something which happened (finished) sometime in the past. We can also use the present perfect continuous to emphasize the length of time that has passed while something is happening, or that something is only temporary. We can also use it to talk about something that has been happening lately or only finished very recently." (Herring, 2016, p. 660)

10.3.2 Past Perfect Progressive

To form the past perfect progressive, we use *had been* + the **present participle** of the main verb. In general, past perfect progressive is used when we wish to talk about an action that began and was still happening (in progress) in the past before another past action started. Usually, the tense is used together with past simple to have a better understanding on the time of occurrence. By using the past perfect progressive together with past simple, we could identify which action happened first (and not yet completed) and which action followed (Azar & Hagen, 2009; Hall & Barduhn, 2016; Herring, 2016).

- 1. To emphasize the duration of an action



Figure 10.20. past perfect progressive and past simple

Error! Reference source not found. shows that present perfect progressive is used to emphasize the duration of rakha had been working in the past before the manager promoted him (which also happened in the past). It means that past perfect progressive can also describes a past action that caused or resulted in a past event or situation. In other Words, the past simple refers to a specific completed event in the past while the past perfect continuous describes a repeated action or continuing activity that was taking place

- before that completed event (hall & barduhn, 2016; herring, 2016).
2. To show the cause of past results
Error! Reference source not found. shows that present perfect progressive can also be used to indicate that the continuous action that finished in the past was the cause of a condition, situation, or event in the past (herring, 2016). Rakha's continuous action of working hard has caused him of getting promoted.
 3. To show actions interrupted in the past
Present perfect progressive can also well describe interruption to an action in the past. For examples:
 - I **had been teaching** english in tokyo when the earthquake hit.
 - They'd **been living** in new york before she got the job in washington, d.c.
 - She **had been traveling** around europe when she heard about her mother's illness.
(herring, 2016, p. 684)

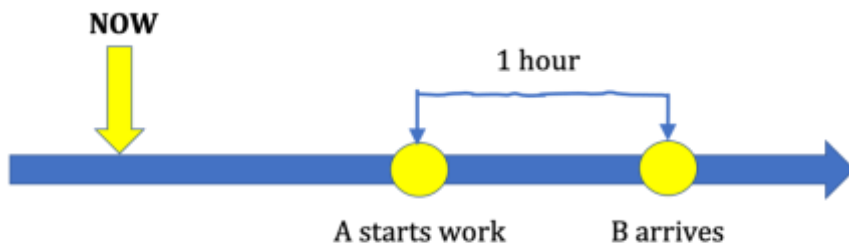
10.3.3 Future Perfect Progressive

To create the future perfect progressive tense, we use *will + have been +* the **present participle** of the verb. The tense can be used to predict how long an event has been happening once a future moment in time is reached or the length of an activity. In other words, future perfect progressive emphasizes the duration of an activity that will be in progress before another time or event in the future (Azar & Hagen, 2009; Hall & Barduhn, 2016; Herring, 2016). However, sometimes, the future perfect and future perfect progressive are overlapped because they have similar meanings. See the following examples:

- By 2024, I **will have stayed** in this city for 13 years (future perfect tense)
- By 2024, I **will have been staying** in this city for 13 years (future perfect progressive tense)

Both sentences carry the same meaning, but the emphasis of future perfect progressive is on the continuous nature of the action. The second sentence emphasizes that the speaker was continuously staying in the city during the future period by 2024. Meanwhile, the first sentence uses future perfect to stress on the completion of an action at a certain period of time in the future.

Aitken suggested that future perfect progressive can be used whether an action starts in the future or begins before the time of speaking (1992). Compare the following figures:



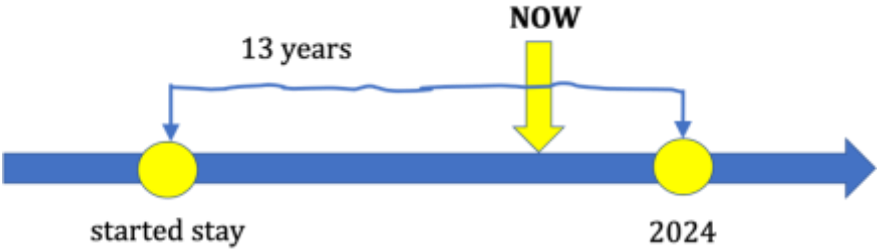
By the time you get here, I **will have been working** for an hour.

Figure 10.21.

Source: image was adapted from (Aitken, 1992, p. 91)

From , we notice that the action *begins in the future*, continues to the viewpoint time, and may or may not continue after it.

Different from , the action in **Figure 10.22** began before the time of speaking, will continue to the viewpoint time, and may or may not be continue after it.



By 2024, I **will have been staying** in this city for 13 years.

Figure 10.22.

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<https://globaleksekutifteknologi.co.id/tenses/>

BAB 11

GERUNDS

By Oleh James Sinurat

11.1 Pendahuluan (Introduction)

A *gerund* is the **-ing** form of a verb as a noun (Azar, 1989) yang artinya suatu *gerund* adalah bentuk **-ing** dari suatu kata kerja (*verb*) yang digunakan sebagai kata benda (*noun*). Karena berfungsi sebagai kata benda maka *gerund* dapat digunakan sebagai *subject* suatu kalimat. Menurut Pollock (1982), suatu *gerund* adalah suatu kata benda yang telah dibentuk dari suatu kata kerja. Setiap kata benda dapat dirubah ke dalam sebuah *gerund* dengan cara menambahkan kata **-ing** ke dalam bentuk dasar dari kata kerja.

Menurut Priyanto (2022), *gerund* adalah kata kerja yang berakhiran **-ing** yang berfungsi sebagai sebuah kata benda (*noun*). Hal ini berarti bahwa *gerund* dapat digunakan sebagai suatu subjek maupun objek. Sementara itu, menurut Yosodipuro (2022), *gerund* adalah kata kerja yang dibendakan. Itulah sebabnya *gerund* memiliki fungsi yang sama dengan kata benda, yaitu sebagai subjek atau objek dari suatu kalimat.

Bagi penutur bahasa Inggris yang baik dan yang memahami serta menguasai tata bahasa Inggris (*English grammar*), pemahaman yang juga baik tentang *gerund* adalah perlu dan sangat mendasar. Hal ini akan membuat seseorang dapat membedakan dengan baik tentang perbedaan antara *infinite* dan *gerund* dalam penggunaannya.

Priyanto (2022) menyatakan bahwa *infinite* adalah bentuk dasar dari suatu kata kerja (*verb*) yang diawali dengan kata depan (*preposition*) **to**. Misalnya, *to play*, *to read*, *to write*, *to provide*. Sementara itu, Yosodipuro (2022) menyatakan

bahwa *infinitive* adalah kata kerja dasar atau kata kerja yang tidak memiliki tambahan apa pun. Dengan perkataan lain, setelah kata kerja dasar tidak ada kata tambahan apa pun seperti **s**, **es**, **d**, atau **ed**. Selanjutnya dinyatakan bahwa *infinitive* terdiri dari dua tipe. Tipe pertama adalah **menggunakan to** (*infinitive with to*), yang diletakkan sebelum kata kerja dasar. Tipe kedua adalah **tanpa to** (*without to*), yaitu sebelum kata kerja dasar **tidak diberikan to**.

Gerunds yang disajikan dalam tulisan ini meliputi sebelas bagian, yang terdiri dari:

- a. Bagian pertama adalah "Pendahuluan" (*Introduction*).
- b. Bagian kedua adalah "Pengertian gerunds" (*Understanding gerunds*) yang mencakup *simple gerund* dan *gerund phrase*.
- c. Bagian ketiga tentang "Fungsi dari gerunds" (*Function of gerunds*, yang terdiri dari: 1. Subject of Sentence; 2. Subject of Complement; 3. Direct Object of Sentence; 4. Object of Preposition; 5. Appositive).
- d. Bagian keempat adalah "Gerunds sebagai objek dari kata depan" (*Gerunds as object of preposition*).
- e. Bagian kelima adalah "Gerunds sesudah kata depan" (*Gerunds after preposition*).
- f. Bagian keenam adalah "Kata kerja umum diikuti oleh gerunds" (*Common verbs followed by gerunds*).
- g. Bagian ketujuh berisi tentang "Penggunaan kata kerja **Go + Gerund**" (*Using verb Go + Gerund*).
- h. Bagian kedelapan tentang "Penggunaan gerunds mengikuti **Need**" (*Using gerunds or following Need*).
- i. Bagian kesembilan adalah "Bentuk passive dan lampau dari gerunds" (*Passive and past form of gerunds*).
- j. Bagian kesepuluh "Penggunaan gerunds setelah ungkapan tertentu" (*Using gerunds after special statement*).
- k. Bagian kesebelas adalah "Penutup."

11.2 Pengertian gerunds (*Understanding gerunds*)

Langkah awal yang perlu dalam mendapatkan pemahaman yang baik tentang *gerunds* adalah dengan mengetahui pembagian *gerunds*. Dalam The American Heritage College Dictionary (1993) dituliskan: (1) dalam bahasa Latin, *a noun derived from a verb and having all case forms except the nominative*, yang artinya sebuah kata benda yang berasal dari sebuah kata kerja ; (2) dalam bahasa-bahasa lain, *a verbal noun analogous to the Latin gerund, such as the English form ending in -ing.*"

The -ing form of a verb, gerunds, is sometimes used as the name of an activity or condition (Bing, 1989), yang artinya "bentuk **-ing** dari kata kerja, yang dikenal sebagai *gerunds*, adakalanya digunakan sebagai nama suatu kegiatan atau keadaan."

Gerunds terdiri dari dua bagian (Pollock, 1982). Bagian pertama adalah *Simple Gerund*. Bagian kedua adalah *Gerund Phrase*. Untuk lebih jelasnya dapat dilihat pada uraian berikut ini.

11.2.1 Simple gerunds

A *gerund* is a noun that has been formed from verb (Pollock, 1982; Priyanto, 2022). Artinya suatu *gerund* adalah kata benda (*noun*) yang telah dibentuk dari kata kerja (*verb*). Setiap kata kerja dapat dirubah menjadi *gerund* dengan cara menambahkan "-ing" ke dalam bentuk dasar kata kerja. *Gerunds* digunakan dimana saja frasa kata benda (*noun phrase*) digunakan (Bing, 1989). Look at the following words and their explanation:

Verb	Gerunds	Penjelasan
walk	walking	Kata “walking” adalah sebuah <i>gerund</i> yang dibentuk dari kata kerja “walk.”
play	playing	Kata “playing” adalah sebuah <i>gerund</i> yang dibentuk dari kata kerja “play.”
sing	singing	Kata “singing” adalah sebuah <i>gerund</i> yang dibentuk dari kata kerja “sing.”
write	writing	Kata “write” adalah sebuah <i>gerund</i> yang dibentuk dari kata kerja “write.”
read	reading	Kata “reading” adalah sebuah <i>gerund</i> yang dibentuk dari kata kerja “read.”

Beberapa contoh berikut ini memperlihatkan penggunaan gerunds dalam kalimat (Bing, 1989). Kata yang dicetak miring (*italic*) adalah gerunds.

- a) *Acting* is my profession.
- b) Do you enjoy *acting*?
- c) *Reading* book is enjoyable.

11.2.2 Gerund phrase

Although gerunds function as nouns, they are similar to verbs (Pollock, 1982; Priyanto, 2022). Artinya, walaupun gerunds berfungsi sebagai kata benda (noun), *gerunds* adalah sama dengan kata kerja (verb). Sama seperti kata kerja, suatu *gerund* dapat berfungsi sebagai suatu object, suatu pelengkap, dan *modifiers* lainnya. Note: a modifier is a word, phrase, or clause that modifies—that is, gives information about—another word in the same sentence. Look at the following sentences below.

Contoh kalimat	Arti kalimat
Interviewing small children is amusing.	Mewawancarai anak-anak kecil adalah sesuatu yang menghibur.
Playing tennis is fun.	Bermain tennis adalah sesuatu yang menyenangkan.
Reading new book is always interesting for me.	Membaca buku baru selalu menarik buat saya.
Writing academic book is important for scientific community.	Menulis buku ilmiah adalah sesuatu yang penting bagi masyarakat ilmiah.

Beberapa contoh kalimat berikut ini memperlihatkan penggunaan gerund phrases dalam kalimat (Bing, 1989). Kata-kata yang dicetak miring (*italic*) adalah gerund phrases.

- a) *Making movies* is what I like to do the best.
- b) Do you like *signing autographs*?
- c) Are you tired of *having your picture taken*?

11.3 Fungsi atau penggunaan gerunds (*Function of gerunds*)

Gerunds dapat berfungsi sebagai Subject, Subject Complement, Direct Object, Object of Preposition, dan Appositive (Pollock, 1982). Hal yang sama juga dikatakan Yosodipuro (2022). Kata yang dicetak tebal (**bold**) adalah gerund, sedangkan kata yang dicetak miring (*italic*) adalah kata depan (*preposition*). Look at the following sentences.

No.	Fungsi	Contoh kalimat
1	Subject of sentence	1. Traveling is enjoyable (<i>Bepergian adalah sesuatu yang menyenangkan</i>). 2. Traveling with young children can be difficult (<i>Bepergian dengan anak-anak dapat menyulitkan</i>). 3. Finding a good hotel is not always easy (<i>Menemukan hotel yang baik tidak selalu mudah</i>). 4. Riding with a drunk driver is dangerous (<i>Menumpang kendaraan dengan supir yang mabuk adalah berbahaya</i>). 5. Studying early in the morning is a good habit (<i>Belajar di awal pagi hari adalah kebiasaan yang baik</i>).
2	Subject Complement (as subject complement, gerund atau gerund phrase renames or identifies the subject)	1. My mother's hobby is cooking (<i>Kegemaran ibu saya adalah memasak</i>). 2. My father's favourite pastime is collecting foreign stamps. 3. What he really enjoys is getting rare stamps.
3	Direct Object (sesudah kata kerja tertentu) of sentence.	1. My family has always enjoyed traveling (<i>Keluarga saya selalu menikmati kegiatan bepergian</i>).

No.	Fungsi	Contoh kalimat
		2. We have always dreaded staying <i>in</i> one place. 3. At on time, my father considerd moving <i>to</i> Europe for three years.
4	Object of Preposition	1. I have always been interested <i>in</i> learning about fifferent cultures. 2. My brother is thinking <i>about</i> spending a year in Italy (<i>Saudara saya sedang memikirkan tentang memanfaatkan waktu satu tahun di Italia</i>). 3. The whole family has become accustomed <i>to</i> eating different kind of food.
5	Appositive (an appositive merely repeats or adds information about a person or thing already identified)	1. My mother's hobby, cooking, is enjoyable to her (<i>Kegemaran ibu saya memasak, adalah sesuatu yang menyenangkan baginya</i>). 2. My father really enjoys his favorite pastime, collecting stamps (<i>Ayah saya sesungguhnya menikmati hobi kesukaaanya, mengumpulkan perangko</i>).

1.4 Gerunds sebagai objek dari kata depan *(Gerunds as object of prepositions).*

Azar (1989) menuliskan bahwa sebuah gerund dapat digunakan sebagai objek dari sebuah kata depan atau *prepositions*. Look at the following sentences.

a) We talked about going to Japan for our vacation (<i>Kita berbicara tentang bepergian ke Jepang untuk liburan kita</i>). b) Hartono is in charge of organizing the meeting (<i>Hartono bertugas dalam menyiapkan rapat atau pertemuan</i>). c) I'm interested in learning more about guitar (<i>Saya tertarik dalam lebih mempelajari gitar</i>).	A gerund is trequently used as the object of a preposition (<i>Sebuah gerund sering digunakan sebagai objek dari sebuah kata depan</i>).
d) I'm used to sleeping with the window open (<i>Saya terbiasa tidur dengan jendela terbuka</i>). e) I'm accustomed to sleeping with the window open. Ini adalah contoh kalimat dalam <i>British English</i> yang artinya adalah <i>Saya terbiasa tidur dengan jendela terbuka</i>. f) I look forward to going home next moth.	In d) through g): to is a preposition, not part of an infinitive form, so a gerund follows.

g) They object to changing their plans at this late date (<i>Mereka keberatan untuk mengubah rencana mereka pada saat-saat terakhir</i>).	
h) We talked about not going to the meeting, but finally decided we should go (<i>Kita berbicara tentang tidak pergi ke rapat atau pertemuan, tetapi pada akhirnya kita putuskan sebaiknya pergi</i>).	Negative form : not precedes a gerund.

11.5 Gerunds sesudah kata depan (*Gerunds after preposition*).

Pada saat sebuah kata kerja (*verb*) ditempatkan segera setelah suatu kata depan (*preposition*) maka bentuk *gerund* harus digunakan (Pollock, 1982). Preposition dicetak miring (*italic*) dan gerund dicetak dengan huruf tebal (**bold**). Lihat contoh-contoh kalimat berikut ini.

- a) The children insisted *on* **going** to the zoo.
- b) Their mother had no objection *to* **talking** them there.
- c) However, she was not interested *in* **staying** all day.
- d) The father avoided going to the zoo *by* **saying** he had a lot of work to do.

Menurut Yosodipuro (2022), kata kerja yang terletak langsung setelah kata depan harus dirubah menjadi dalam bentuk gerunds. Perhatikan beberapa kalimat berikut ini, preposition dicetak miring (*italic*), dan gerund dicetak dengan huruf tebal (**bold**).

- a) After **studying** all day, I watch television for a while (*Setelah belajar sepanjang hari, saya menonton televisi sebentar*).
- b) She left me without **speaking** (*Dia meninggalkan saya tanpa mengatakan apa pun atau meninggalkan kata/pesan*).
- c) In **studying**, one needs patience (*Dalam belajar, seseorang memerlukan kesabaran*).
- d) Thank you for **answering** my letter last week (*Terima kasih telah membalas surat saya minggu yang lalu*).
- e) He is fond of **climbing** (*Dia menyukai kegiatan memanjat*).
- f) He is interested in **studying** abroad (*Dia tertarik dalam belajar di luar negeri*).

11.6 Kata kerja umum diikuti oleh gerunds (Common verbs followed by gerunds).

Azar (1989) menyebutkan bahwa gerunds digunakan sebagai object dari kata kerja tertentu, sebagaimana diperlihatkan berikut ini. Look at the following sentences.

Verb + Gerund a) I enjoy reading book	In (a), enjoy is followed by a gerund (playing), Artinya: <i>Saya menikmati kegiatan membaca buku.</i> The word enjoy is not followed by an infinitive, because it is incorrect.
b) Hartono quit smoking (<i>Hartono berhenti merokok</i>). c) Hartono gave up smoking (<i>Hartono berhenti merokok</i>). Artinya, <i>Hartono</i>	Kalimat b) dan c) sesungguhnya memiliki arti yang sama. Some two-word verbs are followed by gerund; contoh the two-word give up . Beberapa jenis two-word diberikan dalam tanda kurung (parentheses)

<i>tidak merokok lagi sekarang ini setelah sebelumnya dia merokok.</i>	below.
Verb + Gerund <i>enjoy</i> <i>quit (give up)</i> <i>avoid</i> <i>consider (think about)</i> <i>appreciate</i> <i>finish (get through)</i> <i>postpone (put off)</i> <i>discuss (talk about)</i> <i>mind</i> <i>stop*</i> <i>delay</i> <i>mention</i> <i>suggest</i> <i>keep (keep on)</i>	
*stop dapat juga diikuti langsung (<i>immediately</i>) by an infinitive of purpose (<i>in order to</i>). Bandingkan yang berikut ini: a) stop + gerund: When the prosessor entered the room, the students stopped talking. The room became quiet. b) stop + infinitive of purpose: While I was walking down the street, I ran into an old friend. I stopped to talk to him. (I stopped walking <i>in order to talk</i> to him).	

11.7 Penggunaan kata go + gerund (*Using go + gerund*)

Azar (1989) menyatakan bahwa kata kerja *go* dapat diikuti dengan *gerund* tertentu. Perhatikan contoh-contoh berikut ini.

a) Did you go shopping ? (<i>Apakah dia pergi belanja ?</i>) b) We went fishing yesterday (<i>Kami pergi memancing</i>)	Go is followed by a gerund in certain idiomatic exprssion to express, for the most part, recreational activities. Look at the following list.
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<i>kemarin).</i>		
Go + Gerund		
<i>go birdwatching</i>	<i>go hiking</i>	<i>go sightseeing</i>
<i>go boating</i>	<i>go hunting</i>	<i>go skating</i>
<i>go bowling</i>	<i>go jogging</i>	<i>go skiing</i>
<i>go camping</i>	<i>go mountain climbing</i>	<i>go sledding</i>
<i>go canoeing</i>	<i>go running</i>	<i>go swimming</i>
<i>go dancing</i>	<i>go sailing</i>	<i>go tobogganing</i>
<i>go fishing</i>	<i>go shopping</i>	<i>go window shopping</i>

11.8 Penggunaan gerund mengikuti need (*Using gerunds following need*).

Azar (1989) menyatakan bahwa umumnya suatu *infinite* mengikuti keperluan (*need*). Selanjutnya dinyatakan bahwa dalam keadaan tertentu, sebuah gerund mungkin atau boleh mengikuti keperluan. Perhatikan contoh-contoh kalimat berikut ini.

Contoh kalimat	Penjelasan
a) I need to borrow some money. b) John needs to be told the truth.	Umumnya, suatu infinitive mengikuti need , seperti pada kalimat a) dan b) di kolom kiri. Arti kalimat pada kolom kiri: a) Saya perlu meminjam sejumlah uang. Dalam hal ini, saya memerlukan sejumlah uang, tetapi saya tidak mempunyai uang, sehingga saya perlu meminjam uang dari orang

	lain. b) John perlu diceritakan kebenaran.
c) The house needs painting (<i>Rumah perlu dicat</i>). d) The house needs to be painted (<i>Rumah perlu dicat</i>).	Pada situasi tertentu, suatu gerund dapat mengikuti kata need . Dalam hal ini, <i>the gerund carries a passive meaning</i> . Usually the situations involve fixing or improving something. Kalimat c) dan d) di kolom kiri memiliki arti yang sama.

11.9 Bentuk passive dan lampau dari gerunds (*Passive and past forms of gerunds*).

Menurut Azar (1989), if the main verb is past (*Jika kata kerja utama dalam bentuk yang lalu*), the action of gerund (*peristiwa atau tindakan gerund*) happened before a time in the past (*terjadi sebelum suatu waktu di waktu yang lalu*). Perhatikan beberapa contoh kalimat berikut ini. Yang dicetak miring (*italic*) pada kolom kiri di bawah ini adalah terjemahan kalimat dalam bahasa Indonesia.

Passive Gerund: being + past participle a) I appreciated being invited to your office (<i>Saya menghargai telah diundang ke kantor saudara</i>).	In a): being invited is passive. The understood by " by phrase" is "by you" : <i>I appreciate being invited by you.</i> Penjelasan : Karena saya diundang ke kantor seseorang maka saya menghargai undangan dimaksud.
Past Gerund: having + past	In b) : I met the City Mayor

participle b) I appreciate having had the opportunity to meet the City Mayor of Bogor yesterday (Saya <i>menghargai telah memiliki kesempatan untuk bertemu Wali Kota Bogor kemarin</i>).	yesterday. <i>I appreciate now having had the opportunity to meet the City Mayor yesterday.</i> Penjelasan : Karena saya memiliki kesempatan bertemu dengan Wali Kota Bogor kemarin maka sekarang saya menyatakan menghargai kesempatan diomaksud.
Past-Passive Gerund: having been + past participle c) I appreciate having been told the news (Saya <i>menghargai telah diberitahukan kabar atau berita</i>).	In c): I was told the news yesterday by someone. I appreciate that. <i>I appreciate now having been told the news yesterday by someone.</i> Penjelasan : Karena seseorang memberitahukan kabara kepada saya kemarin maka sekarang saya menhytakan bahwa saya menghargainya.

11.10 Penggunaan gerund setelah ungkapan tertentu (Yosodipuro, 2022).

11.10.1 Setelah can't stand dan can't help,

Berikut ini adalah contoh kalimat untuk kedua kata dimaksud.

- I **can't stand** waiting him for more than one hour on the street. Artinya: Saya tidak mepau berdiri menunggu dia untuk waktu lebih dari satu jam di jalan raya.
- I **can't help** giving him a gift at her birthday celebration. Artinya: Saya tidak dapat membantu memberikannya suatu hadian pada perayaan ulang tahunnya.

11.10.2 Setelah **look forward to**, **be accustomed to**, **be used to**.

Berikut ini adalah contoh kalimat untuk ketiga kata dimaksud.

- a. I am **looking forward to** hearing from you as soon as possible.
- b. We **are accustomed to** living in this campu apartment.
- c. I **am used to** having light dinner.

11.11 Penutup

Sebuah *gerund* adalah bentuk **-ing** dari suatu kerja yang merupakan kata benda. *Gerund* berfungsi sebagai kata benda sehingga *gerund* dapat digunakan sebagai subject suatu kalimat. *Gerund* dapat juga dikatakan sebagai suatu kata benda yang telah dibentuk dari suatu kata kerja. Dengan demikian, setiap kata benda dapat dirubah ke dalam sebuah *gerund*. Caranya adalah dengan menambahkan kata **-ing** kepada kata dasar dari kata kerja.

Gerund adalah kata kerja yang berakhiran **-ing** yang berfungsi sebagai sebuah kata benda. Hal ini berarti bahwa *gerund* dapat digunakan sebagai suatu subjek maupun objek. Sementara itu, dapat juga dikatakan bahwa *gerund* adalah kata kerja yang dibendakan. Itulah sebabnya *gerund* memiliki fungsi yang sama dengan kata benda, yaitu sebagai subjek atau object dari suatu kalimat.

Pengguna bahasa Inggris yang baik dan yang memahami dan menguasai tata bahasa bahasa Inggris (*English grammar*) dengan baik harus memiliki pemahaman yang juga baik tentang *gerund*. Hal ini merupakan sesuatu yang mendasar dan sangat perlu. Dengan demikian akan membuat seseorang dapat membedakan dengan baik perbedaan antara *infinite* dan *gerund* baik dalam bahasa lisan maupun dalam bahasa tulisan..

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BAB 12

CONJUNCTIONS

By Kusmayra Ambarwati

12.1 Conjunctions

12.1.1 Pengertian dan Fungsi

Konjungsi (*conjunctions*) adalah kata yang menghubungkan elemen kalimat, seperti kata, frasa, atau klausa. (JHU, 2021)

Konjungsi berfungsi untuk:

- a. Menegaskan lebih dari satu tindakan atau menceritakan tentang lebih dari satu orang atau hal
- b. Menghemat dan memvariasikan struktur kalimat
- c. Hubungkan ide

Konjungsi tidak memiliki infleksi dan dapat diidentifikasi dengan fungsinya dalam kalimat. (JCCC, 2021)

12.1.2 Jenis Conjunctions

Tiga jenis konjungsi adalah: konjungsi subordinat (*subordinating*), konjungsi koordinasi (*coordinating*), dan konjungsi korelatif (*correlative*). (Unubi, 2019)

1. Coordinate Conjunctions

Kata hubung koordinatif ialah kata-kata yang dipakai untuk menghubungkan dua atau lebih unit tata bahasa yang serupa. Unit tata bahasa yang dimaksud dapat berupa jenis kata (*parts of speech*), frasa (*phrases*), atau klausa (*clauses*) yang sama. Dalam menggunakan kata hubung koordinatif untuk menggabungkan dua atau lebih unit tata bahasa yang serupa, akan terbentuk kalimat majemuk (*compound sentences*). Kata hubung koordinatif memiliki beberapa jenis dan fungsi diantaranya adalah

a. Konjungsi yang menggabungkan kata-kata tunggal

Jenis yang pertama adalah penghubung yang menggabungkan dua jenis kata yang sama, seperti kata kerja (*verbs*) dengan kata kerja lainnya, kata benda (*nouns*) dengan kata benda lainnya, dan sebagainya. Beberapa kata yang digunakan sebagai coordinate conjunctions untuk menggabungkan dua atau lebih jenis kata yang sama adalah: *and*, *or*, dan *but*. Berikut ini adalah contoh penggunaan di dalam kalimat :

- a) *The old doctor cured and vaccinated the patients*
- b) *The ant run slowly and quietly.*
- c) *She is cleaver but rude.*
- d) *No one but her could bring snack.*
- e) *I confused whether to happy or sad.*
- f) *Dodi is handsome, cleaver, and patient.*

Kalimat (a), kata '*and*' adalah kata penghubung koordinasi yang menghubungkan dua kata kerja (*verb*). (b) menghubungkan dua kata sifat, sedangkan yang (c) tiga kata sifat. Kalimat (c) , kata '*but*' menghubungkan dua kata sifat yang bertentangan, sedangkan pada kalimat (d) menghubungkan dua kata benda. Pada kalimat (e) kata '*or*' menghubungkan dua kata sifat yang bertentangan.

Kata hubung koordinasi tidak dapat digunakan untuk dua jenis kata yang berbeda.

b. Konjungsi yang menghubungkan frase

Jenis conjunctions lain yang serupa dengan Coordinate adalah conjunctions yang menghubungkan dua atau lebih frasa yang serupa. Frasa merupakan kumpulan kata yang berperan sebagai jenis kata tertentu, tanpa subjek, predikat, atau pelengkap. Kumpulan kata tersebut bisa berupa *noun phrase*, *verb*

phrase, adjective phrase, adverb phrase, atau prepositional phrase.

Berikut adalah beberapa contoh penggunaannya:

- a) *The midwife run into the hospital **and** walked into the yard.*
- b) *Kiki offered a very tiny **but** quite beautiful flower bouquet.*

Kata “and” pada kalimat (a) menggabungkan frasa kerja yaitu *run into the hospital dan walked into the yard*. Sedangkan kata kalimat (b) kata “but” menghubungkan dua frasa sifat yaitu *a very tiny dan quite beautiful flower*

c. **Konjungsi yang menghubungkan antar klausa**

Fungsi koordinat konjungsi yang lain adalah sebagai penghubung antar klausa. Syarat umum klausa adalah terdiri dari satu subjek dan satu predikat. Berikut adalah cara penggunaannya:

- a) *The children played football and the parent cooked in the yard.*
- b) *I will go to the library after I have submitted the exam, or after I have my dinner.*

Kata “and” dan “or” pada kalimat (a) dan (b) menghubungkan dua klausa yang berbeda.

2. **Subordinate Conjunctions**

Kata hubung subordinat digunakan untuk menghubungkan dua klausa yang saling berhubungan. Umumnya disebut klausa induk dan anak klausa. Ada berbagi jenis kata hubung subordinat berdasarkan fungsinya sebagai berikut:

- a. Kata hubung yang menunjukkan keterangan waktu

Kata hubung ini, akan menenadai keterangan waktu pada sebuah kalimat. Berikut ini adalah macam kata hubung yang digunakan : *when, whenever, while, as, after, before, once, since, until, till, now that, as long*

as. Contoh penggunaan di dalam kalimat : They can go when the patient arrive

- b. Kata hubung yang menunjukkan keterangan tempat

Kata hubung ini memberikan indikasi pada suatu tempat. Tidak banyak jenisnya, umumnya menggunakan kata where. Berikut contoh dalam kalimatnya:

No matter where you live, you would find best neighbor.

- c. Kata hubung yang menunjukkan keterangan sebab

Kata hubung ini mencirikan penyebab (karena). Jenis kata hubung yang digunakan antara lain adalah : because/cause, because of the fact that, since, as, now that, due to the fact that, Inasmuch as, in view of the fact that. Contoh penggunaan dalam kalimat : The doctor angry because the nurse come late.

- d. Kata hubung yang menunjukkan keterangan perbandingan

Adapun kata hubung yang digunakan dalam fungsi perbandingan ini antara lain adalah : although, though, whereas, while, despite the fact that, regardless of the fact that, assuming that, in spite of the fact that, in spite of the fact that. Contoh penggunaannya dalam kalimat : Although she does not come to the hospital, she has assessed the patient through telemedicine.

- e. Kata hubung yang menunjukkan keterangan keadaan

Kata hubung ini berfungsi untuk mengindikasikan keadaan sebagai syarat / pengandaian. Contoh kata hubung yang digunakan adalah : if, if only, only if, in case, once, unless, whenever, beyond that, except/excepting that, provided/providing that, in the event that, on condition (that), supposing (that).

Contoh penggunaan kalimat : If your birthday party tomorrow, I will go to your appartement..

3. Konjungsi Korelasi

Merupakan kata hubung yang menghubungkan kata, frase, kaluasa hampr sama dengan kata hubung koordinator.(Nugraha, 2020). Kata hubung yang digunakan antara lain adalah: *both and....* ; *not only but also....*; *either or....*; *neither nor.....* Contoh penggunaan di dalam kalimat adalah : Not only the mother but also the babies got the vaccine.

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AUTHOR BIOGRAPHY

Sunara, SS, MM, MPd

Lecturer at the Universitas Subang

He graduated from Universitas Padjadjaran (Unpad) Bandung, High School of Management Science, and Universitas Indraprasta Jakarta majoring in English literature, Management, and English Education. Starting his job in 2000, he has been very much in love with teaching in Universitas Subang West Java since 2007. He is also in charge of a foundation with activities that take care of English course, training, a madrasah, a tourism school, and an Islamic boarding school. He is living his life with his four children and a beloved wife in the cerenity of Subang.

AUTHOR BIOGRAPHY



Fitrahnanda Ayubadiah, M.A

English lecturer

Sekolah Tinggi Ilmu Ekonomi Balikpapan

The author is an English lecturer of at Sekolah Tinggi Ilmu Ekonomi Balikpapan and Foreign Language Academy Balikpapan. She earned her bachelor's degree in English language and literature from Universitas Brawijaya. In 2017, she graduated from Universitas Gadjah Mada Yogyakarta and earned a master's degree in Linguistics. The author now focuses on teaching, writing book chapters and doing research. She can be reached at ayubadiahnanda@gmail.com

AUTHOR BIOGRAPHY



Neneng Yuniarty, S.S., M.Hum.

Lecturer at the Piksi Ganesha Polytechnic, Bandung

The author lives in Bandung. She is a lecturer at the Piksi Ganesha Polytechnic, Bandung. The author completed her bachelor degree in 2005 in English department, and completed her master's degree in 2013 in English Linguistics, Faculty of Cultural Sciences, Padjadjaran University Bandung.

AUTHOR BIOGRAPHY



Rozita Yusniaty Lodo, S.S., M.Pd

Lecturer in the English Education Study Program
Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, San Pedro
University

The author was born in Sabu on August 26, 1985. The author completed her elementary school education in 1999 at Catholic Elementary School, Perema, Tanajawa Hawu Mehara. She completed her secondary school education in 2002 3 at Public Secondaty High School, Tanajawa, Hawu Mehara. In 2005 the author completed her vocational education at Wira Karya Vocational High School Oepoi Kupang. The author studied English literature at Bakti Indonesia University Banyuwangi from 2011 to 2015. From 2016-2018 Pursuing Masters in English Language Education at Nusa Cendana University, Kupang East Nusa Tenggara. The author has been a permanent lecturer in the English Language Education Study Program at the Faculty of Teacher Education and Training of San Pedro University since 2018 until now.

AUTHOR BIOGRAPHY



Morita, S.S., M.Pd.

Lecturer at the Marketing Management Program (D3) of
Institut Bisnis dan Informatika Kesatuan, Bogor

The author is an English lecturer at the Marketing Management Program (D3) of Institut Bisnis dan Informatika Kesatuan, Bogor. She gained her S1 degree from Universitas Indonesia, majoring in English linguistics. Teaching English and working with students from various background have become her passion. She then continued her study to Magister Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris at Universitas Terbuka and gained her S2 degree.

AUTHOR BIOGRAPHY



Andi Haeriati Alimuddin, S.Pd., M.Pd.

Dosen Program Studi Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris
STKIP YPUP Makassar

Penulis lahir di Takkalasi tanggal 19 April 1988. Penulis adalah dosen mata kuliah Advanced Grammar dan Language Testing pada Program Studi Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris, STKIP YPUP Makassar. Pada tahun 2006, penulis menempuh Pendidikan tinggi pada jenjang S1 pada program studi Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris, Universitas Negeri Makassar. Kemudian pada tahun 2010 melanjutkan ke jenjang magister Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris Universitas Negeri Makassar. Saat ini Penulis sedang menempuh pendidikan Doktorat di Universitas Negeri Makassar pada program studi yang sama. Saat ini penulis merupakan Dosen Tetap Yayasan di STKIP YPUP Makasar sejak tahun 2013 sampai sekarang.

AUTHOR BIOGRAPHY



Dr. Elihami, S.Pd., M.Pd.I.

Lecture at Islamic Education about Kemuhammadiyah, Muhammadiyah University of Enrekang

Dr. Elihami, S.Pd., M.Pd.I. was born Corawali, the district of Sidenreng Rappang, South Sulawesi on January,1,1988, the son of Abdul Hafid and Normi. Respectively, his formal educations were completed at SD Negeri 4 Bilokka in 2000, SMP Negeri 1 Panca Lautang 2003, and SMA Negeri 1 Tellu LimpoE in 2006, those schools were in district of Sidenreng Rappang. Elihami graduated his Sarjana Program (S.Pd.) at the Department of English Education, Muhammadiyah University of Parepare in 2010; graduated the Master Program (M.Pd. I) at the Department Islamic Education, graduated the Doctoral Program (Dr.) as the student of the Department Islamic Education, Muhammadiyah University of Parepare in 2020.

Elihami had published more than 143 papers, either national or in the international journals and 25 books. In spite of his main job as a lecture at Islamic Education about Kemuhammadiyah, Muhammadiyah University of Enrekang, he is also active in conducting research and community services. He had ever occupied of the head of the P2M (Pusat Penjaminan Mutu) in 2016 and the head of P3M (Pusat

Penelitian dan Pengabdian Masyarakat) in 2017 and the next the head of LP2M (Lembaga Penelitian dan Pengabdian Masyarakat).

AUTHOR BIOGRAPHY



Wahyu Adri Wirawati, MA.

Lecturer at Bachelor of Midwifery Study Program
STIKES Banyuwangi

The author was born in Jember on January 30, 1984. The author completed her undergraduate education at Department of English Literature, Universitas Jember and completed Master degree at Department of Linguistics, Universitas Gadjah Mada. The author is a permanent lecturer at Bachelor of Midwifery Study Program, STIKES Banyuwangi. The subjects taught by the author include English in Nursing Science, English for Midwifery Services, English for Nutritionist, English in Medical Laboratory Technology, English for Pharmacist, PIBA and TOEFL. Apart from teaching, the author is also the Chair of the Center for Research and Community Services STIKES Banyuwangi and is an editor of Journal Healthy and Professional Health Journal. Currently the author has produced several books, namely Speak Up, Basic English for Nursing, English in Nursing: Practical English for Professional Nurses, and Speaking for General Communication.

AUTHOR BIOGRAPHY



Yetty

Lecturer at Khairun University, English Education Study Program

The author was born in Ujung Pandang on August 5th, 1988. The author is a lecturer at Khairun University, English Education Study Program. The author has completed his Master Degree in English Language Studies at Hasanuddin University.

AUTHOR BIOGRAPHY



Itha Priyastiti, S.Pd., M.A.

Dosen Universitas Kristen Wira Wacana Sumba

Itha Priyastiti is an English lecturer at Universitas Kristen Wira Wacana Sumba. She obtained her Bachelor Degree in Education at the Faculty of Language and Literature of Satya Wacana Christian University Salatiga in 2005 with a major in English.

Before working at her current institution, she has taught English both professionally and privately. Itha has worked with various organizations; she has taught in the Faculty of Teacher Training and Education of Satya Wacana Christian University, was a teacher at Little Star Kids Activity Center, and a tutor at an English course center in Salatiga. After five years of professional development in her hometown, Itha decided to develop her career further in Sumba, where she was offered her current position.

Her passion in English has motivated her to pursue a master degree at Northern Arizona University through Fulbright scholarship in 2014. During her study, Itha had several experiences to work with Program in Intensive English (PIE) of Northern Arizona University. In August 2014 –

December 2015, she was a teaching assistant at Level 2 Conversation Class where she assisted instructor in classroom activities which focused on speaking skill. At the same place, Itha was a mentor and editor for Slice of PIE newsletters and podcast produced by students. Responsibilities included assisted students in choosing the topics of preference, mentored students' writing and podcast production progress, created and edited newsletter layout and podcast, and chose platform to upload and publish the podcast. In addition to working experience, Itha's achievement during study included received Graduate Student Government Travel Award in 2015 to attend and present a paper AZ-TESOL Conference; and Northern Arizona University (NAU) Student Travel Award, in 2016 TESOL Forum to present her poster. Itha finished her study and obtained a Master of Arts in Teaching English as a Second Language in 2016 with main research interests in Cross Cultural Understanding in Education, Classroom Language, and Curriculum Development.

Going back to Indonesia, in addition to her duty as an English lecturer, Itha was assigned to her current position as the head of Quality Assurance; and has been working with the team to formulate quality manuals and preparation for the national accreditation. Besides performing her main duties in the institution, Itha has also contributed in translating documents and voluntarily assisting the local NGO as an interpreter and an active member of Masyarakat Pendidikan Sejati (True Education Society).

AUTHOR BIOGRAPHY



Dr. Ir. James Sinurat, MURP

Dosen Magister Ekonomi Pembangunan
Fakultas Ekonomi dan Bisnis
Universitas Nusa Bangsa, Bogor

Penulis adalah Dosen Magister Ekonomi Pembangunan, Fakultas Ekonomi dan Bisnis, Universitas Nusa Bangsa, Bogor. Sejak duduk di bangku pendidikan Sekolah Menengah Pertama (SMP), penulis sangat menyenangi pelajaran bahasa Inggris. Selanjutnya pada saat mengikuti pendidikan SMA Negeri II di Pematang Siantar, Sumatera Utara, penulis tekun mengikuti kursus bahasa Inggris pada sore hari setelah pulang sekolah yang diselenggarakan setiap hari Senin sampai dengan Jumat selama satu tahun.

Pada saat melanjutkan pendidikan Strata 2 (*Master Program*) di Virginia Commonwealth University (VCU), Amerika Serikat, atas biaya *World Bank*, penulis mengikuti pelajaran bahasa Inggris yang terdiri dari: (1) *Intermediate Reading and Vocabulary*; (2) *Intermediate Speaking and Listening*; (3) *Advanced Reading and Vocabulary*; (4) *Advanced Speaking and Listening*; dan (5) *Advanced Grammar and Comprehension*, pada tahun 1992-1994. Penulis menyelesaikan

pendidikan Strata 3 Manajemen Lingkungan di Universitas Negeri Jakarta, tahun 2015, atas biaya sendiri.

Penulis, dengan Scopus ID: 5719 3741 552, aktif menulis pada penerbit anggota IKAPI. Selain itu, penulis aktif mengajar Mata Kuliah Bahasa Inggris 1 dan Bahasa Inggris 2 pada Strata 1 Universitas Nusa Bangsa, Bogor, sejak tahun 2013 sampai sekarang. Penulis juga mengasuh Mata Kuliah Matrikulasi Bahasa Inggris pada Program Pascasarjana Universitas Nusa Bangsa, Bogor, sejak tahun 2011 sampai sekarang.

AUTHOR BIOGRAPHY



Kusmayra Ambarwati
Staf Dosen Jurusan Kebidanan

Penulis lahir di Sleman, 04 Mei 1988. Penulis adalah dosen tetap pada Program Studi Kebidanan Fakultas Ilmu Kesehatan , Universitas Respati Indonesia. Menyelesaikan pendidikan DIII dan DIV pada Jurusan Kebidanan di Politeknik Kesehatan Kementerian Kesehatan Yogyakarta dan melanjutkan S2 pada Fakultas Kesehatan Masyarakat di Universitas Diponegoro Semarang. Penulis menekuni bidang Kesehatan Ibu dan Anak. Memiliki ketertarikan besar pada isu gizi maternal perinatal dan advokasi menyusui. Penulis merupakan komite tetap penelitian International Confederation of Midwives (ICM) untuk wilayah Asia Tenggara (2018 – saat ini). Selain itu juga, sebagai Southeast Asia Woman as Woman in Health Care (2019) yang diinisiasi oleh Young Southeast Asia Leader's Initiative (YSEALI) Women's Leadership Academy Alumni Network, dan didukung oleh U.S. Mission to ASEAN and Wedu, a women's leading non-profit in Asia.