

Word Classes and Forms

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GET PRESS INDONESIA

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ISBN : 978-623-8004-71-3

Editor : apt. Wafi Nisrin Ramadhani, S.Farm
Salsabila Syafni Aulia, Amd.Kes

Penyunting : Salsabila Syafna Aulia, S.Ked

Desain Sampul dan Tata Letak : Handri Maika Saputra, S.ST

Penerbit : GET PRESS INDONESIA
Anggota IKAPI No. 033/SBA/2022

Redaksi :

Jln. Palarik Air Pacah No 26 Kel. Air Pacah
Kec. Koto Tangah Kota Padang Sumatera Barat
Website : www.getpress.co.id
Email : adm.getpress@gmail.com

Cetakan pertama, Oktober 2022
Hak cipta dilindungi undang-undang
Dilarang memperbanyak karya tulis ini dalam bentuk
dan dengan cara apapun tanpa izin tertulis dari penerbit.

PREFACE

Praise and gratitude we pray to the presence of ALLAH SWT, thanks to grace and guidance, so that the author can complete the preparation of the book entitled Word Classes and Forms.

This book is expected to help readers understand Word Classes and Forms, so that they can apply their knowledge. Hopefully this book can contribute to literature in Indonesia and be useful for all of us.

Writers, 2022

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CHAPTER I

NOUN

By Raidah Mahirah

1.1 Definition of Noun

1.1.1. NOUN

Noun is a part of speech that refers to a thing, person, place, animal and so forth.

1.2 Kinds of Noun by Existence

1.2.1 Concrete Noun

Concrete Noun adalah kata benda yang dapat diindera berdasarkan wujudnya.

Concrete Noun terbagi menjadi beberapa jenis, yaitu;

A. Common Noun (General Noun)

Common Noun atau General Noun adalah kata benda yang ada disekitar kita, kata benda yang sering ditemui pada kehidupan sehari-hari.

Examples:

- | | |
|----------|--------------|
| - Book | - Glass |
| - Chair | - House |
| - Table | - School |
| - Pen | - Motorcycle |
| - Pencil | - etc. |

B. Collective Noun

Collective Noun adalah kata benda yang menunjukkan makna berkelompok atau kumpulan tertentu, seperti;

Examples:

- | | |
|-----------------|----------------|
| - Group | - Club |
| - Family | - Team |
| - Parts of Body | - Community |
| - Animal | - Organization |
| - Fruit | - Army |
| - Vegetable | - Public |
| - Tools | - etc. |



Families (Anggota Keluarga)

Grandfather	: Kakek
Father	: Ayah
Father in-law	: Ayah (Mertua)
Grandmother	: Nenek
Mother	: Ibu
Mother in-law	: Ibu (Mertua)
Son	: Anak laki-laki
Daughter	: Anak perempuan
Grandson	: Cucu laki-laki
Granddaughter	: Cucu perempuan
Brother	: Saudara Laki-Laki
Elder brother	: Kakak laki-laki

Younger brother	: Adik laki-laki
Brother in-law	: Ipar laki-laki
Sister	: Saudara perempuan
Elder sister	: Kakak perempuan
Younger sister	: adik perempuan
Sister in-law	: Ipar perempuan
Uncle	: Paman
Aunt	: bibi, tante
Nephew	: Kemenakan laki-laki
Niece	: Kemenakan Perempuan
Cousin	: Sepupu
Stepfather	: Ayah tiri
Stepmother	: Ibu tiri
Stepson	: Anak tiri laki-laki
Stepdaughter	: Anak tiri perempuan
Stepbrother	: Saudara tiri laki-laki
Stepmother	: Saudara tiri perempuan



Parts of Body

1. Hair	Rambut	20. Fingers	Jari-jari tangan
2. Ear	Telinga	21. Nail	Kuku
3. Neck	Leher	22. Palm	Telapak tangan
4. Head	Kepala	23. Elbow	Siku
5. Forehead	Dahi	24. Arm	Lengan
6. Eyebrow	Alis kening	25. Knee	Lutut, dengkul
7. Eye	Mata	26. Toes	Jari-jari kaki
8. Nose	Hidung	27. Foot	Kaki, ujung
9. Cheek	Pipi	28. Leg	kaki
10. Lip	Bibir	29. Thigh	Paha
11. Tooth	Gigi	30. Tongue	Lidah
12. Mouth	Mulut	31. Chin	Dagu
13. Face	Wajah, muka	32. Calf	Betis
14. Shoulder	Bahu, pundak	33. Heel	Tumit
15. Throat	Kerongkongan	34. Beard	Janggut
16. Back	Punggung	35. Moustache	Kumis
17. Chest	Dada	36. Nostril	Lubang hidung
18. Stomach	Perut	37. Skin	Kulit
19. Hand	Tangan	38. Etc...	



Animals

1. Ant	: Semut	31. Goat	: Kambing
2. Bat	: Kelelawar	32. Goose	: Angsa
3. Bear	: Beruang	33. Gorilla	: Gorila
4. Bee	: Lebah	34. Grasshopper	: Belalang
5. Buffalo	: kerbau	35. Hen	: Ayam betina
6. Bedbug	: Kutu busuk	36. Horse	: Kuda
7. Bull	: Banteng	37. House Lizard	: Cicak

8. Bird	: Burung	38. Jellyfish	: Ubur-ubur
9. Butterfly	: Kupu-kupu	39. Lion	: singa
10. Camel	: Unta	40. Monkey	: Monyet
11. Cat	: Kucing	41. Mouse	: Tikus
12. Caterpillar	: Ulat	42. Mosquito	: Nyamuk
13. Chicken	: Ayam	43. Owl	: Burung hantu
14. Cock	: Ayam Jantan	44. Pig	: Babi
15. Cockroach	: Kecoak	45. Rabbit	: Kelinci
16. Cow	: Sapi	46. Rat	: tikus besar
17. Crab	: Kepiting	47. Rhinoceros	: Badak
18. Crocodile	: Buaya	48. Sea horse	: Kuda laut
19. Deer	: Rusa	49. Shark	: Ikan Hiu
20. Dinosaurs	: Dinosaurus	50. Sheep	: Domba
21. Dog	: Anjing	51. Shrimp	: Udang
22. Dolphin	: Lumba-lumba	52. Snail	: Siput
23. Duck	: Itik	53. Snake	: Ular
24. Dragonfly	: Capung	54. Spider	: laba-laba
25. Elephant	: Gajah	55. Tiger	: harimau
26. Fish	: Ikan	56. Tortoise	: Penyu

27. Fly	: Lalat	57. Wolf	: Serigala
28. Fox	: Rubah/ Serigala	58. Worm	:Cacing
29. Frog	: Katak	59. Zebra	: Kuda zebra
30. Girrafe	: Jerapah	60. Etc...	...

Foods, Fruits and Vegetables

1. Almond	: Kenari	18. Grape	: Anggur
2. Apple	: Apel	19. Guava	: Jambu biji
3. Banana	: Pisang	20. Jackfruit	: Nangka
4. Bean curd	: Tahu	21. Longans	:Kelengkeng
5. Beef	: Daging Sapi	22. Manggo	: Mangga
6. Bread	: Roti	23. Mangosteen	: Manggis
7. Cabbage	: Kol/ kubis	24. Orange	: Jeruk
8. Cake	: Kue	25. Papaya	: Pepaya
9. Carrot	: Wortel	26. Passion fruit	: Markisa
10. Cheese	: Keju	31. Peanut	: Kacang
11. Cashew	: Mente	32. Pear	: Pir
12. Cassava	: Singkong	33. pineapple	: Nanas

13.	Cherry	: Ceri	34.	Potato	: Kentang
14.	Chocolate	: Cokelat	35.	Rose Aple	: Jambu
15.	Coconut	: Kelapa	36.	Sapodilla	: Sawo
16.	Cucumber	: Mentimun	37.	Soursop	: Sirsak
17.	Date	: Kurma	38.	Star fruit	: Belimbing
18.	Eeg	: Telur	39.	Strawberry	: Stroberi
19.	Food	: Makanan	40.	Tomato	: Tomat
20.	Fruit	: Buah	37.	Turnip	:Bengkoang
21.	Grape	: Anggur	38.	Watermelon	: Semangka
22.	Guava	: Jambu biji	39.	Zalacca	: Salak
23.	Jackfruit	: Nangka			
24.	Longans	:Kelengkeng			
25.	Manggo	: Mangga			
26.	Mangosteen	: Manggis			
27.	Orange	: Jeruk			
28.	Papaya	: Pepaya			
29.	Passionfruit	: Markisa			
30.	Peanut	: Kacang			

C. Proper Noun

Proper Noun adalah kata benda yang digunakan untuk menamai identitas diri, kebangsaan, suku, agama, hari, sungai, gunung dan hal-hal yang berhubungan dengan benda secara geografis. Penulisan kata benda pada proper noun diawali dengan huruf kapital.

Examples:

- Asri, Ali, Ida, etc.
- Islam, Crhistian, Hindu, Buddha, etc.
- Sulawesi, Maluku, Ambon, Papua, Jawa, etc.
- Atlantic, Ocean, Island, etc.
- Fuji, Krakatau, Semeru, etc

D. Material Noun

Material Noun adalah kata benda material dan zat yang berupa bahan dasar untuk membuat sesuatu. Kata benda jenis ini biasanya bersifat Uncountable Noun atau tidak dapat dihitung.

Examples:

- | | |
|----------|------------------|
| - Water | - Sand |
| - Sugar | - Wood |
| - Powder | - Gold |
| - Salt | - Paint |
| - Oil | - Silver, etc... |

1.2.2 Abstract Noun

Abstrac Noun adalah Kata benda yang tidak dapat diindrai, atau tidak dapat dilihat berdasarkan wujud.

Examples:

- Love

- Knowledge
- Freedom
- Hope
- Friendship
- Leadership
- Etc.

1.3 Kinds of Noun by Quantity

1.3.1. Countable

Countable Noun adalah kata benda yang jumlahnya dapat dihitung. Countable Noun terbagi menjadi dua bagian, yaitu Singular (Kata benda yang berjumlah satu atau tunggal) dan Plural (Kata benda yang berjumlah jamak atau lebih dari satu)

A. Singular

Examples:

Noun was followed by Article:	Noun without article:
- A Book	- Pen
- A paper	- Pencil
- An apple	- Glass
- An umbrella	- Line
- A phone	- Etc...

B. Plural

Examples:

 Noun was followed by additional <u>-S</u> :	
Singular	Plural
- Book	- Books
- Table	- Tables
- Phone	- Phones
- Pen	- Pens

 Noun was followed by additional -ES:

Catatan:

1. Penambahan huruf **-es** , digunakan apabila kata benda tunggal berakhiran huruf **desis** atau, **-s**, **-x**, **-z**, **-ch**, **-sh**, huruf **O**.

<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>
- Class	- Class <u>es</u>
- Box	- Box <u>es</u>
- Brush	- Brush <u>es</u>
- Quiz	- Quiz <u>es</u>
- Tomato	- Tomato <u>es</u>
	- Etc...

2. Apabila kata benda berakhir dengan huruf **-oo**, **-io**, dan **-yo**, maka cukup ditambahkan hruf **-S** saja.

<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>
- Photo	- Photo <u>s</u>
- Bamboo	- Bambo <u>os</u>
- Embryo	- Embryo <u>s</u>
- Radio	- Raido <u>s</u>
	- Etc...

3. Apabila kata benda berakhiran dengan huruf **'-Y'** dan didahului huruf *consonant* (huruf mati) maka akhiran **'-Y'** berubah menjadi **'-I'** kemudian ditambahkan **-ES**.

<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>
- Fly	- Fl <u>ies</u>
- Baby	- Bab <u>ies</u>
- Library	- Librar <u>ies</u>
- City	- Cit <u>ies</u>

4. Apabila kata benda berakhiran dengan huruf **'-Y'** dan didahului huruf *Vocal* (huruf hidup) maka akhiran **'-Y'** ditambahkan **-S**.

<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>
- Key	- Key <u>s</u>
- Boy	- Boy <u>s</u>
- Day	- Day <u>s</u>
	- Etc...
5. Kata benda yang berakhiran ' <u>F</u> ' atau ' <u>FE</u> ' maka akhiran tersebut diubah menjadi ' <u>VE</u> ' kemudian ditambahkan ' <u>S</u> '.	

<u>Singular</u>	<u>Plural</u>
- Wife	- Wi <u>ves</u>
- Calf	- Cal <u>ves</u>
- Life	- Li <u>ves</u>
- Knife	- Kni <u>ves</u>
	- Etc...

1.3.2. Uncountable

Uncountable adalah kata benda yang jumlahnya tidak dapat dihitung. Biasanya kata benda kategori ini berupa benda cair, benda kecil, benda padat, benda abstrak, benda gas dan lain-lain.

Examples:

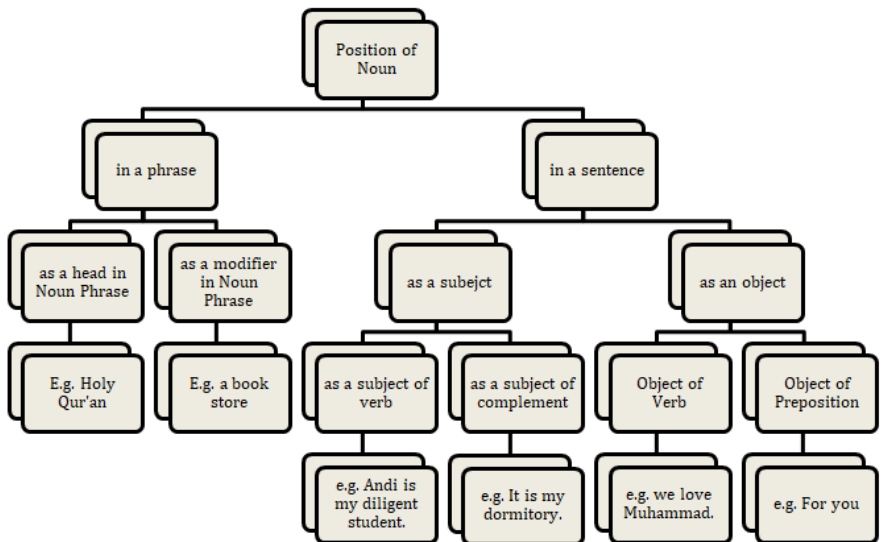
- Blood, Gasoline, Coffee, Oil, Soup, Tea, Water, Liquid, etc...	- Happines, Energy, Advice, Education, Homework, Etc...
- Hair, Sand, Sugar, Rice, Salt, Flour, Dust, Corn, etc...	- Air, Oxygen, Pollution, Smoke, Steam, Nitrogen, Smog, etc...
- Butter, Bread, Cheese, Gold, Iron, Wood, Ice, etc...	- Darkness, Electricity, Fire, Fog, Rain, Gravity, Snow, sunshine, Food, etc...

Untuk mengukur Uncountable Noun, dibutuhkan takaran atau wadah seperti:

Examples:

- | | |
|--------------------|------------------------|
| - A cup of coffee | - Three glasses of tea |
| - A glass of water | - Two drops of water |
| - A droop of tea | - Three bottles milk |
| - A bottle of milk | - Two cups of coffee |
| - A slice of bread | - Etc... |
| - A plate of rice | |
| - A spoon of salt | |

1.4 Function and Position of Noun



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CHAPTER II

VERBS

By Andri Kurniawan

2.1 Definition of Verbs

The fact that verbs have tenses indicates that considerations involving the concept of time are relevant to their use. These considerations are not limited merely to the obvious discrimination between past, present, and future; there is another, a more subtle dependence on that concept: the use of a verb may also suggest the particular way in which that verb presupposes and involves the notion of time.

In a number of recent publications some attention has been paid to these finer aspects, perhaps for the first-time systematic call. Distinctions have been made among verbs suggesting processes, states, dispositions, occurrences, tasks, achievements, and so on. Obviously, these differences cannot be explained in terms of time alone: other factors, like the presence or absence of an object, conditions, intended states of affairs, also enter the picture. Nevertheless, one feels that the time element remains crucial; at least it is important enough to warrant separate treatment. Indeed, as I intend to show, if we focus our attention primarily upon the time schemata presupposed by various verbs,¹ we are able to throw light on some of the obscurities which still remain in these matters. These time schemata will appear as important constituents of the concepts that prompt us to use those terms the way we consistently do.

2.2 Phrasal Verbs

The categorization of phrasal verbs is indeterminate, which is a consequence of their semantic complexities. One particular and ubiquitous type of verb constructions is multi-word verbs. They consist of many different subcategories such as phrasal verbs (e.g., turn up), prepositional verbs (e.g., dispose of) and phrasal-prepositional verbs (e.g., get away with). In this definition, a phrasal verb is made of 'V + adverb', a prepositional verb consists of 'V + preposition', and a phrasal-prepositional verb contains 'V + adverb + preposition', as seen in a table below:

Multi-word verb types	Subtypes	Examples
Phrasal verbs	(a) Intransitive	<i>Blow up, get on</i>
Prepositional verbs	(b) transitive (a) Type I (b) Type II	<i>Set up, Put off, Cope with, rely on, loot, approve of</i>
Phrasal-prepositional verbs		<i>Confine (noun) to, protect (noun) from come up with, look forward to</i>

It is well worth mentioning that Quirk et al. identify the groups of multi-word verbs which have common meanings. For example: they consider that away carries a meaning of 'persistent action', up suggests 'completion', around implies 'aimless behavior' and out

means 'endurance'. Sinclair (1991:68) also advocates the idea of grouping phrasal verbs by their particle in order to make "sense groupings". This idea is a very meaningful and effective approach for teaching English to language learners and foreign students alike. There are two classificatory approaches that distinguish phrasal verbs in literary works: syntactic classification and semantic classification. At the syntactic level, phrasal verbs can be classified as transitive or intransitive, although some cases can be either transitive or intransitive, for example: give in, blow up⁶. Besides transitivity, the other syntactic condition is whether the phrasal verb is separable. Examples of inseparable phrasal verbs include get off ('descend from; leave'), turn into ('become'), etc. Other phrasal verbs such as cut off ('interrupt; sever; amputate'), hand down ('deliver; pronounce formally; leave as an inheritance') are separable. Since the center of attention of this article is phrasal verbs, let's look at some examples that make up phrasal verb combinations. For convenience, the particles under examination will be limited to five elements: UP, OUT, ON, ABOUT, DOWN.

1. Phrasal Verbs with 'UP'

There are several verbs that are more frequently used to add a new meaning with a combination of the particle UP. Here are just some examples of verb + particle construction that are used in colloquial, as well as official language: DRAW UP is more strongly associated with laws, LOOK UP with dictionaries/words, and GROW UP with becoming an adult/indication of progress, BRING UP + a question/issue, and PICK UP + the scent. The following sentences give a clearer understanding of their use in the language:

- 1) They should **draw up** laws to punish the producer of fake commodities and detect every product.

- 2) While learning a foreign language, one of the must-have daily habits is **looking up** words in a dictionary from time to time.
- 3) Many people say that this 'idol' talk sets a bad example for children when **growing up**.
- 4) They constantly bring up the point that coal mining is a very dangerous job.
- 5) After a very hard financial crisis, the economy has finally started **picking up**.

2. Phrasal Verbs with 'OUT'

The phrasal verb FIND OUT, for example, is followed by a number of wh-words. Besides, the phrasal verb is commonly positioned after certain verbs such as TRY, WANT, MUST, NEED, and WOULD LIKE TO, and words like about and one self. Let's see some examples here:

- 1) The quest of finding out who one is the quest that all individuals must embark...
- 2) We would be able to find out where all of the money is going.
- 3) ...they simply wanted to find out what it was all about...

In a similar fashion, we can look at other examples with the participation of a phrasal verb Carry Out:

- 1) The term executive branch suggests the branch of the federal government that executor carries out the law.
- 2) Is Caligula right or wrong in carrying out his reign of terror?
- 3) ... and the women are prepared for the job, that political violence can be carried out by anyone.

3. Phrasal Verbs with 'ON'

The particle “On”, following a verb, is used mostly to give a sense of a continuous action or idea. Most frequent verbs to give such meaning are GO and MOVE / CARRY:

- 1) As time went on, I started to master some ideas and I felt I was going into the state.
- 2) She will have no idea of what's going on except the price in the market.
- 3) Everything takes on a new look as ...

4. Phrasal Verbs with ‘ABOUT’

This phrasal verb is mostly associated with awareness, population, life, attitude, society, change, result, improvement, trend, justice, revolution, recognition, productivity, etc. On a positive side and problem, mistake, failure, etc. On a negative aspect. Examples below demonstrate the findings :

- 1) Promises of new reforms and policies outlined by a leading presidential candidate brings about a sense of change and awakening in the country's fledgling economy.
- 2) ...of serious un employments, it brings about other problems at the same time
- 3) Second, many fake commodities can bring about many difficulties to the factories which make the real commodities.

The closest in meaning of the phrasal verb ‘bring about’ is the phrasal verb ‘come about’. It has a meaning of happening or occurring:

- 1) And it all came about by sheer luck
- 2) This remarkable change came about after Ed Roberts gained a success consciousness.

5. Phrasal Verbs with ‘DOWN’

The favorite verbs that come along with the particle „down“ are: knock, sit, fall, break, go, cut and look. Examples show these similarities here:

- 1) When we buy some electronic device, it may break down after a few weeks.
- 2) After a third-quarter meeting, the board of the company decided to cut down on research and development.
- 3) “... the industry was almost broken down but also our society will break down”

Deterding and Poedjosoedarmo (2002) describe several kinds of verbs. I can conclude from their explanation as follows:

There are 5 (five) FORMS of verb:

- 1). Basic form (without any affixes) (base form/infinitive)
- 2). -s form
- 3). -ing form (present participle)
- 4). past tense (past tense)
- 5). -ed form (Past participle)

****Note:** For Writing students, introduce this term (base form/infinitive, present participle, past tense, past participle) and use it over and over so they get used to it use and understand it.

Furthermore, verbs are categorized as follows:

a. PRIMARY VERBS in the form of:

- 1). be (is, am, are, was, were); 2). have; 3). do.

b. HEAD VERBS (other linguists refer to these as main verbs).

Example: sweep (-s/-es/-ed, swept), write (-s/-es, wrote), type (-s/-es/-d)

c. CAPITAL VERBS function only as AUXILIARY.

Example: can, may, will, shall, must, etc.

According to Deterding and Poedjosoedarmo, I can conclude that there are 4 (four) type of verb:

1. Modal auxiliary : can do, may go, etc.
2. Primary auxiliary : have done, is written, is writing, etc.
3. Primary head verb : I have some pens, she is ill; etc.
4. Full head verb : He wrote a letter yesterday; They do their homework

This form of introduction aims to understand some of the terms used related to verbs, at the same time so that students are not confused with modal, have, do, to be, auxiliary (auxiliary verb). Furthermore, students are given explanations and exercises related to head verbs, auxiliary, and the rules.

C. Head Verbs, Auxiliaries, And The Rules

Rule: An English sentence must have at least one verb, which is called the *head verb*.

Example: I sleep at a hotel.

In many cases, students cannot distinguish between have/has/had and **to be** (am, is, are, was, were) as (head) and auxiliary verbs. One way to tell the difference is to introduce a **subject** and a **predicate**, as well as **verbal** and **nominal sentences**.

a. Subject

The subject is the doer or topic. So, it can be animate (creature) and inanimate (thing) Example:

- he, she, they, cat, mouse, etc.

→ doer

- Biology, news, Indonesia

→ topics

b. Predicate

Predicate is something that describes the subject. There are several things that are included as predicates.

Predicates can explain:

No	PREDICATE explanation:	PREDICATE: Type of word selected/used	Rules	Type of sentene
1.	What activities/actions does the object perform, either physical or emotional?	VERBS Physical: -run, sweep, write, hide, etc. Emotional: <i>feel, need</i> , etc.	S + V	VERBAL
2.	Who is the subject?	NOUN <i>-book, health,</i>	S+LV+ N	NOMINAL
		promise, student, etc.		
3.	Where is the subject?	ADVERB -here, there, etc.	S+LV+ Adv	NOMINAL

		-in Surabaya, at campus, etc.		
4.	What is the (state/nature) of the subject?	ADJECTIVE -ill,happy, surprising, etc.	S+LV+ Adj	NOMINAL

Notes:

- ☒ S for Subject
- ☒ V for Verb
- ☒ LV for Linking Verb in the form of to be (am, is, are, was, were and certain verbs. In principle, linking verbs in other books are also called verbs.
- ☒ N for Noun
- ☒ Adv for Adverb
- ☒ Adj for Adjective

D. Verb and Auxiliary Layout

Subject	Auxiliary	Verb	
I	-	sleep	
She	-	was	Here
I		have	two pens

☐ Simple verb phrase

Sometimes these *head verbs* are preceded by one or more *auxiliary verbs*.

Example:

I *have* slept at a hotel for five days.

I *have* been sleeping soundly when she talked with my mother.

Subject	Auxiliary	Auxiliary	Verb
She	was		<u>murmuring.</u>
I	have	-	<u>slept.</u>
I	have	been	<u>sleeping.</u>

- ☐ Complex Verb Phrase
- ☐ Complex Verb Phrase

E. Occurrence of Verb

In general, there is a general pattern of how verb forms occur:

Auxiliary	Followed by	Example
Modal	Base form	<i>She can walk</i>
Do	Base form	<i>I do cherish you</i>
Have	-ed participle	<i>I have treasured the time we spent</i>
Be (progressive)	-ing participle	<i>She is murmuring</i>
Be (passive)	-ed participle	<i>It is repaired</i>

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CHAPTER III

ADJECTIVE

By Raynesta Mikaela Indri Malo

3.1 Definition

Words are divided into classes of words that group them based on their morphosyntactic characteristics. The categorization of words into word classes is more or less the same as a traditional grouping of words into parts of speech (Aarts, Chalker and Weiner, 2014). Words are usually classified into verbs, nouns, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections.

Each class has its own function when used in sentences. For example, nouns are those words that represent person, place, or things. In a sentence, it functions as the subject and object. It can be the head of a noun phrase and it can be inflected to form the plural forms. A verb represents activities and functions mostly as a predicate in a sentence.

An adjective is a word used to give more information about a noun (a person, thing, place, or idea), such as its appearance, color, size, or other qualities (Cookson and Stirk, 2019). It is used exclusively to modify nouns and pronouns (Swick, 2005; Woods, 2018) as well as other phrases or parts of speech functioning as nouns in a sentence (Herring, 2016). Since it gives more information about a particular noun, an adjective certainly provides a new meaning for the noun (Torres-Gouzerh, 2016).

3.2 Function

As mentioned above, the function of an adjective is to explain or modify nouns and pronouns. Huddleston and Pullum (2005)

explain that adjectives typically denote properties of objects, persons, and places, which are related to age, size, shape, weight, color, merit or quality, and so on.

(1) *Shanti wears a **red** blouse.*

(2) *The house is **big**.*

In the examples above, the adjectives give information about the nouns. In (1), the adjective *red* give information about the color of the noun *blouse*. It modifies the noun that it is not just a regular blouse. The adjective *red* provides additional information which makes the information in the sentence clearer. In sentence (2), the adjective *big* also plays the same role, which is to give information about the noun *house*. This additional information provides distinctive facts about the size of the house.

In order to make a clear the differences, these two sentences can be compared with other sentences (a) without adjectives such as *Shanti wears a blouse* or (b) using another adjective *the house is small*. It is then clear how adjectives work to provide additional information for the nouns and pronouns and give different meanings to the whole sentence. Adjectives then provide a clearer meaning of the words it modifies and at the same time provide limitations to the meaning (Stobbe, 2008).

Based on their position in a sentence, adjectives have two functions, the attributive and the predicative functions (Huddleston and Pullum, 2005; Herring, 2016). As in the examples above, adjectives can present in two positions in a sentence. In sentence (1), the adjective *red* appears before the noun *blouse*. This type of adjective is called to have attributive function, which means that the adjective directly connects with the modified noun. It becomes the modifier in the noun phrase red blouse. Meanwhile in sentence (2), *big* appears after the noun *house* and connected with the noun by a linking verb *is*. In this position, the adjective is called as predicative adjective where it functions as the predicate in the sentence structure.

Most adjectives can appear in both positions, as attributive as well as predicative adjectives. However, a minority are confined to one position (Cruse, 2006). For instance, in the following examples, in (3) and (4), the adjective *old* can occur as an attributive adjective (as modifier before the modified noun *house*) and also as a predicative adjective (as predicate in the clause, present after the noun *house* and connected with a linking verb *is*).

(3) *It is an old house.*

(4) *The house is old.*

(5) *Mr. Rahmat is the main speaker.*

(6) *Mr. Rahmat is the main.**

(7) *The kids are afraid.*

(8) *They are afraid kids.**

However, in (5) and (6), the adjective *main* cannot function the same way. It cannot occur in both positions. Adjectives as *main* can only occur in attributive position. On the other hand, *afraid* can only function as a predicative adjective as in (7) but not as attributive as in (8).

3.3 Category

As explained in the previous section, based on its position in a sentence (related to the noun/pronoun), adjectives can be classified as attributive and predicative. Besides that, there is another classification of adjectives, the descriptive adjectives and the limiting adjectives (Stobbe, 2008).

A. Descriptive Adjectives

Descriptive adjectives are those words that are inherently adjectival (Herring, 2016) and function mostly to give information about the quality and characteristic of the modified nouns and pronouns. Descriptive adjectives can be attributive as well as predicative. In either position, they provide a description of the

nouns and pronouns they preceded or followed. The following sentences are examples of descriptive adjectives.

- (9) *The kids are still **young**.*
- (10) *We visited an **old** church in Italy.*
- (11) *The **big** house near the park is being renovated.*
- (12) *The girl is very **tall**.*
- (13) *Our new apartment is too **small** for 4 people.*
- (14) *My sister has a **round** bag.*
- (15) *The classroom has four **square** corners.*
- (16) *Her red dress was **dirty**.*
- (17) *The **pink** pony is the most **favorite** animation.*
- (18) *They left the room **untidy**.*
- (19) *It was a **tough** battle between the two teams.*
- (20) *We should not use **plastic** products anymore.*
- (21) *The **metal** utensils are expensive.*
- (22) *It is a **lovely** day to be at the beach.*
- (23) *Do you know that **beautiful** girl?*
- (24) *The **u-shaped** garden was designed by my uncle.*
- (25) *We bought some **cleaning** liquid last night.*

Descriptive adjectives also include proper adjectives. Proper adjectives are those formed from proper nouns to create descriptive words (Izzan, 2015) such as the name of a person, a country, or an idea. Since they are derived from names of countries (or other specific places), religions or people's names, when used as modifier of nouns, they give description that the modified noun are related to the proper names. For example, that the noun comes from or related to a specific country. In writing, they are written with capital letters at the beginning.

- (26) *The **Indian** students live in Yogyakarta.*
- (27) *Our family loves **Japanese** food.*

- (28) *The **Christian** church established a new building in the village.*
- (29) ***Indonesian** students won the Math competition.*
- (30) ***Aristotelian** thought believes that poetry is an imitation of life.*

B. Limiting Adjectives

Limiting adjective is a term used to refer to what is known now as determiners. Determiners are members of a closed class of words that typically precede nouns (Aarts, Chalker and Weiner, 2014), become the modifier that modifies the head of the noun phrase, and limits their meaning in some way. A determiner is one of a group of words including *the*, *a*, *some*, and *my* which are used at the beginning of a noun phrase (Cookson and Stirk, 2019). It is a group of words, which include article, possessive, demonstrative, or quantifier, that makes specific the denotation of a noun phrase. A determiner helps to identify a specific noun rather than describe it (Stobbe, 2008).

(a) Articles

Articles are words that function to define a noun as the specific or unspecific item. This group includes *a*, *an*, and *the*. There are two types of articles, the definite and the indefinite articles. The definite article *the* is used to refer to a specific group of something (Stobbe, 2008). It functions to limit the meaning of a noun to one exact thing. The indefinite articles, including *a* and *an*, are used to refer to one of a general group. *An* is used before a noun starting with a vowel. Sentences (31) and (32) below show the difference between the definite and indefinite articles.

- (31) *Are you going to **the** party this weekend?*
- (32) *Are you going to **a** party tonight? I saw a new dress in your room.*
- (33) *Do you know **the** American student?*
- (34) *Do you know **an** American student? I need to ask several things about living in America.*

In sentences (31) and (33), the article *the* is a definite article that tells that the speaker is referring to a particular party and specific American student that both the speaker and the listener know about. However, in (32), the speaker refers to any party in general that the listener might attend. The speaker seems to make an assumption that the listener is going to a party because she has a new dress in the room. In (34), the speaker refers to any American student in general that the listener might know. The definite article can be used with singular, plural, or uncountable nouns, while the indefinite article only appears with singular nouns.

(b) Possessive Adjectives

The possessive adjectives are adjectives that are based on subject pronouns and show ownership or possession. There are seven possessive determiners in English, and each one is derived from a particular personal pronoun (Cookson and Stirk, 2019).

Personal Pronouns	Possesive Adjectives
I	My
You	Your
He	His
She	Her
It	Its
We	Our
They	Their

(35) *The boy is **her** brother.*

(36) ***My** green bag is missing.*

(37) *They came to **our** house last night.*

In (35) the possessive adjective *her* modifies the noun *brother* and shows that a woman possesses the boy as a sibling. In sentence (36), the noun phrase *green bag* is modified by the possessive adjective *my* and shows that the bag is owned by the speaker. In (37), *our* modifies the noun *house*, showing that the house is owned by 'we'.

In English, the use of a double determiner is not allowed. It means that there will be only one determiner in front of a noun to modify it. For example, the sentence *I gave her **the my** shoes* is incorrect because the determiner *the* and *my* exist together to modify the noun *shoes*. Based on what is being talked about, the speaker must choose one determiner to use.

(c) Demonstrative Adjectives

A demonstrative adjective is used to specify the object or what is being referred to as well as to state whether it is singular or plural. It is also used to give more information about the object's distance or proximity to the speaker (Herring, 2016). There are four words that belong to this category, *this*, *that*, *these*, and *those*.

This is used to refer to the person, thing, or idea that is close to or near the speaker in terms of time and place. It also refers to the idea or thought that has just been mentioned. *These* is the plural form of *this*. Meanwhile, *that* and *those* is used to point out the things that are far from the speaker at the time of speaking. *Those* is the plural form of *that*.

(38) *I prefer **these** books to **that** expensive bag.*

(39) ***Those** houses are bigger than **this** villa.*

(d) Interrogative Adjectives

The interrogative adjectives are usually used to form questions about something, including *what*, *which*, and *whose* (Herring, 2016). They single out the nouns they modify.

(40) **Which** laptop do you prefer?

(41) **What** mineral do they produce?

(42) **Whose** dictionary is this?

In sentence (40), *which* modifies *laptops*. *Which* is used to specify one person or one object out of a group. In (41) *what* modifies *minerals* and forms an interrogative sentence to express question about the identity, nature, or value of a person or an object. In (42), the noun *dictionary* is modified by *whose* which is used to specify the possessor of a person or an object. These three Interrogative adjectives can also be used with plural nouns, such as *which laptops*.

(e) Indefinite Adjectives

Indefinite adjectives are used to indicate non-specific nouns (persons or things) (Stobbe, 2008). They are used to talking about people or things in a general way, without identifying them. The examples of indefinite adjectives are *a*, *an*, *all*, *another*, *any*, *both*, *each*, *either*, *enough*, *every*, *few*, *little*, *many*, *more*, *most*, *much*, *neither*, *no*, *other*, *several*, and *some*.

- *A* and *an* are used to talk about just one person or thing and go only with singular countable nouns.
- *Another* is used with singular countable nouns and *other* with plural countable nouns. For *other*, it is used only after one or more things of the same group has been mentioned.

- *Any* can be used to talk about one or more people or things and can be used with singular and plural countable nouns.
- *Enough, few, many, more, most, several, and some* are used with plural countable nouns to indicate a number of people or things.
- *All, both, each, either, and every* are used to show the total number of people or things involved.
- *Both* is used with a plural noun, and *either* is used with a singular noun. They specify that only two people or things are involved.
- *All, each, and every* usually show that there are more than two people or things being involved. *All* can be used with a plural noun, while *each* and *every* are used with singular nouns.
- *No* and *neither* are use to refer to the total number of things involved in negative statements. While *no* can be used with singular or plural nouns, *neither* can only go with singular nouns.
- *Any, enough, little, more, most, much, and some* are used with uncountable nouns to talk about a quantity of something. *No* and *all* indicate the total quantity of it.

(f) Numerical Adjectives

The numerical adjectives are used to indicate a definite quantity by stating a fixed number of people or things (Stobbe, 2008). They are basically numbers used as adjectives to modify nouns. As in the examples below, *five* in (43) modifies the noun *pizza* and shows the quantity of pizza they had. In (44), *two* modifies

the noun *apartments* to show the number of apartment rooms that they rent.

(43) *We had **five** pizzas last night.*

(44) *They rent **two** apartments in that building.*

(g) Nominal Adjectives

Herring (2016) states that nominal adjectives are adjectives that perform the function of a noun in a sentence. They can be the subject as well as the object in the sentence and are preceded by the word *the*. A nominal adjective is a regular adjective in shape, but it is actually a noun by function in a sentence.

(45) ***The British** ruled over Indian subcontinent from 1858 to 1947.*

(46) *They offer me the blue house, but I prefer **the brown**.*

In (45) and (46), *the British* and *the brown* are basically adjectives. However, in both sentences, the function as nouns (subject and object).

(h) Collective Adjectives

Collective adjectives are basically a subgroup of nominal adjectives which is used to refer to a group of people based on a shared characteristic (Herring, 2016). For example, the phrases *the rich*, *the poor*, *the blind*, *the Americans*, *the Indonesian* are basically adjectives that function as noun. They are plural and refer to a general group, to refer to people of that sort.

(47) *I think **the homeless** should be given social aid by the government.*

(48) ***The Indonesian** are really friendly.*

- (49) In the poor's country, the rich man is the king. *
- (50) In the country of **the poor**, the rich man is the king. *
- (51) **The mean** lives next door. *

In (47) and (48), the adjectives *the homeless* and *the Indonesian* function as noun and refer to the group of people in general (people who have no house and people from Indonesia). These collective adjectives do not have possessive (Swan and Walter, 2015) as in (49) and (50) and are applied only to groups of people, and not all adjectives can be categorized in this group as *the mean* in (51).

3.4 Formation

As mentioned earlier, there are words that are inherently adjectival. It means that, as the base form of words, they are already adjectives. However, there are other adjectives that are formed from other classes of words, such as nouns, verbs, or other adjectives. New adjectives are formed by adding one or more sounds or letters to the base form through affixation. In the formation of an adjective, two types of affixation are usually used, adding a prefix (an affix before a base form) and by adding a suffix (an affix after the base form) (Aarts, Chalker and Weiner, 2014).

(a) Adding Prefix

➤ Prefix *in-*, *im-*, *il-*, *ir-*

Capable (adj)	-	In capable (adj)
Accurate (adj)	-	In accurate (adj)
Legal (adj)	-	Il legal (adj)
Legible (adj)	-	Il legible (adj)
Proper (adj)	-	Im proper (adj)
Mortal (adj)	-	Im mortal (adj)

Regular (adj)	-	Irregular (adj)
Reducible (adj)	-	Irreducible (adj)

The prefix *im-*, *il-*, *ir-* are basically the assimilated forms of the prefix *in-*. When prefix *in-* is combined with certain sounds of the following base form, the sound might change. The prefix *in-* change into *il-* before sound *l* as in *illegal*. It changes into *im-* before sounds *b*, *m*, or *p* as in *improper*. *In-* might also change into *ir-* before sound *r* as in *irreducible*.

➤ Prefix *un-*

Lucky (adj)	-	Unlucky (adj)
Ambitious (adj)	-	Unambitious (adj)
Certain (adj)	-	Uncertain (adj)

➤ Prefix *dis-*

Honest (adj)	-	Dishonest (adj)
Agreeable (adj)	-	Disagreeable (adj)
Harmonious (adj)	-	Disharmonious (adj)

(b) Adding Suffix

➤ Suffix *-al*

Nature (noun)	-	Natural (adj)
Logic (noun)	-	Logical (adj)

➤ Suffix *-less*

Emotion (noun)	-	Emotionless (adj)
Child (noun)	-	Childless (adj)

➤ Suffix *-y*

Cloud (noun)	- Cloud y (adj)
Sport (noun)	- Sport y (adj)

➤ Suffix *-full*

Harm (noun)	- Harm full (adj)
Stress (noun)	- Stress full (adj)

➤ Suffix *-ous*

Poison (noun)	- Poison ous (adj)
Clamor (noun)	- Clamor ous (adj)

➤ Suffix *-ish*

Child (noun)	- Child ish (adj)
Finn (noun)	- Finn ish (adj)

➤ Suffix *-ese*

Japan (noun)	- Japan ese (adj)
China (noun)	- Chinese ese (adj)

➤ Suffix *-en*

Gold (noun)	- Golden en (adj)
Old (adj)	- Old en (adj)

➤ Suffix *-ly*

Week (noun)	- Week ly (adj)
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Friend (adj) - Friendly (adj)

➤ Suffix *-ic*

Energy (noun) - Energetic (adj)

Alcohol (adj) - Alcoholic (adj)

➤ Suffix *-able*

Break (verb) - Breakable (adj)

Understand (verb) - Understandable (adj)

➤ Suffix *-ive*

Impulse (noun) - Impulsive (adj)

Collect (verb) - Collective (adj)

➤ Suffix *-ed*

Bore (noun) - Bored (adj)

Impress (adj) - Impressed (adj)

➤ Suffix *-ing*

Love (noun) - Loving (adj)

Interest (noun) - Interesting (adj)

3.5 Order of Adjectives

As adjectives are used to modify and give more information about the nouns and pronouns, it is quite normal to find that there is more than one adjective used to modify the noun. When using more than one adjective to precede the noun, the usual order should be opinion, size, shape, condition, age, quality, color, pattern, origin, material, purpose (Sargeant, 2007; Herring, 2016). For example:

<i>a</i>	<i>big</i>	<i>stylish</i>	<i>yellow</i>	<i>American</i>	<i>plastic</i>	<i>chair</i>
det	size	quality	color	origin	substance	noun

<i>a</i>	<i>lovely</i>	<i>old</i>	<i>black</i>	<i>dog</i>
det	size	origin	substance	noun

- The small Indonesian island
- A big white stone statue
- A colorful plastic bag
- Delicious Javanese food

3.6 Comparison of Adjectives

Cruse (2006) states that traditionally there are three degrees of comparison recognized in connection with gradable adjectives, the positive, the comparative, and the superlative. The positive degree is the base form of the adjective. The comparative form is used to make a comparison between two people or things. The superlative form is used to state that the person or thing has the highest degree of a characteristic among a group.

In order to form the comparative and superlative form, the positive adjectives are inflected. The inflection process is called the Degrees of Comparison. The spelling rules that dictate how each degree is formed depending on how the base form is spelled (Herring, 2016). In sentences, *than* is used with comparative form, following the comparative word, to indicate that the second entity is different in degree from the first entity. For a superlative sentence, *the* is used in front of the superlative word.

Adjective Spelling	How to Modify	Positive Degree	Comparative Degree	Superlative Degree
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One syllable, ending in a consonant preceded by one vowel.	Comparative: Add "-er" Superlative: Add "-est" Double final consonant.	▪ Hot ▪ Sad	▪ Hotter ▪ Sadder	▪ Hottest ▪ Saddest
One syllable, ending in a consonant preceded by two vowels or another consonant.	Comparative: Add "-er" Superlative: Add "-est" Do not double final consonant if preceded by one vowel.	▪ Weak ▪ Smart	▪ Weaker ▪ Smarter	▪ Weakest ▪ Smartest
One syllable, ending in an "e"	Comparative: Add "-r" Superlative: Add "-st"	▪ Large ▪ Nice	▪ Larger ▪ Nicer	▪ Largest ▪ Nicest
Two syllables, ending in a "y"	Comparative: Replace "y" with "i" Add "-er" Superlative: Replace "y" with "i" Add "-est"	▪ Happy ▪ Lazy	▪ Happier ▪ Lazier	▪ Happiest ▪ Laziest
Three or more syllables, or two syllables	Comparative: Add "more" or "less" Superlative:	▪ Beautiful ▪ Important	▪ More beautiful ▪ More important	▪ Most beautiful ▪ Most important

not ending in "y".	Add " most " or " least "			
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- (52) *Yesterday was hot. Today is **hotter than** yesterday. Tomorrow might be **the hottest**.*
- (53) *Randy is smart. Sandy is **smarter than** Randy. Andy is **the smartest**.*
- (54) *The kids are happy. Teenager are **happier than** the kids. Old people are **the happiest** people.*
- (55) *This flower is beautiful. That flower is **more beautiful**. Those flowers are the **most beautiful** flowers in this garden.*

There are a few adjectives that are categorized as irregular adjectives because their comparative and superlative cannot be in any of the usual ways mentioned above (Sargeant, 2007). The comparative and superlative forms of these adjectives are different words, called irregular forms.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Good	Better	Best
Bad	Worse	Worst

- (56) *This book is good. Those books are **better than** the first one. That novel is **the best** book.*
- (57) *The major's idea is **bad**. The police idea is **worse than** the major's idea. The politician's idea is **the worst** idea.*

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CHAPTER IV

ADVERB

By Neneng Yuniarty

4.1 Preface

In learning English, of course, we often hear the term of noun, adjective, pronoun, adverb, and so on. These terms have an important role in the formation of a sentence. Similar to Indonesian, a sentence needs to have verbs, adjectives, adverbs, and more. Taken together, these important roles are called parts of speech. Parts of speech have eight types that have their respective duties in a sentence. Parts of speech or word class is the classification of a word based on its form, function, and meaning in the grammatical system.

Part of speech has an important role to form a sentence so that it is coherent and in accordance with the grammar of the sentence. By knowing the part of speech one can know the function of the word in a sentence. In addition, part of speech is the first step that you need to learn when learning English, its purpose is to understand sentence forms in English.

Part of speech is used to indicate the task or function of each word in a series of phrases, clauses, and sentences. Part of speech in English can be interpreted as the parts that make up a sentence. In addition, part of speech is also known as a kind of word. Actually, this part of speech only explains and categorizes words according to their function. If you have ever heard or used nouns, verbs, or adjectives, then these three types of words are examples of what we call part of speech.

In a sentence, we will definitely use a combination of several parts of speech. We cannot just use verbs to make a sentence, right? In the Indonesian language order, we usually need the subject of the sentence (noun), the predicate (verb), and also the object of the sentence (noun) and adverb, and likewise in English sentences.

4.2 Adverb

Adverbs are words giving more explanation to other words such as verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs (Sargeant, 2007). The word **adverb** is applied both just to indicate single-word adverbs and extensively to indicate some part of the grammatical unit (word, phrase, or clause) that works as an adverb. In this chapter, unless specified otherwise, we will apply the **adverb** term extensively to cover all kinds of adverbs. If we require it to be more definite, we will apply the terms *single-word adverb*, *adverb phrase*, or *adverb clause*. Adverbs are generally described as grammatical features (words, phrases, or clauses) that “give explanations to other words such as verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.” (Lester, 2009).

Adverbs have the same function as adjectives. Both of them explain other words in the sentence. Adverbs give more explanation to other words, such as verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.

Adverbs modify verbs, in some forms:

How to do something: she walks slowly.

When to do something: she walks immediately.

Where to do something: she walks in front of the building.

How much or to what extent to do something: she walks slightly

Adverbs may modify adjectives or other adverbs, usually telling how or to what extent:

with adjectives: almost six feet; exactly six feet

with other adverbs: rather awkwardly; very awkwardly

The function of an adverb, however, is not always easy to define. A few ordinary adverbs do not imply to reply the typical

queries; nor do they always, as adjectives do, indicate to definite words in the sentence:

She does not call his phone.

Soon the result will appear on the screen.

Yesterday was indeed a delighted adventure.

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

4.3 Adverb Form

Adverbs are divided into two categories: (1) a few words that are usually used are commonly in single-syllable words, and (2) Mostly adverbs are gotten from adjectives, such as, slow → slowly, happy → happily, beautiful → beautifully. (Lester, 2009).

Although mostly adverbs are shaped by adding the suffix **-ly** to an adjective, but not all adverbs use the suffix. Some adverbs cannot be recognized by only pointing at the suffix **-ly**. Here are the most commonly used adverbs:

Only	Then	Now	Also	Even
Just	Here	Back	Still	Never
Well	Again	So	There	Away
Always	Once	However	Often	Over
Perhaps	Thus	Yet	Too	Seldom
Yesterday	Now	Soon	Forward	
	Frequently			

One of the important descriptive aspects of modifying adverbs is that they are by description alternative factors. It is contradictory with the other major parts of speech — nouns,

adjectives, and verbs — adverbs are able to be removed without changing the grammaticality of the sentence.

For instance:

They will move to the new house immediately.

The adverb immediately can be removed without making sentence ungrammatical:

They will move to the new house (immediately).

Mostly adverbs are derived from the word adjectives by adding the suffix **-ly**.

For instance:

Adjectives	Adverbs
Silent	Silently
Beautiful	Beautifully
Second	Secondly
Angry	Angrily
Brisk	Briskly
Poor	Poorly
Negative	Negatively

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

For instance:

PRESENT PARTICIPLE

Adjectives	Adverbs
Amusing	Amusingly
Captivating	Captivatingly
Disgusting	Disgustingly

Surprising	Surprisingly
Terrifying	Terrifyingly
Loving	Lovingly
Exhausting	Exhaustingly

PAST PARTICIPLE

Adjectives Adverbs

Amused	Amusedly
Excited	Excitedly
Disappointed	Disappointedly
Repeated	Repeatedly
Unaffected	Unaffectedly
Whole-hearted	Whole-heartedly

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

Adjectives end in silent **e** keep the **e**. For instance:

Adjectives	Adverbs
Brave	Bravely
Deliberate	Deliberately
Fierce	Fiercely
Loose	Loosely
Safe	Safely
Separate	Separately
False	Falsely

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

Adjectives	Adverbs
-------------------	----------------

Easy	Easily
Steady	Steadily
Lazy	Lazily
Goofy	Goofily
Noisy	Noisily

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

Adjectives	Adverbs
-------------------	----------------

Due	Duly
Gay	Gaily
True	Truly

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

Samuel is remarkably popular.

Jack had severely injured.

My sister will wear an elegantly wedding dress.

This is absolutely the house that I dream of!

The police nearly caught the thief.

4.4 Types of Adverbs

There are types of adverbs as follows (Mujahidah *et al.*, 2020):

1. Adverb of Manner

Adverb of manner is an adverb that is used to explain how a job, action, statement or quality is done or an event occurs. This adverb can also be referred to as an adverb of quality. This type of adverb uses to answer questions such as: how, in what, and by what method.

For instance:

My nephew can run quickly.

Suzan writes the letter wrongly.

There are several ways to make an adverb ending in **-ly** that comes from an adjective, although there are several adverbs that have the similar patterns as an adjective, as follows:

a. Adding the suffix **-ly** to the adjective.

For instance:

Adjective	Adverb
Bad	Badly
Clever	Cleverly
Kind	Kindly
Fluent	Fluently
Glad	Gladly
Proud	Proudly

b. Replacing **-le** with **-ly**

If the adjective ends in the letter **-le**, then it is replaced by the letter **-ly**.

For instance:

Adjective	Adverb
Humble	Humbly
Gentle	Gently
Simple	Simply
Laughable	Laughably
Noble	Nobly

- c. Changing the letter **-y** preceded by a consonant, so the letter **-i**

If the adjective ends in the letter **-y** and is preceded by a consonant letter, then the letter **-y** is changed into the letter **-i** and then added with the suffix **-ly**.

For instance:

Adjective	Adverb
Angry	Angrily
Lazy	Lazily
Happy	Happily
Lucky	Luckily
Easy	Easily

- d. No changing.

There are several forms of adjectives that have the same form as adverbs.

The usual pattern has suffix **-ly** added to the adjective, but there are also other patterns that the adjective and the adverb appear in the same pattern.

For instance:

Adjective	Adverb
Far	Far
Daily	Daily
Deep	Deep
Late	Late
Hard	Hard
Fast	Fast
Good	Well
Much	Much
Straight	Straight
Deep	Deep

Hardly does not have the same meaning to **hard**. **Hardly** has a negative meaning. It is often used in the phrase **hardly**

ever. Do not mix it up with **hard.** See the two sentences below:

He studies **hard** for the exam = means that he does lots of effort for the exam.

He **hardly** studies because he has lots of works = means he cannot study.

2. Adverb of Time

Adverb of time is an adverb that is applied to explain the time of occurrence of an event, action or job. These adverbs are used to answer questions such as: how long (how long), how often, how soon (how fast), when, at what intervals, and so on.

For instance:

He must go soon.

When will she go?

Rudy wants his food now.

When do you want the order?

Adverb of time is divided into two kinds, namely:

a. Adverb of Definite Time

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

For instance:

She is writing a book right now.

My uncle goes to work by car every day.

b. Adverb of indefinite Time

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

For instance:

There is a landslide in Borneo recently.

My aunt often makes pancake for breakfast in the morning.

3. Adverb of Place

Adverb of place is an adverb that is used to indicate the position or place where an action or event occurs. This adverb generally comes from a preposition which is followed by a word that indicates a place or only a word indicates a place. Some of the words included in the adverb of place are as follows: there, here, about, anywhere, in front of, around, in there, within, in, at where ever, everywhere, somewhere, nowhere.

For instance:

My parents live **in London**.

Bob stood **in front of the statue**.

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

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

For instance:

Mark goes to Yogyakarta and then to Bali.

The captain went below.

4. Adverb of Frequency

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

Always	Sometimes
Often	Seldom
Rarely	Ever
Never	Hardly ever
Frequently	Generally
Continually	Occasionally
Repeatedly	Regularly
Periodically	Usually

For instance:

He often takes his little sister to the park.

She rarely has breakfast.

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

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

(Raimes, 2008)

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

Have your parents leaved late?

Do the students arrive early?

Is she usually late?

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

NEGATIVE

Almost

Rarely

Seldom

Never

Hardly ever

Almost never

Scarcely ever

POSITIVE

Always

Usually

Often

Frequently

Generally

Sometimes

Occasionally

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

He will send you a letter **some time**.

At **some time** in next week, I want to visit the dentist.

My mom **sometimes (occasionally)** bakes a chocolate cake.

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

For instance:

Sometimes Rudy visits his grandmother in Bali.

Occasionally culture affects our working atmosphere.

I love you always.

He cooks his own dinner occasionally.

Sometimes you will find a negative adverb of frequency positioning at the beginning of a sentence to get an emphasis to the sentence. If it occurs, subject and auxiliary are inverted. Inversion conveys astonishment. This is actually formal and simple. If needs be, you can use this pattern like the sentence below:

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

(Raimes, 2008)

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

For instance:

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

Note:

Hard = adverb of manner

At senior high school = adverb of place

Last year = adverb of time

To enter the prestigious college = adverb of purpose

5. Adverb of Quantity

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

Adverbs of quantity are divided into 2 types, namely:

a. Countable Noun

Adverb of quantity for countable noun:

A lot/lots

A few

Too many/too few

Many/More

For instance:

Jack has too many comic books.

The students have a lot of homework.

b. Uncountable Noun

Adverb of quantity for uncountable noun:

A lot/lots of

Little/Less

Much/More

Too much/too little

For instance:

I drink lots of water because I am very thirsty.

Do you need much money?

6. Adverb of Degree

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

Almost

Completely

Entirely

Greatly

Indeed

Little

Perfectly

Quite

So	Too	Absolutely	Decidedly
Extremely	Hardly	Intensely	Lots

There are four special adverbs of degree, such as (Lester, 2009):

1. Enough

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

a. Placed before nouns.

For instance:

I cannot buy the car because I have not got enough money.

I have enough food for the three of us now

b. Placed after adjectives and adverbs.

For instance:

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

2. Too

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

a. **too + adjective**

For instance:

My bathroom is too small.

The suit was too expensive.

She eats too much.

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

For instance:

This room is too big for both of us.

They are too poor to go away on vacation.

He walks too quickly for me to keep up with him.
It is too hot to play tennis.

3. Very

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

a. Very + adjective

For instance:

She is very rich.

Jimmy has a very luxurious house.

b. Very + adverb

He speaks Korean very well.

She does her assignment very quickly.

4. So

It indicates an excessive level of standards.

For instance:

You look so pale; you should take some rest.

Amira seems so happy after she got the call from her mom.

7. Adverb Phrase

Adverb phrase is a number of words that works as a single adverb to modify action of the verb. There are two kinds of phrases play the role of adverbs: adverbial prepositional phrases and adverbial infinitive phrases. These are the explanations and examples of each kind of phrases (Lester, 2009):

- a. Adverbial prepositional phrases are composed of prepositions came after noun phrase objects. The noun phrase objects are nouns (with or without modifiers), pronouns, gerunds or noun clauses. Here

are examples of adverb prepositional phrases with many kinds of objects. The whole prepositional phrase is underlined, and the object noun phrase is in italic:

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

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

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

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

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

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

The student must study to *get a good mark*.

Amira needs glasses to *read*.

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

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

For instance:

We attend the seminar **for a good reason**.

They left the office **for lunch**.

Jimmy learns diving **for fun**.

Ronald works as a part timer **to pay for his college tuition**.

You should study hard **to get good grades at school**.

8. Adverb of Modality

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

For instance:

Hopefully They will come home early.

She probably does not know what has happened to her children at school.

9. Adverb Clause

Adverb Clause is an adverb that is used to connect two clauses into one sentence or two clauses into one clause. Clauses are grammatical structure that consist of a subject and a verb. Adverb clauses are subordinate clauses that are attached to the main clause as adverb modifiers. As adverb clauses can describe adjectives and other adverbs, mostly adverb clauses describe verbs. There are words that can connect the clauses that has the similarities with the interrogative adverb but only different in position to put in the sentences. For the adverb clauses, the connectors are placed in the middle of the sentence while the connectors for interrogative adverbs are placed in the beginning of the sentence (Lester, 2009).

These are some of the examples of the conjunction used in adverb clause:

When	While	provided that	on condition that
Where	Why	If	How
Therefore	Accordingly	Moreover	Besides
However	Nevertheless	Because	Although

For instance:

I will give them a visit when I have some spare time.

Go get a cup of coffee while I finish up here.

I went home because I wasn't feeling well.

We decided to go ahead, although we certainly had our doubts about it.

We could go to a movie unless you would rather stay

I do not know where the meeting will be held.

10. Interrogative Adverb

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

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

When	How often	Where	Why
How	Whom	Who	Whose

For instance:

How did you go to Bali?

Why did you take my book without permission?

How often will you visit your parents in a year?

Where can you find the nearest bank?

11. Adverb Degrees

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

For instance:

- a. Positive Degree:
 - 1. She danced as gracefully as her coach.
 - 2. Jim finished the work as quickly as Andrew.
- b. Comparative Degree:
 - 1. She danced more gracefully than her coach.
 - 2. Jim finished the work more quickly than Andrew.
- c. Superlative Degree:
 - 1. She danced the most gracefully of all the dancers in the club.
 - 2. Jim finished the work the most quickly of all the workers in the office.

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CHAPTER V

PREPOSITIONS

By Nike Puspita Wanodyatama

5.1 Pendahuluan

GRAMMAR FOCUS: PREPOSITIONS Getting Started

Read the dialogue and pay attention to the highlighted words.

A. At an office

Mr. Raihan : Hello, excuse me. I am looking for the director office. Can you tell me, the Director's office is, please?

Receptionist : Sure, the director office is **on** the 4th floor of this building. You can take the lift or stairs over there. Then, just go straight. You'll find the director's office **next to** the meeting room.

Mr. Raihan : Thank you for the information.

Receptionist : You are welcome, Sir.

B. At the director's office

Ms. Ranty : Hello Mr. Raihan, let me introduce myself, I am Ranty. I am the daughter of Mr. Syahrizal, the vice Director of this office. So, I would like to ask **about** your motivation joining this company.

Mr. Raihan : Hello Ms. Ranty, it's such a pleasure to meet you. I admire not only its friendly and supportive working environment but also its positive corporate culture. They have motivated me to be involved **in** this organization. I believe your company can help me

grow and expand my expertise especially in accounting.

Ms. Ranty : I see. I heard that you have had years of experience in financial accounting. How long have you been working as an accountant **in** your previous company, Sir?

Mr. Raihan : I have been working in my previous company **since** 2010 until 2020. However, the company ended up in a difficult financial situation because of COVID-19 pandemic. So, it is closed down.

Ms. Ranty : I am sorry to hear that. So, I consider that you have a lot experience **during** nine years of working at the previous company. What is your suggestion to manage the company crisis amid the pandemic?

Mr. Raihan : I think it is time **for** us to consider the impairment of assets. As an accountant, I would try to quantify financial damage to assets.

Ms. Ranty : Tell me about it!

Mr. Raihan : In my humble opinion, during the pandemic an asset might become idle **for** an extended period. So, we need to reassign it **for** other operations that generate revenue. Renting the company's cars during lockdown is an example.

Ms. Ranty : What a great idea. I guess we can implement this in the future.

Mr. Raihan : Yes, Ma'am. We must be very familiar **with** the current situation and adapt to it.

Ms. Ranty : Well then, welcome to this office, Mr. Raihan. I really appreciate your insight **in** this business.

Raihan : My pleasure, Ma'am. I am so proud of being a part of this company. I will always do my best **from** time to time.

5.2 What is a preposition?

A preposition links nouns, pronouns, or phrases to other words in a sentence (Betty Schramper Azar, 1993). They act to connect the people, objects, time and locations of a sentence. Prepositions are usually short words, and they are normally placed directly in front of nouns. In some cases, you will find prepositions in front of gerund verbs. Prepositions can be simply defined as the words that help glue a sentence together. They do this by expressing position and movement, possession, time and how an action is completed.

Examples of Prepositions

In the following sentences, examples of prepositions have been italicized. As you read, consider how using different prepositions or even different types of prepositions in place of the examples might change the relationship between the rest of the words in the sentence.

- I prefer to read *in* the library.
- He climbed *up* the ladder to get onto the roof.
- Please sign your name *on* the dotted line *after* you read the contract.

- Go *down* the stairs and through the door.
- He swam *across* the pool.
- Take your brother *with* you.

5.3 Types of Prepositions

There are five types of prepositions, including time prepositions, place prepositions, direction prepositions, manner prepositions, and accompaniment prepositions (Thomson, 1995).

Time prepositions are those such as *before*, *after*, *during*, and *until*; place prepositions are those indicating position, such as *around*, *between*, and *against*; and direction prepositions are those indicative of direction, such as *across*, *up*, and *down*. Each type of prepositions is important.

5.4 Prepositions of Time

Basic examples of time prepositions include: *at*, *on*, *in*, *before* and *after*. They are used to help indicate when something happened, happens or will happen. It can get a little confusing though, as there many different prepositions we can use.

Prepositions of time in the following sentences are in bold to be easily identified. For example:

- I was born **on** July 4th, 1982.
- I was born **in** 1982.

- I was born *at* exactly 2am.
- I was born two minutes *before* my twin brother.
- I was born *after* the Great War ended.

Although using various prepositions above seems difficult, there is a set of guidelines that can help you decide which preposition to use:

For years, months, seasons, centuries and times of day, use the preposition *in*:

- I first met John *in* 1987.
- It's always cold *in* January
- Easter falls *in* spring each year.
- The Second World War occurred *in* the 20th century.
- We eat breakfast *in* the morning.

For days, dates and specific holidays, use the preposition *on*.

1. We go to work *on* Mondays, but not *on* Sunday.
2. Christmas is *on* December 25th.
3. Dad bought me a present *on* my birthday.

For times, indicators of exception and festivals, use the preposition *at*:

- Families often argue *at* Christmas time.

- I work faster *at* night.
- Her shift finished *at* 7pm.

Before and *after* should be much easier to understand than the other examples of prepositions of time. Both are used to explain when something happened, happens or will happen, but specifically in relation to another thing.

- *Before* I discovered this bar, I used to go straight home *after* work.
- We will not leave *before* 3pm.
- David comes *before* Bryan in the line, but *after* Louise.

Other prepositions of time could include: *during*, *about*, *around*, *until* and *throughout*.

- The concert will be staged *throughout* the month of May.
- I learned how to ski *during* the holidays.
- He usually arrives *around* 3pm.
- It was *about* six in the morning when we made it to bed.
- The store is open *until* midnight.

5.5 Prepositions of Place

To confuse matters a bit, the most common prepositions to indicate time – *on*, *at*, *in* – are also the most common prepositions to indicate position (Baehaqie, 2005). However, the rules are a little clearer as place prepositions are a more rigid concept than time prepositions. Prepositions of place examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

- The cat is *on* the table.
- The dogs are *in* the kennel.
- We can meet *at* the crossroads.

The guidelines can be broken down as follows:

On is used when referring to something with a surface:

- The sculpture hangs *on* the wall.
- The images are *on* the page.
- The specials are *on* the menu, which is *on* the table.

In is used when referring to something that is inside or within confined boundaries. This could be anything, even a country:

1. Jim is *in* France, visiting his aunt *in* the hospital.
2. The jam is *in* the jar in the fridge.
3. The girls play *in* the garden.

At is used when referring to something at a specific point:

1. The boys are *at* the entrance *at* the movie theatre.
2. He stood at the bus stop *at* the corner of Water and High streets.
3. We will meet *at* the airport.

Lots of other prepositions of place, such as *under*, *over*, *inside*, *outside*, *above* and *below* are used in English. There is, however, a lot less confusion as they refer to rigid positions rather than abstract ones.

- The cat is *under* the table.
- Put the sandwich *over* there.
- The key is locked *inside* the car.
- They stepped *outside* the house.
- Major is ranked *above* corporal.
- He is waving at you from *below* the stairs.

5.6 Prepositions of Movement or Position

Prepositions of movement are quite easy to understand as they are less abstract than prepositions of place and time. Essentially, they describe how something or someone moves from one place to another. The most commonly used preposition of

movement is *to*, which usually serves to highlight that there is movement towards a specific destination. (George Wishon, 2000) states Prepositions of movement examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

- He has gone on vacation *to* Austria.
- She went *to* the bowling alley every Saturday last autumn.
- I will go *to* canteen when I am hungry.
- They will go *to* the garden if they finish their errands.

Other more specific prepositions of movement include: *through*, *across*, *off*, *down* and *into*. These prepositions can sometimes get mixed up with others. While they are similar, they have individual meanings that add context to the movement.

Across refers to moving from one side to another.

- Mike travelled *across* America on his motorcycle.
- Rebecca and Judi are swimming *across* the lake.

Through refers to moving directly inside something and out the other end.

- The bullet Ben shot went *through* the window.
- The train passes *through* the tunnel.

Into refers to entering or looking inside something.

- James went *into* the room.
- They stare *into* the darkness.

Up, over, down, past and *around* indicate directions of movement:

1. Jack went *up* the hill.
2. Jill came tumbling *down* after.
3. We will travel *over* rough terrain on our way to Grandma's house.
4. The horse runs *around* the track all morning.
5. A car zoomed *past* a truck on the highway.

5.7 Preposition of Manner

A preposition of manner is used to express how an action is done. Examples: *by, with, on, and in*.

- You can go to Jakarta *by* bus.
- She went there *by* foot.
- Please write *in* pencil.
- She greeted the child *with* a smile.

5.8 Preposition of Accompaniment

A preposition of accompaniment is used to express two things which go together. Example: *with*

- She went to school *with* her brother.
- I like writing a note *with* colourful pen.

GRAMMAR PRACTICE

I. Underline the correct prepositions in brackets.

1. Hanna went shopping (with, by) her best friend, Rita.
2. The two supervisors argued (during, for) the meeting.
3. The little mouse was hiding (under, over) the cupboard.
4. He walked (towards, around) the parking lot to get his car.
5. Annisa went to Bandung (by, at) car.
6. We need to be at Ratih"s house (from, at) three o"clock
7. Drive (through, long) the tunnel and then turn right.
8. They live (in, at) the countryside.
9. Do you have any plans (with, for) the holidays?
10. He went for a stroll (along, beside) the river.

II. Fill in the blanks with the given prepositions of place. You may use each

preposition only once.

Among	Behind	Below	Over	On
From	Against	After	Opposite	In the middle of

1. The post office is just a few meters.....my school.
2. I found a ring.....the old clothes in the box.
3. The people who live.....our apartment quarrel all the time.
4. The boy standing.....me is my cousin.
5. His house is just.....that big jackfruit tree.
6. The rich man built a mansion.....the village.
7. There is a huge calendar.....the wall.
8. The old man wears a patch.....his left eye.
9. The frightened mouse deer.....behind a tree.
10. He put the ladderthe wall and climbed up.

III. Fill in the blanks with the preposition 'in' or 'on'.

1. Every year, we celebrate Christmas _____ the twenty-fifth of December.
2. There is at least a month of vacation _____ summer.

3. I remembered that her birthday was _____ August, but I had forgotten that it was _____ the ninth of August.
4. The peace treaty between the two countries was signed _____ the twentieth of January.
5. He plans to leave for the States _____ the first of next month.
6. The capital is very beautiful _____ springs as the flowers are in full blossom then.
7. They usually go to the movies _____ Sunday afternoon.
8. I sent the postcard to him _____ the fifteenth.
9. There are seven days _____ a week.
10. That war broke out _____ 1942.

IV. Choose the most appropriate preposition for each sentence.

1. Don't put the bicycle (on, against, beyond) the wall. It has just been painted.
2. Helen left her things (along, behind, in) her room.
3. They have been playing (under, at, above) the beach all afternoon.
4. Tom is sitting (beside, along, on) me. The bench is long enough for us.

5. Please put those newspapers (in, behind, on) the door.
6. She was sitting (near, in, on) the fire place reading a when he called.
7. Who is that lady walking (in front of, at, beyond) the library?
8. Mr Hill likes to live (at, in, on) the city, but his wife prefers life in the country.
9. Put the flower vase (on, in, at) the table.
10. I noticed a stranger standing (by, in, on) the door.
11. Plants can be seen growing (along, under, at) the stream.
12. The dogs are standing (in front of, in, at) the wall.
13. The rich man's villa is out of the way, several miles (beyond, in, along) the city limits.
14. People were standing (along, in, above) the bridge, watching the ducks swimming.
15. Thomas drove all the way home (in, against, at) the rain.

V. Fill in each blank with the preposition 'for', 'during', 'since', 'at' or, 'on'.

1. They went away and stayed _____ two weeks in London.
2. _____ the day, you can call her up at the office.
3. We have lived in this place _____ 1960.
4. They played the game _____ a couple of hours.

5. Everybody is busy _____ the Christmas season.
6. Judy has not been feeling well _____ yesterday.
7. Did they have a good time _____ their trip?
8. The children have been watching television _____ lunchtime.
9. I invited them to come and stay _____ who the weekend.
10. _____ how long have you been working there?
11. Children are especially happy _____ birthday parties.
12. _____ Easter, people celebrate the coming of spring.
13. The Chinese have big feasts _____ Chinese New Year's Eve.
14. There were only some people _____ the meeting.
15. In the West, the holiday season begins _____ Thanksgiving.

VI. Choose the most appropriate preposition for each sentence.

1. We walked (over, onto, around) the town looking for a good Chinese restaurant.
2. Did your plane fly (off, over, about) the city last night?

3. The traffic police chased the speeding car (onto, off, through) the town.
4. Can you get the cap (over, off, up) the bottle?
5. That naughty boy threw stones (at, down, in) his dog.
6. Water flows (across, up, at) this dam with tremendous force.
7. Boats can go (in, on, down) the river easily; it is harder to go (up, off, across) the river.
8. The man was seen walking aimlessly (over, through, off) the streets.
9. The actor walked (over, onto, at) the stage boldly.
10. Turn right and go (in, about, across) the bridge and (through, over, off) the park where you can see our house.

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CHAPTER VI

PRONOUNS

By Irene Evi Krismawati

6.1 Definition

A **pronoun** is a word that takes the place of a noun in the sentence. In English, we know There are different kinds of pronouns.

6.2 Types of Pronouns

There are different kinds of pronouns:

a. Personal Pronouns

Pronouns that replace a duplicated noun are referred to as *personal* or *common* pronouns. The common pronouns take the place of nouns and are used as the **subject** of the verb in a sentence. There are three types of personal pronouns, they are **the first-person pronoun**, **the second-person pronoun**, and **the third-person pronoun**. The complete form of personal pronouns and each usage are written as follows:

Table 1. List of Personal Pronouns

<i>SINGULAR</i>	<i>SUBJECT</i>	<i>OBJECT</i>
<i>First person singular</i>	I	me
<i>Second person singular</i>	you	you
<i>Third person singular</i>	He	him
	she	her
	It	it

PLURAL		
<i>First person plural</i>	we	us
<i>Second person plural</i>	you	you
<i>Third person plural</i>	they	them

USAGE:

- The first-person pronouns are used to replace **the person speaking**.

EXAMPLE:

1) Kiki and **I** are listening to jazz music.

It means that both Kiki and **the pronoun** are **subject** of the sentence, when the function of **I** is changed into object of the sentence the for change into **me** (see example 2).

2) Jazz music is listened by Kiki and **me**.

- The second person pronouns are used to replace **the person spoken to**.

EXAMPLE:

1) **You** should go home.

2) Your parents are looking for **you**.

You in example 1) is functioned as subject, whereas in example 2), the word **you** is the object of the sentence. The form of **you** does not change in both functions.

- The third person pronouns are used to replace **the person (or animal, or thing) spoken about**.

1) **She** helps to send the letter.

- 2) **He** saw **her** at the beach yesterday.
- 3) She visited her grandmother with **him** last month.
- 4) My mother buys a **water melon** every Saturday, she loves **it** so much.
- 5) I have a **new puppy**; **it** has brown eyes.
- 6) **They** perform a beautiful opera
- 7) I love **my twin sisters**, I made banana pancake for **them**

The form of **She** (example 1), **He** (example 2), **it** (example 5) are the subjects of the sentences and the form of **her** (example 2), **him** (example 3), **it** (example 5) **them** (example 7) are the object of the sentences. The form of **She**, **He** and **they** change when the function in the sentence changes.

Only the third-person singular and plural pronouns can replace nouns in a sentence. A form of **he** replaces masculine nouns; a form of **she** replaces feminine nouns; a form of **it** replaces neuter nouns; and a form of **they** replaces all plural nouns. **It** replaces watermelon in example 4 and a new puppy in example 5. My twin sisters in example 7 were replaced by them.

EXERCISE:

Use the Right Personal pronoun of the bold word

1. _____ often reads books. (**Boy**)
2. _____ is watching TV. (**Lina**)
3. _____ is green. (**the wall**)
4. _____ are on the wall. (**the mirror**)
5. _____ is running. (**the goat**)

b. Reflexive Pronouns

Reflexive Pronoun refer to the person or animal that perform actions on themselves. We use reflexive pronoun as object of the sentence. Reflexive pronouns end in "-self" (singular) or "-selves" (plural).

USAGE:

Reflexive pronouns are used as objects in a sentence when the subject and the object are the same person or thing.

Singular: myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself

Example:

- 1) I make my birthday cake **myself**
- 2) You can do it **yourself***, good luck!
- 3) Reno drive **himself** to campus
- 4) My mom does all the cores **herself** everyday
- 5) The kitten feed itself with the rest food left

Plural: ourselves, yourselves, themselves

EXAMPLE:

- 1) We will help **ourselves**
- 2) You have to believe **yourselves***
- 3) They pay the school fee **themselves**

*yourself is singular

**yourselves is plural

EXERCISES

Fill in the blanks with the words in the box.

1. The rabbit is feeding some carrots.
2. I cut by accident.
3. John bought a new iPhone,

4. Our host told us to make comfortable.
5. Be careful or you might hurtwith that fire.
6. Have the twins been behaving?
7. "Did you find some dolls?" the shopkeeper asked the children.
8. Maria is cookingsome dinner.

Herself	yourself	itself	ourselves	myself
	themselves		yourselves	himself

c. Possessive Pronouns

Possessive pronouns take the place of a noun phrase to show ownership.

The possessive pronouns are:

MINE, YOUR, YOURS, HER, HERS, HIS, ITS OUR, OURS, YOUR, YOURS, THEIR, THEIRS
--

USAGES:

- Possessive pronouns never use apostrophes.
- possessive pronouns (also called as possessive determiners) used as determiners before the nouns (such as "**My** book is lost").
- Possessive adjectives are followed immediately by a noun, they do not stand alone, e.g. **My** book is lost.
- Possessive pronouns can be subject *or* object

EXAMPLES:

- These coconuts are **ours**. (in this sentence, the word "ours" is possessive pronoun showing possession for coconut).
- This oven is **mine**. (in this sentence, the word "mine" is possessive pronoun showing possession for oven).
- This bike is **his**. (in this sentence, the word "his" is possessive pronoun showing possession for bike).
- This is book **yours**. (in this sentence, the word "your" is possessive pronoun showing possession for book).

Personal Pronouns		Possessive adjective	Possessive pronouns
I	me	my	mine
you	you	your	yours
he	him	his	his
she	her	her	hers
it	it	its	-
we	us	our	ours
they	them	their	theirs
I	me	my	mine

EXERCISES:

Circle the correct possessive pronoun for each of the sentences below.

1. Does this dog belong to (they, them)?

2. You can't have (my, mine) money.
3. It is (our, ours) turn.
4. Look at (her, hers) cute cat.
5. That earring has lost (its, it's) shine

d. Demonstrative Pronouns

A demonstrative pronoun is a word that takes the place of particular objects or people. Demonstrative pronouns point to something specific that can be either near or far in distance or time.

There are four demonstrative pronouns:

THIS, THAT, THESE, THOSE

USAGES:

this (singular – to point out something that is near in either distance or time).

that (singular – to point out something this is far away in either distance or time).

these (plural – to point out some things that are near in either distance or time).

those (plural – to point out some things that are far in either distance or time).

EXAMPLE:

- **This** cake tastes good.
- Have you seen **this**?
- **These** are bad times.
- Do you like **these**?
- **These** are bigger than **those**
- **That** is my house.

EXERCISE:

Choose **THIS, THESE, THAT, THOSE** to fill the blank.

1. ———glasses look good on you.
2. ——bottles are full.
3. I like ——ideas.
4. ——results are impressive.
5. ——is my new house.

e. Interrogative Pronouns

These pronouns are used to ask questions.

WHICH, WHAT, WHO, WHOM, WHOSE

USAGES:

WHICH	• When you have a limited choice
WHAT	• Asking for general information
WHO*	• When asking about a person name
WHOM**	• When asking a person name in formal written English sentence
WHOSE	• when showing possession

***Who** is used when the interrogative pronoun is the **subject** of the sentence.

****Whom** is used when the interrogative pronoun is the **object** of a verb or preposition.

There is also **compound interrogative pronoun**, they are:

Compound Interrogative Pronoun	The Function
Whoever	when sharing an opinion/we don't

	know who
Whomever	a choice already offered
Whichever	a limited choice
Whatever	to choose from many

EXAMPLE

- **What** do you want for dinner?
- **Which** colours do you like?
- **Who** was riding the motorbike?
- **Whom** did you live with?
- **Whose** mom is she?

EXERCISES:

Fill in the blanks with an interrogative pronoun.

1. _____ threw the football? (who/what/which/whose)
2. _____ would you prefer, coffee or tea?
(who/whom/which/whose)
3. _____ time do we need to be at the airport?
(which/what/whose/whom)
4. _____ car is that? (whom/whose/what/who)
5. _____ is your sister's name?
(who/whom/what/whose)

f. Relative Pronouns

A relative pronoun replaces one of the nouns or pronouns in the two clauses.

who (whom, whose), which, and that

USAGES:

Relative pronouns are used to introduce a dependent clause that refers to a noun or personal pronoun in the main clause.

Relative pronouns	Function
who	refers to things but can also refer to people
Whom	relates to the object
which	refers to things but can also refer to people
that	refers to things but can also refer to people
Whose	indicates ownership or possession

EXAMPLE:

Jenny is my best friend. Jenny moved to Bali.

John, **who** moved to Bali, is my best friend.

EXERCISE:

Complete the following sentences using appropriate relative pronouns.

1. Everybody likes kids speak the truth.
2. The farmer shot the dog bit the man.
3. He does his best shall win.
4. I know you mean.
5. Here is the ring you lost.

g. Reciprocal Pronouns

Reciprocal pronoun is used to indicate that two or more people are carrying out or have carried out an action of same type, with both receiving the benefits or consequences of that action simultaneously.

EACH OTHER	ONE ANOTHER
-------------------	--------------------

USAGES

English has two reciprocal pronouns—**each other** and **one another**—which are used to refer to the individual parts of a plural noun. **Each other** and **one another** do not mean the same thing. Reciprocal pronouns cannot be used with I, you [singular], he/she/it). **One another** sounds a little formal than **each other**.

Each other signifies two people or things
One another signifies more than two.

EXAMPLES:

- Budi **helps** Wati and Wati **helps** Budi.
(a common and long sentence without use of reciprocal pronoun)

Budi **and** Wati help **each other**.

(a simple and short sentence by the use of reciprocal pronoun)

- My classmates are playing basketball in by passing the ball from first student to second student, second student to third student and third student to first student.

(a common and long sentence without use of reciprocal pronoun)

My classmates are playing basketball in by passing to **one another**.

(a simple and short sentence by the use of reciprocal pronoun)

EXERCISES:

Complete the following sentences using **each other** or **one another**.

1. The groom and the bride promise to love _____.
2. The members of the group help _____ out in tough times.
3. Both friends encourage _____ to follow their goals.
4. "John and Sarah had a great time; They enjoyed _____'s company.
5. My Brother and sister help _____ with heavy lifting.

h. Indefinite Pronouns

Indefinite pronouns refer to general entities or concepts. Indefinite pronoun ends with *-body* or *-one* for people, and pronouns ending in *-thing* for things

Here are some of Indefinite Pronouns in English:

Singular Indefinite Pronouns	Plural Indefinite Pronouns	Indefinite Pronouns which can be singular or plural
Another Anybody Anyone Anything Each Less Little Much Neither Nobody No-one Nothing One Other Somebody Someone Something Either Everything Enough Everyone Everybody	Both Few Fewer Many Others Several	All Any More Most None Some Such

USAGES:

We use indefinite pronoun to:

- refer to people or things without saying exactly who or what they are or without being specific.

- In **negative clauses**, we use **pronouns with *no-***, not pronouns with *any-*

EXAMPLE:

Many are called, but *few* are chosen.

Somebody took my shoes!

Everyone says she is kind hearted.

No one wants to hear about my problems.

Either choice has *its* risk.

EXERCISE

Underline the verb which agrees with the indefinite pronoun.

1. Each of the citizen (has, have) one vote.
2. One of the boys (eat, eats) one hamburger every day.
3. Both of the choices (is, are) good.
4. A few of the students (was, were) arrived today.
5. All kids (run, runs) when they are scared.

CHAPTER VII

INTERJECTIONS

By Maria Istiqoma

7.1 Introduction

Interjections are among the most commonly used words in conversation, contain some of the first words to form throughout the process of language development, and have the greatest influence on universal occurrence, across a broad range of language families (Dingemanse, 2020a). They are also, according to a remarkable definition by Ameka, "the universal yet neglected part of speech" (Ameka, 2006a), which is a conclusion that was issued three decades ago but still true for too many grammatical structures (Lahaussoi, 2016 in Dingemanse, 2014). However, experts have provided comprehensive definitions for interjections:

- a) Interjections are words that usually make up whole sentences on their own. They show how the speaker really feels or react to a linguistic or extralinguistic context. (Ameka, 2006b).
- b) Goddard (2014) contends that emotions are communicated through sound. He references Darwin's idea that human and animal emotions in his essay "The Expression of Emotions in Man and Animals" (1872/1998) are conveyed through sound; Goddard refers to this as "sound-like" interjection. According to Goddard (2013:2), interjections are research based on the semiotics approach, which focuses on expressive functions. An example of someone who used the "Ugh" or "Wow" expressions to communicate their feelings or amazement. With a concise phrase that sometimes lacks denotative meaning, they express rather than explain.

Instead of expressing, interjections demonstrate. They provide in depth and unbiased statements. Deictics that are dialectically difficult include interjections (Wilkins, 1992; Huddleston & Pullum, 2002; and Wharton, 2003, in Goddard, 2014).

- c) According to Crystal (1987:423 in Yatno *et al.*, (2018) interjection is "a class of emotionally charged words with no grammatical links to other classes." It is structurally unrelated to the rest of the sentence.

In summary, it suggests that interjections are ways of representing one's emotions through language.

7.2 Characteristics of Interjection

Furthermore, interjections are considered paralinguistic due to their phonological and morphological anomalies, syntactic independence, and co-occurrence with other linguistic units. This has led to inconsistency in classifying them as words or parts of speech (Padilla Cruz, 2017). The following are the primary phonological, morphological, semantic, and syntactic properties of their class of language and culture-specific items that represent emotions and other modalities. (Quirk et al. 1972, 1985; Wierzbicka 1991, 1992; Ameka 1992, 2006; Aijmer 2004 in Padilla Cruz, 2017):

- a) They are not typically homophonous or homonymous with other words in the lexicon, and their peculiar phonological structure puts them outside of the conventional linguistic system. Even though many interjections are one-syllable, some are not ('tsktsk!', 'shh!'), have unusual sounds (like the 'dento-alveolar click' in 'tut-tut') or sound combinations in a language (like the 'bilabial vibrant' in 'brrr! '), show repetition, demonstrate repetition (e.g., the Spanish (Gehweiler 2008, 73 in Padilla Cruz, 2017), and

- b) As they do not have inflectional or derivational affixes, they are often monomorphemic and invariable. Although interjections can be transformed into nouns or verbs, inflectional morphology can be added (Greenbaum 2000, 183 in Padilla Cruz, 2017) "pooh-pooh," "wow," "boo," and "tut-tut" can all be verbs or nouns, depending on the context in which they are used.
- c) They have indexical meaning rather than denotative meaning, which means that they serve as pointing devices that indicate elements in the real world.
- d) Because they only have a slight connection to the other parts of a phrase, they are often used as separate sentences or units of tone.

Moreover, an interjection's prototype has a phonologically aberrant quality—it's not normal, weird, twisted, or uncharacterized (Gehweiler, 2008:73 in Wiles, 2020):

- a) monosyllabic (e.g., "Ow!"),
- b) not syllabic (e.g., "Tsktsk!"), and
- c) not a syllabic language (e.g., "Psst!").

Interjections might comprise non-mainstream sounds or sound combinations (e.g., "Tut-tut!," "Tsk-TK!," and "Nt!," as well as slurred speech. It will sound like the clicking of teeth in the mouth, a tonal structure,

- d) repetitions,
- e) reduplications, and;
- f) graphologically crucial since some do not have a standard spelling ("Tut-tut!", "Tsktsk!", 'St!'; 'Shh!', 'Hush!'),
- g) comply to particular phonetic principles (German: 'bäääh!' or 'iiiieeh!'), and
- h) Because they lack homonyms in other word classes, they are lexically opaque.

7.3 Types of Interjections

Interjections may be classified in many ways. One category is based on the interjection's form, while the other is based on the interjection's communicative function. There are two basic categories of interjections: primary interjections and secondary interjections (Ameka, 2006b).

- a) Primary interjections are similar to small words or "non-words" that, based on how they are used, can make a complete, non-elliptical sentence on their own and do not usually combine with other word classes, like:

English:

- Gee!
- Oho!
- Oops! etc.

They can be used in collaboration with other components to create co-utterances. Consider the following: Gee. I can tell you've had a good time! (Williams, 1961:8 in Ameka, 1992).

French:

- A e! Hem!
- Longgu (Austronesian) sss "I need your presence" and nnn "I am content"

- b) Secondary interjections are words that may be used on their own to describe an attitude or state of mind. These words have their own meanings, but they can also be employed as secondary interjections. Words are listed under secondary interjections, like:

English:

- Help!
- Fire!

- swear and;

English slang terms such as:

- Screw!
- Shag, and other similar words.

French:

- Bordel!
- Chiotte! and;

Other English emotional expressions:

- Bother!
- Drat! etc.

It is possible to classify interjections according to the purpose that they serve in relation to the several linguistic functions that are commonly acknowledged, including the expressive, conative, and phatic functions (Buhler, 1934; Jakobson, 1960 in Ameka, 2006b). This functional categorization is derived from what is regarded to be the most significant function of the substance at issue in terms of semantics.

- a) Expressive interjections are vocalizations that reveal the mental state of the speaker. They can be separated into two categories: emotional and cognitive. The emotional ones describe the speaker's current situation in terms of the feelings and sensations they are experiencing. For example,

English:

- Yuk!
- "I feel horrified;
- " Ouch! "I feel severe pain;"

Western Arrarnta (Aranda; Australian)

- yekaye, "I feel shocked"

- b) Cognitive interjections are employed when a person is speaking about their present knowledge and thoughts:

English:

- 'I now know this,', 'I finally understand this,'
- Ouch! 'I now know anything terrible may happen,'

Russian:

- ogo! 'I've discovered something shocking!';
- E' we' ehe! 'I remember now,'

Warlpiri (Australian):

- karija 'I don't know'.'

- c) Conative interjections are utterances directed towards the audience. They are supposed to attract somebody's interest or make them do or say something, for instance:

English:

- sh! "I want silence here";
- eh? "I want to know something."

To communicate with people in the bush, Australian English Cooee and Russian a'u are utilized.

Presentational interjections that mean "I want you to take this thing I'm holding out to you now" can be called "conative" interjections. For example, Italian to! Japanese hai! (In one use), Aranda (Australian) me! and Gunwinggu (Mayali; Australian) nja! Conative interjections also include calls to animals and the like.

- d) Phatic interjections are utilized for establishing and maintaining communicative contact. Backchanneling, also known as feedback signals, consists of a person's

vocalizations that reveal how they are thinking about the dialogue, such as:

- English: mhm, uh-huh, sure.
- "Hello" and "so long" are also used to organize speech and perform social tasks like greeting and saying goodbye.

While Goddard (in Yatno et al., 2018) said that there are three different kinds of interjections:

- a) Interjections of primary emotion are natural exit interjections in which the denotative words offered have no meaning but have purposes and meanings. These interjections are classified as primary emotive interjections. For example, ops, yock, eek, ugh, wow. These word meanings are unlikely to be found in a dictionary, yet they have their own function and have their own meaning.
- b) Primary cognitive interjection, which is expressions in the form of word-like primary components of deductive elements of speech that operates to guide, inform, and chastise (Goddard, 2013). These terms, such as "crap," "Christ, and "yuck!", can be understood denotatively or by employing dictionaries.
- c) The emotive and primary cognitive forms are combined to form the secondary volitive kind of interference.

7.4 Challenges regarding Interjection Analysis

Interjections are practical research items due to their modest size, inherent self-containedness, and simplicity of identification. It is needed to demonstrate their conceptual tractability and the fact that they serve as a hub for a variety of significant and challenging topics relating to emotional expression. Goddard (2014) says that a full look at interjections

will require a lot of work from many different fields (Goddard, 2014).

As a result of their dual nature as words and utterances, interjections' grammatical and semantic analyses are affected. The grammarian cannot tell whether they are words or phrases since they are so similar. The semanticist or lexicographer does not seem to have an appropriate strategy for dealing with lexemes that serve as both predicate and referent in interjections since they are utterances. The topic of whether or not interjections constitute speech actions remains unanswered from a practical viewpoint (Ameka, 2006b).

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CHAPTER VIII

DETERMINERS

By Tutut Nani Prihatmi

8.1 Preface

In the English language, determiners are noun modifiers that come before and must be followed by nouns. The term 'determiner' refers to the grammatical form used to indicate more information about a noun. It serves to express reference, that is, to clarify what a word refers to.

However, note that not all words that come before nouns are determiners. Some adjectives can be placed in front of nouns. Adjectives and determiners are similar in that they both can serve to modify a noun or a noun phrase. The major distinction between the two is that adjectives show more specific characteristics and have a level of comparison, while determiners do not.

There is always just one determiner per noun. If there are any adjectives before the noun to characterize it, the determiner will follow them. If the noun is next to the noun in the form of a phrase (more than one word) and there are adjectives, the determiners are placed before the adjectives.

A determiner is usually necessary when introducing singular nouns. When introducing plural nouns, however, the use of a determiner beforehand is optional.

8.2 The Function of Determiners

Determiners have several functions in sentences and have many meanings. However, all determiners are employed to clarify a noun or a noun phrase. Determiners are frequently used to define or demonstrate an object or a person. For example, it might indicate whether the noun stated in the phrase is particular or generic.

During a conversation, the presence of determiners will greatly help your interlocutors understand some specific information you are referring to. For example, when one says 'that car,' the listener understands which car is being discussed.

This grammatical form can also be used to distinguish between nouns, a popular use. Although determiners can also be used to convey amount, possession, and inquiries, the majority of their uses are connected to the two core categories stated previously.

Determiners are not difficult to comprehend because they are regularly used in our both written and spoken English. To properly appreciate the notion, we need to examine the types of determiners, which are provided in the next section.

8.3 Types of Determiners

There are several classes of determiners, each with its own function (Herring, 2016).

8.3.1 Articles

In English, there are only two types of articles: **definite article** (THE) and **Indefinite Article** (A/AN).

The most common word in English is 'the'. When we use the definite article 'the' in front of a word, we are thinking of a specific thing (Murphy, 2004) and believe the listener or reader understands exactly what we are referring to. There are several situations that cause the speaker to use 'the'. For example:

- Please pass **the** bottle. (Refers to a particular known object/person).
- I have been working in a toy factory for almost a year. **The** job is well-paid. (Refers to something that was previously mentioned).

- **The** president is coming to G20 summit. (Refers to unique people or objects).
- Have you seen **the** Satwa Museum? (Refers to the names of famous buildings/places).
- Harry works in **the** United States (Refers the names of the country that is plural or indicates a group of countries/states, islands, etc.)
- There are many stories of **the** Mediterranean Sea. (Refers to the names of Rivers, Seas, Oceans, Forests, Canals, or Deserts).
- Dad reads **the** Jakarta Post every morning. (Refers to the names of journals and newspapers)
- Let us finish **the** last section before leaving this class. (Before superlatives and ordinal numbers).

However, we do not use ‘the’ with names of people and places (Murphy, 2004). For example:

- We visited Doctor Smith. (**Not** the Doctor Smith).
- She is arriving at Bangkok. (**Not** at the Bangkok).

In contrast to definite article ‘the’, the indefinite article ‘a/an’ is used before a noun that does not refer to a particular place, person, or thing. ‘a’ is used before a singular word that starts with a consonant sound, while ‘an’ starts with a vowel sound.

- I heard **an** animal passed my rooftop last night. (No specific kind of animal is referred).
- Police are investigating **a** theft. (No specific information about the theft).

We also use a/an to indicate that a person or item is part of a group:

- He is **a** student at Jakarta International School.
- You need to wear **a** jacket in this cold weather.

8.3.2 Demonstrative Determiners

Demonstrative Determiners or Demonstrative Adjectives show if the word is singular or plural and whether it is close to or far from the speaker or writer (Oliva et al., 2018). They are used to distinguish which object or person is being addressed when it may be mistaken with others of the same type.

	Near	Far
Singular	this	that
Plural	these	those

Fig 1. Demonstrative determiners (Herring, 2016)

For example:

- Look at **that** high tower! (The tower is far from the speaker).
- **This** letter is ridiculous. (The letter is nearby).
- We need **those** books immediately. (The books are far from the speaker).
- **These** cups are unique. (The cups are nearby).

8.3.3 Possessive Determiners

Possessive Determiners or Possessive Adjectives are used to specify who owns an object. It has to occur with a noun (Lobeck & Denham, 2014).

For example:

- **Their** parents are now in Canada.
- **Our** tickets will expire in 7 PM today.

Between the possessive determiner and a noun, an adjective can be used. For example:

- She is **my** best classmate.

- The cat licked **its** cute paws.

8.3.4 Interrogative Determiners

Interrogative Determiners or Interrogative adjectives are used to ask direct or indirect questions about something or someone. There are three interrogative determiners in English:

1) What

The word "what" is used to request specific information about someone or something and always precedes a noun or a noun phrase.

For example:

- **What** novel do you usually read?
- **What** time is the meeting today?

2) Which

The word 'which' is used for requesting information on one or more individuals or items from a certain set.

For example:

- **Which** daughter is the youngest?
- **Which** hotel did the boyband stay?

3) Whose

The word 'whose' is used in to inquire who owns the particular thing.

For example:

- **Whose** house is being auctioned?
- **Whose** tablet is this?

8.3.5 Distributive Determiners

Distributive Determiners are also known as Distributive Adjectives. They refer to each element or person in a group or class rather than the group or class as a whole. The distributive determiners are **each, every, both, either, and neither**.

For example:

- **Each** student was given two kinds of uniform.
- **Every** house should be equipped with first aid kit.
- **Both** of his cars are made in Japan.
- We need some purifying plants on **either** side of our house.
- **Neither** kid want to go home before finishing the game.

8.3.6 Pre-determiners

In a sentence, pre-determiners are words that placed before English determiners and modify the determiner, to express their opinion regarding the noun they modify. Pre-determiners can be classified into four: multipliers, fractions, intensifiers, and both and all.

1) Multipliers

- I need to take these pills **twice a day**.
- Please **double** the cheese. My son loves it.

2) Fractions

- Almost **a quarter** of the house is damaged.
- **One-fifth** of the voters chose Singer A.

3) Intensifiers

- **What** a gigantic house!
- This gel is **quite** soothing.
- They are **such** a nice people.

4) Other (both and all)

- **Both** Chris and Lee were late to school.
- Did you eat **all** the sandwiches on the table?

8.3.7 Quantifiers

We use quantifiers when we wish to tell someone how much or how many of anything there are. Different from numbers which show exact numbers, quantifiers indicate approximate numbers (Oliva et al., 2018). We choose a suitable quantifier

depending on whether it introduces a countable noun (a count noun) or an uncountable noun (a mass noun).

Examples of quantifiers with countable nouns, listed from smallest to the largest quantity:

- **None of the** students come to school today.
- **Not many** fresh groceries are open on Fridays.
- This recipe just needs **a few** eggs.
- Stacy needs **a couple of** days to recover from her injuries.
- The meeting discussed **several** issues.
- Eric has **many** friends at his college.
- **A number** of people visit the beach during weekends.

Example of quantifiers with uncountable nouns, listed from smallest to the largest quantity:

- Allan is **a bit** upset.
- I was **a little** worried about the exam's result.
- We don't have **much** time now.
- This work needs **a great deal** of information.

Example of quantifiers with **both** countable and uncountable nouns:

- Do you have **any** excuse for being late?
- We don't have **enough** experience in sales.
- Let's have **some** rest.
- This plant doesn't need **a lot of** water.
- **All** the books have a cut-off price.

8.3.8 Numbers

Numbers can also be determiners when used to introduce and modify a noun. There are cardinal numbers (numbers that represent a quantity) and ordinal numbers (numbers that represent position or rank in a list). Both of them can work as determiners.

1) Cardinal Numbers

The cardinal numbers state how many things or people there are. Those can be in the form of numbers, decimals, fractions, or percentages.

For example:

- The **three** winners are standing on the podium.
- The company has **seventy-five** staffs.
- There is a **zero** percent chance of we win the game.
- There are **two hundred** students in this campus.

2) Ordinal Numbers

The ordinal numbers do not represent quantity but refer to the sequence or rank of a noun. Ordinal numbers are generally formed by adding **-TH** to the end of a cardinal number.

For example:

- My birthday is April **27th**.
- We are celebrating our **10th** wedding anniversary.
- The World War II occurred in the **twentieth** century.

The exceptions are with numbers 1, 2, and 3.

One – first (1st)

Two – second (2nd)

Three – third (3rd)

For example:

- The **first** winner of the race goes to Eric.
- I am the **second** child in my family.
- Go straight to the **third** floor.
- He ranks **twenty-first** in the national exam.

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CHAPTER IX

CONJUNCTIONS

By Morita

9.1. What Are Conjunctions?

Conjunctions are highly functional and very important for constructing sentences. The main function of conjunctions is to join or connect words, phrases, and clauses together. Without conjunctions, we will be forced to express every complex ideas in a series of short, simple sentences. Pay attention to these series of sentences: I like dancing. I like singing, I don't like painting. By using conjunctions, you can create a complex sentence as: I like dancing **and** singing, **but** I don't like painting.

Conjunctions are linking words as they join thoughts, actions and ideas, as well as clauses and phrases. Since they serve such an important role, it comes to no surprise that there are three different types of conjunctions used in sentences: **Coordinating**, **Subordinating**, and **Correlative**. Let's take a look at each category.

9.2. Coordinating Conjunctions

Coordinating conjunctions are the most popular category of conjunctions. These kinds of conjunctions bring equally important ideas together. They may join words, phrases or clauses of equal importance and grammatical rank.

In English, there are seven coordinating conjunctions. They are easily remembered by using this acronym FANBOYS: **For**, **And**, **Nor**, **But**, **Or**, **Yet**, **So**. Coordinating conjunctions are important

when constructing sentences or contrasting different ideas. Here are some examples of each coordinating conjunctions:

9.2.1. For

For is used to explain a reason (= because) or purpose.

E.g.:

- I woke up earlier this morning, **for** I had to take the first train to Jakarta.
- Anita gave her mom a bouquet of flowers, **for** it was her birthday.
- The plane to Bali was cancelled, **for** there was a bad storm.

Note: “For” can be confusing because it can also function as a preposition (for example: John bought this ring **for** his wife). However, when it is used to explain why something happens, it is a coordinating conjunction.

9.2.2. And

And is used to join two nouns, two verbs, two adjectives, two phrases, or two *independent clauses*. It adds one thing to another.

E.g.:

- I like to sing **and** write songs. (two verbs)
- You should invite Tom **and** Joshua to the meeting. (two nouns)
- Diane looks beautiful **and** graceful in her white wedding gown. (two adjectives)

“And” is one of the most common coordinating conjunctions in English. Notice how it connects two of the same part of speech or two clauses with equal importance.

9.2.3. Nor

“Nor” is used to combine two negative ideas. When using “nor”, we reverse the verb order in the second clause.

E.g.:

- I don't like durians. My husband doesn't like durians.
→ I don't like durians, **nor** does my husband.
- William didn't do his chores. He didn't finish his homework.
→ William didn't do his chores, **nor** did he finish his homework.
- Andy wasn't at the meeting yesterday. He didn't show up at conference.
→ Andy wasn't at the meeting yesterday, **nor** did he show up at the conference.

9.2.4. But

"But" is used to show contrast between two words, phrases or ideas of equal importance.

E.g.:

- We'd like to attend your party. We had another appointment with our director.
→ We'd like to attend your party, **but** we had another appointment with our director.
- My little brother likes to eat meat very much. He hates vegetables.
→ My little brother likes to eat meat very much, **but** he hates vegetables.
- They planned to go for a swim at the beach. It rained very hard.
→ They planned to go for a swim at the beach, **but** it rained very hard.

9.2.5. Or

"Or" is used to show an alternative or a choice. Like "and", it can join two of the same part of speech as well as two phrases or clauses.

E.g.:

- Would you rather have a cup of coffee **or** a glass of milk in the morning?

- I am not sure whether I should study economics **or** law.
- We could have dinner before the movie **or** we could grab a bite afterward.

9.2.6. Yet

“Yet” introduces a contrasting idea that follows the preceeding idea.

E.g.:

- I really want to have a puppy, **yet** my mom always says “No pets allowed in the house:.”
- Mary needs someone to help her move the sofa, **yet** there’s nobody at home.
- I always take a book when I’m on vacation, **yet** I never seem to turn a single page.

“But” and “yet” may seem the same and interchangeable. However, they imply a slightly different tone. “But” brings a tone of finality into a sentence (e.g: I like to play tennis, but I don’t know how). “Yet” indicates that an action may change in the future (e.g.: I like to play tennis, yet I don’t know how – at the time being). Grammatically, we can use both of them for the same reason.

9.2.7. So

“So” indicates an effect, result or consequence from an action in the earlier clause.

E.g.:

- He didn’t study hard, **so** he failed the exams.
- It rained very yesterday, **so** we cancel our trip to the mountain.
- Mary didn’t have time to cook today, **so** she took her family out for dinner at a nearby restaurant.
- He went to bed late last night, **so** he felt very sleepy in the class.

Note:

“So” can also be used as an adverb, as in “*They were **so** happy to know that their son won the science competition.*” The word “so” in that sentence does not link two words. Otherwise, it modifies the adjective “happy”.

9.2.8. Several important points about coordinating conjunctions

1. Some coordinating conjunctions are preceded by a comma, but some others are not. If a coordinating conjunction joins together two independent clauses, we need a comma. Independent clauses have the ability to stand alone as complete sentences.

E.g.:

- He has been working very hard all week, **yet** he still needs to go to the office on Sunday.

*Independent clause 1
independent clause 2*

2. A coordinating conjunction can be used to begin a sentence as long as it still connects to the sentence before it.
 - The grocery store was closed, **so** we went to the market instead.
 - The grocery store was closed. **So**, we went to the market instead.
3. Some of us might be confused with the use of “however”, “therefore”, and “also”. They look like coordinating conjunctions, but they are not. They are called *conjunctive adverbs*. Conjunctive adverbs join two clauses with a semicolon or in a new sentence and modify the first clause with the second clause.

9.3. Subordinating Conjunctions

A subordinating conjunction is a word that connects an *independent clause* to a *dependent clause*. They usually show a cause-and-effect relationship or a shift in time or place. An

independent clause can stand by itself as a sentence. It does not need any additional information to operate as a complete sentence, both in structure and meaning. “The board of directors are having a meeting” is an example of an independent clause.

A dependent clause, on the other hand, acts as an extra information to the main clause. These clauses cannot stand by themselves. Their meaning is dependent on the independent clause. In another word, they are incomplete sentences. “Because the company is facing a serious financial problem” is an example of a dependent clause as it is not a complete sentence.

However, if we combine the two clauses : “The board of directors are having a meeting because the company is facing a serious financial problem”, a complete idea has been expressed and the information has been fully presented.

There are a lot of common subordinating conjunctions, many of which serve to clarify or add information to the dependent clause. Below is a list of subordinating conjunctions often found in everyday conversation.

9.3.1. Time-related conjunctions: *after, as soon as, as long as, before, once, still, until, when, whenever, while,*

E.g.:

- We left the office **after** the rain had stopped.
- I will tell you **as soon as** I get the news.
- I don’t care what you do **as long as** you don’t bother me.
- I had finished my homework **before** I went to bed last night.
- **Once** I saw him, I knew he was a good man.
- Mary was watering the flowers in her garden **when** I walked pass her house.

9.3.2. Concession and comparison conjunctions: *although, as though, even though, just as, though, whereas, in contrast to.*

E.g.:

- I'll see you at the office **although / even though** I'm not feeling very well.
- You look so depressed **as though** you had a very big problem.
- He works very slowly and carefully, **whereas** I tend to work fast and often make mistakes.
- **In contrast to** her sister, she is very tall.

9.3.3. Cause conjunctions: *as, because, in order that, since, so that.*

- All flights were canceled **as** the snow was very thick.
- Alice left the party early **because** she had to prepare for her final exam.
- You have to manage your time wisely **in order that** you are able to complete your assignments both from work and campus.
- She quit her job **since** she had to take care of her sick mother

9.3.4. Condition conjunctions: *even if, if, in case, provided that, unless.*

E.g.

- **Even if** he has lied to his mom many times, she will always forgive him.
- Please do come to our house **if** you have free time this weekend.
- We'll be late for class **unless** we leave now.

9.3.5. Place conjunctions: *where, wherever, whereas*

E.g.:

- Nobody knew **where** Mrs. King keeps her jewelry.
- You can sit **wherever** you like in this room.

9.4. Correlative Conjunctions

Correlative conjunctions are pairs of words that work together to connect two parts of a sentence that hold an equal value, or correlate with one another. Correlative conjunctions create pairs of equal elements, that are the same part of speech. This could be two nouns, two adjectives, two verbs or two of the same kind of phrase.

Some examples of correlative conjunctions are as follow:

9.4.1. Either – or

I will **either** go to the movie **or** stay at home this weekend.

9.4.2. Neither – nor

Neither the teacher **nor** the students came to school yesterday.

9.4.3. Not only – but also

The artist's performance is **not only** entertaining **but also** educating

9.4.4.Both – and

Both Anne **and** her husband are doctors.

9.4.5. Whether – or

I'm not sure **whether** to cook dinner **or** order from a restaurant.

9.4.6. Such – that

It was **such** a difficult test **that** nobody got perfect score.

9.4.7. Would rather – than

I **would rather** take a taxi **than** walk home in this weather.

9.4.8. No sooner – than

No sooner did we leave the meeting **than** it started to rain heavily.

9.4.9. Hardly – when

Hardly did Mary start eating her dinner **when** Tom called her.

9.4.10. As – as

The weather today will be **as** cold **as** yesterday.

9.4.11. As many – as

You can take **as many** books **as** you like.

9.4.12. As much – as

Eat **as much** salad **as** you like. It is good for your health.

When using correlative conjunctions, there are three important rules to consider: verb agreement, pronoun agreement, and parallel structure.

9.4.5. Verb agreement

- **Either** Nancy **or** her parents were attending the party.

But

Either her parents **or** Nancy was attending the party.

- **Neither** Denny **nor** his brothers like durians.

But

Neither his brothers **nor** Denny likes durians

- **Not only** Lisa **but also** the children love tennis.

But

Not only the children **but also** Lisa loves tennis.

When using “either – or”, “neither – nor”, and “not only – but also”, use the verb form of the subject nearest the verb.

- **Both** Peter **and** Danny have known each other for a long time.

“Both – and” refers to plural nouns so plural verbs must be used.

9.4.6. Pronoun agreement

- **Either** Penny **or** the boys submitted their paper today.

But

- **Either** the boys **or** Penny submitted her paper today.

- **Both** Joshua **and** Mia finished her final project.

But

- **Both** Mia **and** Joshua finished his final project.

The use of pronouns refers to the noun closest to the pronoun.

9.4.7. Parallel Structure

When using correlative conjunctions, we must make sure that the items or ideas

being connected have the same grammatical structure, that is they have equal functions in the sentence.

- My father likes **not only** play tennis **but also** write songs.

This example is parallel because both conjunctions are followed by a verb.

- I respect **both** honesty **and** loyalty.
This example shows that both conjunctions are followed by a noun.

Exercise

Exercise 1

Read the sentences below. Decide whether the conjunctions are coordinating, subordinating, or correlative.

1. _____ Neither my sister nor my brother knows how to speak Spanish.
2. _____ Mother wanted to try a new recipe for our dinner, yet she also wanted to order pizza.
3. _____ Today we're studying nocturnal animals and the teacher is presenting interesting slideshow.
4. _____ We don't know dad's real condition until we receive his lab test.
5. _____ I'd like to go to the movie with you, but I have to accompany my mom to the hospital.
6. _____ Either stop listening to the radio or I will take it forcefully.
7. _____ Philip will tell you the truth if you ask him to.
8. _____ Julia always visits her grandma whenever she in the village.
9. _____ Since you know me well, you can ask me for help anytime.
10. _____ Your scores in the last semester were not too good, so you should Study harder.

Exercise 2

Complete the sentences with “and” or “but”

1. It was a difficult game, we won it.
2. She has been working very hard has made a lot of money.
3. He looks like a serious person, in fact, he is funny.
4. Actually I'm against your plan, I am willing to help.
5. Tom was late the teacher didn't allow him to join the class.
6. That was such an expensive car, Harry bought it.
7. Jane was very poor she never borrowed any money from anyone.
8. He wanted to eat pizza, there wasn't any Italian restaurant nearby.
9. He stopped working start eating.
10. I really wanted to attend your birthday party, I had to take my mom to the hospital. She was sick.

Exercise 3

Complete the sentences with “so” or “because”

1. He was ill, he didn't go to school.
2. I couldn't afford to buy this jacket, I still need to pay for my school fee.
3. She went home early, she didn't feel very well.
4. Jack's house isn't very far, he walks to his office every day.
5. Betty wanted to learn French, she took a French course.
6. My sister was very happy,, she won the national speech competition.
7. It's very hot and sunny today, we just stay at home and enjoy our cold lemonade.

8. Shirley woke up early this morning, she had to study for her final exam.
9. Jack wants to be fit, he jogs every morning.
10. My mom didn't cook yesterday, she took us to an Italian restaurant.

Exercise 4

Complete the sentences using the coordinating conjunctions “and, but, or, for, nor, so”

1. Marion bought apples, oranges, pears, lemons watermelons.
2. You should stop smoking now you will get very sick.
3. I forgot to take my umbrella with me. It was raining very hard I got wet.
4. Ben could get the job easily he was the only applicant.
5. He got up late this morning. He could neither have something to eat something to drink.
6. My mother cooked in the kitchen I washed the dirty clothes yesterday.
7. I really wanted to go to Kahitna's concert last night, I had to study for my final exam.
8. Either you finish your homework the teacher will punish you.
9. He failed to pay his debt to the bank he had to lose his house.
10. There were some injured players in our team, fortunately we won the match.

Exercise 5

Complete the following sentences using appropriate subordinating conjunctions

1. The whole team were very excited they received the gold medals.

- a. Because b. if c. before
2. The students were listening to the teacher eagerlyhe was explaining their coming biology project.
a. since b. while c. after
3. This is the hotel we stayed in Bali last holiday.
a. when b. where c. while
4. he studied hard, he failed in the exam.
a. Although b. Even if c. Because
5. April is beautiful, she is very humble.
a. Though b. As c. Because
6. The children were told to wait here their mom came to pick them up.
a. unless b. until c. before
7. She won't come to the party you ask her yourself.
a. if b. unless c. whether
8. There was a deep silence the President was giving his speech.
a. whether b. after c. when
9. My grandma began to cry she lost her wedding ring.
a. Until b. if c. because
10. you had stayed a little longer at the meeting yesterday, you would have met our new manager.
a. If b. Unless c. Whether

Exercise 6

Combine each pair of sentences using a conjunction in the box.

after	before	although	whenever	while	because
as	until	as if	when	that	as soon as

1. We continued working. It was already 10 o'clock in the evening.
.....

2. I want to be a singer. I want to make people happy with my songs.
.....

3. Mary can have a lot of time for herself. She quit her job.
.....

4. Our family will go to Lombok. We have a long holiday.
.....

5. Danny goes to school. He has his breakfast.
.....

6. Jake had finished his homework. He went to school.
.....

7. The men worked very hard. They were too tired to continue.....
.....

8. Julia always listens to music. She studies.
.....

9. My father gave me some extra money. I had helped him a lot clean the backyard.
.....

10. The paramedics came. We called 911.
.....

Exercise 7

Choose the most appropriate correlative conjunctions.

1. The test was very short quite easy.
a. not – but
b. both and
c. whether – or
d. either – or
2. I plan to take my vacation in June in July.
a. either – or
b. when – or
c. whether – or
d. not only – and
3. is dark chocolate delicious, it is healthy food.
a. whether or
b. just as – so
c. both – and
d. not only- but also
4. flowers plants grow well in the spring.
a. Both – and
b. Whether – or
c. not only – or
d. not only – and
5. Calculus is easy difficult.
a. neither - nor
b. either - or
c. both – and
d. not – but
6. It's going to rain snow tonight.
a. as – if
b. both – and
c. either – or
d. as – as
7. you clean your room you will stay home this weekend.
a. Neither – nor
b. Both – and
c. not only – but also
d. Either – or
8. Paula found the shoes she had lost her favorite jacket. She is so happy now.
a. Neither – nor
b. Either – or
c. not only – but also
d. whether – or

9. I can't decide to play tennis this weekend to take dancing lesson.
- | | |
|------------------|------------------------|
| a. Neither – nor | c. whether – or |
| b. Both – and | d. not only – but also |
10. Gosh! my stereo and my television stopped working last night.
- | | |
|------------------|-----------------|
| a. Both – and | c. either – or |
| b. Neither – nor | d. whether – or |

Exercise 8

Finish the following sentences with your own words.

1. I don't like broccoli, but _____
2. Mindy plays the piano, and _____
3. Because the weather is very cold,

4. I really love Michael Jackson and _____
5. Diane always studies hard for her exam, so

6. Larry has been working hard lately, but

7. Nancy is the prettiest girl at school, but

8. We will win the game, for we _____
9. I don't like your cooking, nor do I

10. Auckland is a very safe city, and

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CHAPTER X

CONTRACTIONS

By Syahrul Efendi Lubis

10.1 Introduction

The essence of every human language is to facilitate communication. English is not an exception. Every human language has rules and the wrong application or completely ignoring such rules governing the convention of a language adversely affects the communicative and other purposes of the language. According to (Akindele, 2005) human language is unique in the sense that it has its own structure, its own system of organizing its component units into meaningful patterns. In English, there are rules governing the organization of the different elements of speech or discourse including but not limited to the rules of tense, phrase, clause, sentence, concord, contractions and so on. It is however a worrisome idea that the wrong use of the verb and particularly its contracted forms is prevalent among speakers of English and this often impedes proper communication.

This misnomer also affects student's performances in internal and external examinations especially at the secondary level of education where students write West African Examinations Council (WAEC), National Examinations Council (NECO) and JAMB examinations (West African Examinations Council (WAEC), 2010). Considering the importance of English language in Nigeria, it will be an educational disservice to ignore these abnormalities. It is for this reason that the researchers intend to identify, describe and analyze the contracted forms of the English verb in both affirmative and negative sentences.

The research made use of data collected from final year students of English Department, University of Jos to ascertain how often and in what contexts they use the contracted forms. It also seeks to ascertain how proficient the students are in the use of contracted forms of verb. The English verb is a large class of words, hence it will be impossible to discuss it exhaustively in a paper of this kind. However, a few definitions will suffice. The verb may be defined as a part of the sentence that expresses what subject does in a sentence as well as what happens to the object where there is one (Ebibi et al. 2018). A verb also expresses what the subject feels, experiences or thinks. At times, it expresses a state of being.

According to (Murthy, 2007) a verb is a word used to express action or condition (a state of being) or existence. It is a word that expresses action or a state of being and is necessary to make a statement (Ukwuegbu, 2004). The authors opined that the action can be physical (e.g. write, sing, shout) or mental (e.g. think, hope, expect); the most frequently used state of being verb according to them is 'Be' with its different forms. According to them, verbs are generally classified into lexical (main) and auxiliary or helping verbs.

Lexical verbs are further grouped into regular and irregular, transitive and intransitive, linking and none linking, stative and dynamic, simply/complex verbs. The study is designed to give an in depth analysis of the contracted forms of the verb with a view to further educating the readers on the conventions and their uses. For this reason and for purpose of this paper, the focus will be on auxiliary verbs because they are at the heart of contraction in English verbs. (Quirk R, 1989) state that auxiliary verbs are grouped into two major classes namely: The primary auxiliary: Be, Do, have and their forms.

The modal auxiliary verbs are: can, could, will, would, shall, should, ought to, dare may, might, must, used to and need. The

primary auxiliary verbs are: Be: (present forms): am, is, are, being-ing, been (past forms): was, were Do: (present forms): do, does (past form): did Have: (present forms): has, have (past form): had One of the distinctions between the primary auxiliary verbs and the modal auxiliary is, while the former can be used as main and auxiliary verbs, the latter can only function in a sentence as auxiliaries. In other words, the primary auxiliary verbs can function as the main verb elements in a sentence and can also function as an auxiliary in another (Quirk & Greenbaum, 1989). For example: James is a student. 'Is' here is a main verb. James is reading English. 'Is' here, is an auxiliary while reading is the main verb.

10.2 Definition of Contractions

A contraction is a word made by shortening and combining two words. Words like can't (can + not), don't (do + not), and I've (I + have) are all contractions. We use contractions (I'm, we're) in everyday speech and informal writing. Contractions, which are sometimes called 'short forms', commonly combine a pronoun or noun and a verb, or a verb and not, in a shorter form. Contractions are usually not appropriate in formal writing.(Quirk R, 1989)

We make contractions with auxiliary verbs, and also with be and have when they are not auxiliary verbs. When we make a contraction, we commonly put an apostrophe in place of a missing letter. People use contractions in both speaking and writing. They're so common that movies and books often try to make characters seem old-fashioned or strange by having them never use contractions. This is a little silly because English speakers have been using contractions for centuries although not always the same ones we use today.

In linguistic analysis, contractions should not be confused with crasis, abbreviations and initialisms (including acronyms), with which they share some semantic and phonetic functions, though all three are connoted by the term "abbreviation" in loose

parlance. Contraction is also distinguished from morphological clipping, where beginnings and endings are omitted. A contraction is a shortened form of a word (or group of words) that omits certain letters or sounds. In most contractions, an apostrophe represents the missing letters (Eka, 2004). The most common contractions are made up of verbs, auxiliaries, or modals attached to other words: He would = He'd. I have = I've. They are = They're. You cannot = You can't.

Contractions are common in speech so common that we don't always take the time to pronounce them precisely, which leads to a particular contraction mistake writers might make if they're not paying attention (Murthy, 2007). In speech, we often pronounce could've, should've, and would've in a way that sounds identical to "could of," "should of," and "would of." But you should never write could of, should of, or would of. Remember, could've, should've, and would've are contractions that mean could have, should have, and would have.

Some writers use less common contractions when they want to represent a particular style of speech. They might write *somethin'* to represent the way people often don't pronounce the final g of "something" in speech. Occasionally, you might see *e'er* (instead of *ever*) in poetry. And, of course, in the American South, you will probably encounter *y'all* (you all). Decade names are often contracted as well: *the '60s* (the 1960s). There are a few contractions, such as *gonna* (going to) and *wanna* (want to) that are written without apostrophes.

Contractions are perfectly standard, but they're usually considered to be relatively casual (Mitalfe, 1995). If you're writing something very formal, you may want to avoid using them except in cases like *o'clock*, where the full phrase (of the clock) truly is rare. Be careful, because not every word with an apostrophe is a contraction. Possessive nouns in English end with apostrophe-s, (*Bob's house*,

Carla's mom) but these are not contractions. People use contractions in both speaking and writing. They're so common that movies and books often try to make characters seem old-fashioned or strange by having them never use contractions. This is a little silly because English speakers have been using contractions for centuries although not always the same ones we use today.

English has a number of contractions, mostly involving the elision of a vowel (which is replaced by an apostrophe in writing), as in *I'm* for "I am", and sometimes other changes as well, as in *won't* for "will not" or *ain't* for "am not" (Mitcalfe, 1995). These contractions are common in speech and in informal writing, but tend to be avoided in more formal writing (with limited exceptions, such as the mandatory form of "o'clock").

In summary, it could define contractions as a shortened version of the spoken and written forms of a word, syllable, or word group, created by omission of internal letters and sounds.

10.3 Writing Contractions

All contractions include a punctuation mark that looks like this:

This is an **apostrophe**. Knowing where to put the apostrophe can seem tricky, but there's a pretty simple rule that works with every contraction. Remember how it said contractions are made of two words that have been shortened? The apostrophe **replaces** any letters that are in the original words, but that **aren't** in the contraction.

For instance, the contraction **couldn't** means **could not**. As you can see, the **o** in **not** isn't in the word **couldn't**. The apostrophe goes in its place, right between the **n** and **t**.

Let's look at another example. **You'll** means **you will**. This contraction is missing **two letters** from the word **will**: **w** and **i**. The apostrophe goes where these missing letters belong: between the **u**

and the first **l**. In some parts of the United States, you can address a group of people by using a special contraction for **you + all**. It's written below without the apostrophe.

This symbol (') is something we called an apostrophe (Eka, 2004). Knowing where to put the apostrophe can seem tricky, but there's a pretty simple rule that works with every contraction. Remember how we said contractions are made of two words that have been shortened? The apostrophe replaces any letters that are in the original words, but that aren't in the contraction.

For instance, the contraction couldn't means could not. As you can see, the o in not isn't in the word couldn't. The apostrophe goes in its place, right between the n and t. Let's look at another example. You'll means you will. This contraction is missing two letters from the word will: w and i. The apostrophe goes where these missing letters belong: between the u and the first l. Fun fact: In some parts of the United States, you can address a group of people by using a special contraction for you + all. It's written as (yall)

10.4 Common Contractions in English

Here are some common contractions and the groups of words that they represent (Quirk R, 1989).

aren't = are not

there's = there is; there has

can't = can not

they'd = they had; they would

couldn't = could not

they'll = they will; they shall

didn't = did not

they're = they are

doesn't = does not

they've = they have

don't = do not

we'd = we had; we would

hadn't = had not

we're = we are

hasn't = has not

we've = we have

haven't = have not

weren't = were not

he'd = he had; he would

what'll = what will; what shall

he'll = he will; he shall	what're = what are
he's = he is; he has	what's = what is; what has
I'd = I had; I would	what've = what have
I'll = I will; I shall	where's = where is; where has
I'm = I am	who'd = who had; who would
I've = I have	who'll = who will; who shall
isn't = is not	who're = who are
let's = let us	who's = who is; who has
mightn't = might not	who've = who have
mustn't = must not	won't = will not
shan't = shall not	wouldn't = would not
she'd = she had; she would	you'd = you had; you would
she'll = she will; she shall	you'll = you will; you shall
she's = she is; she has	you're = you are
shouldn't = should not	you've = you have
that's = that is; that has	

One contraction that is not on the above list is "it's." It is useful to note that "it's," a contraction, is often confused with "its," a possessive pronoun. Remember it's => it is and its => possessive pronoun.

You probably use contractions when you speak to your friends and family members every day; however, it is important to note that contractions are often considered inappropriate in formal writing. Professors, employers, and other professionals like to see that you have taken your time on a document, and using contractions is sometimes seen as a shortcut. To be safe, never use contractions when writing for a class or when writing a professional document, such as a personal statement or cover letter.

English has a number of contractions, mostly involving the elision of a vowel (which is replaced by an apostrophe in writing), as in I'm for "I am", and sometimes other changes as well, as in won't for "will not" or ain't for "am not" (Quirk R, 1989). These contractions are common in speech and in informal writing, but tend to be avoided in more formal writing (with limited exceptions, such as the mandatory form of "o'clock").

Contractions rely on contractions all the time in normal conversation. When people speak to each other, there is typically an expectation that they will use contractions (can't, won't, shouldn't) whenever they can, as doing so saves time. Some people are under the impression that contractions should never appear in writing, but this belief is mistaken. The use of contractions is directly related to tone.

In informal writing (from text messages and blogs to memos and personal essays), it often rely on contractions to maintain a colloquial tone. In more formal writing assignments (such as academic reports or term papers), avoiding contractions is a way of establishing a more serious tone. Before deciding whether to use contractions in a writing assignment, consider your audience and your purpose for writing.

Contraction is a type of elision, simplifying pronunciation through reducing (dropping or shortening) sounds occurring to a word group (Murthy, 2007). In subject-auxiliary inversion, the contracted negative forms behave as if they were auxiliaries themselves, changing place with the subject. For example, the interrogative form of He won't go is Won't he go?, whereas the uncontracted equivalent is Will he not go?, with *not* following the subject.

The following are the various variants of contraction that it can find an informal writings and everyday English language usage (Quirk R, 1989).

1. Contracted Nouns and Pronouns

In casual conversation, contractions involving nouns are fairly common ("My dad'll be home soon"). In writing, however, they're much rarer than contractions with pronouns such as I'll, he'd, and she's. You can contract proper nouns to mean is or has, such as in the sentence "Shelly's coming with us," or "Jeff's bought a new computer." someWatch out for the homonyms who's and whose; the contraction is "who is" or "who has," and the whole word is possessive, as in "Whose car is that?" And of course, if you're visiting the South, you'll likely hear the colloquial "y'all" for "you all."

2. Negative Contractions and Verb Contractions

Contractions are often made with auxiliary, or helping, verbs, such as to be, do, have, and can. It can say "it isn't raining" or "it's not raining." But it cannot say "it'sn't raining." In negative clauses, it has a choice between using negative contractions like not (n't) and contracting the pronoun and verb (it's). But it can't do both.

3. Contracting 'Not'

The contracted form of not (n't) can be attached to finite forms of the helping verbs be, do, and have. However, amn't (mainly Scottish and Irish) is extremely rare, unlike the disparaged ain't.

The n't form can also be attached to most of the modal auxiliaries such as can't, couldn't, mustn't, shouldn't, won't, and wouldn't. Yet, you won't hear many Americans saying mayn't or shan't; even those contractions are too formal.

4. Contractions in Tag Questions

A tag question is a short question added to the end of a declarative sentence, usually to make sure that something has been done or understood. For example, "It's a tag question, isn't it?"

Because of their colloquial nature, negative tags are commonly contracted: didn't we? haven't you? aren't they? This is much less formal than did not we? or did we not?

5. Ambiguous Contractions

Most contractions ending in 'd and 's are ambiguous. The 'd can represent either had or would; 's can represent either has or is. All the same, the meaning of these contractions is usually clear from their context. For instance, "Sam's finished his term paper" implies completion in the past (Sam has finished), while "Sam's tired" is in the present tense, meaning Sam is.

6. Multiple Contractions

They may look odd in print, but certain multiple contractions such as I'd've (or I'd'a) and wouldn't've are fairly common in speech. We like shortcuts, so it's easy to say something like, "If I'd've told you the real reason, you probably wouldn't've come back with me." Quite often, we don't even notice it. The words just run together as we talk.

Under the category of rarities, there are a few double and even triple contracted nautical terms. These include words like bo's'n (short for boatswain) and fo'c's'le (a variant of forecandle), words that landlubbers can probably live without.

Before you start recklessly sprinkling apostrophes everywhere, make sure you're not putting an apostrophe plus s on something that should actually be plural: i.e., the greengrocer's apostrophe.

7. Aphaeresis

Aphaeresis is a rhetorical and phonological term for the omission of one or more sounds or syllables from the beginning of a word. Also spelled apheresis. Adjective: aphetic. Also called syllabic loss or initial vowel loss. Common examples of aphaeresis include round (from around), specially (from especially), and spy (from espy). Note that the deleted initial sound is usually a vowel.

Example sentences :

"Children learning to speak first tend to retain only the final syllable of words (-*nette* for *marionnette*, -*range* for *orange*), then two syllables (-*anna* for *nanna*, -*octor* for *doctor*). Loose pronunciation ('*xactly* for *exactly*) has thus something childish about it. But in '*tention!* (for *Attention!*) economy of effort and efficiency come into play.

"Like apocope, aphaeresis most commonly involves the slack use of an expression rather than a literary device."

Aphaeresis has given us a number of new words, like *drawing room* (from *withdrawing-room*), *fend* (from *defend*; whence *fender*), *sport* (from *disport*), and *stain* (from *distain*). A number are aphetic in the narrow sense: *pert* (from now obsolete *apert*, going back ultimately to Latin *appertus* 'open', *peal* (from *appeal*), *mend* (from *amend*), *fray* (from *affray*), the verb *ply* (from *apply*), the adjective *live* (from *alive*), *spy* (from *espy*), and *tend* (from both *attend* and *intend*). In the above cases, significant semantic development followed the aphaeresis, so that one does not normally connect in one's mind the shortened and the original longer forms."

8. Syncope

Syncope refers to a literary device that involves the shortening of a word by removing or omitting letters. This usually occurs within the middle of words and can refer to the removal of consonants, vowels, and multiple letters one after another.

The letters dropped might be the unstressed parts of the word, as the most commonly the case, or the stressed, or a stressed, portion of the word. In the place of the dropped letter, the poet uses an apostrophe. This punctuation stands in for the letter and lets a reader know that it was intentionally removed.

Some of the most common examples of words shortened with this technique are "never" shortened to "ne'er" and "over",

shortened to “o’er”. These two words are also examples of syncope words that have made their way into everyday speech.

For example, in some dialects, the word “never” would be pronounced as “ne’er”. This is a part of the other way that syncope is used, in informal speech. It is connected with the colloquial contractions of specific words and phrases.

The technique is usually used as a poetic device. By removing syllables, a poet can conform to a specific metrical pattern. The meter will remain the same, as long as the reader knows how to navigate the syncope word.

When one grows used to the use of syncope letters in poetry it becomes quite natural to read the lines without getting tripped up on missing letters. Because the lines are part of a specific meter it often makes more sense to naturally follow the syncope rather than try to reinstate what’s missing.

9. Apocope

Apocope is a rhetorical term for the omission of one or more sounds or syllables from the end of a word. Also called end-cut, apocope is a type of elision.

Examples and Observations:

"Season your admiration for a while with an attent ear."

"Loss of sounds from the end of a word is known as **apocope**, as in the pronunciation of *child* as *chile*."

Apocope is also a process that deletes word-final segments, including unstressed (reduced) vowels. In Middle English, many words, such as *sweet*, *root*, etc. were pronounced with a final [e], but by the time of modern English, these final reduced vowels had been lost. We still see signs of final reduced vowels in the archaic spelling of words like *olde*.

10.5 Contractions in Affirmative and Negative Expressions

Contractions in English verbs are too wide that it will be relatively difficult to explain each one as it occurs in different contexts. The researchers have however tried to exemplify the use of the contracted forms of the auxiliary verbs be, have, do and their forms including the modal auxiliaries using simple short sentences (Mitalfe, 1995). Some of the non-contracted and contracted forms have been summarized in the tables below. This is meant to serve as appetizers to those who may find it time consuming to read them as illustrated in the sentence after each table.

Long and short forms (contracted forms of: to be, am, are and is.)

Affirmative		Negative	
Long form	Short form	Long form	Contracted form
I am	I'm	I am not	I'm not

He, She, It

He is	He's	He is not	He isn't order he's not
-------	------	-----------	-------------------------

We, You, They

We are	We're	We were not.	We aren't order we're not.
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To be (was, were)

Affirmative		Negative	
I, he, she, it			
Long form	Short form	Long form	Contracted form
I/he/she/it was	-	I/he/she/it was not	I/he/she/it wasn't

We, you, they

We/you/they were	-	We/you/they were not	We/you/they weren't.
------------------	---	----------------------	----------------------

Have got

Affirmative

Negative

Long form	Contracted term	Long form	Contracted form
-----------	-----------------	-----------	-----------------

I, we, you, they

I/we/you/they have got.	I/we/you/they've got.	I/we/you/they have not got.	I/we/you/they've not got or we haven't got.
-------------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------------	---

He, She, It

He/she/it has gotten	He/she/it's gotten	He/she/it has not gotten	He/she/it's not got or he hasn't got.
----------------------	--------------------	--------------------------	---------------------------------------

Had

Affirmative

Negative

Long form	Contracted form	Long form	Contracted form
-----------	-----------------	-----------	-----------------

Every time regardless of the subject (I, he, she, it, we, you, they)

I had	I'd	I had not	I hadn't.
-------	-----	-----------	-----------

Do

Affirmative

Negative

Long form	Contracted form	Long form	Contracted form
-----------	-----------------	-----------	-----------------

I/we/you/they

I/we/you/they do	-	I/we/you/they do not	I/we/you/they don't
------------------	---	----------------------	---------------------

Does

He/she/it

He/she/it does	-	He/she/it does not	He/she/it doesn't.
----------------	---	--------------------	--------------------

Did

Affirmative

Negative

Long form	Contracted form	Long form	Contracted form
-----------	-----------------	-----------	-----------------

Every time regardless of the subject (I, he, she, it, we, you, they)

I/he/she/it/we /you/they did	-	I/he/she/it/we /you/they did not	I/he/she/it/we/you /they didn't.
---------------------------------	---	--	-------------------------------------

Modals auxiliaries: can, could, must, might, will, would, shall, should, ought to, etc.

Affirmative

Negative

Long form	Contracted form	Long form	Contracted form
Can	-	Cannot	Can't
Could	-	Could not	Couldn't
Must	-	Must not	Mustn't
Might	-	Might not	-
Need	-	Need not	Needn't
Will	'll	Will not	Won't
Would	'd	Would not	Wouldn't
Shall	'll	Shall not	Shan't
Should	'd	Should	Shouldn't
Ought to	-	Ought not to	Oughtn't to

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CHAPTER XI

WH-QUESTION WORDS

By Itha Priyastiti, S.Pd, M.A

Questions, or in some references, we have the term interrogative sentences, are used to ask questions and are indicated by the use of question marks (Lester and Beason, 2019). Besides the two characteristics, English learners may also be familiar with interrogative words, also known as *wh*-question words. They are *what, who, where, when, why, whose, whom, and which*.

We could assume that using *wh*-questions to form English interrogative sentences may seem unchallenging as long as learners know the structural rules. Also, we may think that English learners will not find any difficulties in making questions in oral communication because spoken form emphasizes intelligibility. However, *wh*-question words may not be as simple as those assumptions. Learners from the background of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) may face challenges in this topic because of several reasons. First, EFL learners do not have adequate exposure to English in their daily life. This means that EFL learners do not acquire as many opportunities as ESL learners to practice their knowledge in English directly with native speakers. The second reason, which is highly correlated to the first is the learning experiences. Major English Language Teaching (EFL) in the EFL context takes place in a formal setting, i.e., classrooms. EFL teachers usually pay greater attention to grammar instruction because of the proficiency level of the students (Priyastiti, 2021). Focusing more on forms rather than form consequently results in a lacking understanding of the pragmatic functions.

For those reasons, this chapter will not only discuss the rigid structural patterns of English questions, which are usually required in formal settings (as in written form), but it will also give insight to

ESL and EFL learners on the semantic and pragmatic functions of English questions in informal contexts (as in spoken form).

As for the organization, I will start the discussion with the basic knowledge of English interrogative sentences which talks about types of questions in English. The following parts will focus on *wh*-question words, including their functions, forms and patterns, examples, and common mistakes. I will interchange the term questions with interrogative sentences.

11.1 Closed vs. open questions

There are two types of questions in English, namely closed questions and open questions. They are different because the two types of interrogative sentences have contrasting traits, including their spoken and written forms.

11.1.1 Closed questions

Closed questions are frequently called yes/ no questions because they are interrogative sentences that may be answered by “yes” or “no”. In spoken form, the voice often rises at the end of the question (Hall and Barduhn, 2016). English closed questions may use 1) primary auxiliary verbs, i.e., *be*, *do*, and *have*; or 2) the modal auxiliaries, i.e., *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *must*, *shall*, *should*, *will*, and *would*.

Look at a short conversation between Trias and Sylvia in Figure 11.1.



Figure 11.1

Source: Adapted from Dreamstime.com (Ionescu, 2022)

The short conversation in Figure 11.1 is an example of a closed question. You see that Trias' question, "*Are you ok?*" is answered with "*No*" because the question simply asks whether Sylvia is ok (yes) or not (no). (Larsen-Freeman *et al.*, 2016) suggest that yes/no questions query an entire proposition. In other words, the pragmatic context for the question is that the speakers may not assume shared knowledge of the situation.

In terms of forms, as it is mentioned previously, a closed question may use *be* or an auxiliary verb at the beginning of the sentence. In Figure 11.1., you see that the question is begun with *be* form of *are*. Depending on the subject-verb agreement and tenses, you can also begin your closed questions with other *be* such as *is*, *was*, *were*, or auxiliary verb. See more examples in Table 11.1.

Table 11. 1

Question	Answer
• <u>Is</u> he Indonesian?	Yes, he is.
• I didn't see you in class yesterday. <u>Were</u> you sick?	Yes, I was.
• <u>Have</u> you paid the bill?	No, I haven't.
• <u>Will</u> you come to the dinner party?	Yes, I will.
• <u>Can</u> you help me with the assignments?	Yes, of course.

11.1.2 Open questions

Some characteristics distinguish open questions from closed questions. Firstly, open questions require more information because they do not only need “yes” or “no” answers. Therefore, this type of question can be answered in different ways (Azar and Hagen, 2009; Hall and Barduhn, 2016). Secondly, unlike the close questions where the speaker’s tone is usually raised at the end, the tone of the speaker’s voice usually falls at the end of open questions (Hall and Barduhn, 2016). The third characteristic of open questions is that they are formed by adding question words to the start of the question (Larsen-Freeman *et al.*, 2016). Now let us look at Figure 11.2 and then try to back and forth to Figure 11.1. Compare Sylvia’s answer in both figures.



Figure 11.2

Source: Adapted from Dreamstime.com (Ionescu, 2022).

Figure 11.2. presents an example of an open question, when the speaker is missing specific information or needs an extended reply than a yes/ no question. You see that Sylvia's answer is more elaborated because Trias' question, "*What happened?*" needs more information on Sylvia's situation. Therefore, Sylvia cannot answer with a simple "yes" or "no".

For questions that require more information, they are formed by using *wh*-question words. What *wh*-question words can you use for this type of question? (Larsen-Freeman *et al.*, 2016) suggest that the selection of *wh*-question depends on the nature of the missing piece of information. For example, when we need to ask questions to refer to people, we will choose '*who*'. Meanwhile, when we query information about place or direction, we will select '*where*' as the question word.

Before going into a detailed discussion on the *wh*-question words, the following sub-chapter will discuss the general pattern of

forming interrogative sentences to provide you with initial comprehension of how to construct English questions.

11.2 Pattern in Forming Closed Question with *Wh*-questions Words

In English, there are nine question words, namely *what*, *who*, *where*, *when*, *why*, *whose*, *whom*, *which*, and *how*. However, we will focus on the first eight and leave the latest in a different discussion. In general, to form interrogative sentences, *wh*-question words are used by following an order that you can see in Figure 11.3.



Figure 11.3

Figure 11.3 shows that question words, i.e., *what*, *who*, *where*, *when*, *why*, *whose*, *whom*, and *which* are followed by auxiliary verb(s). The auxiliary verbs refer to “a verb used in forming the tenses, moods, and voices of other verbs” (‘Dictionary’, no date). There are two types of auxiliary verbs in English: 1) primary auxiliary verbs, i.e., *be*, *do*, and *have*; and 2) the modal auxiliaries, i.e., *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *must*, *shall*, *should*, *will*, and *would*. As for the selection of auxiliary verb used, it will depend on the tenses of the interrogative sentence; and it will be discussed in each part of the question word in the following sub-chapters.

11.2.1 Open questions with “*be*”

(Hall and Barduhn, 2016) mention, “*If the main verb of the sentence is “be,” the question word goes at the beginning of the question and the form of “be” goes straight after it*” (p. 100).

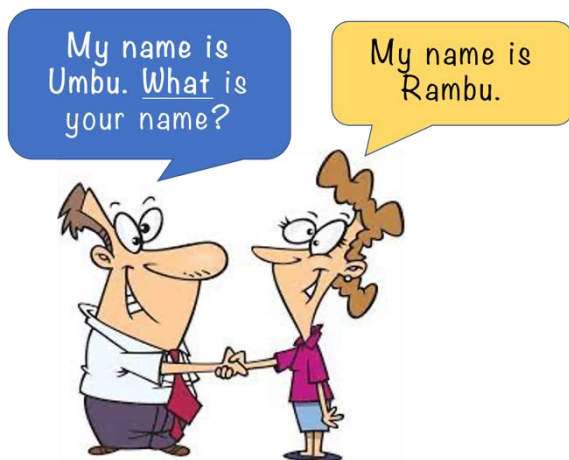


Figure 11.4

(Source: Adapted from <http://clipart-library.com/clipart/n1551890.htm> (Clipart Library, 2022b))

As you can see in Figure 11.4, the interrogative sentence uses 'be' in form of 'is' and it comes after the question word of 'what'. In conclusion, for open questions with 'be', 'be' comes after the question word.



Figure 11.5

(Source: Adapted from (Hall and Barduhn, 2016), p. 100)

See further examples of open questions with ‘be’ in the following table.

Table 11. 2

Open Questions With ‘BE’
• <u>Where are</u> you now? • <u>When is</u> the dinner party? • <u>Why is</u> he here? • <u>Why aren’t</u> you at the office?

11.2.2 Open questions with other verbs

(Hall and Barduhn, 2016) mention, “For all questions except those formed with “be,” the question word is followed by an auxiliary verb” (p. 101). Further, they suggest that when the question contains an auxiliary verb, the auxiliary verb is used in the sentence. However, when there is no auxiliary verb in interrogative sentences, a form of do is added. See the following figures.

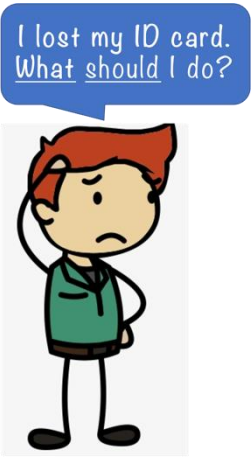


Figure 11. 7



Figure 11. 6

(Source: Figure 11.6 is adapted from https://www.pngkit.com/view/u2q8y3a9u2u2u2u2_transparent-people-puzzled-confused-person-cartoon-png/ (*Transparent People Puzzled - Confused Person Cartoon Png*, no date); Figure 13.7 is adapted from <http://clipart-library.com/clipart/8iAEgGgia.htm> (*Cartoon Pictures Of People Talking #1560829*, no date))

The question in Figure 11.6 contains an auxiliary verb of ‘*should*’ that is already in the sentence; and thus, it stays in the question. Meanwhile, there is no auxiliary verb in the interrogative sentence in Figure 11.7. In addition, because the sentence takes a past situation context, ‘*did*’ is added as a form of *do*.

11.2.3 Common Mistakes in Open Questions

It is quite often for learners, especially beginner ESL/ EFL learners, to get confused with the form of verbs used in open questions that use *wh*-question words. See again the question in Figure 11.7. If you pay attention to the question, “*Where did you go last night?*”, you know that the question refers to past time tense. It is indicated by the use of ‘*did*’. However, beginner learners of English may be puzzled by the verb ‘*go*’ because it is still in its base form instead of changing to the past tense form of ‘*went*’. See the following figure.

QUESTION WORD	AUXILIARY VERB	SUBJECT	MAIN VERB	REST OF THE SENTENCE
Where	do	you	go	last night?
	did			
	would			

Figure 11. 6

From Figure 11.8, there is a pattern that you must remember. That is, in open questions, the main verb always changes to its base form. The following figure will show you common mistakes while constructing open questions using *wh*-question words.

COMMON MISTAKES IN OPEN QUESTIONS	
The main verb in an open question with <i>wh</i> -question words always stays in its base form.	Where did you went last night? ❌
	Where did you go last night? ✅
	When does she arrives ? ❌
	When does she arrive ? ✅

Figure 11. 7

11.2.4 What

In general, *what* is used to ask questions about things, including:

1. to ask about activities



Figure 11. 8

See more examples on Table 11.3.

Table 11.3

Question	Answer
• <u>What are</u> you doing?	I'm doing my laundry.
• <u>What does</u> she do for a living?	I work in a company.

You see that from the examples, the pattern used is '*what + auxiliary verbs*' is used to ask questions about activities. It can be said that when the interrogative sentences aim to ask questions about activities; and thus, the expected answers will be information related to the other person's activity.

2. to ask about a particular variety or type of something
For this purpose, *what* is accompanied by *kind of*. the question words used are *what + kind*. See Figure 11.11.

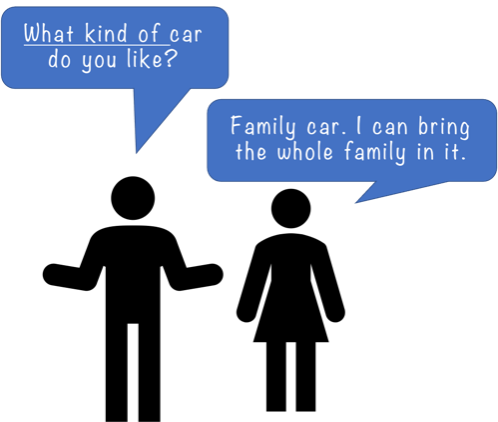


Figure 11.9

3. to ask about a general description of qualities

What is also used to ask for a general description of qualities. For this purpose, the question words are usually in form of *what + be like*. See table 11.4. for examples.

Table 11. 4

Question	Answer
• <u>What is</u> your country <u>like</u>? • <u>What is</u> Rajesh <u>like</u>?	Beautiful. It is famous for its multicultural people. He's friendly.

4. to ask about the physical description

Used to ask for a physical description of something, the question words take the form of *what + look like*. See table 11.5. for examples.

Table 11. 5

Question	Answer
• <u>What does</u> your house <u>look like</u>? • <u>What does</u> Rajesh <u>look like</u>?	It's a small house with 3 bedrooms and 2 bathrooms. He's tall and he has dark curly hair.

5. to accompany a noun

Compare these two interrogative sentences:

- What are you reading?
- What book are you reading?

In the first sentence, *what* acts as the subject of the question. Meanwhile, in the second sentence, *what* acts as the company

for a noun (*book*). In other words, '*what*' is used in interrogative sentences to ask about particular things.

11.2.5 Who

As a question word, *who* is used to ask about people and it functions as a pronoun representing the subject (Berry, 2015; Hall and Barduhn, 2016). See the examples in the following figures.



Figure 11. 11



Figure 11. 10

A Special Note

In Figure 11.12, the question refers to a person that the man brings with him that day. Therefore, the question, "*Who's coming with you today?*" does not appear to have 'problems' because it refers to one person. Now see Figure 11.13. You may find the question in Figure 11.13 odd. In the picture you see that the lady asks a question to four children. However, instead of using a plural verb, the interrogative sentence uses a singular verb of *wants*. Is the interrogative sentence in Figure 11.13 incorrect? Here is a special note for using *who* in questions. When used in interrogative sentences, *who* is usually followed by a singular verb even if the speaker is asking about more than one person (Azar and Hagen, 2009).

11.2.6 Where

Where is used to ask about places or directions. This question form usually follows the generic pattern of interrogative sentences, i.e., '*question word + auxiliary verb*'. The type of auxiliary verb used depends on the tenses.



Figure 11. 12

(Source: Adapted from https://favpng.com/png_view/the-man-with-the-map-backpacking-drawing-travel-illustration-png/68DvYWRM (Davidskelsall, 2022))

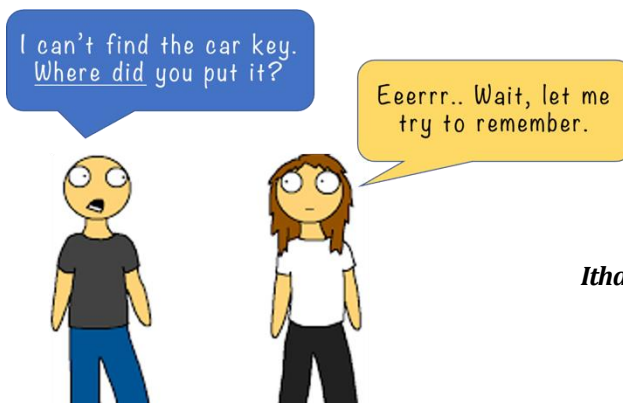


Figure 11. 13

(Source: Adapted from <http://clipart-library.com/clipart/8iAEgGgia.htm> (*Cartoon Pictures Of People Talking #1560829, no date*))

As you see from Figure 11.14 and Figure 11.15., the auxiliary verbs used in the interrogative sentences are different. The question in Figure 11.14 uses 'is' because the conversation takes place in the context of the present time. Meanwhile in Figure 11.15., the interrogative sentence uses an auxiliary verb of 'did' because the speaker refers to the past context.

11.2.7 When

When is used to ask questions about time. Like other *wh*-question words, *when* also follows the generic pattern of interrogative sentences, i.e., '*question word + auxiliary verb*', in which, the type of auxiliary verb used depends on the tenses. The typical answer for interrogative sentences with *when* is related to a specific time.

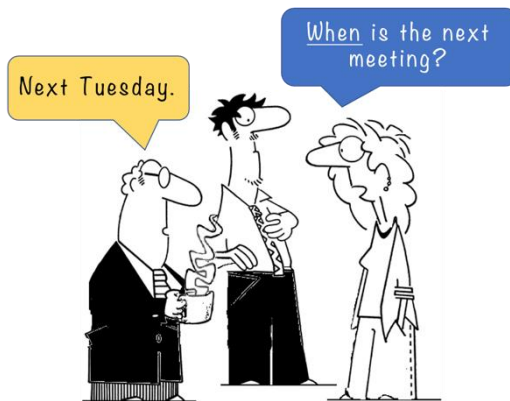


Figure 11. 14

(Source: Adapted from <http://clipart-library.com/clipart/8cAErkELi.htm> (Clipart Library, 2022a))

11.2.8 Why

Because ‘*why*’ is a question word used to ask for reasons, the typical answer for this type of interrogative sentence is the cause of something being asked. Figure 11.17 shows an example of the use of *why* to ask for the cause of somebody’s being late.



Figure 11. 15

Although in general 'why' is known as a question word used to ask for reasons or causes of something, this *wh*-question word may also serve another purpose in a conversation. Further use of this function will be described in the sub-chapter 11.5 *Wh*-question Words in Negative Sentences.

11.2.9 Whose

Whose is used to ask who is the owner of something. In other words, *whose* is used to ask questions about who is involved in possession or some other relationship (Azar and Hagen, 2009; Berry, 2015; Hall and Barduhn, 2016).



Figure 11. 16

(Source: Adapted from
<https://www.dreamstime.com/stock-illustration-boy-holding-puppy-bandaged-paw-illustration-carrying-dog-image51059147> (Wetnose1, 2022) and
<https://www.dreamstime.com/little-boy-throws-up-his-hands-as-gesture-i-don-t-know-little-boy-throws-up-his-hands-as-gesture-i-don-t-know-cartoon-image192263473> (Nizova, 2022))

11.2.10 Whom

'Whom' is a formal version of 'who'. Because of its sense of formality, 'whom' it is not frequently used and avoided (Azar and Hagen, 2009; Berry, 2015; Hall and Barduhn, 2016). As the formal version of 'who', the question that uses 'whom' also refers to people. However, a very special note on 'whom' as a *wh*-question word is that it denotes the object of the sentence. Further explanation of the use of 'whom' as the object of the sentence will be discussed in sub-chapter 13.4 Subject and Object Question.

11.2.11 Which

'Which' is used to ask someone to specify between two or more named things. You may see some sentences uses 'which' interchangeably with 'what'. (Azar and Hagen, 2009) suggest that 'which' is used instead of 'what' if a question concerns choosing from a definite, known quantity of group. Further explanation on 'which' and 'what' will be discussed in sub-chapter 13.3 What and Which.

11.3 What and Which

It was mentioned in the previous sub-chapter that "*which is used instead of what when a question concerns choosing from a definite, known quantity or group*" (Azar and Hagen, 2009, p. 444). See the following short conversation in Figure 11.19.



Figure 11. 17

(Source: Adapted from
<https://1specialplace.com/2018/06/07/autism-series-xiii-the-power-of-making-choices/>, (Chandhok, 2018))

From Figure 11.19, you see that the mother uses ‘*which*’ in her question “*Which* toy do you want?”. The question shows that she is offering two toys as options to choose from. In other words, the question concerns choosing from two choices. Now let us see Figure 11.20 to see whether there are differences in the use of ‘*which*’ and ‘*what*’.



Figure 11. 18

(Source: Adapted from <https://www.alamy.com/single-mother-with-children-cartoon-image260002597.html> (Jemastock, 2022))

Unlike the situation in Figure 11.19, the question in Figure 11.20 is more general. The question, "*What toy do you want?*", probably occurs on the way to the toy store. Although there may be two or more options of toys at the store, both mother and the daughter do not have exact choices of what type of toy is available. In other words, the mother in Figure 11.20 does not present her daughter with options that are ready to be chosen.

Comparing the interrogative sentences from Figure 11.19 and Figure 11.20, we can conclude that '*what*' is used when the question is general, meanwhile, '*which*' is used when there are two or more possibilities in the question (Hall and Barduhn, 2016).

11.4 Subject and Object Questions

There are alternatives to form interrogative sentences in English depending on whether the question aims to ask who or what did an action or who or what received an action. For that reason, there are two types of questions: 1) subject questions; and 2) object questions, where two types are used to ask about different things (Hall and Barduhn, 2016).

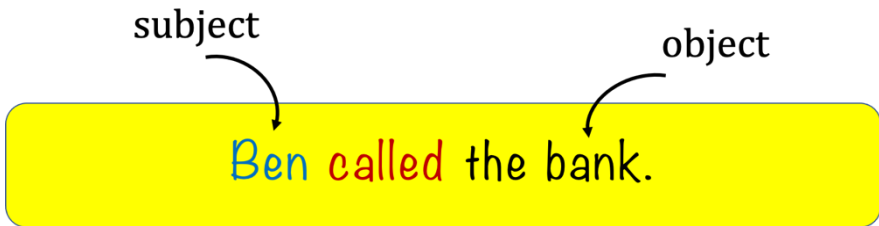


Figure 11. 19

(Source: Modified from (Hall and Barduhn, 2016), p. 112)

Using the affirmative sentence in Figure 11.21, let's try to make interrogative sentences using *wh*-question words. See the questions in the following figures.



Figure 11. 20

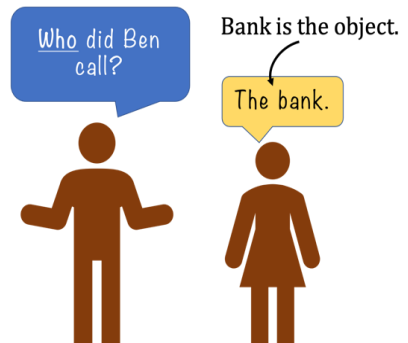


Figure 11. 21

In Figure 11.23, the answer of “*Ben*” to the question “*who*” acts as the subject of the sentence. In other words, *who* is the subject of the question. Meanwhile, in Figure 13.23, the question of “*who*” is answered with “*bank*”, which acts as the object of the sentence. Therefore, *who* in Figure 11.23 is the object that receives action from Ben (as a subject).

From the explanation, you see that ‘*who*’ can act as both a subject and an object of interrogative sentences. Other *wh*-question words that are frequently used in the subject and object questions include *who*, *what*, *who*, and *whom*. The following discussion will invite you to have more comprehension of the subject and object questions using *what*, *who*, and *whom*.

11.4.1 Subject Questions

(Hall and Barduhn, 2016) describe that subject questions ask who did an action. The question word becomes the subject of the main verb; and therefore, subject questions do not use the auxiliary verb “*do*.” Similarly, (Azar and Hagen, 2009) suggest, “*If the question word is the subject, usual question-word order is not used; does, do, and did are not used. The verb is in the same form in a question as it is in a statement*” (p. 460).

1. *What* as the subject of a question

As the subject of a question, *what* is used to ask questions about things that become the main discussion of the sentence. See the following figure.

Question doesn't use "does"



Figure 11. 22

(Source: Adapted from

<https://id.pinterest.com/pin/832743787338374681/>)

To show you the function of *what* as a subject of the interrogative sentence, let's break down the question.

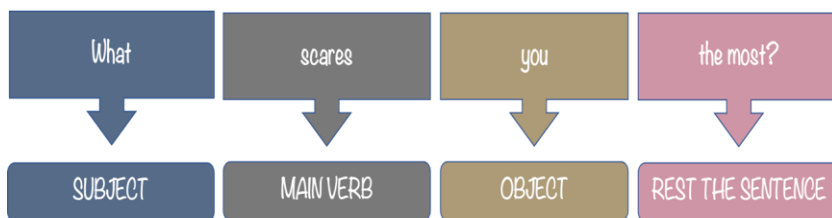


Figure 11. 23

The interrogative question in Figure 11.24 shows that *what* acts as the subject or thing that does the 'action' of the main verb. You can also recognize the role of *what* as a subject by looking at the answer. If you write the girl's answer in a complete sentence, you may get, "*Darkness scares me the most.*" From this answer, it is clear that *what* acts as the subject of the interrogative sentence.

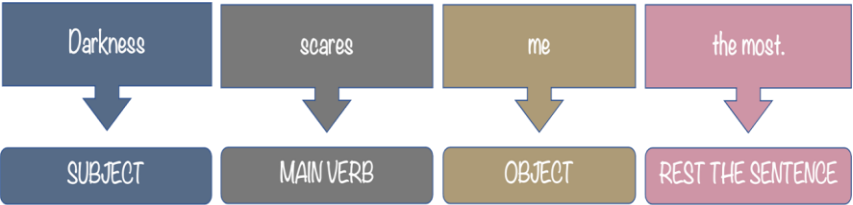


Figure 11. 24

See more examples of *what* as the subject of interrogative sentences in Table 11.6.

Table 11. 6

	Question			Answer
•	<u>What</u> subject	<u>bothers</u> main verb	<u>him?</u> object	Her attitudes.
•	<u>What</u> subject	<u>hit</u> main verb	<u>the pole?</u> object	A truck.

2. *Who* as the subject of a question

Besides *what*, *who* is the most common pronoun used in subject questions (Berry, 2015; Hall and Barduhn, 2016).

Question doesn't use "did"



Figure 11. 25

(Source: Adapted from
https://www.pngkit.com/view/u2q8y3a9u2u2u2u2_transparent-people-puzzled-confused-person-cartoon-png/ and
<https://www.istockphoto.com/id/search/2/image?mediatype=illustration&phrase=frustrated+man>)

This means when you use *who* as the subject, your pattern of '*question word + auxiliary verbs*' is not used. From Figure 11.27, *who* is not accompanied by any auxiliary verbs. From the short conversation in Figure 11.27, the boy's answer "... I did (broke the window)" confirms that *who* acts as the main discussion of the interrogative sentence, where '*I*' is the subject of the question.

See more examples of *who* as the subject of interrogative sentences in Table 11.7.

Table 11. 7

	Question			Answer
•	<u>Who</u>	<u>designed</u>	<u>this building?</u>	My brother.
	subject	main verb	object	
•	<u>Who</u>	<u>planned</u>	<u>the project?</u>	My team.
	subject	main verb	object	

11.4.2 Object Questions

Object questions are used to ask who received an action, not who did the action. They are called object questions because the question word becomes the object of the main verb. Unlike subject questions, object questions usually use the auxiliary verb 'do' (Hall and Barduhn, 2016). See the following figures.

1. *What* as the object of a question

As the object of a question, *what* is used to ask questions about things that receive actions from the subject. See the following figure.

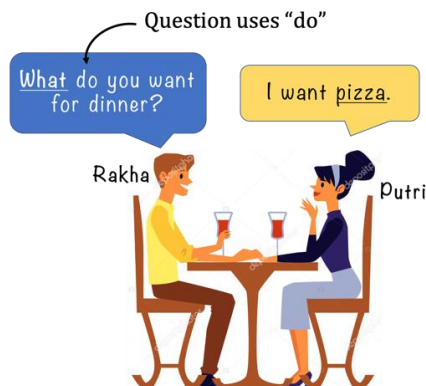


Figure 11. 26

(Source: Adapted from <https://depositphotos.com/332857648/stock-illustration-cartoon-couple-talking-and-drinking.html> (Sabelskaya, 2022))

Based on the conversation in Figure 11.28, the answer “*I want pizza*” can be broken down into:

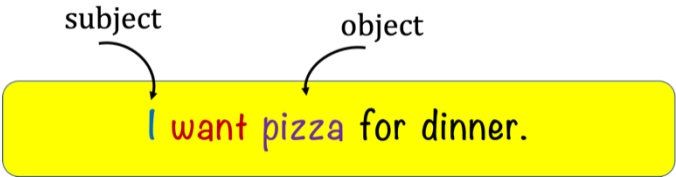


Figure 11. 27

This means, “*pizza*” becomes the object that received an action on “*want*”. In other words, the question of ‘*what*’ acts as the object of the question because it aims to ask “*pizza*” as the object that received action from Putri as the subject of the sentence. See more examples of *what* as the object of interrogative sentences in Table 11.8.

Table 11. 8

Question					Answer
• <u>What</u>	<u>did</u>	<u>you</u>	<u>eat</u>	for breakfast today?	I had omelet.
object	auxiliary	subject	main verb	rest of the sentence	
• <u>What</u>	<u>do</u>	<u>you</u>	<u>need</u>	for your project?	I need a great team.
object	auxiliary	subject	main verb	rest of the sentence	

2. *Who* as the object of a question



Figure 11.

30

If 'who' is used as the object in the question, you see from Figure 13.30, the interrogative sentence uses the pattern of '*question word + auxiliary verbs*'. From the girl's answer "I gave it Sinyo", Sinyo acts as the object of the sentence; and it refers to the question 'who'.

3. *Whom* as the object of a question

The next *wh*-question word that usually acts as the object of a question is '*whom*'. As was mentioned in subchapter 11.4.4., '*whom*' is a formal version of "*who*," that can only be used as an object of a question. (Berry, 2015) suggests that '*whom*' acts fully as the objective form of '*who*'. Because of its formal sense, the form '*who*' is usually more preferred. '

Whom' is used as the object of a verb or preposition (Azar and Hagen, 2009; Berry, 2015). Let us discuss how '*who*' in interrogative sentences. See the following figures.



Figure 11. 31

As it was said that '*whom*' is often interchanged with '*who*', compare the conversation in Figure 11.31 and Figure 11.32. From the two figures, you see that '*who*' and '*whom*' serve a similar purpose as the object of the interrogative sentence. However, here's a special note for you.

Special Note

'*Whom*', not '*who*', is used if preceded by a preposition (Azar and Hagen, 2009, p. 443). See the following figure.



Figure 11. 32

In other words, yes, you can interchange ‘*who*’ and ‘*whom*’, with a condition that you can prefer ‘*whom*’ if you are in a formal context situation. However, when there is a preposition used in the interrogative sentence, you can only use ‘*whom*’ instead of ‘*who*’.

11.4.3 Common Mistakes in Subject and Object Questions

Common errors that learners make in subject and object questions are related to the use of auxiliary verbs and word order. Therefore, here’s the overview of subject of object questions in an image.

COMMON MISTAKES IN SUBJECT AND OBJECT QUESTIONS	
Object questions must use a form of the auxiliary ‘<i>do</i>’. ‘<i>Did</i>’ is the auxiliary verb in this object question What did you see? ✓ What saw you? ✗ Do not use inversion to form object questions.	Subject questions do not use an auxiliary verb and the word order stays the same as in a normal statement. The word order stays the same as a normal statement. Who called the bank? ✓ Who did call the bank? ✗ ‘<i>Do</i>’ is only used as an auxiliary verb when forming object questions.

(Source: Adopted from (Hall and Barduhn, 2016), p. 103).

11.5 Negative *Wh*-Questions

The use of negation in interrogative sentences could be another challenge for ESL and EFL teachers and learners because negative words in questions are not merely related to structural form. Negatives in *wh*-questions are more semantic rather than structural because the use of negative questions is influenced by the speaker’s expectation. They can also be used for a negative assertion (Larsen-Freeman *et al.*, 2016).



Figure 11.33

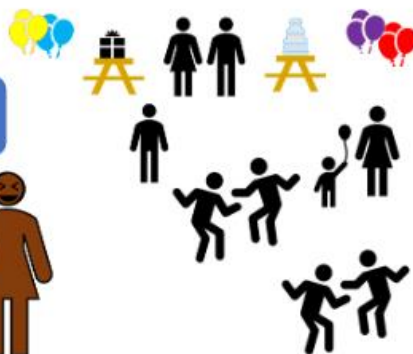


Figure 11.34

Let's say that Figure 11.34 is a situation at a party. Knowing that his friend is a fun and easygoing person, his question of "*Well, who don't you talk to?*" may not necessarily aim to ask whether there are people that she does not talk to. Instead, the question may simply mean a comment that she is a friendly person; and that she will most likely talk to everybody at the party. See more examples of negative *wh*-questions in Figure 11.34.

- *Where didn't you go?* (You seemed to go anywhere).
- *What didn't happen?* (Everything seemed to happen).
- *What didn't John say?* (implying that he talked a great deal or that he withheld information).

(Source: examples of the sentences are taken from (Larsen-Freeman *et al.*, 2016, p. 256)).

In conclusion, negative *wh*-questions may serve a different purpose than affirmative questions. Depending on the speaker's

expectation, a negative *wh*-question could have a different meaning than those used in the affirmatives.

Special Note

(Larsen-Freeman *et al.*, 2016) mention that in social use, '*why*' can also be used to make suggestions when it is used with *not*. See the following figure for an example of the use of '*why + not*' to make suggestions.



Figure 11. 36

See further examples of the use of *why + not* at the following figure.



Figure 11. 37

(Source: Adapted from

<https://www.dreamstime.com/people-supporting-each-other-words-standing-side-vector-illustrations-set-encouragement-concept-people-supporting-each-image165095783>

(Naumov,

2022))

11.6 Elliptical Questions

We have talked about the use of *wh*-question words in interrogative sentences, including the patterns of questions building. However, it is worth knowing that as in other languages, English has not only formal (as in written) form, but also informal (as in spoken) form. In informal conversation, the pattern to build interrogative questions may become confusing, especially for ESL and EFL learners. Therefore, this subchapter also discusses a few details that might be useful both for teachers and students during the discussion on *wh*-question topics.

(Larsen-Freeman *et al.*, 2016) mention, “*In very formal conversation, it is also possible to encounter wh-question fragments that focus on the predicate and have deleted auxiliary ...*” (p. 257). Compare the two following sentences:

Sentence 1 : Who are you talking to?

Sentence 2 : Who you talking to?

The first sentence shows the full form of interrogative sentence following the pattern of ‘*wh-question word*’ + *auxiliary verb*. However, the second sentence omits the auxiliary verb. Under informal circumstances, it is common to find deleted auxiliaries because they are considered redundant function words (Larsen-Freeman *et al.*, 2016).

11.7 Answers in *Wh*-Questions

Similar to elliptical questions, answers to *wh*-questions may also experience reductions. If you pay attention to some examples of conversation from both figures and tables in this chapter, you may realize that the answer to *wh*-question is not necessarily given in a full clause. Compare the following conversations.

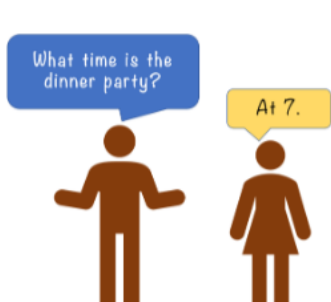


Figure 11.38



Figure 11.39

Figure 11.38 shows a phrasal answer, where the lady provides a short answer containing the exact information that the questioner is seeking; meanwhile, Figure 13.39 shows a full clausal answer. For EFL learners, they may not find that the answers to the questions shown in Figure 13.38 and Figure 13.39 are odd because both answers provide the required information for the question. However, there is one note worth knowing for answering *wh*-questions is that a phrasal answer is more acceptable than a full clausal answer because a full clausal answer is perceived as problematic (Fox and Thompson, 2010) (Larsen-Freeman *et al.*, 2016).

11.8 Conclusions and Implications

This chapter is expected to shed a light on EFL teachers and learners. Through the discussion, we may conclude that all topics in English Language Teaching (ELT), including *wh*-questions, are not only used in written but also in spoken form. Therefore, some implications may be followed. First, ELT should not be treated as a

rigid process that heavily focuses on forms. Second, yes, structural forms of the English language are essential in English Language Teaching (ELT), but there should also be a transfer of knowledge related to pragmatic functions of the language. Finally, ELT classrooms could use more practice on the language patterns and rules in English grammar in accordance with their contexts; thus, learners could use the appropriate form to deliver their intention and minimize the risk of misinterpretation.

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