



FUTURE SCIENCE

THE RULES OF INTERMEDIATE ENGLISH GRAMMAR

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INTERMEDIATE ENGLISH GRAMMAR**

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PREFACE

I would like to thank to the authors for the idea and valuable knowledge to complete this book that entitled “The Rules of Intermediate English Grammar”.

This book is focused on the basic grammar: (1) Introduction to intermediate english grammar, (2) Part of speech, (3) Verb and tensed, (4) Comparison degree, (5) Spelling and capitalization, (6) Phrases, (7) Clauses, (8) Gerund, (9) Modals, (10) Comparison, (11) Sentences, (12) Questions, (13) English tenses, (14) Active and passive voice, (15) Reported speech, (16) Conditional sentence in english, (17) English derrivational, (18) Synonym and antonyms, (19) Idioms, (20) Transitional words and phrases. This book is a guidance for the learners to learn english basic grammar from the beginners up to the advance level.

I also thank to a deepest appreciation to the publisher for giving support and encouragement in layouting, designing, editing and publishing the book. Again, I really appreciate for all the authors to share, write, and give the idea for this book.

Thank you all for your valuable contribution to this book.

Pematang Siantar, April 2025

Editor

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO

INTERMEDIATE ENGLISH GRAMMAR

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1.1. INTRODUCTION

DEFINITION AND SCOPE

Grammar, as defined by linguists, is the system and structure of a language that governs how words are formed, arranged, and interpreted within sentences. It includes the study of syntax (sentence structure), morphology (word formation), and semantics (meaning)(Duignan, 2024). At the intermediate level, grammar bridges foundational concepts with more advanced usage, enabling learners to construct complex sentences and express nuanced ideas. This stage involves mastering verb tenses, conditional sentences, modal verbs, and relative clauses, which are essential for effective communication in both formal and informal contexts.

Intermediate grammar focuses on moving beyond basic sentence structures like simple sentences to more complex forms such as compound and complex sentences. For instance, learners progress from "*I went to the store*" (simple sentence) to "*I went to the store because I needed groceries*" (complex sentence). This transition equips learners with the tools to convey relationships between ideas more effectively. Grammar provides a framework for organizing language systematically, allowing learners to manipulate words and structures to achieve precise communication(Hadfield & Thornbury, 2008; Jones & Graham, 2024). The scope of intermediate grammar also

includes understanding grammatical nuances such as phrasal verbs (give up, look after), articles (a/an/the), and prepositions (in, on, at). These elements are crucial for achieving fluency and accuracy in English. By mastering these aspects, learners can engage more confidently in academic, professional, and social interactions(Rombepajung et al., 2023).

IMPORTANCE OF GRAMMAR PROFICIENCY

Grammar proficiency plays a pivotal role in improving communication skills for both spoken and written English. It provides the foundation for constructing clear and coherent messages, ensuring that ideas are conveyed accurately. Grammar enhances comprehension by helping learners recognize sentence patterns, verb tenses, and word order, which are critical for understanding written and spoken language(Subramaniam, 2023). In academic contexts, proper grammar ensures clarity and professionalism. Misplaced commas or subject-verb agreement errors can obscure meaning and reduce the credibility of a written work(Lanny Usborne, 2024). For instance, consider the sentence: "*The researchers conducted the experiment which took one hour.*" Without proper punctuation, it is unclear whether the experiment or its duration is being emphasized. Correct usage—"The researchers conducted the experiment, which took one hour"—eliminates ambiguity(Kelly, 2024).

In professional settings, grammar proficiency is equally important. Emails, reports, and presentations require precision to avoid miscommunication. For example, using the wrong verb tense in a business report could misrepresent data or actions taken. In everyday contexts, such as casual conversations or social media interactions, grammar enables individuals to express themselves clearly while maintaining credibility.

Moreover, grammar proficiency fosters cultural sensitivity by reflecting the norms and practices of a language community. Understanding grammatical rules helps learners navigate cultural differences effectively and communicate in ways that demonstrate respect for the target culture(Lavanya Subramaniam, 2023). This aspect is particularly relevant in globalized environments where English serves as a lingua franca.

TARGET AUDIENCE

The target audience for intermediate English grammar consists of learners who have acquired basic grammar knowledge but aim to enhance their fluency and accuracy. These individuals typically understand fundamental concepts like subject-verb agreement and simple verb tenses but struggle with more complex structures such as conditionals or passive voice(Rombepajung et al., 2023). Intermediate learners often include students preparing for academic exams like IELTS or TOEFL, professionals seeking to improve workplace communication, or individuals aiming to achieve greater confidence in conversational English. Intermediate grammar serves as an "*advance organizer*," enabling learners to build upon their existing knowledge base while preparing for advanced linguistic challenges(Jones & Graham, 2024).

This group benefits from targeted instruction that focuses on practical applications of grammar in real-life scenarios. For instance: (a) **Academic Learners:** Need grammar skills for writing essays or research papers. (b) **Professionals:** Require accurate grammar for drafting emails or delivering presentations. (c) **General Learners:** Seek fluency for travel or social interactions.

By addressing these needs through structured lessons and practice activities, intermediate grammar instruction helps

learners transition smoothly from foundational knowledge to advanced proficiency.

1.2. KEY FEATURES OF INTERMEDIATE ENGLISH GRAMMAR

COMPLEX SENTENCE STRUCTURES

1. **Moving Beyond Simple Sentences.** At the intermediate level, learners transition from using basic sentence structures to more complex ones, such as compound, complex, and compound-complex sentences. A compound sentence consists of two or more independent clauses joined by coordinating conjunctions like *and*, *but*, or *so* (e.g., "*She studied hard, and she passed the exam*"). This allows writers to connect related ideas effectively (Ashley, 2024; Smith, 2024).
2. **Understanding Complex Sentences.** A complex sentence contains one independent clause and at least one dependent clause connected by subordinating conjunctions such as *because*, *although*, or *when* (e.g., "*Although it was raining, we decided to go for a walk*"). These structures allow for nuanced expression, showing relationships such as cause-effect, contrast, or time (Edmonton, 2024; Smith, 2024). For instance, "*When the sun finally set, the temperature dropped rapidly*" uses a dependent clause to indicate time.
3. **Compound-Complex Sentences.** A compound-complex sentence combines multiple independent clauses with at least one dependent clause (e.g., "*She completed her homework, but she didn't submit it because she forgot*"). This structure is useful for expressing intricate relationships between ideas and is a hallmark of advanced writing (Smith, 2024).

4. **Importance of Sentence Variety** . Using varied sentence structures enhances clarity and engagement in writing. Without variety, writing can become monotonous and fail to capture the reader's attention. For example, alternating between simple sentences for emphasis and complex sentences for depth ensures a dynamic flow of ideas (Bryant, 2024; Risko, 2024). Sentence variety also helps emphasize key points and convey tone effectively.

EXPANDED VOCABULARY USAGE

1. **Nuanced Word Choices.** Intermediate grammar emphasizes the importance of precise vocabulary. For example, choosing unique instead of different conveys a stronger sense of originality(Anselmus, 2024). Effective word choice avoids redundancy and ensures that sentences are clear and impactful.
2. **Idiomatic Expressions.** Idiomatic expressions are introduced at this level to enhance fluency in conversational English. Phrases like *kill two birds with one stone* or *a piece of cake* enrich communication but require careful contextual use to avoid confusion(Risko, 2024). For instance, "*Learning grammar is not a piece of cake*" uses an idiom to convey difficulty humorously.
3. **Avoiding Awkward Word Choices.** Awkward phrasing can detract from clarity. For example, replacing "*I came to the realization that*" with "*I realized that*" simplifies the sentence while retaining meaning(Anselmus, 2024). Writers should aim for concise yet precise language.
4. **Interplay Between Vocabulary and Grammar Rules.** At this stage, learners must understand how word choice interacts with grammar rules. For instance, certain verbs require specific prepositions (interested in, good at), while

others change meaning based on context (look after vs. look into) (Anselmus, 2024; Peterson, 2024).

5. **Using Contextually Appropriate Words.** Intermediate learners are encouraged to avoid jargon or overly complex words unless necessary. For example, replacing "*comprehend*" with "*understand*" ensures accessibility without sacrificing meaning (Anselmus, 2024). This principle is especially important in academic or professional writing.

FOCUS ON ACCURACY

1. **Subject-Verb Agreement.** Ensuring subject-verb agreement remains critical at the intermediate level. Errors such as "*The data was analyzed*" instead of "*The data were analyzed*" can undermine credibility in academic or formal contexts (Lanny Usborne, 2024; Peterson, 2024). Writers must match singular/plural subjects with their corresponding verbs.
2. **Tense Consistency.** Maintaining consistent verb tenses within a sentence or paragraph is essential for coherence. For example: "*She completed her research yesterday and submits her findings today*" should be revised to maintain consistency: "*She completed her research yesterday and submitted her findings today*" (Peterson, 2024).
3. **Reducing Common Errors.** Frequent grammar mistakes include misuse of articles (a/an/the), prepositions (on/in/at), and pronouns (he/she/they). Addressing these errors requires targeted practice and feedback (Bryant, 2024; Peterson, 2024).
4. **Active vs. Passive Voice.** While passive voice is sometimes necessary (e.g., in scientific writing: "*The experiment was conducted*"), overuse can make writing unclear or impersonal. Active voice (e.g., "*We conducted the*

experiment") is generally preferred for its directness(Lanny Usborne, 2024).

5. **Correct Use of Modifiers.** Misplaced modifiers can lead to ambiguity or unintended meanings (e.g., "*She only studies at night*" vs. "*She studies only at night*"). Proper placement ensures clarity(Peterson, 2024).
6. **Avoiding Run-On Sentences .** Run-on sentences occur when independent clauses are joined without proper punctuation or conjunctions (e.g., "*The experiment was successful it provided valuable insights*"). Correcting this requires adding punctuation or conjunctions: "*The experiment was successful, and it provided valuable insights*"(Peterson, 2024).
7. **Comma Splices.** A comma splice joins two independent clauses with just a comma (e.g., "*He was tired, he went to bed*"). This error can be corrected by using a period, semicolon, or conjunction: "*He was tired; he went to bed*"(Peterson, 2024).
8. **Precision in Grammar Usage.** Intermediate learners must focus on expressing ideas precisely while avoiding ambiguity or redundancy. For example: replacing "*Due to the fact that*" with "*Because*" simplifies sentences without altering meaning (Anselmus, 2024; Lanny Usborne, 2024).
9. **Balancing Simplicity and Complexity.** While intermediate grammar introduces more complex structures, simplicity should not be overlooked when appropriate for clarity (e.g., using simple sentences for emphasis) (Bryant, 2024; Risko, 2024).
10. **Peer Review and Feedback.** Engaging in peer review helps identify grammatical errors that might go unnoticed during self-editing. Collaborative learning fosters improvement through constructive feedback(Risko, 2024).

11. **Continuous Practice Through Writing Exercises** Regular practice is crucial for mastering intermediate grammar concepts like complex sentences and nuanced vocabulary usage. Exercises such as rewriting paragraphs with varied sentence structures enhance both accuracy and fluency (Ashley, 2024; Risko, 2024).

1.3. COMMON CHALLENGES AT THE INTERMEDIATE LEVEL

Mastering tense consistency, prepositions and collocations, and pronoun reference are essential steps for intermediate learners aiming to improve their English grammar proficiency. By understanding these common challenges and applying strategies for practice and self-correction, learners can enhance both their written and spoken communication skills.

TENSE CONSISTENCY

Tense consistency is one of the most critical aspects of intermediate grammar, as it ensures clarity and coherence in writing and speaking. Maintaining the same verb tense throughout a sentence or paragraph helps the reader or listener understand the timeline of events. For instance, in the sentence "*She runs to the store and then bought milk,*" the shift from present (*runs*) to past (*bought*) creates confusion. A consistent version would read: "*She ran to the store and then bought milk*" (Powers, 2024; Sterling, 2024b).

Unnecessary shifts in tense often occur when writers become absorbed in their narrative and unintentionally change time frames. For example, "*Yesterday, we walked to school but later ride the bus home*" disrupts the flow due to inconsistent tenses. Correcting this to "*Yesterday, we walked to school but later rode the bus home*" maintains logical progression (Powers, 2024). Writers should establish a primary tense for their

discourse and only shift tenses deliberately when indicating a change in time frame. In academic or formal writing, tense consistency is particularly important when describing research findings or historical events. For example, past tense is typically used to report completed actions ("*The study found that...*"), while present tense is used to discuss general truths or ongoing relevance ("*This finding suggests that...*") (Sterling, 2024b). Practicing with exercises such as rewriting inconsistent sentences can help learners internalize this rule.

PREPOSITIONS AND COLLOCATIONS

Prepositions are another challenging area for intermediate learners due to their nuanced meanings and usage. Prepositions like *in*, *on*, and *at* often seem interchangeable but have specific rules depending on context. For example, "*He is interested in learning more*" is correct, while "*He is interested for learning more*" is incorrect (Mykhalevych, 2024). Misusing prepositions can lead to awkward or unclear sentences.

Collocations—natural word combinations—pose an additional challenge. Native speakers instinctively use collocations like "*take a break*" or "*make progress*," but non-native learners may struggle with unnatural combinations such as "*do a break*" or "*make a homework*." Learning collocations helps students sound more fluent and natural in their speech and writing (Connors, 2024a). For instance, verbs like *take*, *make*, and *do* are commonly paired with specific nouns (e.g., "*take notes*," "*make an effort*," "*do your best*") (Connors, 2024b).

To master prepositions and collocations, learners should practice through reading and listening activities that expose them to authentic language use. Writing down new collocations in context (e.g., "*She made an effort to improve her grammar*") can also reinforce correct usage (Connors, 2024a, 2024b).

Additionally, consulting dictionaries of collocations or grammar resources can provide clarity on proper pairings.

PRONOUN REFERENCE ERRORS

Pronoun reference errors occur when a pronoun does not clearly or correctly refer to its antecedent—the noun it replaces. This can confuse readers and disrupt the flow of writing. For instance, in the sentence "*The car hit the pole, but it was not damaged,*" it is unclear whether *it* refers to the car or the pole. Rewriting this as "*The car hit the pole, but the car was not damaged*" resolves ambiguity (Benner, 2020).

Another common issue arises with vague pronouns that lack a clear antecedent altogether. For example: "*They say it's going to rain.*" The pronoun *they* has no specific antecedent, leaving readers unsure who is being referred to. Revising this sentence to include a clear subject—such as "*The weather forecasters say it's going to rain*"—eliminates confusion (Sterling, 2024a). Pronoun-antecedent agreement is also crucial for grammatical accuracy. A pronoun must match its antecedent in number (singular/plural), gender, and person. For example:

Correct : "*Each student must bring his or her pencil.*"

Incorrect : "*Each student must bring their pencil*" (though modern usage increasingly accepts singular *they* for inclusivity) (Caulfield, 2023; Sterling, 2024a).

Errors often occur with collective nouns (e.g., jury, team). Depending on whether the group acts as a single unit or individuals, writers must choose singular or plural pronouns appropriately:

Singular : "*The jury announced its verdict.*"

Plural : "*The jury gave their opinions*" (Caulfield, 2023; Sterling, 2024a).

To avoid pronoun reference errors, writers should ensure that each pronoun has a clear antecedent placed close within the sentence. Rephrasing sentences for clarity can also help eliminate ambiguity.

1.4. STRATEGIES FOR MASTERING THESE CHALLENGES

1. **Practice Exercises.** Engaging in targeted grammar exercises—such as correcting inconsistent tenses or filling in blanks with appropriate prepositions—can help learners internalize rules over time.
2. **Reading Authentic Texts.** Reading books, articles, or essays exposes learners to correct grammar usage in context, particularly with prepositions, collocations, and pronouns.
3. **Using Grammar Tools.** Digital tools like Grammarly can highlight issues such as tense shifts or unclear pronoun references, providing immediate feedback for improvement.
4. **Peer Review.** Having peers review written work can help identify errors that might go unnoticed by the writer.
5. **Consulting Reference Materials.** Dictionaries of collocations, grammar handbooks, and style guides are invaluable resources for resolving doubts about prepositions and other grammatical elements.

1.5. PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS OF INTERMEDIATE GRAMMAR ACADEMIC WRITING CONTEXTS

1. **Using Intermediate Grammar in Essays.** Essays are a cornerstone of academic writing, requiring clarity, coherence, and grammatical precision. Intermediate grammar structures, such as complex and compound-complex sentences, play a pivotal role in presenting

nuanced arguments. For example, a sentence like "*While the study focused on urban areas, its findings can also be applied to rural contexts*" uses a subordinating conjunction (*while*) to establish a relationship between two ideas. Proper grammar ensures that the essay flows logically and persuasively, making it easier for readers to follow the writer's argument(Handy, 2024).

2. **Grammar in Reports.** Reports demand a formal tone and structured presentation of information. Passive voice is often used in reports to maintain objectivity (e.g., "*The data was analyzed using statistical software*"). While overusing passive constructions can make writing cumbersome, they are effective for emphasizing actions or results rather than the actor. Additionally, correct use of modal verbs like *must*, *should*, and *might* helps convey recommendations or uncertainties(Johansson, 2024).
3. **Presentations and Grammar .** Grammar is equally important in oral academic presentations, where intermediate-level structures enhance professionalism. Using conditional sentences (e.g., "*If we increase sample size, the results might become more reliable*") allows presenters to discuss hypothetical scenarios effectively. Moreover, ensuring subject-verb agreement and tense consistency helps maintain credibility during spoken delivery (Handy, 2024).

PROFESSIONAL COMMUNICATION CONTEXTS

1. **E-mails in Professional Settings.** Professional emails require concise yet grammatically accurate language to convey messages effectively. For instance, using modal verbs like *could* or *would* adds politeness (e.g., "*Could you please provide feedback by Friday?*"). Maintaining proper sentence structure ensures clarity, while avoiding common

errors like run-on sentences enhances professionalism(Meltzer, 2024).

2. **Formal Letters.** In formal letters, intermediate grammar structures such as relative clauses add depth and specificity (e.g., "*I am writing to apply for the position that was advertised on your website*"). Correct punctuation and tone are crucial for creating a positive impression and achieving the intended purpose of the letter(Scaros, 2024).
3. **Workplace Conversations.** Grammar also plays a key role in verbal workplace communication. Using correct verb tenses to discuss past projects (e.g., "*We completed the report last week*") or future plans (e.g., "*We will present our findings tomorrow*") ensures clarity and reduces misunderstandings. Additionally, idiomatic expressions like *touch base* or *circle back* can make conversations more engaging while maintaining professionalism(Scaros, 2024).

CONVERSATIONAL ENGLISH CONTEXTS

1. **Phrasal Verbs in Everyday Speech.** Phrasal verbs are essential for natural-sounding English conversations. Common examples include *pick up* (to collect), *drop off* (to deliver), or *run out of* (to exhaust). For instance, "*I need to pick up some groceries after work*" is more conversational than "*I need to collect groceries*"(Langsford, 2024). Mastering these expressions enriches fluency and makes interactions more engaging.
2. **Idiomatic Expressions.** Idioms add color and authenticity to spoken English but require careful usage due to their figurative meanings. Expressions like *break the ice* (to initiate conversation) or *hit the books* (to study) are commonly used in informal settings. Incorporating idioms into conversations demonstrates cultural fluency and enhances relatability with native speakers(Machado, 2024).

3. **Using Modal Verbs in Speech.** Modal verbs such as *can*, *should*, and *might* are indispensable for expressing ability, obligation, or possibility in everyday conversations. For example: (a) Ability: "*I can help you with this project.*" (b) Obligation: "*You should finish this report by Friday.*" (c) Possibility: "*We might go out for dinner tonight.*" These verbs add precision to spoken language while shaping tone and politeness(Ferdinand, 2024).
4. **Conditionals for Hypothetical Scenarios.** Conditional sentences are useful for discussing possibilities or making suggestions in conversations. For example: (a) Zero conditional: "*If you heat water, it boils.*" (b) First conditional: "*If it rains tomorrow, we'll cancel the picnic.*" (c) Second conditional: "*If I were you, I'd take that job.*" Conditionals allow speakers to explore hypothetical situations effectively while maintaining grammatical accuracy(Ferdinand, 2024).

INTEGRATING GRAMMAR ACROSS CONTEXTS

1. **Bridging Academic and Professional Grammar.** Intermediate grammar skills often overlap between academic and professional contexts. For instance, using complex sentences enhances both essay arguments and formal emails by conveying multiple ideas clearly.
2. **Adapting Tone Through Grammar.** Grammar enables writers and speakers to adapt their tone based on context—formal for academic papers or business emails and conversational for informal discussions.
3. **Avoiding Common Errors.** Errors such as misplaced modifiers or incorrect prepositions can undermine communication across all contexts. Regular practice with intermediate grammar exercises helps minimize these mistakes.

4. **Improving Fluency Through Practice.** Consistent exposure to authentic materials—academic articles, business reports, or conversational podcasts—reinforces grammar skills across different applications.
5. **Using Technology for Grammar Support.** Tools like Grammarly or Microsoft Editor provide real-time feedback on grammar usage in both written and spoken formats but should complement manual proofreading for accuracy.
6. **Cultural Nuances in Grammar Usage.** Understanding cultural differences in idiomatic expressions or formalities enhances communication effectiveness when interacting with diverse audiences.
7. **Building Confidence Through Mastery.** Proficiency in intermediate grammar builds confidence in both written and spoken communication by reducing hesitations caused by uncertainty about correctness.
8. **Encouraging Feedback.** Seeking feedback from peers or mentors helps identify areas of improvement while reinforcing correct grammar usage.
9. **Transitioning Toward Advanced Grammar.** Mastery of intermediate grammar lays the foundation for tackling advanced topics such as academic style writing or specialized technical vocabulary.

Whether writing an essay, drafting an email, or engaging in casual conversation, intermediate grammar serves as a versatile tool that enhances clarity, professionalism, and relatability across all forms of communication.

1.6. TRANSITIONING FROM BASIC TO ADVANCED GRAMMAR

OVERVIEW OF INTERMEDIATE GRAMMAR AS A FOUNDATION

Intermediate English grammar serves as a crucial bridge between basic and advanced grammar. It provides learners with the necessary tools to understand and construct more complex sentence structures, which are essential for advanced topics such as academic writing and specialized vocabulary. This stage of learning focuses on enhancing the understanding of phrases, clauses, and sentence structures. Mastery of these elements is vital as they form the backbone of more sophisticated grammatical concepts needed in advanced grammar (Hambali & Mirizon, 2019; Husain, 2024).

Intermediate grammar helps learners transition from simple sentence constructions to more complex ones by introducing them to various types of clauses (e.g., noun, adjective, and adverbial clauses) and verb forms (e.g., finite and non-finite verbs). These components are foundational for constructing coherent and nuanced texts in advanced writing contexts (Hambali & Mirizon, 2019; Husain, 2024).

ENCOURAGING FOCUS ON ACCURACY AND COMPLEXITY

At the intermediate level, emphasis is placed on grammatical accuracy while encouraging learners to gradually increase the complexity of their language use. This involves understanding the nuances of different grammatical structures and applying them correctly in various contexts. For instance, learners are taught to use subordinate clauses effectively, which allows them to add depth and detail to their sentences (Hambali & Mirizon, 2019; Rizal, 2024).

Accuracy is emphasized through targeted exercises that require learners to apply multiple grammatical principles simultaneously. Such exercises not only reinforce their understanding but also prepare them for the demands of advanced grammar, where precision is paramount(Husain, 2024; Rizal, 2024).

1.7. BUILDING TOWARDS ADVANCED GRAMMAR

The skills acquired at the intermediate level lay the groundwork for advanced grammar topics such as academic style writing. In academic contexts, clarity and precision are crucial, and these are achieved through a solid grasp of intermediate grammar concepts. Learners are encouraged to focus on developing a clear writing style that can accommodate complex ideas without sacrificing grammatical correctness(Reza Afroogh, 2019).

Furthermore, intermediate grammar introduces learners to specialized vocabulary, which is often used in specific fields or disciplines. Understanding how to integrate this vocabulary into grammatically correct sentences is an essential skill for advanced learners who wish to engage with specialized texts or produce academic writing(Reza Afroogh, 2019).

PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS AND REAL-LIFE CONTEXTS

Intermediate grammar also emphasizes the practical application of learned concepts in real-life situations. This approach helps learners see the relevance of grammar beyond classroom exercises, making it easier for them to apply their skills in everyday communication or professional settings(Oktavinanda et al., 2023; Paputungan et al., 2022). For example, tasks that simulate real-world scenarios can help learners practice using complex sentence structures in

conversations or written communications. This practical focus not only enhances their grammatical skills but also boosts their confidence in using English effectively across various contexts(Oktavinanda et al., 2023; Papatungan et al., 2022).

Transitioning from basic to advanced grammar involves a comprehensive understanding of intermediate grammar as a foundational step. By focusing on accuracy and gradually increasing complexity, learners are well-prepared to tackle advanced grammatical concepts required for academic writing and specialized vocabulary use. The integration of practical applications ensures that learners can apply their skills effectively in real-life situations, making them proficient users of English at an advanced level(Prasetya & Raharjo, 2023).

1.8. CONCLUSION

Recap of the Significance of Mastering Intermediate Grammar. Mastering intermediate grammar is a crucial step in the journey toward achieving fluency in English. It serves as a foundational element that enhances all aspects of language proficiency, including speaking, writing, reading, and listening. Grammar provides the structural framework necessary for clear and effective communication, allowing learners to express their thoughts accurately and coherently. Without a solid grasp of grammar, communication can become ambiguous or lead to misunderstandings, which can hinder both personal and professional interactions. The importance of grammar extends beyond mere academic achievement. It plays a vital role in professional settings, where precise language use is often required. Good grammar skills can significantly impact one's ability to succeed in job interviews, write persuasive emails, and engage in meaningful conversations. Furthermore, understanding grammar helps learners decode complex texts more effectively, enhancing their reading comprehension skills.

Emphasis on Consistent Practice. Achieving mastery in intermediate grammar requires consistent practice across various language activities. Engaging in writing exercises allows learners to apply grammatical rules in context, helping to consolidate their understanding and improve their ability to construct well-formed sentences. Writing also provides an opportunity for learners to organize their thoughts and express them clearly, which is essential for effective communication. Speaking practice is equally important as it helps learners develop fluency and confidence. Regularly engaging in conversations enables learners to experiment with different grammatical structures and receive immediate feedback, which is crucial for improvement. Speaking activities also enhance learners' ability to use language appropriately in different contexts, thereby increasing their communicative competence. Reading extensively exposes learners to a variety of sentence structures and vocabulary, reinforcing their grammatical knowledge. It also aids in developing an intuitive sense of how language works, which is beneficial for both comprehension and production. Listening activities further support this process by helping learners recognize grammatical patterns in spoken language, which improves their ability to anticipate meaning and understand conversations more effectively.

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CHAPTER 2 PART OF SPEECH

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2.1. INTRODUCTION

A part of speech is a word category that shares similar grammatical properties and functions in a sentence. Words in a language are classified into parts of speech based on their role in meaning and structure. The primary parts of speech in English include nouns, pronouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections.

Table 2.1. Parts of Speech and Its Function

Parts of Speech	Function
Noun	Naming words
Pronoun	Replacing a noun
Adjective	Describing a noun or pronoun
Verb	Showing an action or state
Adverb	Describing a verb, adjective, or another adverb
Preposition	Showing a relationship
Conjunction	Joining words or clauses
Interjection	Expressing emotions

There are several perspectives about parts of speech.

1. Crystal (2008) defines parts of speech as traditional grammatical categories classified based on their syntactic (sentence function) and morphological (word structure) behavior. This means that words belong to different categories depending on how they are used in sentences and

how they change form (e.g., pluralization, tense changes, derivation). Table 2 shows the examples of parts of speech based on Crystal (2008).

Table 2.2. Parts of Speech by Crystal (2008)

Part of Speech	Sentence	Explanation
Noun	The teacher teaches pronunciation.	A noun functions as the subject and the object.
Verb	Diana studies grammar.	Studies changes based on tense and subject.
Adjective	The beautiful garden is full of flowers.	Beautiful modifies garden.
Adverb	She speaks English fluently.	Fluently modifies speaks.

2. Yule (2020) focuses on the function of parts of speech in construction meaningful sentences. In this perspective, parts of speech are emphasized on its contribution to the sentence formation and clarity.

Table 2.3. Parts of Speech by Yule (2020)

Part of speech	Sentence	Explanation
Nouns as subject/objects	Dogs love playing outside.	“Dogs” functions as the subject.
Verbs as Action or State Indicators	They run every morning.	“Run” expresses an action.
Prepositions as Connectors	The book is on the table.	“on” links “book” and “table”
Conjunctions for sentence cohesion	She likes tea, but he prefers coffee.	“but” connect two independent clauses.

3. Huddleston & Pullum (2002) analyze parts of speech based on their syntactic properties. On the other hand, it means how they function within different sentence structures. They classify words not just traditionally but also by their structural roles.

Table 2.4. Parts of Speech by Huddleston & Pullum (2002)

Part of speech	Sentence	Explanation
Nouns as noun phrases	The little girl is reading a book	The little girl is a noun phrase
Verbs and their complement	She gave him a gift	Gave requires two objects: “him” and “a gift”
Adjective Modifier in Complex Structures	She is an extremely talented musician	“extremely” modifies “talented”
Determiners as Functional Words	I need some water	“some” specifies quantity

4. Radford (2004) classifies words into lexical (content words) and functional (grammatical words) categories. Lexical categories carry meaning, such as noun, verb, adjective and adverb. On the other hand, functional categories provide grammatical structure, which consists of prepositions, conjunctions, and pronouns.
5. O’Grady et al. (2017) analyze parts of speech from a linguistic perspective, considering how words interact within a sentence’s structure. They discuss how different languages categorize words differently based on syntax and semantics.
 - a. Morphological variability in verbs:
He walks to school every day. (*Walks* is inflected for the third-person singular)

- b. Syntactic role of pronouns:
She saw him yesterday (*Him* functions as an object pronoun)
- c. Phrase structure in sentences:
The cat sat on the mat (*The cat* is noun phrase, “*sat on the mat*” is a verb phrase)

2.2. ENGLISH PARTS OF SPEECH

A. NOUN

A noun is an essential part of English grammar that helps us name people, place, things and ideas. It can function as the subject, object, or complement in a sentence.

Mary has three **pencils**. (1)

Lauren has limited **knowledge** of **French**. (2)

Sentence (1) has two nouns namely Mary and pencils. Mary is a noun functioned as subject, while pencils is a noun functioned as object. Sentence (2) has three nouns namely Lauren, knowledge and French. Lauren has function as subject; knowledge is as object, while French is as an object of the preposition.

Crystal (2008) categories noun into several types, namely proper noun vs common noun, countable and uncountable nouns, concrete and abstract nouns, and collective noun. Table 2.5 show the detail definition and example of each type.

Table 2.5. Types of Noun

Type	Definition	Example	Sentence
Proper Noun	Names a specific person, place, or thing; always capitalized	Sarah, London, Coca-cola	James lives in New York.
Common Noun	General name for any person, place or thing	Girl, city, pizza	The boy lives in a city.
Countable noun	Can be counted; have singular and plural forms	Apple/apples, book/books	I bought two apples.
Uncountable noun	Cannot be counted; usually do not have a plural form	Water, rice, happiness	I need some water.
Concrete noun	Can be seen, touched, or experienced physically	Dog, car, table	The cat is sleeping.
Abstract noun	Represent ideas, emotions, or qualities	Love, courage,	Honesty is very important.
Collective noun	Represent a group of people, animals, or things as a single unit	Team, flock, family	The furniture is very expensive.

According to Azar (2000), noun has four functions in a sentence, namely noun as a subject, noun as an object, noun as a complement, and noun in a prepositional phrase. Each of the functions can be seen in the following table.

Table 2.6. Functions of Noun

Functions of Noun	Definition	Example
noun as a subject	A noun can be the subject of a sentence, meaning it performs the action	The dog barks loudly.
noun as an object	A noun can be the object of a verb.	She reads a book.
noun as a complement	A noun can act as a subject complement that renames the subject.	My mother is a doctor.
noun in a prepositional phrase	Nouns can appear after prepositions to form prepositional phrases.	The book is on the table.

There are several conditions of changing singular form into plural form. Table 2.7 shows the rules and example of its changing.

Table 2.7. Rules to form plural nouns

Rules	Example
Add -s	Book → books
Add -es (for -s, -sh, -ch, -x, -z)	Box → boxes
Change -y to -ies (if consonant before -y)	Baby → babies
Change -f/-fe to -ves	Leaf → leaves
Irregular forms	Child → children, man → men

B. PRONOUN

A pronoun is a word that replaces a noun in a sentence to avoid repetition and improve clarity. Pronouns help make sentences less repetitive and more natural. Instead of writing “*Sarah loves Sarah’s dog*”, it is more acceptable by using “*Sarah loves **her** dog*”. There are 9 types of pronouns and each pronoun has its function.

1. Personal Pronouns

These pronouns refer to specific people or things and change form depending on their function in the sentence (subject, object, possessive).

Table 2.8. Personal Pronouns

Subject Pronouns	Object Pronouns	Possessive Pronouns	Possessive Adjectives
I	Me	Mine	My
You	You	Yours	Your
He	Him	His	His
She	Her	Hers	Her
It	It	Its	Its
We	Us	Ours	Our
They	Them	Theirs	Their

2. Reflexive pronouns

This pronoun is used when the subject and object refer to the same person.

Table 2.9. Reflexive Pronouns

Singular	Plural
Myself, Yourself, Himself, Herself, Itself	Ourselves, Yourselves, Themselves

Examples: (a) He hurt *himself* while playing. (b) We enjoyed *ourselves* at the party.

3. Demonstrative Pronouns.

This pronoun is used to point to specific things.

Table 2.10. Demonstrative Pronouns

Singular	Plural
This	These
That	Those

Examples: (a) *This* is my phone. (b) *Those* are my shoes.

4. Interrogative Pronouns

This pronoun is used to ask questions.

Table 2.11. Interrogative Pronouns

Pronoun	Function	Sentence
Who	Subject (person)	Who is calling?
Whom	Object (person)	
Whose	Possession	
Which	Choice	Which book do you like?
What	Information	

5. Relative Pronouns

It is used to introduce relative clauses (extra information about a noun).

Table 2.12. Relative Pronouns

Pronoun	Function	Sentence
Who	Refers to people	The girl who won the race is my friend.
Whom	Refers to people (object)	
Whose	Show possession	

Which	Refers to things	
That	Refers to people or things	The book that I borrowed is interesting.

6. Indefinite Pronouns

It refers to people or things without specifying exactly who or what.

Table 2.13. Indefinite Pronouns

Singular	Plural	Can be both
Anybody, Anyone, Anything, Everybody, Everyone, Everything, Somebody, Someone, Something, Nobody, No one, Nothing	Both, Few, Many, Others, Several	All, Some, None, Any, More, Most

Examples: (a) Someone is at the door. (b) Many came to the meeting.

7. Reciprocal Pronouns

It is used when two or more people perform an action toward each other. The common reciprocal pronouns are **each other** and **one another**.

Examples:

(a) They love each **other**.

(b) The students help **one another**.

8. Distributive Pronouns

It refers to people or things one at a time. The common examples of distributive pronouns are **each**, **either**, and **neither**. Examples: (a) **Each** student received a book. (b) You can take **either** route. (c) **Neither** answer is correct.

C. VERB

A verb is a word that expresses an action, state, or occurrence in a sentence. It is one of the most important parts of speech because it tells us what the subject is doing or what is happening. There are several types of verbs.

1. Action verbs (dynamic verbs)

These verbs describe physical or mental actions. The examples of the former are **run, jump, write, and eat**. Meanwhile, the examples of the latter are **think, believe, remember, and understand**. Examples: (a) She **writes** a letter. (*physical action*) (b) He **understand** the lesson. (*mental action*)

2. Linking verbs (state-of-being verbs)

These verbs connect the subject to a description rather than showing an action. Linking verbs which form of “to be” are **am, is, are, was, were, be, been, and being**. There are also static verbs included as linking verbs, such as **seem, become, appear, feel, taste, look and sound**.

Examples: (a) She **is** a doctor. (*“is” links the subject “she” to “a doctor”*) (b) The soup **tastes** delicious. (*“taste” links “soup” to “delicious”*)

3. Helping (Auxiliary verbs)

These verbs help the main verb to show tense, voice, or mood. The primary auxiliary verbs are **be, do, and have**. There are also some modal auxiliary verbs, such as **can, could, may, might, shall, should, will, would, and must**. Examples: (a) She **is** writing a book. (*“is” helps the main verb “writing”*) (b) They **have** finished their work. (*“have” helps “finished”*) (c) You **must** study for the test. (*“must” helps “study”*)

4. Transitive vs Intransitive Verbs

These verbs are categorized based on whether they require a direct object to complete their meaning. Transitive verb

requires an object to complete its meaning, while Intransitive verb Does not need an object; the action is complete on its own. Examples: (a) She **buys** a book. (*transitive verb* → “book” is the object of buys). (b) He **sleeps** early. (*intransitive verbs*)

5. Regular and Irregular Verbs

Verbs in English can be categorized as regular and irregular based on how they form their past tense and past participle.

Table 2.14. Forming Regular and Irregular Verbs

Type	Definition	Example
Regular verbs	Form the past tense verbs by adding -d, -ed, or -ied.	Play → played
Irregular verbs	Change in different ways for past tense.	Go → went, eat → ate

D. ADVERB

An adverb is a word that modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. It gives more information about how, when, where, how often, or to what extent something happens. Examples:

- a. To modify a verb: She sings **beautifully**. (*How does she sing?*)
- b. To modify an adjective: It was a **very** cold day. (*How cold*)
- c. To modify another adverb: He ran **too** quickly. (*How quickly*)

Table 2.15. Types of Adverbs

Types of adverbs	Definition	Examples
Adverbs of manner (how)	Describe how an action happens.	She speak softly . They worked quickly . He drives carefully . <i>*these adverbs often end in -ly,</i>

		<i>but not always (e.g. fast, well)</i>
Adverbs of place (where)	Describe where an action happens	The kids are playing outside . She looked everywhere for her keys. He went upstairs to study.
Adverbs of time (when)	Describe when something happens	I will call you tomorrow She arrived early . We met yesterday .
Adverbs of frequency (how often)	Describe how often something happens	I always drink coffee in the morning. She rarely eats fast food. They sometimes go to the beach <i>*common adverbs of frequency (from most to least frequent): always, usually, often, sometimes, rarely, never</i>
Adverbs of degree (to what extent?)	Describe the intensity or degree of an action, adjective, or another adverb.	She is very tired. It was too cold to go outside. He is almost finished. <i>*common adverbs of degree: very, too, quite, almost, enough, extremely, just, so barely</i>

E. ADJECTIVE

An adjective is a word that describes or modifies a noun or pronoun by giving more information about its quality, size, shape, color, amount, or condition.

- She has a beautiful voice. (*what kind of voice?*)
- We saw three birds. (*how many birds?*)
- The cake is delicious. (*what is the cake like?*)

Table 2.16. Types of Adjectives

Types of adjectives	Definition	Examples	Sentence
Descriptive adjective (what kind)	Describe the quality or characteristics of a noun	Big, small, tall, short, red, blue, beautiful	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The beautiful sunset amazed us. • Her car is red.
Quantitative adjectives (how many? How much?)	Describe the number or amount of something	One, two, many, few, some, much, enough	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I have three cats. • She ate some rice.
Demonstrative adjectives (which one)	Point out specific nouns	This, that, these, those	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • I love this book. • Those shoes are very expensive

When using multiple adjectives in a sentence, there is a rules to order the adjectives.

Opinion → size → age → color → origin → material → purpose → noun

A beautiful big old round red Italian wooden dining table.

F. PREPOSITION

A preposition is a word that shows the relationship between a noun (or pronoun) and other words in a sentence. It often indicates location, direction, time, cause, manner, or possession.

- The book is **on** the table. (*shows location*)
- We met **after** the meeting. (*shows time*)
- She walked **towards** the park. (*shows direction*)

Table 2.17. Types of Prepositions

Types of prepositions	Definition	Examples	Sentence
Prepositions of place (where)	Describe the location of something.	In, on, at, under, over, behind, next to, between, among, near	The keys are on the table. She is in the room.
Preposition of time (when)	Describe when something happens	In, on, at	I was born in July. The class starts at 9 AM.
Prepositions of direction or movement	Describe movement from one place to another	To, into, onto, from, towards, through, past.	He walked to the park. She ran into the house.
Prepositions of cause, reason, or purpose (why)	Explain the cause or reason for something.	Because of, due to, from, for	He was absent because of illness. We succeed due to hard work.
Prepositions of manner (how)	Describe how something happens	By, with, in, like	She solved the problem with ease. He spoke in a loud voice. They travelled by car
Prepositions of possession (whose)	Show ownership or belonging	Of, with, to	The book of John is on the table. She is a friend of mine.

G. CONJUNCTION

A conjunction is a word that connects words, phrases, or clauses in a sentence. It helps create complex and meaningful sentences by showing relationships between ideas.

- a. I like coffee **and** tea.
- b. She was tired, **but** she kept working.
- c. We will go out **if** it stops raining.

1. Coordinating conjunctions

Coordinating conjunctions connect words, phrases, or independent clauses of equal importance. Common coordination Conjunctions are shown in the Table 2.18.

Table 2.18. Coordinating Conjunctions

Conjunctions	Function	Example
For	Reason	She stayed home, for she was sick.
And	Addition	I like apples and oranges.
Nor	Negative addition	He does not like tea, nor does he like coffee.
But	Contrast	She is rich, but unhappy.
Or	Choice	Do you want coffee or tea?
Yet	Unexpected contrast	It was cold, yet he did not wear a jacket.
So	Result	She was hungry, so she ate.

2. Subordinating conjunctions

Subordinating conjunctions connect an independent clause with a dependent clause, showing a relationship such as time, reason, contrast, or condition.

- a. I stayed home **because** I was sick. (*reason*)
- b. We will leave **when** the rain stops. (*time*)
- c. **Although** she was tired, she kept working. (*contrast*)
- d. You can go out **if** you finish your homework. (*condition*)

Table 2.19. Common Subordinating Conjunctions

Category	Conjunctions	Example
Time	After, before, when, while, until, since	She called me before she left.
Reason	Because, since, as	He stayed home because he was tired.
Contrast	Although, though, whereas, even though	Although it was late, she kept working.
Condition	If, unless, provided that	You can go if you finish your work.
Purpose	So that, in order that	She studies hard so that she can pass the exam.
Comparison	As, than	She is taller than me.

3. Correlative conjunctions

Correlative conjunctions are pairs of words that connect similar sentence elements. Common correlative conjunctions are **both ... and**, **either ... or**, **neither ... nor**, **not only ... but also**, and **whether ... or**.

- a. **Both** John **and** Mary are coming.
- b. She is **not only** intelligent **but also** kind.
- c. You can have **either** tea **or** coffee.
- d. He is **neither** rich **nor** famous.
- e. **Whether** you like **or** not, you have to study.

H. INTERJECTION

A interjection is a word or phrase that expresses strong emotions, reactions, or sudden feelings. It is often used in informal speech and writing and is usually followed by an exclamation mark (!) or comma (,) when the emotion is less intense.

- a. **Wow!** That's amazing (*surprise*)
- b. **Oh,** I forgot my keys. (*realization*)
- c. **Oops!** I dropped my phone. (*mistake*)
- d. **Hey!** Watch where you're going! (*attention*)
- e. **Alas!** The hero died in the end. (*sadness*)

Table 2.20. Types of interjections

Types of interjections	Definition	Examples
Interjections of greeting	Used to greet or address someone.	Hello! How are you? Hi! Nice to meet you. Hey! Where have you been?
Interjections of surprise	Express shock, amazement, or astonishment.	Wow! That's a beautiful view! Oh my God! I can't believe it! Gosh! That's incredible!
Interjections of joy	Express happiness, excitement or celebration.	Yay! We won the game! Hurray! I passed the exam! Woohoo! This is awesome!
Interjections of pain or suffering	Used when someone is in pain or discomfort.	Ouch! That hurts! Ahh! My head is aching! Ugh! I feel sick.
Interjections of approval or agreement	Used to show agreement, encouragement, or praise.	Bravo! That was a great performance! Well done! You did an amazing job! Hmm, I think you are right.

Interjections of disgust or disapproval	Used to express dislike or disapproval	Ew! That smells awful! Yuck! This food is terrible! Ugh! I hate this weather.
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2.3. CONCLUSION

This chapter thoroughly examined the concept of parts of speech, which are the building blocks of English sentence construction. Understanding parts of speech is essential for mastering grammar and creating clear and effective communication. Parts of speech are defined as the categorization of words based on their grammatical functions within sentences. The eight main parts of speech are:

1. Noun – names people, places, things, or ideas and can function as the subject, object, complement, or part of a prepositional phrase.
2. Pronoun – replaces a noun to avoid repetition and maintain sentence clarity.
3. Verb – expresses actions, states, or occurrences and is central to sentence structure.
4. Adjective – describes or modifies nouns and pronouns by providing additional details like quality, quantity, and characteristics.
5. Adverb – modifies verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs, explaining how, when, where, or to what extent actions occur.
6. Preposition – shows relationships between nouns and pronouns and other parts of a sentence, often indication time, place, direction or cause.
7. Conjunction – connects words, phrases, or clauses to form complex and cohesive sentences.
8. Interjection – expresses strong emotions or sudden feelings and often stands alone outside sentence structures.

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AUTHOR'S PROFILE



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The author was born on 17 June 1992 in Sleman is a lecturer specializing in English Language Education. After completing her bachelor's degree in English Language Education and a master's degree in English Language Studies from Sanata Dharma University, she began her teaching career at University Tidar. Since 2019, she has been a lecturer in the English Education Department, where she has taught a range of courses, including English for Children, English Material and Development for Children, Corpus Linguistics, Writing Intensive Course, Paragraph Writing, Academic Writing, Intensive Listening, Academic Listening, Extensive Reading, Grammar and English for Non-English Department. In addition to her teaching responsibilities, Paulina has contributed to the field of English education through her publications. She has focused on innovative approaches for teaching young learners during the COVID-19 pandemic, such as digital storytelling and digital comics, providing engaging and interactive

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CHAPTER 3

VERB AND TENSES

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3.1. INTRODUCTION

In language, verb plays and important roles in every skill. Verbs are fundamental to the structure and semantics of sentences in any language, representing a crucial function in conveying actions, states, and events. Verbs constitute the essence of a phrase, dictating its grammatical framework and significance. They express the action or state of being, providing the foundation for the sentence's syntax and its semantic interpretation. In line with that, (Azar & Hagen, 2011) stated that verb represents action, situation in every detail statement which tells about the activity related to the subject. Since a verb describes what is happening, tenses provide important information about when the action occurs. The tense of a verb places the action in time, allowing speakers and writers to convey whether something has occurred, is happening now, or will occur in the future (Quirk (1985) lacking tenses, communication misses the temporal context required to grasp the relationship between acts and events.

Nevertheless, these broad tense classifications can be separated into four aspects: simple, progressive, perfect, and perfect progressive. These elements offer layers of meaning by characterizing the nature of the action or event in relation to time. As an instance, the simple tense expresses an obvious activity like “Raisha cleans our house” or “Razka writes letter every Sunday to his friend”, and for progressive tells about the

activity that continuing like “Raisha is cleaning our house right now” or “Razka is writing a letter”, and the perfect indicates Something that was accomplished before another occurrence like “Raisha has cleaned our house” or “Razka has written a letter” while for the last perfect progressive tells about action was continuing and has been finished like “Razka has been writing a letter” and “Raisha has been cleaning our house”. These distinctions enable a more exact grasp of when activities occur and how they connect to other occurrences in time, making it easier to explain complicated temporal relationships (Swan, 2016)

3.2. TENSES

As stated before, verb tenses indicate time of an action and they are categorized into three broad types: past, present and future. Each of these categories in further divided in four aspects: simple, continuous, perfect and perfect continuous.

Table 3.1. Verb Tenses in English

	PAST	PRESENT	FUTURE
SIMPLE	I learned English last week	I learn English	I will learn English
CONTINUOUS	I was learning English	I am learning English	I will be learning English
PERFECT	I had learned English	I have learned English	I will have learned English
PERFECT CONTINUOUS	I had been learning English	I have been learning English	I will have been learning English

PRESENT TENSE

The present tense is a crucial feature of grammar in all languages. It refers to activities or events that are happening right now on a regular basis or are universally true. As in many other languages, the present tense is fundamental for communication, and its forms (e.g., simple present, present continuous) transmit details that are important for both grammatical structure and meaning. As stated by (Swan, 2016) the present simple is often used for things that are always true or happen regularly.

In English, there are three ways to represent the present tense: simple present, present continuous (progressive), and present perfect. According to (Quirk, 1985) the simple present tense is used for habitual behaviors, basic truths, and scheduled events, whereas the present continuous is used for actions that take place at the time of speaking or near the current time. The present perfect is used to express activities that occurred at an undefined time before the present but remain relevant.

The English language has several different forms of the present tense, each with its own purpose and use. As stated before, the three main varieties are simple present, present continuous (progressive), and present perfect. The present perfect continuous tense is a combination of the present perfect and present continuous tenses.

3.3. TYPES OF PRESENT TENSE

3.3.1. SIMPLE PRESENT TENSE

The simple present tense expresses general truths, routine activities, and states that occur on a regular or permanent basis. It is the most fundamental form of the present tense, and it does not define whether the action takes place at the exact moment of speaking. Biber et al., (2021) define the simple present as situations that are timeless, routine, or factual.

Table 3.2. Simple Present Tense

Positive (+)	Negative (-)	Question (?)
I sing	I do not (don't) sing	Do I sing?
You play	You do not (don't) play	Do you play?
They run	They do not (don't) run	Do they run?
We study	We do not (don't) study	Do we study?
She cooks	She does not (doesn't) cook	Does she cook?
He writes	He does not (doesn't) write	Does he write?
It eats	It does not (doesn't) eat	Does it eat?

In simple present tense, there should be remember is third person singular subject (She, He and It). In third person singular, **the verb always ends in -s and for negative and questions forms use does.** For instance:

- a. Razka is a football player. He **practices** football every day
- b. Wawan **understands** the rule
- c. She **enjoys** singing and dancing
- d. It **goes** very well with the sand

In changing the verb, there also rules that rule it. When the verb ends in -y, it should be change into -ies. And add -es to verbs ending in -ss, -x, -sh, -ch. The detail information can be seen below.

Table 3.3. Adding S, ES or IES to Verbs

In General +s	Verbs Ending in Consonant Y (y + ies)	Verbs Ending O, SH, TCH, X, SS (+es)
Run = Runs	Study = Studies	Go = Goes
Eat = Eats	Cry = Cries	Wash = Washes
Play = Plays	Try = Tries	Watch = Watches

Swim = Swims	Spy = Spies	Mix = Mixes
Write = Writes	Fly = Flies	Kiss = Kisses

The present tense is a complex and crucial aspect of language that is essential for both grammar and communication. It helps to build sentences by describing current acts, habitual actions, and generic truths. In discussion, the present tense enables speakers to convey a sense of immediacy and relevance. This makes it necessary for daily conversation and narrative. Furthermore, because it is easy to use, the present tense is introduced early in a child's language development. Its application varies among languages, emphasizing its significance in understanding how language functions generally.

3.3.2. PRESENT CONTINUOUS TENSE

The present continuous, or progressive, tense indicates current or temporary acts, emphasizing the activity's ongoing aspect. According to Celce-Murcia et al., (2016), the present continuous tense highlights the continuous character of an action occurring at the moment of speaking or during a temporal frame around the present. Along with that Biber et al., (2021) implied that using the present continuous tense to explain events that are happening at the time of speaking is one of its main applications. This is frequently referred to as the tense's "real-time" function. Formed with the **auxiliary verb is, am, and are and adding -ing in the base verb.**

Table 3.4. Present Continuous Tense

Type	Patterns
Positive	Subject + to be + V1+ ing
Negative	Subject + to be + not + V1 + ing
Intrognative	To be + Subject + V1 + ing

- a. She **is cooking** kepiting saos padang
- b. They **are singing**
- c. I **am not running** from them
- d. **Is he making** some noises?

English language learners often struggle to distinguish between the basic present tense and the present continuous. The present continuous explicitly refers to acts that are occurring right now or temporary actions, while the simple present represents generic or habitual behaviors. Both tenses can be used to describe situations or actions. The distinction, according to Celce-Murcia et al., (2016) is in the focus on the present continuous immediacy and transient nature as opposed to the simple present's broad or routine nature.

One of the most flexible and dynamic aspects of English grammar is the present continuous tense. It enables presenters to explain events occurring in real time, transient circumstances, continuing projects, future, and evolving conditions. The present continuous tense is still a vital instrument for English communication because of its extensive usage in daily speech and capacity to convey immediacy.

3.3.3. PRESENT PERFECT

The auxiliary verb have (in the present tense, have for plural subjects and has for singular subjects) and the main verb's past participle are used to create the present perfect tense. Instead of focusing on the precise moment an action occurred, this tense emphasizes the action's significance or impact on the present. (Quirk, 1985)state that the present perfect tense is a grammatical construction that connects past events with their present consequences because it possesses the important feature of connecting past acts to the present.

Table 3.5. Present Perfect Tense

Type	Patterns
Positive	Subject + have/has + V3
Negative	Subject + have/has + not + V3
Introgative	Have/has + subject + V3?

- a. She **has cooked** kepiting saos padang
- b. They **have sung**
- c. I **have not run**
- d. Has **he made** some noises?

The present perfect tense is also frequently used to express events or states that took place at an undefined point in time prior to the present, with a focus on their significance or impact in the present. The exact moment of the event is irrelevant in this function. For example:

- a. She **has lost** her car (The car is still lost)
- b. They **have moved** to a new house (They now live in different place)

Actions that were just finished yet have an immediate outcome or effect can also be described in the present perfect tense. Adverbs are frequently used in this context like *just*, *already*, or *yet*. For example: I **have just finished** my coffee (The coffee was just finished, no longer have any coffee)

The difference between the simple past tense and the present perfect tense is frequently unclear to English language learners. The present perfect tense emphasizes the relationship between the previous action and the present, whereas the simple past tense refers to activities carried out at a specific point in the past. The present perfect focuses on the experience itself, while

the simple past is used for actions that occurred at a specific, known time.

3.3.4. PRESENT PERFECT CONTINUOUS

Actions or occurrences that started in the past and have continued to the present, or that have recently finished but are still relevant, are described using the present perfect continuous. This tense highlights how long an activity lasts and how continuous it is. It emphasizes **duration** or **ongoing activity**.

Table 3.6. Present Perfect Continuous Tense

Type	Patterns
Positive	Subject + have/has + been + V1 + ing
Negative	Subject + have/has + not+ been + V1 + ing
Introgrative	Have/has + subject + been + V1 + ing?

- a. Baso **has been working** all day
- b. Baso **has not been working** all day
- c. **Has** Baso **been working** all day?

Present Perfect Continuous can be used when the activity started in past and still ongoing. This tense focuses on how long the action has been happening.

- a. Vira **has been living** in Ternate for two years
(started living in two years ago and still live there)
- b. I **have been writing** this book for three weeks
(started to write in three weeks and still ongoing)
- c. They **have been renovating** their house for the past eight months
(the action renovating began eight months ago and still in progress)

Although they both depict past-tense actions that continue into the present, the Present Perfect and Present Perfect Continuous tenses are employed differently to express different meanings. Frequently emphasizing the experience or reality that something has occurred, the Present Perfect highlights the completion or outcome of an action. The Present Perfect Continuous, on the other hand, emphasizes the continuous character or duration of an activity, showing that it is still occurring or has been occurring over time

3.4. TYPES OF PAST TENSE

3.4.1. SIMPLE PAST TENSE

Actions that have concluded in the past are frequently described using the simple past tense. It emphasizes the conclusion of an event, concentrating on the moment something occurred (Huddleston et al., 2021). In short, actions or events that took place and were finished in the past are described using the Simple Past Tense. In past, there are two kinds of verb: Regular and Irregular verbs. In regular verbs, the simple past is formed by adding -ed to the base verb while for irregular verbs do not follow a regular pattern. Thus, there is no fixed rule for irregular verbs.

Table 3.7. Simple Past Tense

	Verb	To be
Affirmative Form (+)	S + V2/ed + O	S + was/were + O
Negative Form (-)	S + didn't + V1 + O	S + was/were + not + O
Interrogative Form (?)	Did + S + V1 + O	Am/is/are + S + O ?

Table 3.8. Regular and Irregular Verbs

Base Verb	Simple Past
Reguler Verbs	

Walk	Walked
Jump	Jumped
Irreguler Verbs	
Go	Went
Speak	Spoke

3.4.2. PAST CONTINUOUS TENSE

Actions that were happening at a certain point in the past are described using the past continuous tense. It can also refer to the simultaneous occurrence of two or more actions (Swan & Walter, 2019)

Table 3.9. Past Continous Tense

Type	Patterns
Positive	Subject + was/were + V1 + ing
Negative	Subject + was/were + not + V1 + ing
Introgative	Was/were + subject + V1 + ing?

- a. They **were riding**
- b. She **was not watching** TV
- c. **Was** she **reading** a book?

While the Past Continuous Tense highlights actions that were ongoing or in progress at a specific point in the past, the Simple Past Tense is used to express actions that were finished at a certain point in the past. While the Past Continuous emphasizes the length or interruption of an action, the Simple Past concentrates on the conclusion of an event. When addressing previous events, it is possible to communicate more accurately and precisely when one is aware of the distinctions between these tenses.

3.4.3. PAST PERFECT

When demonstrating that one action was finished before another in the past, the Past Perfect Tense is employed. It frequently highlights which of the two activities occurred first. As also stated by Swan (2016) to show that one previous action was finished before another, the previous Perfect Tense is employed. It highlights the sequence of events.

Table 3.10. Past Perfect Tense

Type	Patterns
Positive	Subject + had + V3
Negative	Subject + had + not + V3
Interrogative	Had + subject + V3

- a. We **had finished** our project before she came
- b. She **had not seen** the movie before I watched it
- c. Had you **visited** the gallery before?

When demonstrating that one action occurred before another in the past, the Past Perfect is employed or in another word two past actions or events occur and we wish to demonstrate which one happened first, use the past perfect. It helps to clarify things and make sure that the order of events is understood, particularly when dealing with several previous activities.

3.4.4. PAST PERFECT CONTINUOUS

An action that started in the past, lasted for a while, and was still going on when another action happened is described by the past perfect continuous tense. It is employed to demonstrate how long an action has lasted up to a specific moment in the past (Biber et al., 2021)

Table 3.11. Present Perfect Continuous Tense

Type	Patterns
Positive	Subject + had + been + V1 + ing
Negative	Subject + had + not+ been + V1 + ing
Introgrative	Had + subject + been + V1 + ing?

- a. Baso **had been working** for three hours when his parents came
- b. Baso **had not been working** when I arrived
- c. **Had you been working** before I showed up?

Although they have different functions, the Past Perfect and Past Perfect Continuous tenses both represent actions that took place prior to another past occurrence. The Past Perfect Tense emphasizes the outcome of an activity by concentrating on its completion prior to a particular point in the past. The Past Perfect Continuous Tense, on the other hand, emphasizes how long or continuous an activity was before another past event happened. Depending on whether the emphasis is on the action's completion or its progress, knowing these distinctions makes it easier to articulate prior occurrences.

3.5. TYPES OF FUTURE TENSE

3.5.1. SIMPLE FUTURE TENSE

The **Simple Future Tense** is used to describe actions that will occur at a specific time in the future or for predictions. It is the most straightforward way to express future events.

Table 3.12. Simple Future Tense

Type	Patterns
Positive	Subject + will + V1
Negative	Subject + will + not + V1
Introgrative	Will + subject + not +V1

- a. Razka **will travel** to Palu next week
- b. Baso **will not** attend the family gathering
- c. **Will you help** me?

One essential component of English grammar for discussing future actions or events is the Simple Future Tense. The Simple Future Tense is the preferred structure for conveying things such as promises, assistance, and future predictions.

3.5.2. FUTURE CONTINUOUS TENSE

When describing an action that will be underway at a given point in the future, the Future Continuous Tense is employed. It highlights how long the action or event will last.

Table 3.13. Future Continuous Tense

Type	Patterns
Positive	Subject + will + be + V1 + ing
Negative	Subject + will not + be + V1 + ing
Introgative	Will + subject + be + V1 + ing

- a. Razka **will traveling** to Palu next week
- b. Baso **will not be attending** the family gathering
- c. **Will you be helping** me?

When describing events that will occur at a particular future point, the Future Continuous Tense is crucial. Whether it's for a planned event, an ongoing process, or to respectfully inquire about someone's future plans, it helps to communicate the sense of an ongoing process or activity.

3.5.3. FUTURE PERFECT TENSE

When expressing an action that will be finished before a certain future time or before another future action occurs, the Future Perfect Tense is utilized..

Table 3.14. Future Perfect Tense

Type	Patterns
Positive	Subject + will + have + V3
Negative	Subject + will not +have + V3
Introgative	Will + subject + have + V3

- a. By 10 PM, Razka **will have traveled** to Palu
- b. Baso **will not have attended** the family gathering
- c. **Will you have helped** me by the time we reach the airport?

Actions that will be finished before a specific time or another action takes place in the future are expressed in the Future Perfect Tense. It is particularly helpful when talking about goals, deadlines, or events that must be completed by a certain time since it helps communicate the sense of completion. When addressing future actions in English, it is possible to be more precise by knowing and utilizing the Future Perfect Tense.

3.5.4. FUTURE PERFECT CONTINOUS

An action that will have continued until a certain future point is described using the Future Perfect Continuous Tense. The length of time an action will last before a future time or another future occurrence is emphasized. This tense is frequently used to convey the continuous character of an event or how long it will have been occurring in the future.

Table 3.15. Present Perfect Continuous Tense

Type	Patterns
Positive	Subject + will have + been + V1 + ing
Negative	Subject + will have + not + been + V1 + ing
Introgative	Will + subject + have been + V1 + ing?

- a. By next month, she **will have been working** here for 6 months
- b. By the time she come, I **will have been waiting** for two hours
- c. **Will you have been studying** for seven hours by tomoorow?

An essential tense for expressing how long an action will continue till a particular future point is the Future Perfect Continuous Tense. It enables us to highlight how long something will have been happening at a specific moment and helps to communicate the continuing nature of future events. Talking about future events in English becomes more nuanced and clearer when one is aware of this tense.

3.6. CONCLUSION

Understanding how we express time, actions, and states in English requires an understanding of the relationship between verbs and tenses. Whether an action or occurrence takes place in the past, present, or future, tenses enable us to place it in relation to time. Because each verb tense has a specific form and set of rules, we can communicate meaning clearly and precisely. Each tense has its own set of rules that dictate how verbs are modified to convey meaning, whether the action is happening now, has already happened, or will happen in the future. Verbs are the

foundation of every sentence in any given tense. In conclusion, the relationship between verbs and tenses is critical for expressing time, duration, completion, and progression in English. The verb is the central component of the sentence, and the tense shapes its form and structure, which enable us to express minute details about the timing, duration, and relationship of actions to other temporal occurrences. By understanding this relationship, presenters may convey not only the facts but also the situation and flow of events, which improves the accuracy, clarity, and impact of their messages. Therefore, knowing English grammar and making sure that written and spoken communication is correct in detail and rich in meaning require an understanding of how verbs change tenses.

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CHAPTER 4

COMPARISON DEGREE

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4.1. INTRODUCTION

Comparative degree is the linguistic framework used to compare two or more objects depending on a certain quality or characteristic (Azar & Hagen, 2020). It lets speakers and authors communicate variations or parallels between ideas, people, or objects. Comparative degrees help to clearly and precisely communicate messages, hence stressing differences. Both spoken and written English depend on proper use of comparison structures; this is especially true in academic and professional environments when accuracy and clarity are highly valued.

A basic feature of the English language, the comparison degree allows speakers and writers to signal variations in quality, quantity, or intensity between two or more objects. Three forms make it up: the superlative degree, which emphasizes the highest or lowest level among three or more items; the comparative degree, which contrasts two things; and the positive degree, which defines a quality without comparison (Murphy, 2020). Mastering comparative degrees is crucial for clear and efficient communication in both spoken and written English.

We use the indispensable comparison degree in English grammar to juxtapose two or more objects. Whether in daily interactions, academic writing, or professional settings, understanding its appropriate application enhances communication (Carter & McCarthy, 2021). Learning

comparison degrees enables presenters and authors to clearly and precisely convey variations in a disciplined and relevant manner. Comparative degrees enable more precise characterization of objects, people, and events in daily interactions. In scholarly writing, these degrees play a crucial role in data analysis, theory comparison, and providing unambiguous backing for ideas. In professional environments, too, proper application of comparison structures is crucial for producing convincing presentations, drafting analytical reports, and negotiating corporate interests.

From the above, it is clear that the idea of comparison degree is absolutely important in English grammar since it helps speakers and writers to clearly and precisely convey variations and similarities between objects, persons, or ideas. Comparison structures improve communication in many contexts, including ordinary conversations, academic writing, and professional speech, by grouping adjectives and adverbs into positive, relative, and superlative degrees. Correct application of comparative degrees enhances the efficacy of written and spoken messages, in addition to ensuring grammatical correctness. Understanding this idea is crucial for presenting evidence, generating logical arguments, and providing convincing communication in both scholarly and professional environments. Thus, high awareness of comparison degrees greatly helps produce more precise, orderly, and powerful language use.

4.2. THE SIGNIFICANCE OF COMPREHENDING DEGREES OF COMPARISON

Comprehending degrees of comparison in English is crucial for efficient communication across diverse contexts, including academic, professional, and quotidian interactions. Correctly utilizing comparative and superlative forms boosts clarity,

mitigates grammatical faults, and refines both writing and speaking abilities. Learning Comparison Degree improves spoken and written English by enabling explicit comparisons. Business writing, decision-making, professional correspondence including emails and reports all depend on it. While in daily life it enhances descriptions and clarity in talks, in academia it helps present data properly. Learning it guarantees more exact and forceful communication in many different situations.

1. Improving Clarity in Communication

The message is conveyed in a clear and accurate manner by employing the appropriate degree of comparison. Carter and McCarthy (2021) argued that the comparison structures in English grammar facilitate the differentiation of qualities, thereby enhancing the communication of distinctions among objects, actions, or ideas.

2. Crucial for Academic and Professional Environments

In scholarly writing and corporate correspondence, comparative structures are employed to emphasize research outcomes, performance assessments, and product reviews. Parrott (2022) asserts that proficiency in comparing structures is essential for articulating data-driven arguments and logical reasoning. For example:

- a. *This novel way is superior to the conventional strategy.*
- b. *Of all tactics, this one is the most sustainable.*

3. Mitigating Frequent Grammatical Errors

Many English learners have trouble applying comparative degrees correctly. Common errors in comparative structures, according to Huddleston and Pullum (2020), include double comparatives (more faster), incorrect superlative formulations (most biggest), and poor preposition use. Understanding the

rules helps to avoid these mistakes, so improving the accuracy of communication.

4. Enhancing Writing and Speaking Proficiencies

Proper deployment of comparative and superlative forms strengthens arguments and enhances speaking flow. According to Thornbury (2021), mastery of comparison sentences helps speakers and writers create more cogent and orderly arguments.

5. Facilitating Decision-Making

Comparison is an essential component in making informed decisions in both personal and professional contexts. Griffiths (2023) emphasizes that "comparative analysis is essential for assessing alternatives and substantiating decisions."

For example:

- a. *This investment plan yields greater profitability than its predecessor.*
- b. *She is the best qualified candidate among all applicants for the post.*

Mastering the degrees of comparison in English is crucial for clear, precise, and professional communication. Comprehending its principles and applications aids in avoiding frequent mistakes, enhances linguistic fluency, and bolsters logical reasoning across many domains.

4.3. COMPARISON DEGREES IN PROFESSIONAL AND ACADEMIC COMMUNICATION

In both academic and professional environments, the proper application of degrees of comparison is crucial since it supports arguments, improves clarity in communication, and helps to transmit comparisons precisely. The main strategies to make

effective use of comparison degrees in these situations are as follows.

1. Using comparisons in reports and presentations.

Carter and McCarthy (2021) state that when comparison structures are used appropriately, evaluations and data-driven insights can be clarified in academic and professional papers. This is in reference to the common practice of using comparison frameworks to highlight differences and improvements. Among these are:

- a. *The new policy is more effective than the previous one in reducing costs.*
- b. *Among all tested materials, this one is the most durable.*

2. Applying comparisons in research and analysis.

Degrees of comparison are commonly used in research papers and business analyses to compare methodologies, theories, or trends. Parrott (2022) states that “comparative structures play a crucial role in academic discourse by enabling clear differentiation of study results.”

For example:

- a. *This approach is more reliable than the traditional method used in past studies.*
- b. *This study provides the most comprehensive analysis of consumer behavior to date.*

3. Strengthening Business and Marketing Communication

Comparison Professional settings assist in highlighting the benefits of goods, services, or approaches. 2020's Huddleston and Pullum stress how "superlative and comparative structures enhance persuasive language in business communication by clearly defining competitive advantages." For example:

- a. *Our program is more user-friendly than others available on the market.*

b. *This advertising approach is the most economical for our business.*

4. Enhancing Decision-Making Processes

Comparison degrees assist in evaluating options and making informed decisions in both academic and professional contexts. According to Thornbury (2021), “Comparisons are essential in logical reasoning, as they provide a basis for evaluating multiple alternatives objectively.” For example:

a. *This investment is more beneficial than the alternative option.*

b. *Among all candidates, she is the most qualified for the managerial role.*

The appropriate application of degrees of comparison in academic and professional communication enhances clarity, aids in argumentation, and increases the effectiveness of persuasive techniques. Learning this grammatical pattern improves both written and oral communication and increases its impactfulness and accuracy.

4.4. TYPE OF COMPARISON DEGREE

There are three degrees of comparison in English; positive, comparative, and superlative (Parrott, 2022).

1. **Positive Degree:** Applied in cases without a comparison found. It clearly defines a noun's quality. For example:

a. *The book is interesting.*

b. *They run fast.*

2. **Comparative Degree:** Usually built by adding *-er* to short adjectives or *"more"* before longer adjectives, used for two-entity comparison. For example:

a. *This book is more interesting than that one.*

b. *They run faster than me.*

Formation Rules:

- a. Short adjectives (one syllable) → Add *-er*
For example: *tall* → *taller*, *small* → *smaller*
 - b. Short adjectives ending in *-y* → Change *y* to *i* and add *-er*
For example: *happy* → *happier*, *busy* → *busier*
 - c. Long adjectives (two or more syllables) → Use *more* before the adjective
For example: *beautiful* → *more beautiful*, *expensive* → *more expensive*
 - d. Irregular adjectives:
For example: *good* → *better*, *bad* → *worse*, *far* → *farther/further*
3. **Superlative Degree:** used when comparing three or more things. It is usually made by adding *-est* to short adjectives or using "most" before longer adjectives. For example:
- a. *This is the most interesting book I have ever read.*
 - b. *She is the fastest runner in the team.*

Formation Rules:

- a. Short adjectives → Add *-est*
For example: *tall* → *tallest*, *small* → *smallest*
- b. Short adjectives ending in *-y* → Change *y* to *i* and add *-est*
For example: *happy* → *happiest*, *busy* → *busiest*
- c. Long adjectives → Use *most* before the adjective
For example: *beautiful* → *most beautiful*, *expensive* → *most expensive*
- d. Irregular adjectives:
For example: *good* → *best*, *bad* → *worst*, *far* → *farthest/furthest*

4.5. COMMON MISTAKES IN USING COMPARISON DEGREES

English learners that use comparative degrees sometimes make various mistakes that might cause grammar problems and confusing communication. These are some of the most often occurring errors below, together with fixes and explanations.

1. Using "*more*" beside adjectives already using "*-er*"
Incorrect : *This car speeds more than that one does.*
Correct : *This car accelerates more than that one does.*
Adjectives that take "*-er*", e.g., *faster, smaller, taller*—should not be used with "*more*." Create the comparatives with just one technique.
2. Using "*most*" along with adjectives already expressing "*-est*".
Incorrect : *I have only seen cakes this size before.*
Correct : *I have seen only one cake this size before.*
Justification:
"*Most*" shouldn't be mixed with adjectives forming the superlative with "*-est*."
3. Using "*than*" wrongly in comparisons
Omitting *than* in comparisons
Incorrect : *I am smarter my brother*
Correct : *I am smarter than my brother*
4. Using *than* with superlatives forms
Incorrect : *This newspaper is the best than all*
Correct : *This newspaper is the best of all*
5. Using a double comparative or superlative
Incorrect : *Compared to the last one, this one is worse.*
Correct : *This one is more serious than the other one.*

Incorrect : *This is the most simplest incorrect way.*

Correct : *Here's the simplest approach.*

Adding "more" or "most" is wrong as some adjectives.

For example:

good → *better*, *bad* → *worse*—have already irregular comparative and superlative forms.

6. Bad application of irregular superlative and comparative forms

Incorrect: *She is better in arithmetic than her pal.*

Incorrect : *You could make the worst decision ever.*

Correct : *You could make the worst decision ever.*

Some adjectives have irregular comparative and superlative forms; examples of such adjectives are:

Good → *better* ← *best*

Bad → *worse* → *best*

Far > *farther/further* = *farthest/furthest*

7. Not remembering "the" prior to the superlative

She is the class's finest student, incorrectly She is the outstanding student in the class.

Usually, before the superlative degree—that is, the tallest structure, the most fascinating book—the definite article "the" is needed.

8. Complicating "farther" and "further"

Incorrect : *Let's talk about this more incorrectly later.*

Correct : *Let us talk more about this.*

Reason:

Farther → describes physical distance—he walked more than I did.

Further → denotes metaphorical distance; let us talk about this more later.

At last, accurate and good communication depends on one mastering comparison degree. Steering clear of these typical errors guarantees grammatically accurate and clearly comprehensible phrases.

4.6. EXERCISES

Exercise 1: Complete the sentences with the correct form of the adjective in parentheses.

1. This test is _____ (easy) than the previous one.
2. Rince is the _____ (intelligent) student in the class.
3. My car is _____ (big) than my friend's car.
4. This music is _____ (interesting) than the last one.
5. That was the _____ (bad) meal I have ever had!

Exercise 2: Rewrite the sentences using the correct comparison degree

1. Romi is strong. Romo is stronger. (Use a comparative sentence)
2. This novel is good. That novel is better. (Use a superlative sentence)
3. This city is large. That city is larger. (Use a comparative sentence)
4. His car is expensive. My car is more expensive. (Use a superlative sentence)
5. My car is fast. My brother car is faster. (Use a superlative sentence)

Exercise 3: Use comparison degree to answer the following questions.

1. Febri and Ucok wake up at 5 AM, whereas I wake up at 6 AM.
→ Who wake up _____ (early)?

2. The distance from Medan to Stabat is 44 km, while Medan to Binjai is 22 km.
→ Which city is _____ (far) from City A?
3. Twitter has 450 million users whereas Instagram boasts two billion active users.
→ Which platform is _____ (popular)?
6. Motorcycle A costs \$15, motor B costs \$12, and motor C costs \$18.
→ Which product is the _____ (expensive)?
7. Courier Service 1 delivers packages in 2 days, while Courier Service 2 takes 3 days.
→ Which service is _____ (fast)

4.7. CONCLUSION

In summary, it is imperative to comprehend comparison degrees in order to communicate effectively and clearly in English. Understanding the proper formation and application of superlative, comparative, and positive forms is beneficial for preventing common errors and improving both written and spoken communication. It is important to remember the following salient features: the appropriate use of "as...as" in equal comparisons, the avoidance of double comparatives or superlatives, and the use of the appropriate structure for regular and irregular adjectives. Moreover, much enhanced is accuracy by strict grammatical rules: accurate use of "than" in comparatives, inclusion of "the" in superlatives, and separation between "less" and "fewer". By means of pragmatic application of these concepts, students can raise their English fluency and develop their competencies. In the end, professional and academic communication depends on comparison degrees since they help to clearly explain variations and similarities.

Key Answers

Exercise 1

1. This test is easier than the previous one.
2. Rince is the most intelligent student in the class.
3. My car is bigger than my friend's car.
4. This music is more interesting than the last one.
5. That was the worst meal I have ever had!

Exercise 2

1. Romo is stronger than Romi.
2. That novel is the best.
3. That city is larger than this city.
4. My car is the most expensive.
5. My brother's car is the fastest.

Exercise 3:

1. Febri and Ucok wake up **earlier** than me.
2. Stabat is **farther** from Medan than Binjai.
3. Instagram is **more popular** than Twitter.
4. Product C is the **most expensive**.
5. Courier Service 1 is **faster** than Courier Service 2.

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CHAPTER 5

SPELLING AND CAPITALIZATION

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5.1. INTRODUCTION

Spelling and capitalization are fundamental components of effective communication. Proper spelling aims to ensure that messages are conveyed clearly and without ambiguity, while appropriate capitalization aims to improve readability and demonstrate professionalism (Suliman et al., 2019). These two elements form the foundation of coherent writing, enabling writers to convey their ideas accurately (Irawan et al., 2024). Ignoring these rules can lead to misunderstandings, diminish credibility, and reduce clarity in written text.

Spelling correctly is important since it helps ensure accurate communication. Words that sound the same but have various meanings, like “there,” “their,” and “they’re,” can be entirely altered by misspellings (Touretzky & Gardner-McCune, 2023). In professional or academic contexts, spelling consistency reflects attention to detail and reinforces the writer’s authority. Conversely, frequent errors can compromise the quality of work and can distract readers from the intended message.

However, for readers, capitalization acts as a visual cue. Capitalization creates a structure that facilitates understanding by emphasizing proper nouns, sentence beginnings, and specific titles (Fitria, 2024). For instance, capitalizing names and places sets them out from ordinary nouns, whereas capitalizing the initial word in a phrase aids readers in identifying the start of a new thought. Capitalization consistency is important since

inconsistent writing might be confusing or come across as careless. Mastering spelling and capitalization require practice, attention, and a clear understanding of their rules. Writers should utilize tools such as dictionaries, style guides, and spell checkers to ensure accuracy in their work. Additionally, proofreading is an important step to identify and correct errors that might have been overlooked during the writing process. By prioritizing correct spelling and capitalization, writers can improve their communication skills and convey their ideas in a structured and professional manner.

5.2. SPELLING

Spelling is the process of using letters to represent a word (Conrad et al., 2019). For most words, there is only one accepted arrangement of letters that is considered the correct spelling. Using the correct spelling of a word means that the writing can be easily understood when writing in English; mistakes in spelling can make comprehension difficult and create a negative impression. Accurate spelling is equally vital in academic and professional settings. Proper spelling shows attention to detail and precision, which are prized in education and the profession (Pan et al., 2021). On the other hand, persistent spelling errors can undermine the writer's credibility and cause readers to question the writing's quality.

Furthermore, spelling errors can dramatically alter the meaning of a term or sentence (Altamimi & Ab Rashid, 2019). For example, the terms "affect" and "effect" are pronounced nearly same yet have distinct meanings. Misspelling these two words might cause confusion for the reader and give the sense of unprofessionalism. As a result, it is critical to learn the distinctions between commonly misspelled words and to carefully check spelling before submitting any writing. Many tools can be used to enhance and prevent spelling errors,

including dictionaries, automatic spell checkers, and software apps. When it comes to learning and practicing accurate spelling, personal expertise and attention are unrivaled. Writing skills will develop with continued practice, and the message will be clearer and more effective.

a) The Purpose of Spelling

Spelling is an essential component of writing that contributes to the flow and clarity of communication (Taye & Mengesha, 2023). The primary goal of spelling is to guarantee that written words are interpreted correctly by the reader without uncertainty regarding their meaning. Using perfect spelling also helps the reader understand the message being given by the writer. In today's more interconnected world, accurate spelling indicates that the writer understands the language. Furthermore, good spelling promotes uniformity and consistency in language use across a variety of contexts, whether professional or casual. Here are some uses of spelling:

- a) Correct spelling ensures that the message can be understood clearly without confusion about its meaning.
- b) The use of proper spelling demonstrates attention to detail and effective communication skills in formal contexts.
- c) Correct spelling reflects mastery of the language, enhancing the writer's credibility and authority.
- d) Consistency in spelling maintains the quality of writing and makes it easier for the reader to understand the content.
- e) Correct spelling ensures that the writing follows the established language rules and norms.

Finally, proper spelling not only aids comprehension, but also displays integrity, professionalism, and attention to detail. In an increasingly interconnected world, having a solid command of spelling is one of the key talents that not only

improves the quality of writing but also boosts the writer's reputation among readers or audiences. As a result, every writer must learn, comprehend, and practice using proper spelling in all their work.

b) The Example Spelling

Correct spelling is essential for clear communication and preventing misunderstandings in writing. Proper spelling helps the reader comprehend the writer's objectives more clearly and precisely. Here are some instances of typical English spellings and how they affect text comprehension.

1. Affect vs. Effect

“Affect” is used as a verb meaning to influence, while “Effect” is a noun meaning a result or consequence. For example, “The new law will affect the economy” and “The effect of the new law was significant.”

2. Accept vs. Except

“Accept” means to receive, whereas “Except” means to exclude. For instance, “I accept your apology” and “Everyone except John was invited to the party.”

3. Complement vs. Compliment

“Complement” means something that completes or enhances, while “Compliment” means praise. For example, “The wine is a perfect complement to the meal” and “She gave me a compliment on my dress.”

4. Principal vs. Principle

“Principal” refers to the head of a school or the most important thing, while “Principle” refers to a fundamental truth or rule. For example, “The principal of the school gave a speech” and “He stands by his principles.”

It is essential to use correct spelling to ensure effective and smooth communication. Proper spelling avoids

misunderstandings that may arise from writing errors, and it also reflects the writer's seriousness and credibility. Therefore, writers should be careful when checking the spelling of each word to ensure the message they intend to convey is received clearly by the reader.

c) Types of Spelling

There are spelling discrepancies between American and British English. These distinctions are frequently found in word endings, the use of specific vowels, and the preference for specific consonants. While both versions of English are generally known, it is critical to use the proper spelling rules dependent on the region or audience.

1. Word Endings

a. -or vs. -our

In American English, words like “color” and “flavor” are spelled without the ‘u,’ while in British English, these words are spelled with ‘our’: “colour” and “flavour.”

b. -ize vs. -ise

In American English, verbs like “realize” and “organize” are spelled with ‘z,’ while British English prefers ‘s’ in words like “realise” and “organise.”

2. Consonants

a. -er vs. -re

American English prefers “theater” and “center,” whereas British English spells these words as “theatre” and “centre.”

b. -l vs. -ll

In American English, words like “traveling” or “canceled” use a single ‘l,’ whereas British English uses double ‘l’ as in “travelling” and “cancelled.”

3. Vowel Differences

a. -ae vs. -e

Some words are spelled with ‘ae’ in British English and just ‘e’ in American English. For example, “paediatric” in British English becomes “pediatric” in American English. Understanding the distinctions between American and British spelling is critical, particularly for authors and students who may need to adopt one form over the other in certain situations. While spelling variances rarely influence comprehension, employing the proper spelling style ensures uniformity and professionalism in writing. Knowing which style to use based on your audience or area can help you improve the clarity and correctness of your writing.

d) The Importance of Spelling

In an ideal world, each letter would represent a single sound, and learning to spell would be simple. However, English is more complex since it contains around 44 different sounds but only 26 letters, implying that certain letters must represent several sounds. Other variables also contribute to the spelling system’s complexity. Let’s look at these factors.

1. Some Letters Can Have More Than One Sound

Certain letters in English can signify several sounds depending on their position in a word. For example, the letter “C” can make a “K” sound in words like “cat” and “clap,” but it also makes a “S” sound in terms like “circuit” and “ceiling.” Similarly, the letter “A” can make multiple sounds based on the word:

a. In “apple” and “bad,” it has a short “a” sound.

b. In “make” and “cake,” it has a long “a” sound.

The fact that a letter can produce multiple sounds makes English spelling more unpredictable and challenging.

2. **Some Sounds Can Be Represented by Different Letters**

In English, some sounds are represented by different letter combinations. For example, the “f” sound in the following words is spelled differently:

 - a. “Fun,” “philosophy,” and “laugh.”

Similarly, the “ee” sound in words like “tree,” “meat,” and “leisure” is represented by different letter combinations, which can make spelling tricky. Another example is the “sh” sound in words like “shut,” “action,” and “nation,” where the same sound is represented by different combinations of letters.

3. **Some Words That Sound the Same Are Written Differently**

Homophones are words that sound the same but have different meanings and spellings. For example:

 - a. “Flour” (used in baking) and “flower” (the plant).
 - b. “Mail” (letters and packages) and “male” (gender).
 - c. “To” (preposition), “too” (meaning also), and “two” (the number).

Because these words sound the same, it’s important to use the correct spelling based on the meaning you’re trying to convey.

4. **English Words Come from Many Different Languages**

English has borrowed words from many languages, and this has contributed to inconsistent spelling. For example:

 - a. “Café” comes from French and keeps its French spelling.
 - b. “Piano” comes from another European language and is spelled with an “I” rather than an “E.”
 - c. “Ketchup” comes from a Chinese word but has been adapted into English with its current spelling.

These influences from other languages often mean that

words retain their original spelling patterns, making them difficult to predict based on English pronunciation rules alone.

5. Silent Letters

Silent letters make spelling especially confusing. For instance:

- a. “K” is silent in words like “knee” and “know.”
- b. “W” is silent in words like “wrist” and “who.”
- c. “B” is silent in words like “thumb” and “doubt.”

These silent letters are remnants of earlier pronunciations, but over time, they’ve become unspoken in modern English.

6. The Presence of Single and Double Letters

Some letters in English can appear as both single and double letters. For example:

- a. The letter “L” appears once in “doll” but twice in “full.”
- b. The letter “T” appears once in “bat” but twice in “batter.”
- c. The letter “P” appears once in “top” but twice in “apple.”

While the pronunciation of these doubled consonants remains constant, determining whether a consonant should be written single or doubled can be difficult when merely hearing the word. English spelling can be difficult because it follows complicated and inconsistent norms. Many factors are at play, including silent letters and words that sound the same but are printed differently. Furthermore, English incorporates terms from other languages, which frequently preserve their original spelling patterns. Despite these obstacles, with practice and a

solid understanding of the principles, you may improve your spelling and communicate more effectively.

5.3. CAPITALIZATION

Capitalization is the practice of employing uppercase letters at the start of specified words according to grammatical norms and conventions (Nwike et al., 2021). It is commonly used for the first word of a sentence, proper nouns such the names of persons, places, organizations, and special titles, as well as acronyms and abbreviations. Capitalization distinguishes proper names from general words, increases readability, and expresses formality in writing (Calma et al., 2022). In English, the names of days of the week, months, holidays, and significant historical events should all be capitalized, but common nouns and verbs should not unless they come at the beginning of a phrase. Proper capitalization is required in formal and academic writing to ensure clarity and accuracy.

1. When to Capitalize

Capitalization is vital in writing because it allows readers to distinguish between generic and specific concepts (Guillory, 2023). Proper capitalization improves clarity, shows professionalism, and adheres to grammatical rules. Understanding whether to capitalize words is critical to effective communication in both professional and informal writing (Lew & Mejia-Ramos, 2019).

a. The First Word of a Sentence

Always capitalize the first word in a sentence to signal the beginning of a new thought.

Example: “Reading books can expand your knowledge.”

b. Proper Nouns

Capitalize names of people, places, and specific entities to differentiate them from general terms. *Example:*

“Yesterday, I visited my friend Sarah.”

c. Given Titles as Part of Proper Names

Capitalize titles when they directly refer to an individual as part of their name. Example: “Dr. Smith is an expert in environmental science.”

Do not capitalize when the title is used descriptively after the name.

Example: “Smith, a doctor at the local hospital, specializes in cardiology.”

d. Titles

Capitalize the first and last words in a title, as well as nouns and verbs (Pathan, 2021).

Do not capitalize prepositions and articles unless they are the first or last word of the title.

Examples: “A Journey Through Time,” “The Secrets of the Universe.”

Mastering capitalization standards enables authors to create polished and professional documents. Applying these guidelines appropriately increases readability and ensures that significant components in writing are given the attention they deserve.

2. When Not to Capitalize

Proper capitalization is vital in writing, but it is also critical to understand when not to capitalize terms (Fitria, 2021). Misusing capital letters can cause confusion and make writing appear inconsistent. Certain words, such as seasons, directions, and the first word after a colon that introduces common nouns, should not be capitalized unless they fit certain criteria. Understanding these exceptions promotes clarity and correctness in writing.

a. Names of Seasons

The names of seasons such as winter, spring, summer, and fall should not be capitalized unless they are part of a proper noun or title. Example:

- a. “We usually plant flowers in the spring.”
- b. “The park looks beautiful in summer.”
- c. “The registration period for classes starts in the fall of 2024.”

b. Directions

The cardinal directions including north, east, south, and west should not be capitalized when they refer to general directions. However, if they refer to a specific region, they should be capitalized. *Example:*

- a. “The river flows to the west.”
- b. “Many tourists visit the East during winter.”
- c. “Birds migrate south in colder months.”

c. The First Word in a List of Common Nouns After a Colon

Do not capitalize the first word after a colon when it introduces a list of common nouns.

Example:

- a. “She packed several items for the trip: clothes, shoes, and toiletries.”
- b. “The ingredients for the cake include flour, sugar, and eggs.”
- c. “Our team consists of three departments: marketing, finance, and operations.”

Being mindful of when to avoid capitalization helps uphold proper grammar and refine writing style. Following these rules ensures clarity, consistency, and professionalism in written work.

5.4. EXERCISES

Activity I

Directions: Correct the spelling mistakes in the following sentences.

1. The techer gave us an intresting assignmant today.
2. My freind and I are planning a suprise birthday party.
3. She recived a beutiful present from her parents.
4. We should always be carefull when crossing the street.
5. The libary closes early on weekends.
6. He forgot to bring his umbrella when it started raining.
7. The childern were excited to go on the feild trip.
8. I need to buy ingrediants to bake a choclate cake.

Activity II

Directions: Capitalize words as necessary in the following sentences.

1. my father enjoys reading historical novels.
2. our teacher mrs. johnson gave us an interesting assignment.
3. the festival in central park was amazing.
4. parker, the manager of our store, organized the event.
5. lisa loves visiting florida during winter to escape the cold weather.
6. we traveled north to see the beautiful mountains.
7. my uncle owns a small farm in the east near the river.
8. after soccer practice, jake had three tasks to complete: clean his shoes, drink water, and rest.

5.5. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, proper spelling and capitalization are essential for efficient written communication. Correct spelling ensures that the reader understands the message being given, eliminating misunderstanding when interpreting word meanings. Spelling errors can change the meaning of a word, particularly

for homophones with similar sounds but distinct meanings. Additionally, regular spelling demonstrates attention to detail and the writer's believability. As a result, writers must carefully verify their spelling to ensure the quality of their work and reduce errors that could disrupt communication. Capitalization, on the other hand, is just as crucial for arranging sentence structure and assisting readers in understanding the text. Capitalization is used at the beginning of phrases, for proper nouns, titles, and abbreviations to distinguish between broad and specific terms. Consistent capitalization promotes neat, professional, and easy-to-understand writing. Writers who adhere to capitalization and spelling norms display professionalism and communication skills.

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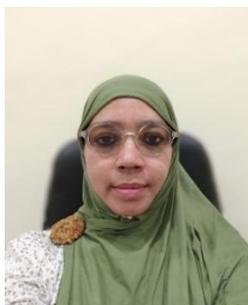
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AUTHOR'S PROFILE



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The author was born in Lhokseumawe, Aceh, on October 19, 1972. She obtained her doctoral degree in English Education from Universitas Negeri Malang in 2017. Since 2006, she has been a permanent lecturer at Universitas Almuslim, Aceh Province, teaching in the Master's Programs in Social Science Education, Educational Administration, and Primary Education. In her role, Silvi teaches Bilingual-Based Pedagogy and has served as the Head of the English Education Study Program since 2017. Actively engaged in various professional activities, she participates in the Subject Teacher Consultation (MGMP), serves as a Provincial Facilitator at the Ministry of Religious Affairs, and holds positions as a Merdeka Campus Ambassador, Lecturer Activator, and Field Supervisor (DPL) for the Kampus Mengajar program. Furthermore, she is actively involved in research and frequently attends academic conferences. Silvi has also successfully secured a BIMA grant under the Regular Fundamental Research (PFR) scheme, funded by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Research, and Technology (Kemendikbudristek) for 2023 and 2024, where she serves as the lead researcher.

CHAPTER 6

PHRASES

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6.1. INTRODUCTION

We have already noticed that language consists of a variety of levels of organization (eg. phonetics, grammar). Grammar itself is also composed of a number of levels. At the bottom level there are *words*, which are combined in various ways to create *sentences* at the top level. Words and sentences are, in fact, related through some intermediate levels of structure (phrases and clauses). What is a **phrase**? Traditionally, a “phrase” is defined as “a group of words that does not contain a verb and its subject and is used as a single part of speech.” The example of Phrases:

1. Writing a letter
2. Through the door
3. To proofread a paper
4. Broken by the fall
5. In a minute

Our discussion here will treat the five major phrase types in English:

1. **Adverb Phrase** (AdvP)
2. **Prepositional Phrase** (PP)
3. **Adjective Phrase** (AP)
4. **Noun Phrase** (NP)
5. **Verb Phrase** (VP).

This definition entails three characteristics: (1) it specifies that only a group of words can constitute a phrase, implying that a single word cannot; (2) it distinguishes phrases from clauses; and (3) it requires that the groups of words believed to be a phrase constitute a single grammatical unit. We accept (2) and (3), but must revise (1). We reject the claim that single words cannot constitute phrases. First, a word and a phrase may play identical grammatical roles in a clause, as (1) and (2) demonstrate: (1) Most of the members of the genus *avis* fly. (2) Birds fly. Most of the members of the genus *avis* is the subject of (1) and birds is the subject of (2), showing that single words and phrases can function identically in clauses. There are two inferences that we can draw from this fact: (a) a subject can consist of either a single noun or a noun phrase, or (b) subjects are phrases, and so whatever functions as a subject must be a phrase. If we assume (a), then whenever we define subject (and any other grammatical function, such as predicate, direct object, indirect object, etc.), we must always specify that it can be expressed as a word or as a phrase. Linguists would say that this formulation is more complex than it needs to be because it fails to articulate a more general pattern. The broader generalization is that these grammatical relations are always expressed as phrases and phrases can consist of either a single word or a unified group of words. Below, we will show how and when words can be phrases.

6.2. NOUN PHRASE (NP)

We begin our discussion of noun phrases (NP) with NPs that consist of just a single word and discuss their functional and then their formal properties. Then we will move on to various types of multi-word NPs. A **noun phrase** is a group of words that does not have a finite verb and is made up of a head noun or a pronoun and other modifiers before or after it. It acts as the

subject or the object of a verb, or as a complement. A noun phrase can be replaced with a noun or a pronoun. For example:

1. *My new pair of jeans is very comfortable.* (In this sentence, the noun phrase *my new pair of jeans*, with the head noun *jeans*, is functioning as the subject.)
2. *We have adopted a small black puppy.* (In this sentence, the noun phrase *a small black puppy*, with the head noun *puppy*, is functioning as the object.)

6.2.1. NOUN PHRASES: PREMODIFIERS

Words that precede the head noun in a noun phrase and that qualify the head noun are called premodifiers. Such words may act as determiners, adjectives or adjective phrases, and they together make up the noun phrase with the head noun. For example:

1. Much money has been spent on his education. (determiner + head noun)
2. Some rude people show no respect to their elders. (adjective phrase + head noun)
3. School education is a must for children. (adjective + head noun)

Other premodifiers in a noun phrase may include the present participle (-ing form of the verb, used as an adjective) and the past participle, used as an adjective. They precede the head noun. For example:

1. Do you want to listen to the *thrilling* stories? (The noun phrase includes a present participle *thrilling*.)
2. The *hounded* animal finally *escaped* inside a cave. (The noun phrase includes a past participle *hounded*.)

6.2.2. NOUN PHRASES: POSTMODIFIERS

Words that are used after the head noun in a noun phrase and that qualify the head noun are called postmodifiers. The postmodifier in a noun phrase is usually an adjective phrase or a prepositional phrase. For example:

1. The box full of cookies was emptied by the children.
(determiner the + head noun box + adjective phrase full of cookies)
2. The animals in the zoo are regularly examined by a vet.
(determiner the + head noun animals + prepositional phrase in the zoo)

6.2.3. NOUN PHRASES: COMPLEMENTS

Noun complements come immediately after the head noun in a noun phrase. They are usually prepositional phrases. Complements are necessary to complete the meaning of the head noun and cannot be removed. They are different from the postmodifiers that modify or describe the noun and can be removed from the sentence. For example: '

1. Your love for the country is exemplary. (*The prepositional phrase for the country is the complement necessary for completing the meaning of the head noun love.*)
2. The people of Delhi are worried about the rise in temperature. (*The prepositional phrase in temperature is the complement necessary for completing the meaning of the head noun rise.*)

6.3. ADJECTIVE PHRASE

An **adjective phrase** is a group of words that functions as an adjective, providing more information about a noun or pronoun in a sentence. It typically consists of an adjective as the main word, accompanied by modifiers such as adverbs, prepositional phrases, or other descriptive elements. For

example, in the sentence "*The extremely talented musician won the competition,*" the phrase "*extremely talented*" is an adjective phrase that describes the noun "*musician.*" Adjective phrases help add depth and detail to sentences, making descriptions more vivid and engaging.

Adjective phrases can appear before or after the noun they modify. When placed before the noun, they function similarly to a regular adjective, as in "*the beautifully decorated cake.*" When placed after the noun, they often follow a linking verb, as in "*The cake is beautifully decorated.*" In both cases, the phrase enhances the meaning of the noun by providing additional information. Understanding how to use adjective phrases effectively allows for more expressive and nuanced writing, enriching both spoken and written communication. An adjective phrase is a group of words that does not have a finite verb and that functions as an adjective and modifies a noun, a noun phrase or a pronoun in a sentence. It has a head adjective that is further modified by any of these: '

1. **Determiners** For example: I have a few fresh oranges.
2. **Adverbs before or after the head adjective** For example: He is very happy.
3. **Phrases that act as the complement of the head adjective** For example: She is afraid of that room.

Sometimes, an adjective phrase may have more than one head adjective. Now, let us read a few more examples of adjective phrases. We ordered some cheesy pizzas. (Here, the adjective phrase some cheesy, with the head adjectives some and cheesy, is modifying the noun pizzas.)

6.4. ADVERBIAL PHRASE

An **adverbial phrase** is a group of words that functions as an adverb, modifying a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. It

provides additional information about how, when, where, or why an action occurs. Unlike a single adverb, which consists of only one word (such as *quickly* or *yesterday*), an adverbial phrase contains multiple words that work together to perform the same function. For example, in the sentence "*She spoke in a very soft voice,*" the phrase "*in a very soft voice*" acts as an adverbial phrase, explaining how she spoke. Adverbial phrases can be categorized based on the type of information they provide. **Manner adverbial phrases** describe how an action is performed (e.g., "*He ran with great speed.*"), **time adverbial phrases** indicate when something happens (e.g., "*We will meet in the morning.*"), **place adverbial phrases** explain where an action takes place (e.g., "*She sat near the window.*"), and **reason adverbial phrases** show why something happens (e.g., "*They left due to the heavy rain.*"). These phrases add depth to a sentence, making it more informative and specific.

Adverbial phrases can be positioned flexibly within a sentence. They can appear at the beginning ("*In a hurry, she left the house.*"), in the middle ("*She, in a hurry, left the house.*"), or at the end ("*She left the house in a hurry.*"). Their placement can influence the sentence's emphasis and readability. By mastering the use of adverbial phrases, writers and speakers can make their language more precise, dynamic, and engaging, effectively conveying details about actions and events.

An adverb phrase is a group of words that does not have a finite verb and that acts as an adverb, and modifies a verb, an adjective or another adverb in a sentence. The head of an adverb phrase is an adverb that is modified by other words before or after it. An adverb phrase may give information about the manner, place, time, duration, frequency and degree of a verb, an adjective or another adverb. For example: '

1. The audience sang very enthusiastically with the choir.
(Here, the adverb phrase of manner very enthusiastically,

- with the head adverb enthusiastically, is modifying the verb sang.)
2. This classical dancer performs very often in this club. (Here, the adverb phrase of frequency very often, with the head adverb often, is modifying the verb performs.)
 3. Nurul painted the wall quite carefully. (Here, the adverb phrase of manner quite carefully, with the head adverb carefully, is modifying the verb painted.)
 4. Nilofer had planted the sapling right here. (Here, the adverb phrase of place right here, with the head adverb here, is modifying the verb had planted.)

6.5. PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

A **prepositional phrase** is a group of words that begins with a preposition and ends with a noun or pronoun, which is called the object of the preposition. This phrase functions as an adjective or adverb within a sentence, providing additional details about time, place, direction, manner, or cause. For example, in the sentence "*She sat **on the chair**,*" the phrase "*on the chair*" is a prepositional phrase indicating **where** she sat. Prepositional phrases help add clarity and detail to sentences, making them more informative and engaging.

Prepositional phrases can function as **adjective phrases**, modifying a noun or pronoun by providing more information about it. For example, in "*The book **on the table** is mine,*" the phrase "*on the table*" describes **which book** is being referred to. Similarly, in "*The girl **with the red dress** is my sister,*" the phrase "*with the red dress*" provides more details about **which girl** is being mentioned. In this way, prepositional phrases function similarly to adjectives by specifying or describing a noun.

Prepositional phrases can also function as **adverbial phrases**, modifying a verb, adjective, or another adverb by

explaining **when, where, how, or why** an action occurs. For instance, in "*He arrived **after the meeting**,*" the phrase "*after the meeting*" tells us **when** he arrived. Similarly, in "*She drove **to the city**,*" the phrase "*to the city*" explains **where** she drove. These phrases act like adverbs, enhancing the meaning of the verb by adding important details.

Using prepositional phrases effectively can improve writing and communication by providing precise descriptions. Instead of saying "*He stood there*," a sentence can be made more vivid with a prepositional phrase, such as "*He stood **in front of the door**.*" By incorporating prepositional phrases, speakers and writers can make their messages more engaging and informative, helping the audience visualize the situation more clearly.

A prepositional phrase is a group of words that does not have a finite verb, and that begins with a preposition and is followed by a noun or a noun phrase, an adjective or an adjective phrase, or an adverb or an adverb phrase. For example:

1. There was a big pothole on the main road. (Here, the prepositional phrase on the main road, beginning with the preposition on and followed by the noun phrase the main road, is an adverb phrase that is modifying the verb was.)
2. I travelled by bus from there. (Here, the prepositional phrase from there, beginning with the preposition from and followed by the adverb there, is an adverb phrase that is modifying the verb travelled.)
3. The house at the end of the street is haunted. (Here, the prepositional phrase at the end of the street is an adjective phrase that is modifying the noun phrase the house.)

6.6. VERB PHRASE

A **verb phrase** is a group of words that includes a main verb and its auxiliary (helping) verbs, working together to

express an action, occurrence, or state of being. Verb phrases help form different tenses, voices, and moods in a sentence. For example, in the sentence "*She has been studying all night*," the phrase "*has been studying*" is a verb phrase that indicates a continuous action in the present perfect progressive tense. The main verb here is "*studying*," while "*has been*" are auxiliary verbs that modify its meaning.

Verb phrases can be classified into two main types: **finite** and **non-finite**. A **finite verb phrase** contains a main verb that is marked for tense and agrees with the subject, such as in "*He is reading a book*." The phrase "*is reading*" is finite because it shows present continuous tense and agrees with the singular subject "*he*." In contrast, a **non-finite verb phrase** does not show tense and usually appears as an infinitive (*to write*), a gerund (*writing*), or a participle (*written*). For example, in "*She wants to travel around the world*," the phrase "*to travel*" is a non-finite verb phrase because it does not indicate a specific tense.

Verb phrases can also be used to express different **voices** (active and passive). In an active voice sentence like "*The teacher is explaining the lesson*," the verb phrase "*is explaining*" shows an ongoing action performed by the subject (*the teacher*). In a passive voice sentence like "*The lesson is being explained by the teacher*," the verb phrase "*is being explained*" shifts the focus to the object (*the lesson*), making it the subject of the sentence instead. This distinction is useful for emphasizing different parts of a sentence depending on the context.

Additionally, verb phrases can express different **moods**, such as indicative (stating facts), imperative (giving commands), or subjunctive (expressing wishes, doubts, or hypothetical situations). For instance, in "*She might have gone to the market*," the phrase "*might have gone*" indicates a possibility, making it an example of a modal verb phrase. Understanding

verb phrases allows for more precise and varied sentence structures, improving both written and spoken communication. Verb phrase consists of a main verb preceded by at least one helping verb (auxiliary verb) and or a main verb with its auxiliary fusion. For Example:

1. Katie **was writing** her essay about friendship.
2. Katie **wrote** her essay about friendship
(wrote= did write) > did (Aux) > write (main V=V1)

6.7. EXERCISES

EXERCISE 1 PHRASES

Underline the noun phrases in these sentences. Then, work in pairs, and check each other's answers.

1. The big bright full moon adorned the sky.
2. Beth dreamt she was all alone on a lonely planet.
3. There are many dogs in my uncle's house; the big black one is very friendly.
4. My piano lessons are progressing well.
5. The paperback edition of this book is not available anywhere.
6. Chemical pesticides and fertilizers are poisoning waterbodies too.
7. My 70-year-old grandmother wants to buy a new sports car.
8. The new travel agency serves only elderly travelers.
9. Beena has recently donated a hundred books to charity.
10. The old man in the blue shirt is the new karate teacher.

EXERCISE 2 ADJECTIVES PHRASE

Underline the adjective phrases in this description. Then, check your answers with the teacher.

It was a cold and bleak wintry evening. The gentle murmuring breeze tapped against the window blinds. Outside, the wind blew the fallen yellow leaves to another lonely place. Soon,

white feathery flakes covered the earth, preparing us for a chilly white morning. We stayed inside the warm wooden house. It was an amazing weather, suitable for a long-awaited family get-together. I was extremely glad to meet my naughty cousins after a very long time. And I couldn't wait to meet my witty and charismatic uncle, a well-known globetrotter, who always has many fantastic and mind-blowing stories to share with us.

EXERCISE 3: ADVERB PHRASE

Underline the adverb phrases in these sentences. Then, work in pairs, and check each other's answers. You may circle the head adverb.

1. The train moved quite slowly as it neared the station.
2. He spoke surprisingly well, though it was his debut.
3. We dine out only occasionally.
4. The firefighters got into action really quickly.
5. You should have submitted the report much earlier

EXERCISE 4 PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE

Work in groups of three, and identify any two kinds of phrases (noun, adjective or adverb, in each of these sentences. Then, check your answers with the teacher.

1. The old and experienced teacher called me to the front of the class.
2. The small black counter in the kitchen is made of marble.
3. The crooked little cottage stands behind the school wall.
4. The hungry little caterpillar crept up the leafy stem.
5. She behaved in a ridiculous manner on the stage.
6. Stealing another's money is against the law

6.8. CONCLUSION

A phrase is a fundamental unit of language that consists of a group of words functioning together to convey a specific meaning. In English, phrases can be categorized into various types, including noun phrases, verb phrases, adjective phrases, prepositional phrase and adverb phrases. Each type of phrase has its unique structure and function. Understanding phrases and their functions is crucial for effective communication in English. By recognizing and using phrases correctly, individuals can convey complex meanings and nuances in a clear and concise manner. To improve English language proficiency, it is essential to: (1) Study the structure and function of phrases in-depth. (2) Practice using phrases in various contexts. (3) Engage in extensive reading and listening activities to enhance comprehension and language skills. By doing so, individuals can enhance their English language proficiency and communicate more effectively.

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CHAPTER 7

CLAUSES

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7.1. INTRODUCTION

Clauses are fundamental components of sentence structure in English grammar. A clause is defined as a group of words that contains both a subject and a predicate, forming a meaningful unit within a sentence. For instance, the clause "The cat sleeps" includes the subject "the cat" and the predicate "sleeps," conveying a complete thought. This definition aligns with various sources, including the Merriam-Webster Dictionary, which describes a clause as "a group of words containing a subject and predicate and functioning as a member of a complex or compound sentence".

Understanding the distinction between clauses and phrases is crucial for grasping the intricacies of English grammar. A phrase is a group of words that acts as a single unit but lacks either a subject or a verb, meaning it cannot stand alone as a complete sentence. For example, "in the garden" is a phrase; it provides additional information but does not express a complete thought. In contrast, clauses can often stand alone as sentences if they are independent clauses, which contain both a subject and a verb.

Mastering clauses is essential for several reasons. Firstly, clauses serve as the building blocks of sentences, allowing for varied sentence structures and complexities. They enable writers to express nuanced ideas by combining independent and dependent clauses to convey detailed relationships between

thoughts. Furthermore, understanding how to manipulate clauses enhances clarity and coherence in writing, making it easier for readers to follow the intended message. Thus, a solid grasp of clauses not only improves grammatical accuracy but also enriches overall communication skills.

7.2. TYPES OF CLAUSES

Clauses can be categorized into two primary types:

a. Independent Clauses

An independent clause is a fundamental building block of sentences in English grammar. Here's a breakdown of what it is and how it works:

Definition: An independent clause is a group of words that contains a subject and a verb and expresses a complete thought. Because it expresses a complete thought, it can stand alone as a sentence.

Key Characteristics:

Subject: The noun or pronoun that performs the action or is being described.

Verb: The action word or state of being.

Complete Thought: The clause makes sense on its own.

Examples:

- a. **The dog barked.** (Subject: dog; Verb: barked)
- b. **I am happy.** (Subject: I; Verb: am)
- c. **She is reading a book.** (Subject: She; Verb: is reading)
- d. **The sun shines brightly.** (Subject: sun; Verb: shines)
- e. **We went to the store.** (Subject: We; Verb: went)

How to Identify an Independent Clause:

1. **Look for a subject and a verb.**
2. **See if the clause expresses a complete thought.** If it does, it's an independent clause.
3. **Ask yourself: Could this group of words stand alone as a sentence?** If yes, it's an independent clause.

Independent Clauses in Compound and Complex Sentences:

Independent clauses can be combined with other clauses (both independent and dependent) to form more complex sentences:

Compound Sentence: Consists of two or more independent clauses joined by a coordinating conjunction (for, and, nor, but, or, yet, so), a semicolon, or a colon. Example: *The cat slept on the windowsill, and the dog slept on the rug.* (Two independent clauses joined by "and")

Complex Sentence: Consists of one independent clause and one or more dependent clauses. Example: *Because it was raining, I took my umbrella.* (Independent clause: I took my umbrella; Dependent clause: Because it was raining)

Understanding independent clauses is crucial for writing grammatically correct and varied sentences. They form the foundation upon which more complex sentence structures are built.

b. Dependent Clauses

A dependent clause, also known as a subordinate clause, is a group of words that contains a subject and a verb but does not express a complete thought. Because it cannot stand alone as a sentence, it depends on an independent clause to form a complete sentence.

Here's a breakdown of key aspects of dependent clauses:

Subject and Verb: Like independent clauses, dependent clauses contain both a subject (who or what the clause is about) and a verb (the action or state of being).

Incomplete Thought: The defining characteristic is that even with a subject and verb, the clause leaves the reader expecting more information. It doesn't make sense on its own.

Subordinating Words: Dependent clauses often begin with subordinating conjunctions or relative pronouns, which connect them to the independent clause and indicate their relationship.

Importance: Understanding dependent clauses is crucial for constructing complex and grammatically correct sentences. They allow you to add detail, provide context, and create more sophisticated and nuanced writing. By using different types of dependent clauses effectively, you can improve the clarity and impact of your communication.

DEPENDENT CLAUSES: CATEGORIES AND FUNCTIONS

Dependent clauses can be further categorized based on their function in a sentence:

a. Adverbial Clauses

What is an Adverbial Clause?

An adverbial clause is a group of words that contains a subject and a verb, and it functions as an adverb. That means it modifies (describes or gives more information about) a verb, an adjective, or another adverb in the main clause of a sentence. It tells us things like when, where, why, how, how much, or under what condition something happens.

Key characteristics:

1. **Contains a subject and a verb:** Just like any clause, it needs these two essential components.
2. **Acts as an adverb:** This is its primary function – to modify something else in the sentence.
3. **Introduced by a subordinating conjunction:** This is a word or phrase that connects the adverbial clause to the main clause.

Subordinating Conjunctions: These are the words that introduce adverbial clauses and signal the relationship between the clause and the main clause. Here's a list of common ones, grouped by the type of relationship they usually indicate:

Time: *after, before, when, while, since, until, as, as soon as, whenever, now that*

Place: *where, wherever*

Cause/Reason: *because, since, as, inasmuch as, now that*

Purpose: *so that, in order that, lest*

Condition: *if, unless, provided that, as long as, in case, on condition that*

Concession/Contrast: *although, though, even though, while, whereas*

Manner: *as, as if, as though*

Degree/Extent: *than, as...as, so...as*

Examples:

Let's look at some examples to see how adverbial clauses work in sentences:

1. **Time:** *I will call you **when I arrive**.*

Adverbial Clause: *when I arrive*

Subordinating Conjunction: *when*

What it modifies: *will call* (the verb in the main clause)

What it tells us: *when* I will call (the time)

2. **Place:** *You can sit **wherever** you like.*
 Adverbial Clause: *wherever you like*
 Subordinating Conjunction: *wherever*
 What it modifies: *sit* (the verb in the main clause)
 What it tells us: *where* you can sit (the place)
3. **Cause/Reason:** *She is happy **because** she passed the exam.*
 Adverbial Clause: *because she passed the exam*
 Subordinating Conjunction: *because*
 What it modifies: *is happy* (the verb in the main clause)
 What it tells us: *why* she is happy (the reason)
4. **Condition:** ***If** it rains, we will stay inside.*
 Adverbial Clause: *If it rains*
 Subordinating Conjunction: *If*
 What it modifies: *will stay* (the verb in the main clause)
 What it tells us: *under what condition* we will stay inside
5. **Concession/Contrast:** ***Although** it was raining, they went for a walk.*
 Adverbial Clause: *Although it was raining*
 Subordinating Conjunction: *Although*
 What it modifies: *went* (the verb in the main clause)
 What it tells us: *despite what* they went for a walk

Important Points:

1. **Clause Order:** Adverbial clauses can come *before* or *after* the main clause. When the adverbial clause comes *before* the main clause, it's usually separated by a comma. When it comes *after*, a comma is generally not needed (unless for clarity).
 - a. *Before I leave, I need to finish this report.*
 - b. *I need to finish this report before I leave.*
2. **Elliptical Adverbial Clauses:** Sometimes, part of the adverbial clause is omitted (usually the subject and/or a form of the verb "be") if it's clear from the context.

- a. *While (I was) driving*, I saw an accident.
 - b. *When (you are) ready*, we can go.
3. **Distinguishing from other Clauses:** It's important to distinguish adverbial clauses from adjective clauses and noun clauses. Adjective clauses modify nouns or pronouns, while noun clauses function as nouns.

b. Adjective Clauses

What is an Adjective Clause?

An adjective clause is a group of words that contains a subject and a verb, and it modifies a noun or pronoun in the main clause of a sentence. Essentially, it functions like an adjective, providing more information about the noun it modifies. It's also known as a relative clause.

Key Characteristics:

1. **Contains a Subject and Verb:** Just like any clause, it has both a subject (who or what is performing the action) and a verb (the action itself).
2. **Modifies a Noun or Pronoun:** It describes or gives more detail about a noun or pronoun.
3. **Begins with a Relative Pronoun or Relative Adverb:** This is a key identifier.

Relative Pronouns:

Who (refers to people)

Whom (refers to people, used as the object of a verb or preposition)

Which (refers to things or animals)

That (refers to people, things, or animals)

Whose (shows possession)

Relative Adverbs:

Where (refers to places)

When (refers to times)

Why (refers to reasons)

Examples:

Let's look at some examples to illustrate how adjective clauses work:

1. **The book *that I borrowed from the library* is very interesting.**

Main Clause: The book is very interesting.

Adjective Clause: *that I borrowed from the library*

The adjective clause modifies the noun "book." It tells us *which* book is interesting. "That" is the relative pronoun.

2. **The woman *who lives next door* is a doctor.**

Main Clause: The woman is a doctor.

Adjective Clause: *who lives next door*

The adjective clause modifies the noun "woman." It tells us *which* woman is a doctor. "Who" is the relative pronoun.

3. **This is the house *where I grew up*.**

Main Clause: This is the house.

Adjective Clause: *where I grew up*

The adjective clause modifies the noun "house." It tells us *which* house. "Where" is the relative adverb.

4. **I remember the day *when we first met*.**

Main Clause: I remember the day.

Adjective Clause: *when we first met*

The adjective clause modifies the noun "day." It tells us *which* day. "When" is the relative adverb.

5. **The student *whose essay won the competition* was thrilled.**

Main Clause: The student was thrilled.

Adjective Clause: *whose essay won the competition*

The adjective clause modifies the noun "student." It tells us *which* student. "Whose" is the relative pronoun (showing possession).

Types of Adjective Clauses: There are two main types of adjective clauses:

1. **Restrictive (or Essential) Clauses:** These clauses are essential to the meaning of the sentence. They provide information that is necessary to identify the noun being modified. They are *not* set off by commas. Example: The car *that is parked outside* is mine. (Without the clause, we wouldn't know *which* car is being referred to.)
2. **Nonrestrictive (or Nonessential) Clauses:** These clauses add extra information about the noun, but the sentence would still make sense without them. They are set off by commas. Example: My brother, *who lives in California*, is a software engineer. (We already know who "my brother" is. The clause just gives us extra information about him.)

Punctuating Adjective Clauses:

1. **Restrictive Clauses:** No commas needed.
2. **Nonrestrictive Clauses:** Use commas to set off the clause from the rest of the sentence.

"That" vs. "Which":

This is a common point of confusion!

Use "that" for restrictive (essential) clauses.

Use "which" for nonrestrictive (nonessential) clauses, *and always use a comma before "which."*

Example: The book *that* I read was fascinating. (essential)

Example: The book, *which* I borrowed from the library, was fascinating. (nonessential)

c. Noun Clauses

A noun clause is a dependent clause that functions as a noun. This means it can occupy the same positions in a sentence that a noun can: subject, object, complement, or appositive. Here's a breakdown:

Dependent Clause: It has a subject and a verb but cannot stand alone as a complete sentence.

Functions as a Noun: It takes on the role of a noun within the main clause.

How to Identify a Noun Clause:

1. **Look for a Subordinating Conjunction or Relative Pronoun:** Noun clauses often begin with words like *that, what, whatever, who, whoever, whom, whomever, which, whichever, when, where, why, how, whether, or if*.
2. **Determine its Function:** Ask yourself: Is the entire clause acting as the subject, object, complement, or appositive in the sentence?

Examples of Noun Clauses in Different Functions:

1. **Subject:** *What he said* surprised everyone. ("What he said" is the subject of the verb "surprised.")
2. **Direct Object:** I don't know *what I want for dinner*. ("What I want for dinner" is the direct object of the verb "know.")
3. **Indirect Object:** I will give *whoever asks* an answer. ("Whoever asks" is the indirect object of the verb "give.")
4. **Predicate Nominative (Complement):** The question is *whether we can afford it*. ("Whether we can afford it" renames or identifies the subject "the question.")
5. **Object of a Preposition:** I am interested in *what you decide*. ("What you decide" is the object of the preposition "in.")

6. **Appositive:** My belief, *that she is innocent*, has never wavered. ("That she is innocent" explains or identifies the noun "belief.")

Key Points to Remember:

A noun clause has a subject and a verb.

A noun clause is a dependent clause.

A noun clause functions as a noun (subject, object, complement, or appositive).

Pay attention to the introductory words (subordinating conjunctions or relative pronouns) to help identify noun clauses.

7.3. CLAUSES ELEMENTS

1. **Subject:** The subject is the noun or pronoun that performs the action or is being described by the verb. It answers the questions "Who?" or "What?" before the verb. Examples:
 - a. **The dog** barked loudly. ("Dog" is the subject)
 - b. **She** is reading a book. ("She" is the subject)
 - c. **Running** is good exercise. ("Running" is the subject – a gerund acting as a noun)
2. **Verb:** The verb expresses the action, occurrence, or state of being in the clause. It's the heart of the clause. Examples:
 - a. The dog **barked** loudly. ("barked" is the verb)
 - b. She **is** reading a book. ("is reading" is the verb phrase)
 - c. They **went** to the store. ("went" is the verb)
3. **Object (Optional):** The object receives the action of the verb. It answers the questions "Whom?" or "What?" after the verb.

Direct Object: Receives the action directly.

Example:

She reads **books**. ("books" is the direct object – what she reads)

Indirect Object: Indicates to whom or for whom the action is done. It comes before the direct object.

Example: He gave **her** the book. ("her" is the indirect object – to whom he gave the book)

4. **Complement (Optional):** A complement provides more information about the subject or object.

Subject Complement: Follows a linking verb (e.g., *is, are, was, were, seems, becomes*) and describes the subject.

Example: She is **a teacher**. ("a teacher" is the subject complement, describing "she")

Object Complement: Follows the direct object and describes or renames it.

Example: They elected him **president**. ("president" is the object complement, describing "him")

Adverbial (Optional): Adverbials modify the verb, adjective, or another adverb, providing information about how, when, where, why, or to what extent something is done. They can be single words (adverbs), phrases, or clauses. Examples:

- a. She sings **beautifully**. ("beautifully" is an adverb modifying "sings")
- b. They went to the park **yesterday**. ("yesterday" is an adverb modifying "went")
- c. **Because it was raining**, they stayed inside. ("Because it was raining" is an adverbial clause modifying "stayed")

7.4. CLAUSE STRUCTURES

Four Sentence Structures Based on Clauses

We can classify sentences into four structures, depending on how they combine independent and dependent clauses:

a. Simple Sentence

Definition: A simple sentence consists of only *one* independent clause.

Formula: Independent Clause

Example: *The cat slept on the windowsill.*

Key Feature: It expresses a single, complete thought. It can have modifiers (adjectives, adverbs, phrases), but it only has one subject-verb core.

Example with modifiers: *The fluffy, gray cat slept peacefully on the sunny windowsill all afternoon.* (Still a simple sentence – one independent clause)

b. Compound Sentence

Definition: A compound sentence consists of *two or more* independent clauses joined together.

Formulas:

Independent Clause, conjunction Independent Clause
(Conjunctions like *and, but, or, nor, for, so, yet*)

Independent Clause; Independent Clause (Joined by a semicolon)

Independent Clause; conjunctive adverb, Independent Clause
(Conjunctive adverbs like *however, therefore, moreover, nevertheless*; semicolon before, comma after)

Examples:

a. *The dog barked, and the cat hissed.* (Comma + conjunction)

b. *The sun was shining; the birds were singing.*
(Semicolon)

c. *The game was cancelled; therefore, we went to the movies.* (Semicolon + conjunctive adverb + comma)

Key Feature: Each clause could stand alone as a sentence. The conjunction or semicolon indicates a relationship between the ideas in the clauses.

c. Complex Sentence

Definition: A complex sentence consists of *one* independent clause and *one or more* dependent clauses.

Formulas:

Dependent Clause, Independent Clause

Independent Clause Dependent Clause

Examples:

- a. *Because it was raining, we stayed inside.* (Dependent clause first)
- b. *We stayed inside because it was raining.* (Independent clause first)
- c. *The book that I borrowed from the library was very interesting.* (Dependent clause in the middle of the independent clause)

Key Feature: The dependent clause cannot stand alone. The independent clause is the main point, and the dependent clause provides additional information (reason, time, condition, etc.).

d. Compound-Complex Sentence

Definition: A compound-complex sentence consists of *two or more* independent clauses and *one or more* dependent clauses.

Formula: Combination of compound and complex sentence elements. (Two or more independent clauses + one or more dependent clauses.)

Example: *Because it was raining, we stayed inside, and we watched a movie.* (**Dependent clause + independent clause + conjunction + independent clause**)

Another Example: *Although I like to camp, I haven't had the time to go lately, and my tent has a hole in it.* (Dependent clause + independent clause + conjunction + independent clause)

Key Feature: This is the most complex sentence structure, allowing for nuanced and detailed expression.

e. **Why is This Important?**

Variety: Using different sentence structures makes your writing more interesting and engaging for the reader. Avoid writing only simple sentences, as it can sound choppy. Avoid writing only very long, complex sentences, as it can be difficult to follow.

Clarity: Choosing the right sentence structure helps you express the relationship between ideas clearly. For example, using "because" in a complex sentence clearly shows a cause-and-effect relationship.

Emphasis: You can emphasize certain ideas by placing them in the independent clause.

Sophistication: Mastering sentence structure demonstrates a strong command of the English language.

7.5. CLAUSES IN CONTEXT

a. **The Role of Clauses in Forming Meaningful Sentences**

Clauses are the fundamental building blocks of sentences, contributing to both structure and meaning. A clause consists of a subject and a predicate, and it can function independently as a complete thought (independent clause) or dependently as part of a larger sentence (dependent clause). By incorporating different types of clauses, writers can convey detailed information, establish relationships between ideas, and enhance coherence in communication.

For example, in the sentence: "**Because she studied diligently, Maria passed her exams with flying colors.**"

The dependent clause "**Because she studied diligently**" provides a reason for the main clause "**Maria passed her**

exams with flying colors." This interplay between clauses strengthens the sentence's logical flow.

b. Enhancing Sentence Variety and Complexity in Writing

The use of varied clause structures enables writers to create more engaging and sophisticated sentences. Simple sentences consist of a single independent clause, while compound, complex, and compound-complex sentences integrate multiple clauses to enrich expression.

1. **Simple Sentence (One Independent Clause):**

○ *"The sun sets in the west."*

2. **Compound Sentence (Two Independent Clauses):**

○ *"The sun sets in the west, and the stars begin to shine."*

3. **Complex Sentence (One Independent and One or More Dependent Clauses):**

○ *"As the sun sets in the west, the sky turns orange."*

4. **Compound-Complex Sentence (Two Independent and One or More Dependent Clauses):** *"As the sun sets in the west, the sky turns orange, and birds return to their nests."*

By incorporating a mix of these sentence types, writers can maintain reader interest, avoid monotony, and effectively convey nuanced ideas.

c. Examples from Literature, Formal Writing, and Conversation

Clauses play a crucial role in literature, formal writing, and everyday speech by adding depth and complexity to expression.

- 1) **Literature Example:** In Jane Austen's *Pride and Prejudice*: *"It is a truth universally acknowledged, that a single man in possession of a good fortune, must be*

in want of a wife." This complex sentence presents a universal statement while maintaining an engaging rhythm.

2) **Formal Writing Example:** *"While the economic downturn affected global markets, many small businesses found innovative ways to thrive."* Here, the dependent clause establishes context before presenting the main idea.

3) **Conversation Example:**

a. "I'll call you when I arrive at the station."

b. *The dependent clause "when I arrive at the station" provides a specific time frame for the action.*

7.6. EXERCISE

Try identifying the sentence structure of the following examples:

1. Before I leave for work, I need to feed the dog.
2. The flowers bloomed, and the bees buzzed around them.
3. She went to the store.
4. Although he was tired, he finished his homework, and then he went to bed.

7.7. CONCLUSION

Clauses are essential to constructing clear, dynamic, and engaging sentences. Whether in literature, academic writing, or casual speech, they contribute to sentence variety and complexity, enhancing both readability and expressiveness. Understanding and using clauses effectively allows for more precise communication and a richer writing style.

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CHAPTER 8

GERUND

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8.1. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND OF GERUNDS

The name "gerund" comes from the Latin word *gerundium*, which meaning "to be carried out." Gerunds were verbal nouns in Latin grammar, with the exception of the nominative case. In the 16th century, English used the term to identify verbal nouns that ended in "-ing." Historically, this phrase was employed to represent continuing or required acts or conditions.

Gerunds were first employed to express verbal nouns in Latin grammar, which is where the idea originated. In English, gerunds arose as part of the language's adaption of Old English and Middle English forms, when verbs and nouns commonly overlapped. In order to differentiate present participles from gerunds, English evolved a methodical technique to use the "-ing" form as a word throughout time. English grammar became more adaptable with the adoption of gerunds, enabling more complex phrases and sentence constructions.

The "-ing" form, which is used to generate gerunds, resulted from the combination of the present participle suffix "-ende" and the gerund suffix "-ing". In Old English, gerunds were formed by adding the suffix "-ung" or "-ing" to a verb. These were previously feminine abstract nouns formed from action verbs. These derived nominals were inflected like nouns.

Gerunds did not exist in Old English. Their appearance is related to the evolution of the D-system, which is a functional category within a nominal phrase. Gerunds have evolved over

time as pure nominal phrases acquired linguistic qualities. This was made conceivable by the emergence of D within a nominal phrase. The transition from morphology to syntax occurred during the creation of gerunds.

A gerund is a verb form that functions as a noun, created by adding "-ing" to the base form of a verb. Gerunds are used in various grammatical contexts, often replacing traditional noun structures. Since gerunds act as nouns, they can perform several functions within a sentence, such as subjects, direct objects, indirect objects, subject complements, and objects of prepositions. Understanding gerunds is essential for studying English grammar because they are commonly used in both oral and written communication. This chapter will look at how gerunds are formed, how they are used, how they differ from infinitives, typical mistakes, and exercises to help you understand them better.

Gerunds originated in Latin grammar, where they were employed to express verbal nouns. Gerunds emerged in English as a result of the language's adaptation to Old English and Middle English patterns, in which verbs and nouns commonly overlapped. Over time, English evolved a systematic approach to employing the "-ing" form as a noun, separating gerunds from present participles. The use of gerunds made English grammar more adaptable, allowing for more subtle sentence constructions and idioms.

8.2. FORMATION OF GERUNDS

To form a gerund, simply add "-ing" to the base form of the verb. However, some spelling rules apply:

1. For most verbs, simply add "-ing":

Play → Playing

Read → Reading

Cook → Cooking

2. **For verbs ending in "-e," drop the "e" before adding "-ing":**
 Write → Writing
 Make → Making
 Ride → Riding
3. **For one-syllable verbs ending in a consonant-vowel-consonant pattern, double the final consonant before adding "-ing":**
 Run → Running
 Sit → Sitting
 Get → Getting
4. **For verbs ending in "-ie," change "ie" to "y" before adding "-ing":**
 Die → Dying
 Lie → Lying
 Tie → Tying

8.3. FUNCTIONS OF GERUNDS IN A SENTENCE

1. Gerund as a Subject

A gerund can function as the subject of a sentence. For example:

Swimming is my favorite hobby.

Reading helps improve vocabulary.

2. Gerund as a Direct Object

When a gerund follows a verb, it often acts as the direct object of that verb. For example:

She enjoys **painting**.

They discussed **moving** to a new city.

3. Gerund as a Subject Complement

A gerund can act as a subject complement when it follows a linking verb (such as "be"). For example:

His passion is **writing**.

My favorite activity is **traveling**.

4. Gerund as an Object of a Preposition

Gerunds often appear after prepositions, functioning as the object of the preposition. For example:

He is interested in **learning** new languages.

They talked about **going** on a vacation.

5. Gerund in Compound Forms

Gerunds can appear in compound noun phrases or as part of expressions. For example:

I have a fear of **speaking** in public.

The new job requires **working** overtime.

8.4. COMMON VERBS FOLLOWED BY GERUNDS

Some verbs are typically followed by gerunds rather than infinitives. Common verbs that take gerunds include:

1. Enjoy: She enjoys **dancing**.
2. Avoid: He avoided **talking** about the problem.
3. Consider: They considered **moving** to another city.
4. Suggest: I suggest **taking** a break.
5. Keep: She keeps **practicing** the piano.

Gerund vs. Infinitive

Gerunds and infinitives are verbal (words formed from verbs) that can be used as nouns. However, there are significant distinctions.

Feature	Gerund (e.g., "swimming")	Infinitive (e.g., "to swim")
Form	Verb + "-ing"	"To" + base form of the verb
Function	Acts as a noun	Acts as a noun, adjective, or adverb

Feature	Gerund (e.g., "swimming")	Infinitive (e.g., "to swim")
Use as Subject	Common (e.g., "Swimming is fun.")	Less common (e.g., "To swim is fun.")
Object of Preposition	Always used (e.g., "He is good at swimming.")	Not used (incorrect: "He is good at to swim.")
Preference in Context	Used for real or completed actions (e.g., "I enjoy swimming.")	Used for abstract or future actions (e.g., "I want to swim.")

Some verbs can be followed by either a gerund or an infinitive with little or no change in meaning, while others require one form or the other. Compare:

Gerund : I enjoy **reading** books.

Infinitive : I want **to read** books.

Certain verbs can change meaning depending on whether they take a gerund or an infinitive:

Try + gerund: Experiment with an activity. (e.g., Try **writing** with your left hand.)

Try + infinitive: Make an effort to do something. (e.g., Try **to write** a formal letter.)

8.5. COMMON MISTAKES WITH GERUNDS

Common mistakes when using gerunds in sentences often stem from confusion with grammar rules, misuse of gerunds in specific contexts, and interference from other languages. Below are some frequent errors and their explanations:

1. Using Object Pronouns Instead of Possessive Pronouns

Incorrect : They were counting on *me helping* them.

Correct : They were counting on *my helping* them.
Gerunds should be preceded by possessive pronouns (e.g., *my, your, his*), not object pronouns (e.g., *me, him*). However, this rule is sometimes relaxed in informal English

2. Misusing Gerunds After Prepositions

Certain verbs and adjectives require a preposition followed by a gerund.

Incorrect : I am thinking *to write* my autobiography.

Correct : I am thinking *of writing* my autobiography.

Incorrect : She is confident *to win*.

Correct : She is confident *of winning*.

Using an infinitive instead of a gerund after prepositions is a common mistake

3. Lack of Parallel Structure

When listing activities or actions, all items must have the same grammatical structure.

Incorrect : Alice likes singing, dancing, and *to paint*.

Correct : Alice likes singing, dancing, and *painting*.

Maintaining parallelism ensures clarity and consistency in writing

4. Confusion Between Gerunds and Infinitives

Some verbs allow both forms but have different meanings:

Incorrect : I stopped *to smoke*.

Correct : I stopped *smoking*.

(*Stopped smoking* means quitting the habit, while *stopped to smoke* means pausing to smoke.) Additionally, some verbs strictly require one form:

Verbs that take gerunds: enjoy, avoid, finish (*I enjoy swimming*.)

Verbs that take infinitives: decide, want, hope (*I want to swim.*)

5. **Overgeneralization of Rules**

Learners may incorrectly extend patterns to all cases:

Incorrect : He advised us *staying calm*.

Correct : He advised us *to stay calm*.

Certain verbs like "advise," "help," and "remind" are followed by an infinitive rather than a gerund.

6. **Errors with Negative Adjectives**

Gerunds are often used after negative adjectives like "no."

Incorrect : There is no hope of the fog's lifting.

Correct : There is no hope of the fog lifting.

Avoid using possessive case with lifeless nouns when paired with gerunds.

7. **Errors in Passive Gerund Forms**

Students often struggle with passive gerund constructions:

Incorrect : The windows need being cleaned.

Correct : The windows need cleaning.

8. **Overgeneralization of Rules**

Students may apply rules incorrectly across contexts:

For example:

Correct for activities: "I go swimming."

Incorrect extension: "I go to shopping" (should be "I go shopping").

9. **Ignoring Special Expressions**

Certain expressions require gerunds but are often misused:

Incorrect : He had trouble *to understand* the instructions.

Correct : He had trouble *understanding* the instructions.

Examples of such expressions include:

Have fun/a good time

Have trouble/difficulty

Spend/waste time or money

10. Mother Tongue Interference

Non-native speakers may apply rules from their native language to English:

For example, mistakenly using an infinitive where a gerund is required due to structural differences between languages.

Additional Notes:

Research indicates that the most common errors involve using gerunds as direct objects of certain verbs (e.g., "I avoid to smoke" instead of "I avoid smoking") and after special expressions (e.g., "have trouble doing"). These errors frequently result from ignorance of specific rules or an insufficient comprehension of language. By addressing these typical errors and practicing consistently, students can improve their usage of gerunds in English sentences.

1. Using an infinitive instead of a gerund after a preposition:

Incorrect : He is good at **to sing**.

Correct : He is good at **singing**.

2. Confusing gerunds with present participles:

Incorrect : The **running** is good for health. (Gerund needed)

Correct : **Running** is good for health.

3. Forgetting to use a possessive form before a gerund in formal writing:

Incorrect : I appreciate **him helping** me.

Correct : I appreciate **his helping** me.

8.6. HOW GERUNDS FUNCTION IN DIFFERENT TENSES

Gerunds, being verbal nouns, do not change form to reflect tense. However, their role in a phrase might interact with several tenses via the primary verb or auxiliary verbs. Here's an

explanation of how gerunds function in different tenses and contexts:

1. Gerunds as Subjects

When a gerund functions as the subject of a sentence, the tense is determined by the main verb:

- a. Present Simple: *Swimming is fun.*
- b. Past Simple: *Swimming was her favorite activity.*
- c. Future Simple: *Swimming will be part of my routine.*

In these cases, the gerund (*swimming*) remains unchanged regardless of the tense.

2. Gerunds as Objects

Gerunds often function as objects of verbs, prepositions, or expressions, and the tense is dictated by the main verb:

- a. Present Continuous: *I'm enjoying swimming.*
- b. Past Continuous: *She was considering quitting smoking.*
- c. Future Continuous: *They will be discussing building a new school.*

The gerund itself remains in its base "-ing" form while the auxiliary verbs indicate the tense.

3. Perfect Gerunds

When referring to actions that happened before another action or point in time, gerunds can take a perfect form using "having + past participle":

- a. Present Context: *He regrets having lied to his parents.*
(The lying occurred before the regret.)
- b. Past Context: *She admitted having stolen the money.*
(The stealing occurred before her admission.)
- c. Future Context: *They will appreciate having completed the project on time.*

Perfect gerunds are used to emphasize the sequence of events.

4. Passive Gerunds

Gerunds can also appear in passive constructions to describe actions done to someone or something:

- a. Present Context: *He enjoys being praised for his work.*
- b. Past Context: *She remembered being scolded as a child.*
- c. Future Context: *They look forward to being invited to the event.*

In these cases, "being + past participle" forms the passive gerund.

5. Gerunds with Modal Verbs

When used with modal verbs, gerunds follow the main verb, and the tense or mood is determined by the modal:

- a. Present Modal: *He might enjoy swimming.*
- b. Past Modal: *She should have considered studying harder.*
- c. Future Modal: *You must keep practicing singing.*

The modal verb governs the tense or mood, while the gerund remains unchanged.

Summary Table of Gerund Usage Across Tenses

Function	Example Sentence	Explanation
Subject	Swimming is fun.	The main verb (<i>is</i>) reflects present tense.
Object	I enjoyed swimming yesterday.	The main verb (<i>enjoyed</i>) reflects past tense.
Perfect Gerund	He regrets having lied.	The gerund refers to a prior action (<i>lying</i>).
Passive Gerund	She loves being admired.	Describes an action done to her (<i>admired</i>).
With Modal Verbs	You should avoid eating junk food.	The modal (<i>should</i>) governs mood/tense.

Key Points

1. Gerunds themselves do not change form for tense; they always end in "-ing."
2. The tense of a sentence is determined by the main verb or auxiliary/modal verbs.
3. Perfect and passive forms of gerunds add nuance by indicating time relationships or passive voice.
4. Understanding how gerunds interact with different tenses ensures proper usage in both writing and speech.

8.7. EXERCISES

Identify the Gerund in the Sentences

1. **Running** every morning helps me stay fit.
2. She dislikes **waking** up early.
3. The teacher suggested **reviewing** the notes before the test.
4. I am excited about **learning** a new language.
5. His hobby is **collecting** rare coins.

Choose the Correct Form (Gerund or Infinitive)

1. I decided (**taking/to take**) a break from work.
2. She avoids (**to eat/eating**) fast food.
3. We hope (**seeing/to see**) you soon.
4. He enjoys (**to swim/swimming**) in the ocean.
5. They agreed (**starting/to start**) the project tomorrow.

Rewrite the Sentences Using Gerunds

1. She loves to dance → She loves.....
2. He began to write a novel → He began a novel.
3. They stopped to smoke → They stopped

8.8. CONCLUSION

As nouns in a variety of grammatical constructions, gerunds are essential to English grammar. Correct usage of gerunds

improves communication in both written and spoken forms. Learners can become proficient in creating grammatically sound expressions by practicing their usage in sentences. Fluency can be enhanced and mistakes can be avoided by being aware of typical blunders.

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The author is a lady with a Masters in English Education degree. From 2019 until 2024, he worked as a lecturer at Pamulang University, where she made significant contributions to teaching students in English. Aside from her academic profession, the author works as an editor for Happy Holy Kids Editorial Team, a well-known children's book publisher. In his proposal as editor, she suggested creating instructive and entertaining content for children, so helping to shape a young generation that enjoys reading and learning. With vast expertise in education and publishing, the author is committed to improving the quality of children's education and literacy through her work.

CHAPTER 9

MODALS

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9.1. INTRODUCTION

In general, modal auxiliaries describe the attitudes or moods of speakers. Modals indicate that a speaker believes something to be required, wise, acceptable, feasible, or probable,(Azar, 2003). In other words, they can also indicate how strongly certain beliefs are. The verbs illustrated below are called modal auxiliaries, which use verbs to express various meanings. Wong, (2021)stated that modals start with infinitive verbs, and the "to" is omitted. Modals do not need plural agreement with their subjects; thus, adding “-s” or “-es” ending to a modal is unnecessary.

BASIC MODALS

Hacker & Sommers,(2014) stated that there are various types of modals, each of which may be used for more than one purpose or meaning.

a. Basic Modals

Some general rules that should be noted regarding the use of modals are:

1. Modals do not take a final -s, even when the subject is he,she, or it.
2. The base form of a verb follows modals.

Table 9.1. Subject + Auxiliary + Based Verb

I	}	can do it
You		could do it
We		had better do it
They		may do it
He		might do it
She		must do it
It		ought to do it
		shall do it
		should do it
		will do it
	would do it	

Source: Azar, (2002)

1. Common expressions known as phrasal modals have meanings that are similar to those of certain modal auxiliaries. For instance, "be able to" is similar to "can," and "be going to" is similar to "will."
2. Modals do not followed by *to*
3. The main verb is not in a past form
4. The main verb is not in the ing form.

9.2. MODALS AND SIMILAR EXPRESSION

1. Can and Could

The modals can and could be used to express some of the expressions, such as:

- a. Expressing ability in the present or future

For example:

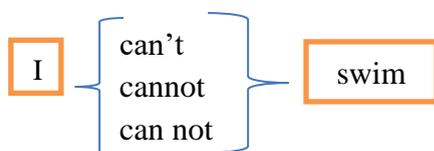
1. Lisa can cook the cake.
2. You can buy the meat at the grocery store.
3. I can go to the market tomorrow afternoon.
4. My brother could speak five languages.

- b. To indicate that something is possible or allowed or that an individual possesses the capacity to perform an action, we employ the word "can."

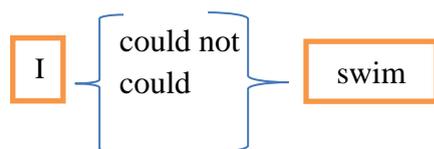
For example:

1. We can see the sea from our home.
2. 'I don't have a ruler.' 'You can use mine.'
3. Can you speak Thai?
4. I can come and see you tomorrow if you like.

- c. The negative form of "can" can be expressed as "can't," "cannot," or "can_not."



- d. The negative form of "could" can be expressed as "could not," "couldn't," or "can_not."



- e. **Could** is occasionally the past tense of the verb "can." In particular, we employ the term "could" with the verbs *see, hear, smell, taste, feel, remember, understand*

1. We had a lovely house. We could see beautiful lights in the city.
2. As soon as I walked into the room, I could smell the aroma of toasted bread.

However, to indicate that an individual succeeded in a particular circumstance, we typically employ the words "**was/were able to**" or "**managed to**" (not could):

1. Nobody was to disturb me, so I was able to finish the homework. (not could finish)
 2. I did not know where Sarah was, but I managed to find her in the end. (not could find)
- f. Although, it is not always the case that could is past. Additionally, we employ the term "could" to indicate potential actions that may be taken in the future or at present. On the other hand, could is used to express a possibility. For instance:
1. A: What shall we do tomorrow?
B: We could go to the cinema
 2. A: Where is Anton?
B: I do not know. He could be at the library.

Complete the sentences using *could*, *couldn't*, or *managed to*.

- a. Randy had hurt his foot and..... walk very well.
- b. There was a small fire in the library, but fortunately I..... put it out.
- c. The walls were thin, and I.....hear people talking in the next room.
- d. I ran my first marathon recently. It was very hard, but I..... finished.
- e. My brother loved music. He play the guitar very well.
- f. We wanted to go to the museum, but we..... get tickets.

2. May and Might

a. May and might is used to express a possibility

For example :

1. It may be good, or it might be good (perhaps it is good).
2. It may rain tomorrow, or it might rain tomorrow (perhaps it will rain).

b. The negative forms of may and might are may not and might not. Do not contract may and might with not.

1. It may not rain tomorrow
2. It might rain tomorrow.

c. There are differences in the world maybe and may be. Maybe spelled as one word is an adverb. It means possibility, it comes at the beginning of a sentence. Meanwhile, may be (two words) is a verb form.

For example :

Maybe it will rain tomorrow not It will maybe rain tomorrow

Compare to :

Maybe Lisa is sick (adverb)

Mira may be sick (verb)

d. To indicate a past event, we can use ***may have or might have***

I/you/we/they/he/she/it	may might	(not) have	been (at school, tec been-ing (sleeping, cooking, feeling, etc know/had/wanted/left, etc
-------------------------	--------------	---------------	--

e. May can be used to ask polite questions, for example:

1. May I use your pen, please?
2. May we go out now?

Complete the sentences. Choose from the box.

1. a: Is there a bookshop near here?
b: I'm not sure, but ask Ryan. He.....
2. a: Where are those people from?
b: I don't know. They.....
3. a: I hope she can help me finish this assignment.
b: Yeah, but it.....
4. a: Whose laptop is this?
b: It's not mine. It.....
5. a: Why doesn't George answer his phone?
b: He.....

may be Mira's
may not be possible
might be Australian
might be driving
might have one
might know

3. Must and Have to

- a. The terms "must", "have got to", and "have to" are essentially interchangeable. They convey the notion that something is necessary.

I	Must Have got to Have to	The museum this morning
---	--------------------------------	-------------------------

- b. The word "must" is frequently used in written expression, rules, instruction, formal documents, and legal language, for instance:
 1. All employees must wear an ID badge.
 2. You must read the instructions before doing the test.
 3. Online drivers must obey the law.
 4. The researcher must follow the ethical guidelines.

- c. The word “must not” expresses prohibition or strong rules. It means something is not allowed or forbidden.
 - 1. It is a restricted area; you must not park here.
 - 2. You must not post your address on social media platforms.
 - 3. You must not exceed the speed limit.
- d. The past form of have to, have got to, and must (meaning necessity) is had to
 - 1. I had to go out last night.
 - 2. I had to pay the electricity bill last month.

Complete the Sentences Using: Must – Mustn’t – Have to – Don’t Have to.

- 1. I _____ get a visa to travel to America.
- 2. You _____ go to work today. It is a holiday.
- 3. You _____ smoke in the class.
- 4. You _____ wear uniform in this school; it’s a rule.
- 5. You _____ stop at the red light.

4. Should and Ought to

- a. Should and ought to are commonly used to give advice, recommendations, moral obligation, or expectation. They are often interchangeable but have slight differences in usage. For example:
 - 1. You should eat more vegetables.
 - 2. You ought to eat more vegetables.
- b. Ought to sound a little stronger and is sometimes used in formal or moral advice, for instance:
 - 1. People ought to respect their elders. (moral obligation)
 - 2. You ought to apologize to her. (stronger than “should”).

- c. To indicate the negative meaning, add not after the word should. Ought to is usually not used in the negative form, for instance: You have a toothache. You should not eat the chocolate.
- d. Should is often used after some adjectives, especially those that express importance, necessity, feelings, or opinions.
 - 1. It is strange that she should be late. She is usually on time.
 - 2. It is unfair that she should get all the blame.
 - 3. It is surprising that he should forget her birthday.

Complete the sentences using **should** + verb.

- 1. It's funny that youthat. I was thinking the same thing.
- 2. It's only natural that old people..... about their children.
- 3. Isn't it typical of Mira that she..... without saying goodbye to anybody?
- 4. I was surprised that they..... me for advice. What advice could I give them?
- 5. This is a democratic election, and it's important that you.....

5. **Would and Would Rather**

- a. Would may represent a behavior that occurred habitually in the past. When 'would' is employed to convey this notion, it bears the same significance as 'used to.' For example:
When I was a child, my mother always brought a chocolate bar after returning from the office.
- b. Would you mind if it is used for asking permission and asking someone to do something. For asking

permission, would you mind is followed by the simple past, but for asking someone to do something, would you mind is followed by -ing form. For example:

1. Would you mind if I opened the door? (Asking permission)
 2. Would you mind opening the door? (Asking someone to do something).
- c. "Would rather" is a modal auxiliary verb that conveys preference and is followed by a simple verb form. It signifies a choice among several alternatives. In addition, would rather can be followed by **or** to indicate a choice. For example:
1. Martha would rather have a dictionary than a comic book.
 2. Would you rather have strawberry or blueberry?

Complete the sentences using **would** + verbs in the correct form:

1. You should go and see the festival. I think you.....it.
2. It's a pity you couldn't come to the party last night. Youit.
3. Shall I apply for the job or not? What..... you..... in my position?
4. I was in a hurry when I saw you. Otherwise I..... to talk.
5. We took a taxi home last night but got stuck in traffic. Itquicker to walk.
6. Why don't you go and see Clare? Shevery pleased to see you.
7. In an ideal world, everybodyenough to eat.

9.3. DEGREES OF CERTAINTY

According to Murphy, (2019) "degree of certainty" expresses the level of certainty regarding the validity of an idea, specifically the expected possibility of its truthfulness. If we are confident of a current truth, the use of a modal is unnecessary.

1. Present Time

Why isn't Christi in class?

- a. High certainty (100%) —————> She is sick
- b. Almost sure (95%) —————> She must be sick
- c. Medium certainty (50-80%) —————> She
may/might/could be
sick
- d. Low certainty (unsure) —————> She
maybe/probably/possibly sick.

If we are sure something is true in the present, we use "is" to indicate that the statement is factual information (a), and we don't need to use a modal. However, must is used to express a strong possibility but less than 100%. In addition, add "not" to express the negative degree of certainty in the present time.

Complete the sentences by using must, may, might, and could.

- a. A: Lotso just bought his wife a ruby bracelet with matching earrings.
B: Wow, that is so expensive. He..... rich
- b. A: Look at the girl standing on the bridge. It is like she wants to jump.
B: She crazy.
- c. A: Where is Ega? She is not in the class.
B: I do not know. She..... in the library.

- d. A: Hello, may I speak to Melissa?
 B: Hello, I am sorry. You..... dial the wrong number. There is no one here by that name.

2. Past Time

We use modal verbs with the perfect infinitive (**Subject+have + past participle**) to show the degree of assurance that we have regarding the actions that occurred in the past. In addition, for the negative form, the formula is using **Subject+was/can/could/may/must/might+not+have been**. The modal verb we choose is determined by our degree of certainty. For example:

1. Why didn't Sarah come to the party with us?
2. Why didn't Sarah drink the juice?

Degree	Answers	Comments
Fact (100%)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. She had a meeting with the client. 2. She wasn't thirsty. 	The speaker is 100% sure about the information.
Almost 100% sure	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. She must have had a meeting with a client. 	The speaker is drawing a logical conclusion and is almost sure (although not entirely certain) that Sarah had a meeting with a client.
	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 2. She couldn't have been thirsty. She can't have been thirsty. 	The speaker thinks it impossible for Sarah to have been hungry.

Less than 50% (possibility)	<p>Answer 1:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - She may have had a meeting with a client. - She might have had a meeting with a client. - She could have had a meeting with a client. 	<p>The speaker is only bringing up an option. It's possible that Sarah met with a customer. All three of the examples in the first column mean the same thing.</p>
	<p>Answer 2:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - She may not have been thirty. - She might not have been thirty. 	<p>The speaker is making a logical possibility.</p>

3. Future Time

It is also possible to apply modal verbs to represent the degree of certainty that we have regarding the future; however, we should use **the base verb** rather than the perfect infinitive. Our level of certainty will determine the modal verb we choose to use. Many modal verbs and adverbs (definitely and probably) can be used to show the degree of certainty in future time, such as will, should, ought to, might, may, or could.

- 1. Lisa will enjoy the movie. → The speaker feels 100% sure.
- 2. Lisa should enjoy the movie }
 Lisa ought to enjoy the movie } The speaker is almost sure
- 3. Lisa may enjoy the movie }
 Lisa might enjoy the movie } The speaker is less than
 Lisa could enjoy the movie } 50% sure or guessing

The past tense of "should I ought to" is employed to indicate that the speaker anticipated an event that did not happen.

9.4. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, modals are a crucial element in English that influence meaning and sentence construction. Modals are employed to convey the speaker's disposition toward many matters, including necessity, recommendation, permission, and potential occurrence. Moreover, modals cannot function alone and must be accompanied by the base verb. Modal verbs are utilized to convey the intensity or intention of an individual to other speakers. In addition, learning modal verbs helps people to enhance communication accuracy.

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CHAPTER 10 COMPARISON

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10.1. INTRODUCTION

Comparison are grammatical forms used to compare the qualities of nouns. They typically involve adjectives and can be broken down into three main degrees. They are positive degree, comparative degree and superlative degree. The comparison of degrees encompasses various linguistic and methodological frameworks, highlighting the complexity of gradation across different contexts. This synthesis explores the distinctions between nominal and adjectival comparisons, the historical linguistics of degree formation, and the application of statistical methods in comparing degrees of equivalence (Hidayatulloh, 2015). Learning comparison degrees is important for several reasons, they are: (1). Enhanced communication; (2). Clarity; (3). Nuanced Expression; (4). Writing skills; (5). Critical Thinking; (6). Language Proficiency; and (7). Cultural understanding (Qomariyah, 2022).

Enhancing communication means understanding comparison and allows us to express differences and similarities between people, objects, or ideas more effectively. This helps in conveying precise meanings in both spoken and written language. While clarity means Using the correct degree of comparison helps avoid ambiguity. For instance, saying "She is the fastest runner in the team" clearly indicates that she outruns everyone else. Next is nuanced expression. It means the degrees of comparison enable us to add nuance to our descriptions. We

can show varying levels of quality and making our language richer and more descriptive. Writing skill as the fourth reason has meaning that mastery of comparison degrees is essential for effective writing. It allows for varied sentence structures and enhances persuasive and descriptive writing (Bungsu et al., 2021).

The fifth reason is critical thinking. It means learning to compare involves analysis and evaluation, skills that are valuable in critical thinking and reasoning. The next reasons are language proficiency and cultural understanding. Language proficiency includes a strong grasp of comparison degrees that contributes to overall language proficiency. It is important for academic success and effective communication in real-life situations. Whereas cultural understanding is able to be understood as reflecting of cultural nuances. Learning comparison degrees are also able to enhance cross-cultural communication (Qomariyah, 2022). Hence in this chapter, it will be discussed about the inflectional system for grade. It also discusses about common mistakes in uttering comparison degrees. The last, there are some exercises to wrap reader's understanding.

10.2. COMPARISON DEGREE

Comparison degrees as explained slightly above are used in grammar to compare the qualities, actions, or attributes of people, things, or ideas. There are three degrees of comparison: positive, comparative, and superlative (Molina, 2019). Positive degree is the base form of an adjective or adverb without comparing to others. It is used when no comparison is made. Meanwhile comparative degree is used to compare two things, people, or actions. It is often formed by adding **-er** to short adjective/adverb and using **more/less** before longer adjectives/adverbs which have two or more syllables. It always

uses **than** to show comparison. The third is superlative degree. Superlative degree is used to compare more than two things, identifying the highest or lowest degree of a quality. It is often formed by adding “**the -est**” to short adjective/adverb and using “**the most/least...**” before longer adjectives/adverbs which have two or more syllables (Sassoon, 2017). Below the examples of the three main degrees:

	<i>Short adjective/adverb</i>	<i>Longer adjectives/adverbs</i>
(i). Positive	- He runs fast	- This book is interesting
(ii). Comparative	- He runs faster than his friend	- This book is more interesting than that one
(iii). Superlative	- He runs the fastest of all the athletes	- This book is the most interesting book I have read

In applying the degrees of comparison, we must first identify the adjective or adverb in the sentence and determine what you are comparing. But in some cases, degrees of comparison have unique applications. They do not follow the regular rules as the examples above. Here is the breakout of special cases for degrees of comparison:

1. Irregular comparatives and superlatives

Some adjectives and adverbs don't follow the standard -er/-est or more/most rules. They change completely in their comparative and superlative forms. They are as follows:

<i>Positive</i>	<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
Good	Better	Best
Bad	Worse	Worst
Little (amount)	Less	Least

Far	Farther/Further	Farthest/Furthest
Much/many	More	Most
Late	Later	Latest
Old	Older/Elder	Oldest/Eldes

Example:

- The movie is **better** than the last one (positive – comparative)
- The movie is the **best** movie in this Cinema (positive – superlative)

2. Two comparison together

Two comparatives are used together to show a cause-effect relationship between two sentences. It explains the meaning of progressively activities. The structure is “**the + comparative + sentence, the + comparative + sentence**”. The use two comparative forms together beyond the structure as explained before is grammatically incorrect but it is usually use informally and emphasis in casual information. Example:

- a. The **faster** you drive (cause), the **sooner** you will arrive (effect).
- b. The **more** you practice (cause), the **better** you will perform (effect).

Example of incorrect double comparatives:

- a. She studies **more better** than her classmates (informal conversations but)
- b. She studies **better** (correct)
- c. He runs the **most fastest** of all the athletes (incorrect)
- d. He runs **the fastest** of all the athletes (correct)

3. The use “more or most” and “less or least”

More is comparative and **most** is superlative. Both are used for long adjectives or more than two syllables. Both are used for positive comparison of regular adjectives (Reynolds, 2024). For example:

1. This painting is more beautiful than that one (means there is two paintings and you are interested in one of them because it is beautiful according to you)
2. She is the most talented of all her siblings (means she is number one in talent)

Less is comparative and **least** is superlative. Both are used for softer or negative comparisons of regular adjectives (Reynolds, 2024). Negative comparison is also able to use “not as as” or “less than”. Example:

1. This chair is **less comfortable** than that one (means the chair is not comfortable and there is another chair which is comfortable)
2. He is the **least talented** member of the team (means he is not talented at all)
3. This movie is **not as interesting as** the previous one (means the previous movie is interesting, and the current movie is not)
4. This chair is **less expensive than** the couch (means the cost of the chair is affordable)

10.3. ADJECTIVES

1. Adjectives with Two Accepted Forms

Some adjectives have two forms for the comparative and superlative, depending on usage. Common adjectives which have different usage are:

<i>Adjectives</i>	<i>Usage</i>
Far	- Farther/Farthest refers to physical distance - Further/Furthest refers to abstract distance
Late	- Later/Latest refers to time - More late/most late refers to emphasize something (short adjective)
Near	- Nearer/Nearest refers to physical distance - More near/most near refers to emphasize something
Bad	- Worse/worst refers to common usage - Less/least refers to formal usage
Little	- Less/least refers to common usage - Smaller/smallest refers to size of something
Much	- More/most refers to common usage - Greater/greatest refers to formal usage

2. Adjectives that do not usually compare

Some adjectives are absolute and do not logically have comparative or superlative forms, could not be added by “very” or “extremely”. They also cannot be used by “more” or “most”, but they can in informal or exaggerated contexts. These adjectives are called absolute adjectives. They are entire, complete, full, perfect, unique, absolute, present, past, future, global, universal, round, square, infinite, dead. See this following example:

Incorrect (formal): This solution is **more perfect** than that one

Acceptable (informal): This is the **most perfect** day of my life!

Correct: This idea is **unique**. (No comparison)

3. Adjectives Ending in -y, -er, or -le

Some adjectives which end in -y, -er, and -le have to be changed or have to be dropped before adding -er/-est. For adjectives ending in -y, change -y to -i before adding -er or -est, for example:

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Happy	Happier (Happ-i-er)	Happiest (Happ-i-est)
Pretty	Prettier (Prett-i-er)	Prettiest (Prett-i-est)

Thus, we just take -er/-est for some two-syllable adjectives. For example: **clever**, just add -er/-est directly, so it become “**cleverer**” in comparative and “**cleverest**” in superlative. For adjectives ending in -le, we drop the -e before adding -er or -est, for example:

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
Simple	Simpler (Simpl-er)	Simplest (Simpl-est)
Gentle	Gentler (Gentl-er)	Gentlest (Gentl-est)

4. Comparatives of Equality

To show equal degree, we use “**as adjective or adverb as**”, and “**not as adjective or adverb as**” to show inequality. And to emphasize equality, we use words like just, nearly, almost before "as.". For example:

- a. He is as tall as his brother (means he is 5 feet and his brother 5 feet too).
- b. This cake is not as delicious as the one I baked yesterday (means the cake I bake yesterday is delicious and the cake I bake today is not).

5. Comparative without “than”

Comparative forms are sometimes used without an explicit comparison. For examples:

- a. The weather is getting **colder**. (Implicit comparison to before)
- b. She feels **happier** today. (Implicit comparison to another time)

6. Comparative Between Two and Superlative Among Three or More

Comparative form is used when comparing two items. While superlative form is used when comparing three or more items. For example:

<i>Comparative</i>	<i>Superlative</i>
This book is better than that one (correct)	This is the tallest building in the city (correct)
This book is the best of the two (incorrect)	This is the taller building in the city (incorrect)

7. Common Errors to Avoid

Comparison degrees involve complex sets of rules regarding the modification of adjectives. The distinction between comparative ("more") and superlative ("most") forms can be particularly challenging, leading to misunderstandings and misuse (Tambunan & Nababan, 2018) (Cox & Shirono, 2023). Here are some common errors people make with comparison degrees:

<i>Kinds of errors</i>	<i>Incorrect</i>	<i>Correct</i>
Using "more" with one-syllable adjectives	He is more tall than his brother	He is taller than his brother
- Mixing positive and comparative forms in the same comparison	She is the more smarter student in the class	She is the smartest student in the class
- Using superlative forms when not comparing three or more items.	This book is the best of the two	This book is better than the other
- Forgetting to use "than" when making comparisons	She runs faster her sister	She runs faster than her sister
- Incorrectly applying	Gooder" for	Better

the rules for irregular adjectives	"better	
- Using a superlative form when only comparing two items	This is the tallest of the two	This is taller than the other
- Using "less" with countable nouns	There are less apples in this basket	There are fewer apples in this basket
- Using redundant phrases	He is the most tallest player on the team	He is the tallest player on the team
- Employing both the comparative form and "more" together	She is more taller than her sister	She is taller than her sister
- Using "the" with comparative forms	She is the smarter of the two	She is smarter than her sister
- Using a superlative for qualities that don't have a clear comparison	This water is the purest of the two	This water is purer than the other
- Placing the adjective before "more" or "most"	She is more kind	She is kinder
- Using "elder" inappropriately as a comparative	He is elder than me	He is older than me." (Use "elder" primarily for family relationships, e.g., "my elder brother.")
- Using the wrong degree based on context	This is the most best option	This is the best option
- Adding "most" to adjectives that	He is the most unique artist	He is a unique artist

already convey a superlative meaning		
- Assuming all adjectives follow the same pattern for comparison	He is more funnier than his friend	He is funnier than his friend

10.3. EXERCISE

To wrap your comprehension, you have to test yourself. Below some exercises to challenge your comprehension.

1. Convert the following sentences into different degrees of comparison:
 - a. This cake is sweet.
 - b. This park is beautiful.
 - c. He drives carefully.
 - d. This problem is harder than the last one.
 - e. He is the fastest runner in the group
2. Use **as ... as** to show equality from these sentences below:
 - a. She is clever
 - b. This movie is exciting.
 - c. The pie is delicious.
 - d. The cat is more playful than the bird.
 - e. This bag is cheaper than that one.
3. Fill in the blanks with the correct degree of comparison:
 - a. (Good) She is a _____ dancer than her friend.
 - b. (Bad) This is the _____ mistake I've ever made.
 - c. (Far) He lives _____ from school than I do.
 - d. The mountains are _____ (beautiful) in winter.
 - e. The _____ (hard) you work, the _____ (successful) you will become.
4. Correct the errors in these sentences:
 - a. This cake is more sweeter than the other one.
 - b. He is the most smartest student in the class.

- c. She is the most happiest person in the group.
 - d. This building is more taller than that one.
 - e. Of the two cakes, this one is the deliciousest.
5. Choose the **appropriate comparative or superlative form**:
- a. She is the _____ (tall/taller/tallest) of the three sisters.
 - b. This test is _____ (hard/harder/hardest) than the last one.
 - c. He plays _____ (well/better/best) than his teammates.
 - d. My house is _____ (large/larger/largest) than yours.
 - e. She has the _____ (good/better/best) handwriting in the class.

Answers

1. Converting into different degrees of comparison
 - a. This cake is **sweeter than** that cake (comparative); This cake is **the sweetest** cake of all (superlative).
 - b. This park is **more beautiful than** that one (comparative); This is **the most beautiful park** in the city (superlative).
 - c. He drives **more carefully than** his friend (comparative); He is **the most carefully driver** in this town (superlative).
 - d. This problem is **hard** (positive); This is **the hardest problem** of all (superlative).
 - e. He is a **fast** runner (positive); He is **faster** than the others (comparative)
2. Using **as ... as** to show equality.
 - a. She is as clever as her sister.
 - b. This movie is as exciting as the previous one.

- c. The pie is as delicious as the cake.
 - d. The cat is as playful as the bird.
 - e. This bag is as cheap as that one
3. Filling in the blanks with the correct degree of comparison
- a. She is a **better** dancer than her friend.
 - b. This is the **worst** mistake I've ever made.
 - c. He lives **farther** from school than I do.
 - d. The mountains are **most beautiful** in winter.
 - e. The **harder** you work, the **more successful** you will become.
4. Correcting errors in the sentences
- a. This cake is **sweeter** than the other one.
 - b. He is the **smartest** student in the class.
 - c. She is the **happiest** person in the group.
 - d. This building is **taller** than that one.
 - e. Of the two cakes, this one is **more delicious**.
5. Choosing the **appropriate comparative or superlative form**.
- a. She is **the tallest** of the three sisters.
 - b. This test is **harder than** the last one.
 - c. He plays **better than** his teammates.
 - d. My house larger than yours.
 - e. She has **the best** handwriting in the class.

10.4. CONCLUSION

Comparison degrees in grammar are used to compare the qualities, actions, or attributes people or things. Some adjectives and adverbs do not follow the usual pattern of adding -er/-est or more/most to form the comparative and superlative. Instead, they have completely irregular forms that must be memorized. To apply the degrees of comparison, you must first identify the adjective or adverb in the sentence and determine what you are comparing. Thus, understanding these degrees is crucial for

effective communication in English, as they allow speakers and writers to express comparisons clearly and accurately.

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AUTHOR'S PROFILE



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The author is a lecture in IAI Badrus Sholeh Kediri. Binti has been fond of the world of writing since high school after attending journalism training. She started writing for a local newspaper when she lectured in IAIN Kediri in 2013. Since then, Binti has been focusing on writing in the fields of research and community service. For Binti, writing is an opportunity to share knowledge because through writing, many new insights are gained.

CHAPTER 11

SENTENCES

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11.1. SENTENCES AS THE FOUNDATION OF COMMUNICATION

In the landscape of human communication, sentences serve as the basic form of expression that enables the exchange of meaning and understanding. Simply put, a sentence can be defined as a series of words containing at least a subject and predicate that conveys a complete idea or thought. However, beyond this simple definition, sentences possess complexity and richness that make them an important foundation in human interaction. As outlined by Jones and Burton (2024), proper sentence structure is key to forming meaningful conversations. They emphasize that sentences not only function as vessels for conveying information but also as tools that influence how that information is received and interpreted by the listener or reader. When someone understands and masters sentence structure well, they can communicate their ideas more clearly, in an organized manner, and convincingly.

Ghufron (2022) underlines the importance of constructing effective sentences in various communication contexts. According to him, effective sentences can bridge the understanding gap between speaker and listener and reduce the possibility of misunderstandings. In professional environments, for example, the ability to construct appropriate sentences can determine success in negotiations, presentations, and team

collaborations. Meanwhile, in academic contexts, well-structured sentences facilitate the delivery of complex concepts and scientific arguments.

In her study on the use of Indonesian language, Rohayati (2023) highlights the role of sentences as bridges for effective communication. She states that proper and correct sentences not only reflect one's language ability but also play a role in shaping the identity and credibility of the speaker. Moreover, sentences composed with attention to grammatical rules will be more easily understood by various segments of society, allowing the message to reach a wider audience.

Sentences have close relationships with various other grammatical aspects. First, understanding parts of speech becomes the basis for constructing grammatical sentences. Without adequate knowledge of nouns, verbs, adjectives, and other word types, one will struggle to form meaningful sentences. Second, phrase structures play an important role in building more complex and expressive sentences. Noun phrases, verb phrases, and prepositional phrases, for example, can be combined to create richer sentence variations.

Additionally, understanding clauses serves as a bridge between phrases and sentences. Independent clauses can stand alone as simple sentences, while dependent clauses must be combined with independent clauses to form complex sentences. The connection between sentences and tenses also cannot be ignored. Choosing the appropriate tense in a sentence reflects when an event occurs, thus providing an important temporal context for understanding the message.

In the era of digital communication, mastery of sentence structure has become even more important. When interactions often occur through text without the support of non-verbal cues, sentences become the only means to convey intentions and emotions. Therefore, the ability to construct clear, effective, and

contextually appropriate sentences becomes a vital skill that needs to be developed by every individual who wants to communicate well in the modern era.

11.2. TYPES OF SENTENCES BASED ON FUNCTION

English, like many other languages in the world, has various types of sentences used to convey different communication purposes. Based on their function in communication, sentences in English can be classified into four main types: declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory. Each type of sentence has distinctive structural and functional characteristics, which will be discussed in depth in this chapter.

A. Declarative Sentences

Declarative sentences are the most commonly used type of sentence in English. Their main function is to state facts, opinions, or information. Structurally, declarative sentences usually follow the subject-predicate-object (SPO) pattern, although other variations are possible depending on the complexity of the idea being conveyed. According to Manshur and Nisa (2022), declarative sentences play an important role in building narratives and conveying factual information in film contexts. In their study of the film "Incredible Love," they identified that declarative sentences not only function to convey information but also to develop characters and explain story settings. Common patterns found in declarative sentences include: (1) Simple statements: "The book is on the table." (2) Complex statements: "Although it was raining, they decided to go for a walk in the park." (3) Negative statements: "She does not understand the concept."

In the context of language learning, Jones and Oakey (2024) emphasize the importance of awareness of the use of declarative sentences in various language registers, both formal and

informal. They note that English language learners often master declarative sentence structures more quickly compared to other types of sentences, possibly due to their high frequency in the language input they receive.

B. Interrogative Sentences

Interrogative sentences are used to ask questions and request information. Unlike declarative sentences, interrogative sentences are usually marked by a different word pattern or the use of specific question words. Yasmansyah (2023), in his research on sentence types in negotiation texts, identified that interrogative sentences have a strategic role in facilitating information exchange and asserting positions in negotiations. Structurally, interrogative sentences in English can be divided into several categories: (1) Yes/No Questions: Formed by placing an auxiliary verb before the subject. -"Are you coming to the party tonight?" -"Does she speak French?" (2) WH-Questions: Using question words such as what, where, when, why, who, which, and how. -"Where did you put my keys?" -"Why are you studying English?" (3) Tag Questions: Adding a short "tag" at the end of a statement. -"You're a teacher, aren't you?" -"She doesn't like coffee, does she?" (4) Indirect Questions: Usually used in formal situations or to sound more polite. -"Could you tell me where the nearest bank is?" -"I wonder if you could help me with this problem."

Manshur and Nisa (2022) note that in film dialogue, interrogative sentences are often used to build tension, develop plot, and explore relationships between characters. They also highlight how intonation and context can change the interpretation of interrogative sentences in oral communication.

C. Imperative Sentences

Imperative sentences are used to give commands, instructions, requests, or suggestions. Structurally, imperative sentences usually do not have a visible subject (the implied subject is "you") and begin with the base form of the verb.

Yasmansyah (2023) identified that in negotiation texts, imperative sentences have an important function in directing actions and setting expectations. Some examples of imperative sentences include: (1) Direct commands: -"Close the door." - "Speak louder." (2) Polite requests (often using "please"): - "Please wait for me."- "Could you please pass the salt?" (3) Prohibitions (using "don't" or "never"): - "Don't touch that button." -"Never give up on your dreams." (4) Suggestions or invitations: - "Have a seat." -"Let's discuss this matter further."

Jones and Oakey (2024) note that English language learners often experience difficulty in understanding the nuances of imperative sentences, especially regarding levels of politeness and contexts of use. They emphasize the importance of exposure to authentic examples to develop pragmatic awareness related to the use of imperative sentences.

D. Exclamatory Sentences

Exclamatory sentences are used to express strong emotions such as joy, surprise, anger, or admiration. Structurally, exclamatory sentences often begin with "what" or "how" and end with an exclamation mark (!). Yasmansyah (2023) found that although exclamatory sentences are rarely found in formal negotiation texts, this type of sentence can appear in informal negotiations to emphasize important points or express reactions to offers. Some examples of exclamatory sentences include: (1) With "what": -"What a beautiful day!" -"What an interesting story!" (2) With "how": -"How wonderful the performance was!" -"How quickly time flies!" (3) Short interjections and

expressions: -"Fantastic!" - "Oh my goodness!" (4) Jones and Oakey (2024) highlight that in oral communication, exclamatory sentences are often used together with non-verbal cues such as rising intonation and expressive facial expressions. They note that English language learners need to pay attention not only to the linguistic structure of exclamatory sentences but also to the accompanying paralinguistic aspects to achieve effective communication. In the practice of teaching and learning English, understanding these types of sentences is very important. As highlighted by Jones and Oakey (2024), a corpus-based approach can help learners develop awareness of how these types of sentences are used in authentic contexts. They suggest using examples from spoken and written language corpora to illustrate variations in the use of these four types of sentences.

11.3. BASIC SENTENCE STRUCTURE

Understanding the basic structure of English sentences is one of the keys to mastering grammar comprehensively. In English, sentences can be grouped based on their structure into four main categories: simple sentences, compound sentences, complex sentences, and compound-complex sentences. Understanding these four basic structures allows language users to express ideas with varying levels of complexity according to their communication needs.

A. Simple Sentences

Simple sentences, as the name suggests, represent the most basic sentence structure in English. These sentences consist of only one independent clause, containing one subject and one predicate. Although simple, this type of sentence can still convey ideas clearly and effectively in various communication contexts. Andriani and Bram (2021), in their research on sentence patterns in BBC news articles, found that despite being

simple, these sentences are often used to convey concise and direct information. They noted that journalists frequently use simple sentences when introducing topics or delivering key points that require special emphasis.

Some examples of simple sentences: (1) The students completed their assignments. (2) The government announced a new policy yesterday. (3) She never visits her hometown during holidays.

Although structurally simple, these sentences can be expanded by adding modifiers, prepositional phrases, or other complements. For example: The dedicated students from the science department completed their challenging assignments before the deadline. Sawardi (2021) emphasizes that although simple sentences have only one independent clause, they can perform various complex syntactic functions. In his study of syntactic functions in Indonesian sentences, he identifies how components such as subject, predicate, object, and adverbials interact to form meaning in simple sentences.

B. Compound Sentences

Compound sentences are formed by combining two or more independent clauses. These clauses are connected using coordinating conjunctions (such as and, but, or, so, yet, for), semicolons (;), or colons (:). Each clause in a compound sentence can stand alone as a complete sentence, but their combination allows writers to show relationships between ideas. Gani (2019), in his research on news sentences in online media, found that compound sentences are often used to connect two related or contrasting ideas. He notes that the use of appropriate coordinating conjunctions is very important in determining the logical relationship between clauses and influencing the reader's interpretation of the information presented. Some examples of compound sentences: (1) She studied all night, but she still

failed the exam. (2) The company increased its production, and its profits rose significantly. (3) You can take the train, or you can drive your car.

Andriani and Bram (2021) observed that in news articles, compound sentences are often used to present information of equal importance. They also noted variations in the use of coordinating conjunctions, where "and" is most commonly used to add information, while "but" is used to show contrast or unexpected elements.

C. Complex Sentences

Complex sentences consist of one independent clause and at least one dependent (subordinate) clause. Dependent clauses, although containing a subject and predicate, cannot stand alone as sentences and rely on the independent clause to form a complete meaning. Dependent clauses are usually introduced by subordinating conjunctions (such as because, although, when, if, that) or relative pronouns (such as who, which, that). Sawardi (2021) explains that in complex sentences, there is a syntactic hierarchy where the dependent clause functions as a component of the independent clause. He identifies various syntactic functions that dependent clauses can perform, such as subject, object, complement, or modifier. Some examples of complex sentences: (1) Although it was raining heavily, the football match continued as scheduled. (2) When the results were announced, the students cheered enthusiastically. (3) The book that you recommended has become a bestseller.

Gani (2019) in his research found that complex sentences are often used in news media to provide context, explain cause-effect relationships, or present information with different levels of importance. He notes that the position of the dependent clause (at the beginning or end of the sentence) is often manipulated to

create certain rhetorical effects or to emphasize particular aspects of the news.

D. Compound-Complex Sentences

Compound-complex sentences represent the most intricate structure that combines features of both compound and complex sentences. These sentences consist of at least two independent clauses and one or more dependent clauses. This structure allows writers to express highly complex ideas and show various logical relationships within a single sentence.

Andriani and Bram (2021) observed that although compound-complex sentences are less frequently found in news articles compared to other sentence types, this structure is often used to present in-depth analysis or describe complex situations. They noted that effective use of compound-complex sentences requires a strong understanding of grammar and the ability to arrange ideas clearly despite the complex structure. Some examples of compound-complex sentences: (1) When the storm hit the city, the electricity went out, and many families had to rely on emergency generators. (2) Although the government promised to reduce taxes, it has increased public spending, which has led to a larger budget deficit. (3) The company, which was founded in 1995, has expanded its operations globally, but it still maintains its headquarters in the original location.

Sawardi (2021) emphasizes that understanding the structure of compound-complex sentences is very important in discourse analysis. He explains that the ability to identify relationships between clauses allows readers to understand the complexity of arguments and follow the logical flow of text. Gani's research (2019) on news sentences in online media revealed that journalists often use compound-complex sentences when they need to present complex information in a coherent manner. He notes that the ability to use this structure effectively is a

characteristic of mature and experienced journalism. The ability to recognize and appropriately use these four basic sentence structures is very important in developing English language skills. As expressed by Andriani and Bram (2021), variation in sentence structure not only enriches language expression but also helps writers adjust syntactic complexity to meet communicative needs and reader expectations. As English teachers and learners, a deep understanding of these basic sentence structures provides a strong foundation for developing more proficient writing and speaking skills.

11.4. BASIC SYNTACTIC ANALYSIS

Understanding English syntax is key to mastering effective communication skills, both in spoken and written forms. Syntax itself is a branch of linguistics that studies the rules and principles governing sentence structure in a language. In this chapter, we will explore three important concepts in basic syntactic analysis: subject and predicate, phrases versus clauses, and independent clauses versus dependent clauses.

A. Subject and Predicate

Every grammatical sentence in English, at its most basic level, consists of two main parts: the subject and the predicate. Both are core components that form the basic structure of a sentence and enable it to convey a complete idea. Ambridge (n.d.) in his study of sentence structure asserts that the subject is the part of the sentence that performs the action or exists in the state expressed by the predicate. Generally, the subject answers the question "who" or "what" performs the action. The subject is typically a noun or noun phrase, but it can also be a pronoun, a gerund verbal phrase, or a nominal clause.

Some examples of subjects: (1) Single noun: The *teacher* explained the concept. (2) Noun phrase: *The tall*

building collapsed during the earthquake. (3)
Pronoun: *She* speaks three languages fluently. (4)
Gerund: *Swimming* is my favorite sport. (5) Nominal
clause: *What she said yesterday* surprised everyone.

Meanwhile, the predicate is the part of the sentence that states what the subject does or the condition of the subject. The predicate minimally contains a verb and can be expanded with objects, complements, or adverbials. Pangesti and Rafi (2023) in their research on syntactic studies in Indonesian language books found that proper understanding of the subject-predicate relationship is crucial in developing children's reading and writing abilities. They noted that difficulty in identifying subjects and predicates often becomes a barrier for students in understanding complex texts. Some examples of predicates: (1) Verb only: The baby *sleeps*. (2) Verb + direct object: She *reads books* every day. (3) Verb + indirect object + direct object: My mother *gave me a gift* for my birthday. (4) Verb + subject complement: The soup *tastes delicious*. (5) Verb + object + object complement: They *consider him intelligent*.

The relationship between subject and predicate must satisfy the requirement of congruence or agreement, where the verb must agree with the subject in terms of number (singular/plural) and person (first/second/third). For example: (1) She *walks* to school every day. (2) They *walk* to school every day.

B. Phrases versus Clauses

In syntactic analysis, it is important to understand the difference between phrases and clauses, two structures that often confuse English language learners. Putri and Yuni (2020) in their study of syntactic units in online news texts define a phrase as a group of words that functions as a single unit in a sentence but does not have a subject-predicate structure. Phrases can be

built around words from various word classes and are classified based on the word that serves as their core.

Some common types of phrases are: (1) Noun phrase: The tall building with blue windows stands in the center of the city. (2) Verb phrase: She will have been studying for six hours by midnight. (3) Adjective phrase: The painting was extremely beautiful and captivating. (4) Adverbial phrase: He completed the task quite efficiently and without any errors. (5) Prepositional phrase: The cat hid under the old wooden table in the kitchen.

Unlike phrases, clauses are groups of words that have a subject-predicate structure. Ambridge (n.d.) emphasizes that clauses are syntactic units that can function as independent sentences or as parts of larger sentence structures. Pangesti and Rafi (2023) in their research identified that the ability to distinguish between phrases and clauses is an important skill in text comprehension. They noted that students who can correctly identify clauses are better able to analyze complex sentence structures and understand logical relationships between ideas in texts.

C. Independent versus Dependent Clauses

Clauses can be classified into two main types: independent clauses and dependent clauses, the latter also known as subordinate clauses. Independent clauses, as the name suggests, can stand alone as complete sentences because they express a complete thought. These clauses have a subject and predicate and are not introduced by subordinating conjunctions. Examples of independent clauses: (1) She finished her homework. (2) The rain stopped abruptly. (3) I enjoy reading mystery novels.

Putri and Yuni (2020) in their analysis of online news texts found that independent clauses are often used to convey the main information or core message of the news.

In contrast, dependent clauses cannot stand alone as complete sentences despite having a subject and predicate. These clauses are typically introduced by subordinating conjunctions (such as *although*, *because*, *when*, *if*) or relative pronouns (such as *who*, *which*, *that*) and must be combined with an independent clause to form a grammatical sentence. Examples of dependent clauses: (1) *Although it was raining heavily...* (2) *When the results were announced...*(3) *Because she studied diligently...*

Ambridge (n.d.) classifies dependent clauses based on their function in sentences into three main types: (1) Noun clauses: Function as nouns in sentences, can occupy the position of subject, object, or complement. -I know *that she will succeed*. - *What you said yesterday* bothered me. (2) Adjective clauses: Also called relative clauses, they function as adjectives that describe nouns. -The book *that I bought last week* is very interesting. -The woman *who lives next door* is a famous chef. (3) Adverb clauses: Function as adverbs that modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs in the main clause, showing relationships such as time, place, cause-effect, purpose, condition, or concession. -She will call you *when she arrives*. - *Although it was expensive*, we decided to buy it. -He couldn't attend the meeting *because he was ill*.

Pangesti and Rafi (2023) emphasize the importance of understanding various types of clauses and the relationships between clauses in developing reading and writing skills. They note that effective textbooks use a variety of clause structures to present information with a level of complexity appropriate to students' cognitive development level. A deep understanding of basic syntactic analysis—particularly subjects and predicates, phrases versus clauses, and independent versus dependent clauses—forms an important foundation in mastering English grammar. The ability to identify and analyze these structures enables learners to better understand complex texts, detect and

correct grammatical errors, and produce coherent and effective writing.

11.5. PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS OF SENTENCE STRUCTURE

Understanding sentence structure theoretically is an important first step, but the ability to apply this knowledge in real contexts becomes the key to successful communication. This section will discuss practical applications of sentence structure in two contexts: the field of English for Nursing as a reflection of the author's teaching experience, and in academic communication in general. Both contexts demand accuracy, clarity, and effectiveness in using sentence structures to achieve specific communication goals.

A. Sentence Structure in English for Nursing

The nursing field has distinctive language needs, especially in the contexts of clinical communication, medical documentation, and patient interaction. Appropriate sentence structure becomes very important because unclear communication can directly impact the quality of care and patient safety. Based on observations while teaching English for Nursing, there are several dominant sentence structure patterns in nursing communication:

1. Imperative Sentences for Instructions and Procedures

In the context of giving instructions to patients or explaining medical procedures, imperative sentences are widely used. Some examples: - "Turn to your left side, please." - "Take this medication after meals three times a day." - "Breathe deeply and hold for five seconds."

Noor (2019) observed that nursing lecturers often use imperative structures when demonstrating clinical procedures to

students. This helps convey instructions clearly and directly, without ambiguity. However, it is important to pay attention to tone and intonation so that imperative sentences do not sound harsh, especially when communicating with patients.

2. Interrogative Sentences for Patient Assessment

Assessment is one of the important stages in the nursing process. In this context, well-structured interrogative sentences are essential for obtaining accurate information from patients. Some common patterns: -Closed questions (yes/no questions) to confirm specific information: "Do you have any allergies to medication?" "Have you experienced this pain before?" -Open questions (WH-questions) to explore information more deeply: "How would you describe the pain you're feeling?" "When did you first notice these symptoms?"

Noor (2019) emphasizes the importance of formulating questions clearly in the context of problem-based learning (PBL) in nursing. Nursing students need to be trained to ask structured and systematic questions to collect comprehensive patient data.

3. Complex Sentences for Medical Documentation

In medical documentation, nurses often need to use complex sentences to describe patient conditions, actions that have been taken, and patient responses to those actions. Complex sentence structures allow nurses to show cause-effect, temporal, and conditional relationships in one coherent sentence. Some examples: -"Although the patient reported feeling dizzy when standing up, vital signs remained stable throughout the assessment." -"After administering 5mg of morphine as prescribed, the patient's pain level decreased from 8 to 3 on the pain scale within 30 minutes."

In the learning context, the use of appropriate complex sentences in nursing documentation needs to be emphasized. Noor (2019) notes that the ability to document clinical information clearly and accurately is a core competency that needs to be developed by nursing students.

B. Sentence Structure in Academic Communication

Academic communication has its own characteristics that require mastery of various sentence structures to convey ideas clearly, logically, and persuasively. Here are some important aspects of using sentence structure for academic communication:

1. Declarative Sentences for Stating Arguments and Findings

In academic writing, declarative sentences become the main vehicle for conveying arguments, facts, and research findings. Clear and precise sentence structure is essential to ensure that messages are accurately delivered. Some examples:

- "Recent studies have shown a significant correlation between sleep quality and academic performance among college students."
- "The implementation of explicit instruction models increased reading comprehension scores by an average of 15% across all grade levels."

Yuniasri (2020) in her research on explicit instruction models emphasizes the importance of clear declarative sentences in delivering instructions and explanations to students. She notes that ambiguous or overly complex sentences can hinder understanding and, ultimately, the learning process.

2. Complex and Compound-Complex Sentences to Show Relationships Between Ideas

Academic writing often requires sentence structures that can illustrate complex relationships between ideas. Complex and compound-complex sentences allow writers to express logical relationships such as cause-effect, contrast, conditional, and concession in one coherent syntactic unit. Some examples:

- "While traditional assessment methods focus primarily on summative evaluation, formative assessment practices, which provide ongoing feedback during the learning process, have been shown to significantly improve student outcomes."
- "Although the sample size was relatively small, the results were statistically significant; however, further research with larger populations is needed to confirm these preliminary findings."

Aulia et al. (2020) in their review of language learning evaluation emphasize the importance of the ability to understand and use complex sentence structures in academic contexts. They note that this ability is not only important for understanding academic texts but also for producing writing that demonstrates critical and analytical thinking.

3. Variation in Sentence Structure to Enhance Cohesion and Coherence

One characteristic of effective academic writing is the use of various sentence structures to create cohesive and coherent text. Variation between simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex sentences can help organize the flow of information and make writing more engaging to read. Some strategies include:

- Using simple sentences to state main points or important conclusions: "This finding has significant implications for classroom practice."
- Using compound sentences to present equivalent ideas: "The experimental group showed improved performance, and the control group maintained baseline levels."
- Using complex sentences to show hierarchical relationships between ideas: "Because reading comprehension is a multifaceted skill, it requires a combination of instructional approaches to develop effectively."

Yuniasri (2020) highlights the importance of teaching students to identify and use various sentence structures in reading and writing. She emphasizes that awareness of sentence structure can improve reading comprehension and the ability to organize ideas effectively in writing.

C. Pedagogical Implications

Based on the analysis above, there are several important implications for teaching sentence structure in the context of ESP (English for Specific Purposes) and EAP (English for Academic Purposes): **(1) Contextual Learning:** Sentence structures should be taught in contexts relevant to the target field of study or profession. For nursing students, for example, teaching about imperative sentences can be directly linked to situations where instructions are given to patients. **(2) Genre-Based Approach:** Identifying and analyzing dominant sentence structure patterns in specific genres (case reports, research articles, clinical presentations) can help learners understand communication conventions in their field. **(3) Analysis and Production Practice:** Learners need to be given opportunities to analyze sentence structures in authentic texts and practice producing various types of sentences in meaningful contexts.

Aulia et al. (2020) emphasize the importance of comprehensive evaluation in language learning, including assessment of students' ability to use various sentence structures appropriately. They note that assessment should not only focus on grammatical accuracy but also on the appropriate use of sentence structures for specific communicative purposes.

Noor (2019) highlights the role of lecturers as facilitators in helping students develop awareness of language structures and how these structures are used in professional contexts. She notes that problem-based learning (PBL) can be an effective platform for integrating sentence structure teaching with subject content. In conclusion, practical applications of sentence structure in English for Nursing and academic communication demonstrate how theoretical understanding of syntax can be applied to achieve specific communicative goals. The ability to select and use appropriate sentence structures according to context, purpose, and audience is an important skill that needs to be developed by English language learners, especially those who use the language in professional or academic contexts

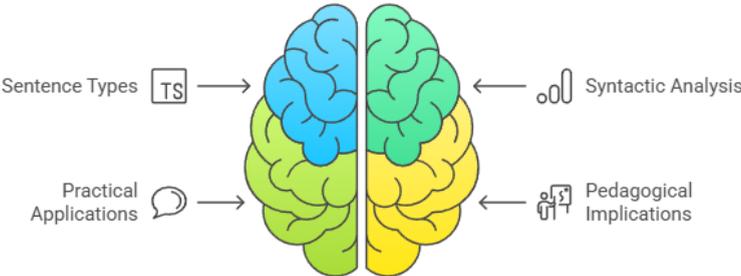
11.6. CONCLUSION

Understanding sentence structure is fundamental to mastering English language communication in both academic and professional contexts. Throughout this chapter, we have explored various aspects of sentence types and structures, from the basic classification of sentences based on function (declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory) to the structural categorization (simple, compound, complex, and compound-complex sentences). We have also examined the essential components of syntactic analysis, including subjects and predicates, phrases versus clauses, and independent versus dependent clauses.

The practical applications of these concepts in specialized fields such as English for Nursing and academic communication demonstrate that theoretical knowledge of syntax has direct implications for effective communication in real-world settings. In nursing contexts, appropriate sentence structures facilitate clear instructions to patients, systematic assessment through well-formulated questions, and accurate documentation using complex sentences that articulate relationships between clinical observations. Similarly, in academic communication, various sentence types serve specific purposes: declarative sentences for presenting arguments and findings, complex sentences for showing relationships between ideas, and structural variation for enhancing cohesion and coherence.

The pedagogical implications drawn from this analysis highlight the importance of contextual learning, genre-based approaches, and balanced practice in both analysis and production of sentence structures. For English language learners, particularly those using the language in professional or academic settings, the ability to select and employ appropriate sentence structures according to context, purpose, and audience is a critical skill that deserves focused attention in language instruction.

Mastering English Sentence Structures



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AUTHOR'S PROFILE



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The author is a distinguished English lecturer and language education specialist with over a decade of experience in teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP). She holds a Master's degree in English Linguistics from Universitas Padjajaran and a Bachelor's degree in English Language and Literature from Universitas Negeri Yogyakarta. Since 2013, she has been serving as an English lecturer at Universitas Harapan Bangsa, where she specializes in teaching English for Nursing, English for Midwifery, and various academic English courses. Her expertise in applying linguistic theories to practical language teaching has made her a valued educator in the field of healthcare communication. Putri's

research interests center on pragmatics, semantics, and innovative teaching methodologies in ESP contexts. Her publications include works on medical terminology acquisition, online learning effectiveness, and computer-assisted language learning. Her recent work, "Enhancing Nursing Students' Long-term Retention and Engagement in Medical Terminology through Mnemonic-Enhanced Multimedia Mobile Learning" (2024), demonstrates her commitment to developing effective pedagogical approaches for specialized language learning. She is the co-author of several books, including "Understanding Intercultural Communication" (2023), "Approaches in Teaching English for Specific Purposes" (2024), and "Exploring Semantics: From Basic Concepts to Computational Applications" (2025). Her work consistently bridges theoretical linguistic knowledge with practical applications in professional contexts. As an editorial board member for multiple academic journals and a certified Neo Neuro Linguistic Programming Skills practitioner, Putri brings a unique interdisciplinary perspective to language teaching. Her approach emphasizes contextual learning, genre-based instruction, and the development of communicative competence for specific professional domains. Beyond her academic roles, she actively contributes to community education through workshops and training programs, sharing her expertise in public speaking, English grammar, and specialized language instruction with students and professionals throughout Indonesia.

CHAPTER 12

QUESTION

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12.1. INTRODUCTION

Questions is a sentence or phrase used to find out information.(Cambridge Dictionary, 2025). They are typically characterized by a specific syntactic structure, such as subject-verb inversion or the use of question words (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002). Understanding different types of questions and their grammatical structures is essential since it allows individuals to obtain specific information, clarify doubts, and express curiosity about different topics. In conversations, questions help maintain engagement and encourage interaction between speakers. In educational settings, they are essential for testing knowledge, fostering critical thinking, and ensuring understanding. Additionally, questions can be used to make polite requests, offer suggestions, or control discussions in meetings and debates. By developing the ability to ask and answer questions effectively, learners can enhance their communication skills and improve their confidence in using English in various situations. mastering English at an intermediate level. This chapter explores the rules governing various question forms and their applications in different contexts.

12.2. TYPES OF QUESTIONS

In English, questions are formed differently depending on type of information being requested. Below are the types of question and the structure:

1. YES/NO QUESTIONS

Yes/No questions are the simple type of questions in English grammar. These questions are formed by **inversion** of the subject and the auxiliary verb. The answer of these question is 'yes' or 'no.' (Langeek Inc., 2020). These questions begin with an auxiliary verb and modal verb. they are structured to elicit a simple affirmative or negative response.

Structure of Yes/No Questions

a. **Yes no questions** *with* auxiliary verb

The question is constructed by reordering the subject and the auxiliary verb. It begins with the auxiliary verb (be, have and do). **Structure:** auxiliary verb + subject + Main verb?

Example:

1. *Is she a nurse?*
2. *Has he finished the report?*
3. *Are they coming to the meeting?*

b. **Yes no questions** *with* modal verb

The question begins with modal verb (will would, should, can etc). **Structure:** Modal verb+ subject+ Main verb?

Example:

1. Can you lend me your book?
2. Should we go now?

c. **Yes no questions** *with* do

The question constructed when there is no auxiliary verb and modal verb. **Structure:** (do/does/ did) + subject+ Main verb?

Example:

1. Do you like coffee?
2. Did they finish their homework?

d. **Negative yes no question**

The question starts with a negative auxiliary verb. The verb is usually formed in a contraction (e.g., does + not = doesn't). Negative questions are used to express the speaker's idea (i.e., what she/he believes is or is not true) or attitude (e.g., surprise, shock, annoyance, anger).

Example:

1. *Don't you understand the instruction?*
2. *Didn't they call you?*

2. WH- QUESTIONS

These questions begin with question words such as "what," "where," "when," "who," "why," "which," "how." They are used to create effective questions and gather complete information. The Questions with who/what/which/where, prepositions are (in, for etc.) located at the end (Raymond, 2019).

Example:

1. Where do you live?
2. What was the condition like?

Structure of Wh- Questions

In general, the structure of **Wh- Questions** is as follows (Azar & Hagen, 2009):

WH-word + Auxiliary verb + Subject + Main verb +
(Complement)?

These are the structure of WH-questions depends on the type of verb used in the sentence.

a. **WH-Questions with Auxiliary Verbs (Be, Do, Have, Modals)**

Structure: WH-Word + Auxiliary Verb + Subject + Main Verb (+ Object)?

Example:

1. *Why **is** she crying?*
2. *What **have** they done?*

If the main verb is **be (is/am/are/was/were)**, no extra auxiliary is needed. Example: *Where **is** your house?*

b. **WH-Questions with Modal Verbs (Can, Will, Must, etc.)**

Structure:

WH-Word + Modal Verb + Subject + Main Verb?

Example:

1. *What **can** we do?*
2. *Where **should** I go?*

c. **WH-Questions When the Subject is the Question**

If the WH-word acts as the **subject**, no auxiliary verb is needed. **Structure:** WH-Word + Verb + (Object)?

Example:

1. *Who wrote this book? (without "did")*
2. *What happened yesterday?*

Types of WH-Question

1. What

What is used to ask about things, events, or general information. It can be used in variety of combination.

- a. **What** is used as **subject** of question. It refers to things.

Example: *What made you sad?*

- b. **What** is used as **object** of question

Example: *What do you want?*

- c. **What kind of** is used to a specific type of something
Example: What kind shoes did buy
- d. **What+** a form of **do** is used to ask a question of activities
Example: What did you do last year?
- e. **What** accompanies a **noun**
Example: What country did you visit?
- f. **What + be like** is used for asking general description quality
Example: What is Ed likes?
- g. **What + look like** is used for asking physical description
Example: What does her house look like?

2. **When**

When is used to ask about time?

Example:

1. *When* did they take off?
2. *When* will you come?

3. **Where**

Where is used to ask about place or location.

Example:

1. *Where is the hospital?*
2. *Where should we meet?*

4. **Why**

Why is used to ask questions

Example:

1. Why are you late?
2. Why why does he want to move abroad?

5. **Who**

Who is used as the subject of a question. It refers to people.

Example:

1. Who is coming to dinner tonight?
2. Who wants to come with me?

If the question word is the subject, the question-word order is not used; **does**, **do**, and **did** are also not used. The verb is in the same form in a question as it is in a statement.

Example: Who came?

Main verb **be** in the simple present (am, is, are) and simple past (was, were) precedes the subject. It has the same position as a helping verb.

6. **Whom**

Whom is used as the object of a verb or preposition and the object is usually a person's name or a pronoun. (Alexander, 2004) In everyday spoken English, **whom** is rarely used. **Whom** is used only in formal questions.

Example:

1. Who(m) did you meet?
2. To whom should I give? (formal)

7. **Whose**

Whose asks questions about possession.

Example:

1. Whose car did you drive?
2. Whose book is this?

8. **Which**

Which is used instead of **what** when a question focus on choosing from a certain quantity or group.

1. *Which bag* do you want?
2. *Which one* do you want?

In some cases, there is little difference in meaning between **which** and **what** when they accompany a noun.

Example:

1. *Which city* did he visit?
2. *What cities* did he visit?
3. *Which room* are you in?
4. *What room* are you in?

9. How

How is used in many functions such as follow

- a. How generally asks about manner.

Example:

1. How did you go to campus?
2. How does it work?

- b. How followed with much and many is used to ask the quantity

Example:

1. How much money does it cost?
2. How many people came?

- c. How is also used with adjectives and adverbs.

- How long asks about duration.

Example: *How long have you lived here?*

- How often asks about frequency.

Example: *How often* do you play badminton in a week?

- How far asks about distance.

Example: *How far* is it to jakarta from here?

3. QUESTIONS TAG

A question tag is a short question form attached to a sentence. The tag question generally contrasts in polarity with the statement; that is, when the sentence is affirmative, the tag is negative, and vice versa. (Celce-Murcia et al., 1983). Speakers use question tag mainly to make sure their information is correct or to seek agreement (Azar & Hagen, 2009). These questions provide a clear choice of answers. A tag question is a question added at the end of a sentence.

Structure of Question Tag

- a. **Negative Question Tag** after a positive sentence: (Raymond, 2019)

Positive sentence + negative tag

Example:

- John will be here soon, won't she?
- You like coffee, don't you?

- b. **Positive Question Tag** after a negative sentence:

Negative sentence + positive tag

Example:

- She doesn't study hard, does she?
- He can't swim, can he?

In question tags, we use an auxiliary verb (have/was/will etc.) and we use does/did for the present and past simple.

Example:

1. 'Karen plays the piano, doesn't she?' 'Well, yes, but not very well.'
2. 'You didn't lock the door, did you?' 'No, I forgot.'

The meaning of a question tag depends on how you say it. If your voice goes down, you are not really asking a question. You expect the listener to agree with you:

Example:

1. 'It's a nice day, isn't it?' 'Yes, beautiful.'
2. 'Paul doesn't look well today, does he?' 'No, he looks very tired.'
3. 'Lisa's very funny. She's got a great sense of humor, hasn't she?' 'Yes, she has.'

In certain case, the question tag has another form

1. After Let's (= Let us) the question tag is shall we:
Example: Let's go shopping, shall we?
2. After Don't, the question tag is will you:
Example: Don't be lazy, will you?
3. After I'm, the negative question tag is aren't I? (= am I not?):
Example: 'I'm right, aren't I?' 'Yes, you are.'

4. ALTERNATIVE QUESTIONS

Alternative questions (also called **choice** questions) ask the listener to choose between two or more *options*. These options are linked to each other using the **conjunction 'or'**. (Langeek Inc., 2020). These questions provide a clear choice of answers. The structure of these questions also involves inversion of subject and auxiliary verb. **Structure:**

(Auxiliary verb) + Subject + Verb + Option 1 + or + Option 2?

Example:

1. Do you want juice or milk?
2. Is she a doctor or a nurse?

5. RHETORICAL QUESTIONS

These questions are often used to start a discussion, express an opinion, or emphasize a point. (Bezsmolna, 2024). When someone asks a rhetorical question, they don't expect an answer. Rhetorical questions are a useful technique in persuasive writing since there is nobody to answer the question. the question is usually designed to speak directly to the reader. It allows the reader a moment to pause and think about the question. For the reason, they are effective in attracting the reader's interest and making them think about their own response to the question (BBC, 2025). **Structure:**

(Question Word / Auxiliary Verb) + Subject + Verb (+ Complement)?

Example:

1. Isn't it obvious?
2. Who doesn't want good health?
3. Do you really think ignoring the symptoms will help?
4. Why should we wait if the patient is in pain?

12.3. CONCLUSION

English questions are classified five main types. Yes/No Questions prompt a simple confirmation, while WH-Questions seek specific information using WH-words. Choice Questions present alternatives, requiring the respondent to choose between options. Tag Questions add a short confirmation phrase at the end of a statement, and Rhetorical Questions emphasize a point without expecting a direct response. A clear understanding of these question types enhances both spoken and written communication, ensuring precision and engagement.

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CHAPTER 13

ENGLISH TENSES

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13.1. INTRODUCTION

Mastering English grammar is fundamental to effective communication, and among its most essential components is the correct use of tenses. English tenses are the backbone of the language, enabling speakers and writers to clearly express time-related concepts such as past, present, and future actions or states. For intermediate learners, understanding tenses goes beyond basic memorization; it requires the ability to apply them dynamically in various contexts to convey meaning accurately. At the intermediate level, learners are expected to refine their understanding of tenses, ensuring grammatical accuracy while enhancing fluency. This stage often serves as a bridge between foundational grammar and advanced language use, where the precision of tenses becomes increasingly significant. Errors in tense usage (Stosic, D., 2019) can lead to misunderstandings, as they directly impact the timing and sequence of events in communication.

Furthermore, tenses are not just about indicating time—they reflect aspects such as habitual actions, ongoing processes, completed tasks, and hypothetical scenarios. For instance, distinguishing between simple, continuous, perfect, and perfect continuous forms allows learners to express complex ideas with clarity and depth. Thus, gaining proficiency in tenses at the intermediate level is essential for advancing toward more sophisticated language skills.

We will explore tenses and their practical applications and significance in everyday communication, academic writing, and professional contexts. Intermediate learners can build confidence in their language abilities by mastering tenses, laying a solid foundation for further progress. Tenses in English help indicate the time of an action, event, or condition. They are essential for clear communication, ensuring listeners and readers understand when something happened, is happening, or will happen.

1. THE THREE MAIN TENSE CATEGORIES

English tenses are broadly divided into three **main categories**:

Table 13.1. Three Main Tense Categories

Tense Category	Definition	Example
Past Tense	Describes actions or events that have already happened.	<i>She studied English yesterday.</i>
Present Tense	Describes actions happening now or general truths.	<i>She studies English every day.</i>
Future Tense	Describes actions that will happen later.	<i>She will study English tomorrow.</i>

Each of these main categories is further divided into **four aspects**, which describe the **nature of the action**:

2. THE FOUR ASPECTS OF TENSES

Each tense (past, present, future) has four aspects:

Table 13.2. Aspect of Tense

Aspect	Definition	Example (Present Tense)
Simple	Describes general facts, habits, or completed actions.	<i>I study English.</i>
Continuous (Progressive)	Describes ongoing or temporary actions.	<i>I am studying English.</i>
Perfect	Describes completed actions with a connection to another time.	<i>I have studied English.</i>
Perfect Continuous	Describes actions that started in the past and are still continuing.	<i>I have been studying English.</i>

3. How the Tense Structure Works

Each tense follows a specific **sentence structure**:

a. Simple Tenses

Past: Subject + V2 (Past Verb) → *She visited Paris last year.*

Present: Subject + V1 (Base Verb) / V1 + s/es → *He works at a bank.*

Future: Subject + will + V1 → *They will travel to London.*

b. Continuous Tenses (Uses *be* + V-ing)

Past: Subject + was/were + V-ing → *She was reading a book.*

Present: Subject + is/am/are + V-ing → *They are watching TV.*

Future: Subject + will be + V-ing → *I will be studying then.*

- c. **Perfect Tenses** (Uses *have/has/had* + V3)
Past: Subject + had + V3 → *She **had finished** her work before dinner.*
Present: Subject + has/have + V3 → *I **have completed** my assignment.*
Future: Subject + will have + V3 → *By next week, they **will have arrived**.*
- d. **Perfect Continuous Tenses** (Uses *have been/has been/had been/will have been* + V-ing)
Past: Subject + had been + V-ing → *She **had been working** all day.*
Present: Subject + has/have been + V-ing → *He **has been playing** for hours.*
Future: Subject + will have been + V-ing → *By next year, she **will have been studying** for five years.*

13.2. PRESENT TENSES IN ENGLISH

Present tenses describe actions that happen in the present time, either as habits, ongoing activities, or actions that connect the past and present (Vince, M., 2008). Below is a detailed breakdown of the four present tenses.

Present Tenses	Present Simple Tense	Present Continuous Tense	Present Perfect Tense	Present Perfect Continuous Tense
Usage	<p>The present simple is used to describe:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Facts and general truths → Things that are always true. ✓ Habits and routines → Actions that happen regularly. ✓ Fixed schedules → Timetables or scheduled events (e.g., train departures). 	<p>The present continuous is used to describe:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Actions happening right now → Things happening at the moment of speaking. ✓ Temporary situations → Activities that are happening for a limited time. ✓ Future plans → Actions planned for the near future. 	<p>The present perfect is used to describe:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Actions that happened at an unspecified time before now → The focus is on the result, not when it happened. ✓ Life experiences → Things someone has done in their life. ✓ Actions that started in the past and continue to the present. 	<p>The present perfect continuous is used to describe:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Actions that started in the past and are still continuing ✓ Actions that have recently stopped but have a visible result.
Structure	<p>Positive:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✦ Subject + V1 (+s/es for third-person singular) • <i>She reads books every night.</i> • <i>The sun rises in the</i> 	<p>Positive:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✦ Subject + is/am/are + V-ing • <i>She is watching a movie.</i> • <i>I am studying for</i> 	<p>Positive:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✦ Subject + has/have + V3 (past participle) • <i>She has finished her homework.</i> • <i>I have visited</i> 	<p>Positive:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✦ Subject + has/have been + V-ing • <i>She has been working since morning.</i> • <i>I have been</i>

	<p><i>east.</i> Negative: ✦ Subject + do/does + not + V1 • <i>He does not like coffee.</i> • <i>They do not work on Sundays.</i> Question: ✦ Do/Does + Subject + V1? • <i>Do you play football?</i> • <i>Does she study English?</i></p>	<p><i>my exam.</i> Negative: ✦ Subject + is/am/are + not + V-ing • <i>They are not playing outside.</i> • <i>He is not working today.</i> Question: ✦ Is/Am/Are + Subject + V-ing? • <i>Are you listening?</i> <i>Is she coming to the party?</i></p>	<p><i>Paris.</i> Negative: ✦ Subject + has/have + not + V3 • <i>They have not seen this movie.</i> • <i>He has not finished his project yet.</i> Question: ✦ Has/Have + Subject + V3? • <i>Have you ever traveled to Japan?</i> • <i>Has he completed his work?</i></p>	<p><i>studying all day.</i> Negative: ✦ Subject + has/have not been + V-ing • <i>They have not been sleeping well.</i> • <i>He has not been exercising lately.</i> Question: ✦ Has/Have + Subject + been + V-ing? • <i>Have you been waiting long?</i> • <i>Has she been feeling better?</i></p>
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<p>Examples</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Water boils at 100°C.</i> (Fact) • <i>I go to the gym every day.</i> (Habit) • <i>The train leaves at 8 PM.</i> (Schedule) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>She is talking to her friend right now.</i> (Ongoing action) • <i>I am staying in London for two weeks.</i> (Temporary situation) • <i>We are meeting our teacher tomorrow.</i> (Future plan) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>I have lost my keys.</i> (The exact time is unknown, but the result affects now.) • <i>She has visited Italy three times.</i> (Life experience) • <i>They have lived here for five years.</i> (Started in the past and continues now) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>She has been reading for two hours.</i> (Ongoing action) • <i>I have been learning Spanish for three years.</i> (Started in the past, still happening) • <i>He has been running, so he is out of breath.</i> (Recently stopped with a visible result)
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Here is the summary table of present tenses.

Tense	Usage	Example
Present Simple	Facts, habits, schedules	<i>She works every day.</i>
Present Continuous	Ongoing actions, temporary situations, future plans	<i>They are playing football now.</i>
Present Perfect	Unspecified past actions, experiences, past-to-present actions	<i>He has visited Japan.</i>
Present Perfect Continuous	Ongoing actions from past to present, recent activities with visible effects	<i>I have been studying for three hours.</i>

13.3. PAST TENSES IN ENGLISH

Past tenses describe actions that happened before now (Azar, S. B., 2002). They help us understand when an event occurred and its relation to other past events. Below is a detailed breakdown of the four past tenses.

Past Tenses	Past Simple Tense	Past Continuous Tense	Past Perfect Tense	Past Perfect Continuous Tense
Usage	<p>The past simple is used for:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Completed actions in the past → The action happened and is finished. ✓ A sequence of past events → Actions that happened one after another. ✓ Past habits or repeated actions → Things that happened regularly in the past but not anymore. 	<p>The past continuous is used for:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Ongoing actions in the past → Actions that were happening at a specific moment. ✓ Interruptions in the past → A longer action that was interrupted by a shorter action. ✓ Parallel past actions → Two or more actions happening at the same time in the past. 	<p>The past perfect is used for:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ An action that happened before another past event → It shows which action happened first. ✓ Reported speech → When reporting what someone said in the past. ✓ Unreal past situations → In conditional sentences (e.g., <i>If I had studied, I would have passed.</i>) 	<p>The past perfect continuous is used for:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ An action that was happening for a period of time before another past event ✓ Describing reasons for past situations → Explains why something happened in the past. ✓ Showing duration of past actions
Structure	<p>Positive: Subject + V2 (past verb)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>She visited London last year.</i> • <i>They played</i> 	<p>✦ Positive: Subject + was/were + V-ing</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>She was reading a book at 8 PM.</i> • <i>They were watching</i> 	<p>✦ Positive: Subject + had + V3 (past participle)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>She had finished her homework before</i> 	<p>✦ Positive: Subject + had been + V-ing</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>She had been studying for five hours before the exam.</i>

	<p><i>football yesterday.</i></p> <p>★ Negative: Subject + did not + V1 (base verb)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>He did not eat breakfast.</i> • <i>We did not go to the party.</i> <p>★ Question: Did + Subject + V1?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Did you watch the movie?</i> • <i>Did she call you?</i> 	<p><i>TV when I arrived.</i></p> <p>★ Negative: Subject + was/were not + V-ing</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>He was not sleeping at that time.</i> • <i>We were not talking when she called.</i> <p>★ Question: Was/Were + Subject + V-ing?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Was she studying when you called?</i> • <i>Were they playing football?</i> 	<p><i>dinner.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>By the time we arrived, they had left.</i> <p>★ Negative: Subject + had not + V3</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>He had not eaten before the meeting.</i> • <i>They had not seen that movie before.</i> <p>★ Question: Had + Subject + V3?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Had you ever traveled abroad before last year?</i> • <i>Had she met him before the party?</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>We had been waiting for an hour when the bus finally arrived.</i> <p>★ Negative: Subject + had not been + V-ing</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>He had not been sleeping well before the trip.</i> • <i>They had not been talking for months before they reconciled.</i> <p>★ Question: Had + Subject + been + V-ing?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Had you been working there for long before you left?</i> • <i>Had she been feeling sick before the doctor arrived?</i>
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<p>Examples</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>I finished my homework two hours ago.</i> (A completed action) • <i>She left the office at 5 PM.</i> (A specific past time) • <i>When I was a child, I played outside every day.</i> (A past habit) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>I was cooking dinner when the phone rang.</i> (Ongoing action interrupted by another action) • <i>She was working while I was reading a book.</i> (Two actions happening at the same time) • <i>At 10 PM last night, I was sleeping.</i> (Ongoing past action at a specific time) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>I had already eaten when they arrived.</i> (Action happened before another past event) • <i>She had never visited Paris before 2020.</i> (An action completed before a specific past time) • <i>By the time I woke up, my mom had cooked breakfast.</i> (One action completed before another) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>I had been working all day, so I was very tired.</i> (Reason for a past situation) • <i>She had been crying before you arrived.</i> (Action happening before another past event) • <i>By the time he arrived, they had been discussing the topic for an hour.</i> (Action continuing before another past event)
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Here is the summary table of past tenses.

Tense	Usage	Example
Past Simple	Completed actions in the past	<i>She visited Paris last year.</i>
Past Continuous	Ongoing actions, interruptions	<i>I was cooking when she arrived.</i>
Past Perfect	Actions before another past event	<i>They had left before we arrived.</i>
Past Perfect Continuous	Long actions before another past event	<i>She had been working for hours before the break.</i>

13.4. FUTURE TENSES IN ENGLISH

Future tenses describe actions that will happen after the present moment. They help us talk about predictions, plans, ongoing future activities, and actions that will be completed in the future (Azar, S. B., 2002). Below is a detailed breakdown of the four past tenses.

Future Tenses	Future Simple Tense	Future Continuous Tense	Future Perfect Tense	Future Perfect Continuous Tense
Usage	<p>The future simple is used for:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Predictions → When we guess or expect something will happen in the future. ✓ Spontaneous decisions → When we decide to do something at the moment of speaking. ✓ Promises, offers, and threats → When we assure, offer help, or warn someone. 	<p>The future continuous is used for:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Ongoing actions in the future → Actions that will be happening at a specific future time. ✓ Planned or scheduled future actions → Actions that are expected to happen. ✓ Polite inquiries → Used to ask about future plans in a polite way. 	<p>The future perfect is used for:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Actions completed before a specific time in the future → Actions that will be finished before a certain point. ✓ Making assumptions about completed actions → Guessing that something has already been done. 	<p>The future perfect continuous is used for:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ✓ Actions that will continue up to a specific future point → Actions that started earlier and will still be happening. ✓ Indicating the duration of an action before a future time → Often used with "for" and "by".
Structure	<p>✦ Positive: Subject + will + V1 (base verb)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>She will visit Paris next year.</i> 	<p>✦ Positive: Subject + will be + V-ing</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>She will be studying at 8 PM tonight.</i> 	<p>✦ Positive: Subject + will have + V3 (past participle)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>By next year, she</i> 	<p>✦ Positive: Subject + will have been + V-ing</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>By next year, she will have been working</i>

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>I will call you later.</i> ★ Negative: Subject + will not (won't) + V1 • <i>He will not pass the test without studying.</i> • <i>They won't attend the meeting.</i> ★ Question: Will + Subject + V1? • <i>Will you help me with my homework?</i> • <i>Will she arrive on time?</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>They will be traveling to Japan next week.</i> ★ Negative: Subject + will not (won't) be + V-ing • <i>I won't be working tomorrow.</i> • <i>He will not be coming to the party.</i> ★ Question: Will + Subject + be + V-ing? • <i>Will you be studying at 10 AM?</i> • <i>Will she be driving to work in the morning?</i> 	<p><i>will have graduated from university.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>I will have finished my project by tomorrow.</i> ★ Negative: Subject + will not (won't) have + V3 • <i>He won't have completed his work by Friday.</i> • <i>They will not have arrived by 10 PM.</i> ★ Question: Will + Subject + have + V3? • <i>Will you have finished the report by Monday?</i> • <i>Will they have left before we arrive?</i> 	<p><i>here for five years.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>He will have been studying all night before the test.</i> ★ Negative: Subject + will not (won't) have been + V-ing • <i>They won't have been waiting for long when we arrive.</i> • <i>She will not have been practicing enough before the performance.</i> ★ Question: Will + Subject + have been + V-ing? • <i>Will you have been studying for two hours by then?</i> • <i>Will he have been working at the company for a decade?</i>
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Examples	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>I will buy a new phone next month.</i> (Spontaneous decision) • <i>It will rain tomorrow.</i> (Prediction) • <i>Don't worry, I will help you.</i> (Promise) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>At this time tomorrow, I will be flying to New York.</i> (Ongoing future action) • <i>They will be waiting for you at the airport.</i> (Planned future action) • <i>Will you be using the car tonight?</i> (Polite inquiry) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>By the time you wake up, I will have left for work.</i> (Action completed before a future point) • <i>She will have finished her book by next week.</i> (Future completed action) • <i>Will you have written the essay before the deadline?</i> (Asking about completion) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>By the time we arrive, they will have been driving for six hours.</i> (Ongoing action up to a future point) • <i>She will have been practicing for months before the competition.</i> (Future duration) • <i>How long will you have been waiting when the bus arrives?</i> (Asking about duration)
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Here is a summary table of future tenses.

Tense	Usage	Example
Future Simple	Predictions, spontaneous decisions	<i>She will travel next month.</i>
Future Continuous	Ongoing actions in the future	<i>At 5 PM, I will be studying.</i>
Future Perfect	Actions completed before a future time	<i>By 2025, she will have graduated.</i>
Future Perfect Continuous	Actions continuing up to a future time	<i>By noon, they will have been working for six hours.</i>

13.5. CONCLUSION

English tenses play a fundamental role in effective communication by indicating the time, duration, and nature of actions or events. Understanding the three main tense categories—past, present, and future—along with their four aspects—simple, continuous, perfect, and perfect continuous—empowers learners to express ideas with clarity and precision. Each tense has its unique form and function, enabling speakers and writers to differentiate between habitual actions, ongoing processes, completed tasks, and actions that span across different timeframes. This chapter effectively breaks down the structure, usage, and examples of all twelve tenses, making it a valuable resource for intermediate learners who aim to master tense usage in both spoken and written English.

Mastering English tenses is not merely a matter of memorizing rules but understanding their practical application in real-life communication. Proficiency in tense usage allows learners to convey meaning more accurately, reduce misunderstandings, and enhance their overall fluency and confidence in the language. Whether for academic writing, professional settings, or everyday interactions, a solid grasp of

tenses forms the backbone of coherent and effective English usage. As learners progress, integrating these tenses seamlessly into their language use becomes crucial for achieving higher levels of language competence.

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CHAPTER 14

ACTIVE AND PASSIVE VOICE

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14.1. INTRODUCTION

In English, transitive sentences can be written in two main ways: active voice and passive voice. To learn English well, you need to know the difference between these two voices. The concept of ‘voice’ in English grammar refers to the element that shape sentence structure and meaning (Safarova, 2023). The difference between active and passive voice provides a strategic decision for English learners, particularly non-native speakers, in communication. Mastering these voices is important for developing a nuanced understanding of English syntax and structure. For the English teachers, a thorough understanding of active and passive is essential to assist students in navigating the intricacies of English grammar and stylistic options across different genres. This chapter will guide you through the concepts, rules, and the use of active and passive voice. It will help you understand the English in listening and reading skills and use those voices correctly in speaking and especially in writing skills. By looking at examples and doing some exercises, you will learn how to use active and passive voice properly.

14.2. ACTIVE VOICE

The concept of active and passive voice describes how the subject, verb, and object work together in a sentence (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2013; Lubis, 2023; Mpholle, 2022; Safarova, 2023). Active voice refers to the standard form of transitive

sentence in which the subject does the action, in other words, the verb expresses an activity that the subject of the sentence does. Active voice is often stronger, utilizes fewer words, clearly identifies who does the activity, and is more direct. Here are few examples (New York Times, 2025):

- (1) Russia (subject) frees (verb) an American prisoner (object).
- (2) We (subject) are witnessing (verb) a shift in diplomatic strategy (object).
- (3) They (subject) credited (verb) Mr. Trump's recent diplomatic outreach (object).

Structure of Active Voice:

Subject + Verb + Object

14.3. PASSIVE VOICE

Linguists have generally regarded the passive voice as a derivative of the canonical active voice. Passive constructions serve specific purposes that may be less accessible or entirely unavailable in the active voice (Thompson & Scheepers, 2013). The structure of passive voice has been notably influenced by Chomsky's (1981) approach, which suggests the insertion of the passive auxiliary "be" next to the main verb. In passive voice, the verb affects the sentence's subject (Joshi, M, 2014). Passive voice may be employed when the focus is on the activity or the person receiving the action rather than the person doing it. The following passive voice examples are formed from the sentences (1), (2), and (3) of active voice above:

- (4) An American prisoner (subject) is (to be) freed (past participle) by the Russia (agent).
- (5) A shift in diplomatic strategy (subject) is being (to be) witnessed (past participle) by us (agent).

- (6) Mr. Trump’s recent diplomatic outreach (subject) was (to be) credited (past participle) by them (agent)

From the sentences (4), (5), and (6), we can see that the structures change. The objective of the active voice is place into the subject in the passive voice likewise the subject of active voice becomes the agent or object that is positioned after preposition ‘by’.

Structure of Passive Voice:

Subject + form of “to be” + past participle + by agent

Joshi (2014) states that active voice enhances writing by making it direct, clear, concise, and fluid. On the contrary, passive voice is preferred in certain situations:

- a. When the active subject is unknown
Example: (7) My car **was stolen**.
- b. When the active subject is not important and the active object is more important.
Example: (8) the tax **must be paid**.
- c. When the active subject is clear.
Example: (9) the students **were told** to finish their assignments (obviously by the teacher)
- d. When you want to emphasize the action of the sentence rather than the doer of the action.
Example: (10) many children and women **were killed** in that war.
- e. When you want to describe scientific or mechanical processes to avoid the personal pronoun or to emphasize the research and not the researcher.
Example: (11) Intercultural communication **is perceived** as being somewhat problematic (Kaur, 2011).

- f. It is often used in news report.
Example: (12) Bill Gates says younger generations **should be worried** about 4 ‘very scary’ things (MNC, 2025).
- g. When you want to make it more polite or formal statement
Example: (13) Active → you haven’t signed the contract (less polite).
Passive → the contract **hasn’t been signed** yet (more polite)
- h. When you want to avoid extra-long subjects
Example: (14) Active → the external auditors who were appointed by the board of directors to analyze the annual financial report and make recommendations for financial improvements presented their findings.
Passive → the findings **were presented** by the external auditors appointed by the board of directors to analyze the annual accounting report and make recommendations for financial developments.

14.4. THE RULES OF CHANGING ACTIVE VOICE INTO PASSIVE VOICE

In the transformation from active to passive voice (see: Richmond & Practice, 2008; Safarova, 2023; Thompson & Scheepers, 2013), the subject of the active voice is repositioned as the object, typically preceded by the preposition 'by' (which is optional), while the object of the active voice assumes the role of the subject. The positions of subject and object in a sentence are reversed in the passive voice. It is important to note that, at times, other prepositions may be more appropriate than 'by'. Several rules of changing active voice to passive voice are summarized by Joshi (2014):

Rule 1: Determine whether the active sentence contains a direct object. If there is no direct object (intransitive), passive voice cannot be formed. If the active sentence has a direct object

Subject + to be (is/am/are/was/were) + past participle
Subject + to be (is/am/are/was/were) + being + past participle
Subject + have been/has been/had been + past participle
Subject + modal (will be/can be/may be) + past participle
Subject + would be/could be/ should be/might be + past participle

Picture 14.2.The use of auxiliary verb in passive voice

Rule 3: Position the subject from active voice in a phrase starting with the preposition 'by'. Occasionally, 'by' can be substituted with other prepositions like at, in, with, or, for. If the passive voice sentence remains clear, the subject from the active voice can sometimes be omitted. Example:

(15) Active voice → a teacher is teaching her students at the moment in the classroom.

Passive voice → the students **are being taught by** their teacher at the moment in the classroom.

(16) Active voice → They closed some streets due to harsh winter.

Passive voice → Some streets **were closed due to** harsh winter.

Rule 4: Convert the subject pronouns I, you, we, they, he, she, and it, into the agent pronouns me, you, us, them, him, her, and it when forming passive voice. Example:

(17) active voice → **We** did the project together.

Passive voice → The project was done by **us**.

Rule 5: Ensure that the initial verb matches the new subject in a passive voice construction. Example:

(18) Active voice → She **is drawing** some images on the white board.

Passive voice → Some images **are being drawn** by her on the white board.

Rule 6: When a sentence contains both direct object and indirect object, only one of these objects is swapped in the passive voice.

The other object remains in its original position. Example:

(19) Active voice → On my graduation day, my parents (subject) gave me (indirect object) a bouquet of flowers (direct object).

Passive voice → a bouquet of flowers (subject) was given (verb) to me on graduation day. **Or**

I (subject) was given (verb) a bouquet of flowers (object) by my parents on my graduation day.

14.5. TENSE-BASED EXAMPLES AND SITUATIONS WHERE PASSIVE VOICE CAN BE FORMED

Below are examples of converting active voice which includes affirmative (+), negatives (-) and interrogative (?) sentences to passive voice.

14.5.1. SIMPLE PRESENT

Example:

(20) Active →

(+) This teacher always **gives** her students reward.

(-) This teacher **does not** always **give** her students reward.

(?) **Does** this teacher always **give** her students reward?

Passive →

(+) The students **are** always **given** reward by the teacher.

(-) The students **are not** always **given** reward by the teacher.

(?) **Are** the students always **given** reward by the teacher?

14.5.2. SIMPLE PAST

Example:

(21) Active →

(+) We **bought** that house last year.

(-) We **did not buy** that house last year.

(?) **Did** we **buy** that house last year?

Passive →

(+) That house **was bought** by us.

(-) That house **was not bought** by us.

(?) **Was** that house **bought** by us?

14.5.3. PRESENT CONTINUOUS

Example:

(22) Active →

(+) The gardener **is watering** some plants.

(-) The gardener **is not watering** any plants.

(?) **Is** the gardener **watering** any plants?

Passive →

(+) some plants **are being watered** by the gardener.

(-) Some plants **are not being watered** by the gardener.

(?) **Are** some plants **being watered** by the gardener?

14.5.4. PAST CONTINUOUS

Example:

(23) Active →

(+) She **was listening** to the news on radio.

(-) She **was not listening** to the news on radio.

(?) **Was** she **listening** to the news on radio?

Passive →

(+) The news **was being listened** by her on radio.

- (-) The news **was not being listened** by her on the radio
(?) **Was** the news **being listened** by her on the radio?

14.5.5. FUTURE SIMPLE

Example:

(24) Active →

- (+) Xi Jinping **will visit** Russia in 2025
(-) Xi Jinping **will not visit** Russia in 2025
(?) **Will** Xi Jinping **visit** Russia in 2025?

Passive →

- (+) Russia **will be visited** by Xi Jinping in 2025
(-) Russia **will not be visited** by Xi Jinping in 2025
(?) **Will** Russia **be visited** by Xi Jinping in 2025?

14.5.6. PRESENT PERFECT

Example:

(25) Active →

- (+) The government **has reviewed** the budget cuts.
(-) The government **has not reviewed** the budget cuts.
(?) **Has** the government **viewed** the budget cuts?

Passive →

- (+) The budget cuts **has been reviewed** by the government
(-) The budget cuts **has not been reviewed** by the government.
(?) **Has** the budget cuts **reviewed** by the government?

14.5.7. PAST PERFECT

Example:

(26) Active →

- (+) The vice president **had finished** his speech.
(-) The vice president **had not finished** his speech.
(?) **Had** the vice president **finished** his speech?

Passive →

- (+) The speech **had been finished** by the vice president.
- (-) The speech **had not been finished** by the vice president.
- (?) **Had** the speech **been finished** by the vice president?

14.5.8. FUTURE PERFECT

Example:

(27) Active →

- (+) I **will have written** the article by the end of February.
- (-) I **will not have written** the article by the end of February.
- (?) **Will** you **have written** the article by the end of February?

Passive →

- (+) The article **will have been written** by the end of February.
- (-) The article **will have not been written** by the end of February.
- (?) **Will** the article **have been** written by the end of February?

14.6. TRANSITIVE VERBS

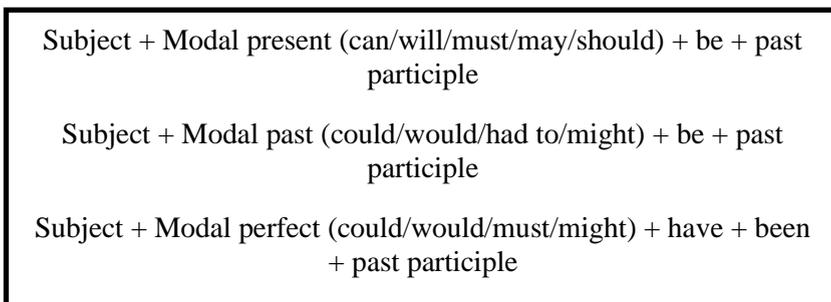
All the sentences contain transitive verbs, which are verbs that require a direct object to complete their meaning. This is essential for forming passive voice sentences. Passive voice is often used to emphasize the action itself or the receiver of the action rather than the doer (Hambali & Mirizon, 2019). The shift is possible because the direct object can be moved to the subject position.

The examples from (1) to (27) are the sentences that use transitive verbs.

14.7. AUXILIARY MODALS

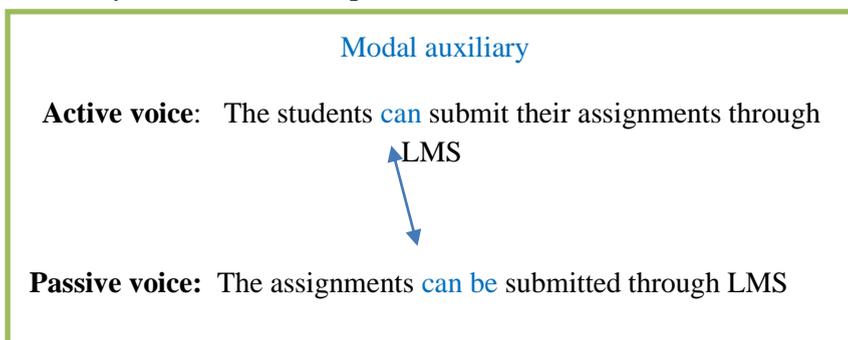
The present of auxiliary modals such as can, must, should, could and might help to form the passive by combining with the

past participle of the main verb. The transformation from active into passive voice can be illustrated by the following image:



Picture 14.3. the use of modal auxiliary in passive voice

The following image is showing how to shift modal auxiliary from active into passive voice:



Picture 14.4.

Example of the use of modal auxiliary in passive voice

14.8. SITUATIONS WHERE PASSIVE VOICE CANNOT BE FORMED

14.8.1. CERTAIN TENSES

There are certain tenses that cannot be formed into passive voice (Joshi, 2014). They are present perfect continuous, past perfect continuous, future continuous, and future perfect continuous tenses. The main reason these tenses cannot be

changed into passive voice is due to their focus on the duration or continuity of the action, which does not align with the structure of passive voice. Passive voice emphasizes the action and receiver of the action, rather than the doer. Here are the reasons for each tense:

1) Present Perfect Continuous Tense

This tense emphasizes the ongoing nature of an action that started in the past and continues into present. Passive voice cannot convey this continuous aspect effectively. Example:
(28) They **have been watching** this comedy for two hours.

2) Past Perfect Continuous Tense

This tense highlights an action that was ongoing in the past up until another point in the past. The continuous nature of the action makes it unsuitable for passive voice. Example:
(29) The fishermen **had been fishing** at the beach before the Tsunami came.

3) Future Continuous Tense

This tense describes an action that will be ongoing at a specific point in the future. Passive voice cannot express this future continuity. Example:

(30) Bob and his classmates **will be going** for study tour to Singapore Next week.

4) Future Perfect Continuous Tense

This tense indicates an action that will have been ongoing for a duration up to a certain point in the future. The focus on the duration and future aspect makes it incompatible with passive voice. Example:

(31) By 2026, I **will have been living** in Japan and working at a big company.

14.8.2. INTRANSITIVE VERBS

Intransitive verbs do not require a direct object. Passive voice entails converting the object of an active sentence into the

subject of a passive sentence. Therefore, if there is no direct object present, there is nothing available to change into the subject of a passive construction. In other words, intransitive verbs indicate actions that do not pass onto an object. For instance, verbs such as "sleep," "arrive," and "laugh" illustrate actions that the subject carries out independently, without influencing another entity. Example: (32) "My father sleeps soundly". The verb "sleeps" in this sentence shows an intransitive verb that does not have a direct object. There is no entity receiving the action of "sleep", so it cannot be made passive voice.

14.9. EXERCISES

A. *Change the following active voice sentences into passive voice sentences!*

1. The janitor cleans all the rooms every morning.

2. They do not read this holy book.

3. Will you cook some noodles for me?

4. The singers are going to sing some old songs.

5. This boarding school has graduated hundreds of smart students.

B. *Write questions using the passive. Some are present and some are past!*

1. Ask _____ about _____ Radio
(When/invent?) _____

2. Ask _____ about _____ golden _____ rings
(how/make?) _____

3. Ask about Jeans (When/discover?)

4. Ask about Google (what/use
for?)_____
5. Ask about America
(When/discover?)_____

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

1. My motorbike has disappeared.
(it/steal)_____
2. The students and the teacher can study in the class.
(it/decorate)_____
3. Her husband gets double salary now (he/promote)

4. I lost my money
(somebody/take)_____
5. This restroom looks nice
(someone/clean)_____

14.10. CONCLUSION

Using the active voice at the beginning of a phrase clarifies who or what is doing the activity. The 'subject' refers to the person doing the action, which is usually followed by the verb. Changing the sentence's emphasis to place the object (receiver of the action) first might be advantageous. One method to do this is to use the passive voice. When we employ the passive voice, we may occasionally avoid mentioning who performed the action (the 'actor'). This flexibility allows writers to modify different tones, or strategically omit information when the actor is unknown or irrelevant. Intermediate level students can try identifying and switching between active and passive voice in

your work. To help you grasp how emphasis changes, try seeing the active voice pattern—subject-verb-object—then reorganizing it into passive voice—object-verb-subject. As you edit your writings, underline any passive forms and assess if active voice might improve your argument. Recall that both voices—active voice for clarity and directness and passive voice for stressing outcomes or findings—often help academic writing. Create a writing notebook where you try both formats to grow in an intuitive knowledge of when each is most useful.

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News/Articles

Russia Frees American Prisoner before Talks With U.S. - The New York Times

Bill Gates says younger generations should be worried about 4 'very scary' things

AUTHOR'S PROFILE



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Maya has over 15 years of experience teaching English at different levels, including elementary (SD), junior high (SMP), and senior high school (SMA). She has a Master's degree in English Education at Universitas Indra Prasta PGRI Jakarta and is presently pursuing a doctorate in English Applied Linguistics at Unika Atmajaya Jakarta. Maya is also an English instructor at Universitas Teknologi Digital, where she teaches management courses, and an English teacher at LB LIA Martadinata in Bandung. Aside from her teaching work, Maya is a popular speaker at community service events (PKM), where she offers her knowledge of successful English learning practices for teens and adults. In her spare time, Maya likes playing tennis and table tennis, watching Netflix, and reading linguistics books.

CHAPTER 15

REPORTED SPEECH

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15.1. INTRODUCTION

Direct and Indirect speech is known as direct speech and indirect speech which is used to convey what one person has said to another used to convey what someone has said to another person. Direct and Indirect speech is also known as *Reported Speech*. Direct Speech is a sentence that is spoken directly by the speaker and written using quotation marks, while Indirect Speech is a sentence spoken indirectly by the speaker and written without using quotation marks.

For example: Your friend, Ridho, is talking to you, he says *I give you a book*, when you get home you want to convey what Ridho said to your mother. When you want to convey what Ridho said, you can use two ways; using direct speech and indirect speech. Take a look at the example below:

Direct Speech : Ridho said "*I will give you a book*"

Indirect Speech : Ridho said that he would give me a book

15.2. SENTENCE STRUCTURE CHANGES

a. Statement

In direct speech sentences, there are identical characteristics, namely quotation marks ("..."). The quotation mark is a common way to distinguish between direct and indirect speech. When a direct speech sentence is converted into an indirect speech sentence, the quotation mark is removed or

replaced with a reporting word, “that” or “to” (for command sentences).

e.g. (1):

Direct Speech : *She said “I am studying English”*

Indirect Speech: *She said that she was studying English*

e.g. (2):

Direct Speech : *She said, I am going to the store.”*

Indirect Speech: *she said that she was going to the store*

b. Questions

Direct speech sentences in the form of question sentences, when converted into Indirect Speech sentences become affirmative sentences (news).

e.g.:

Direct Speech : *Teacher asked me, “Why does you come late?”*

Indirect Speech : *Teacher asked me why you came late*

Meanwhile, direct speech sentences that use the question sentence “yes-no question”, if it is changed into an Indirect Speech sentence, it will be changed to if/whether.

e.g.:

Direct Speech: *My friends asked me, “Do you want join us to play badminton?”*

Indirect speech: *My friends asked me if/whether I want to join them to play badiminton*

c. Commands

Positive Commands

In indirect speech, commands usually use the verb “order” or “tell”. When a direct speech sentence is converted into an indirect speech sentence, the quotation mark is removed or replaced with a reporting word, “to”. It means that, followed by

an infinitive verb (to + Verb base). The direct command is reported as something the person was told to do.

e.g. (1):

Direct Speech : *She told, “close the window!”*

Indirect Speech: *She told me **to** close the window*

e.g. (2):

Direct Speech : *She ordered them, “Sit down!”*

Indirect Speech: *She ordered them **to** sit down*

e.g. (3):

Direct Speech : *She asked me, “please help me with this!”*

Indirect Speech: *She asked me **to** help her with that!*

Negative Commands

When the command is negative, use “not” before the infinitive verb to report the command.

e.g. (1):

Direct Speech : *He told, “Don’t be late!”*

Indirect Speech: *He told me **not to** be late*

e.g. (2):

Direct Speech : *She ordered us, “Don’t make noise!”*

Indirect Speech: *She ordered us **not to** make noise!*

Command is in the questions form

Sometimes, command can also in questions form. In this case, the indirect speech follows a similar form of questions, but it retains the original statement’s essential quality.

e.g. (1):

Direct Speech : *He asked me, “Can you pass the salt in food?”*

Indirect Speech: *He asked me to pass the salt in that food*

e.g. (2):

Direct Speech : *Rina asked me, “Will you close the door?”*

Indirect Speech: *Rina asked me to close the door.*

15.3. TENSES CHANGES

Changing a direct speech sentence into indirect speech affects the tenses used in the sentence. Below are the changes in tenses from direct speech to indirect speech.

Table 15.1. Tenses changes direct speech into indirect speech

No	Direct Speech	Indirect Speech
1.	<i>Simple Present Tense</i> e.g.: Rudi said, "My father buys new car"	<i>Simple Past Tense</i> e.g.: Rudi said that his father bought new car
2.	<i>Present Continuous Tense</i> e.g.: She said, "I am watching TV"	<i>Past Continuous Tense</i> e.g.: She told that she was watching TV
3.	<i>Present Future Tense (Simple Future Tense)</i> e.g.: My sister said, "She will submit her task"	<i>Past Future Tense</i> e.g.: My sister said that she would submit her task
4.	<i>Simple Past Tense</i> e.g.: Erick said, "I used your laptop"	<i>Past Perfect Tense</i> e.g.: Erick said that he had used my laptop
5.	<i>Present Perfect Tense</i> e.g.: She said, "I've sent an important email"	<i>Past Perfect Tense</i> e.g.: She said that she had sent an important email
6.	<i>Present Perfect Continuous Tense</i> e.g.: My uncle said, "my wife has been working in this company since 2010"	<i>Past Perfect Continuous Tense</i> e.g.: My uncle said that his wife had been working in that company since 2010
7.	<i>Past Continuous Tense</i> e.g.: Bob told, "She was calling her mother"	<i>Past Perfect Continuous Tense</i> e.g.: Bob told that She had been calling her mother

15.4. PRONOUN CHANGES

In changing Direct Speech sentences into Indirect Speech, there will be changes in subject pronouns, object pronouns, and possessive adjectives. There are several rules in changing

subject pronouns, object pronouns, and possessive adjectives:

- a. The first person pronouns (I and We) in the subject of Direct Speech sentences are changed to the speaker's pronouns in Indirect Speech sentences.

e.g. (1):

Direct Speech : Maria said, "I am watching TV"

Indirect Speech: Maria said that she was watching TV.

e.g. (2):

Direct Speech : They said, "We have translated some old documents"

Indirect Speech: They said that they had translated some old documents.

- b. The second person pronoun (You) in the subject of a Direct Speech sentence is replaced/changed with the pronoun to whom the speaker is speaking..

e.g. (1):

Direct Speech : Anton said to me, "You have to come to my house"

Indirect Speech: Anton said to me that I had to come to his house

e.g. (2):

Direct Speech : Lussia said to him, "You can join"

Indirect Speech: Lussia said to him that he could join

- c. The third person pronouns (he, she, it and they) in the subject of Direct Speech sentences do not change when converted into Indirect Speech sentences.

e.g. (1):

Direct Speech : Bob told, "She was calling her mother"

Indirect Speech : Bob told that she had been calling her mother

e.g. (2):

Direct Speech : She told, "They will come to my house"

Indirect Speech: She told that they would come to her house

15.5. ADVERB CHANGES

In changing Direct Speech sentences into Indirect Speech, adverb of time and adverb of place also changes.

Table 15.2. Adverb of time and place changes

No.	Direct Speech	Indirect Speech
1.	<i>Now</i>	<i>Then</i>
2.	<i>Today</i>	<i>That day</i>
3.	<i>Tomorrow</i>	<i>The next day</i> <i>The day after</i> <i>The following day</i> <i>A day later</i>
4.	<i>Next....</i>	<i>The ... after</i> <i>The following ...</i>
5.	<i>Last....</i>	<i>The ... before</i> <i>The Previous ...</i>
6.	<i>.....ago</i>	<i>... before</i> <i>... earlier</i>
7.	<i>Yesterday</i>	<i>The day before</i> <i>The previous day</i> <i>The preceding day</i>
8.	<i>The day before yesterday</i>	<i>Two days before</i>
9.	<i>Here</i>	<i>There</i>
10.	<i>This</i>	<i>That</i>
11.	<i>These</i>	<i>Those</i>

e.g. (1):

Direct Speech : He asked, “Why did you come late yesterday?”

Indirect Speech: He asked why I came late the day before

e.g. (2):

Direct Speech : Marry ordered him, “Bring my phone here

Indirect Speech: Marry ordered him to bring her phone there then

15.6. EXERCISE

Change the Sentences of Direct Speech below into Indirect Speech (Reported Speech)!

1. Yuki said, "I have invited you to my birthday party."
2. Andes said, "I will turn twenty today."
3. He told, "Things will get better."
4. My teacher asked, "What is your favorite color?"
5. The doctor said, "Your aunt doesn't need an operation."
6. Sally told me, "I will help you to finish your homework."
7. Decko said, "I passed the exam."
8. My mom ordered me, "Don't play outside!"
9. Sam told me, "I have seen this movie."
10. Martha said, "I can speak French fluently."
11. Jono told, "Stop scrolling media social!"
12. Jack told Sisi, "I will not go swimming with you."
13. Tommy said, "I have finished my lunch."
14. He asked, "Do you live with your family?"
15. My sister asked me, "Can you take me a medicine?"
16. Marry asked me, "Can I borrow your lawn mower?"
17. He asked, "Do you speak Spanish?"
18. She asked "Will you come to my house warming party tomorrow?"
19. My friend (female) asked me, "Have you seen my car?"
20. My teacher asked, "How old are you?"
21. My neighbour asked, "How often do you take out the trash?"
22. He asked me, "Where is the nearest bank?"
23. Raisa asked, "How long have you been living here?"
24. My new friend asked, "When is your birthday?"
25. Our lecturer told us, "Please understand this materials"

15.7. CONCLUSION

Reported speech is also known as indirect speech. Direct Speech is a sentence that is spoken directly by the speaker and written using quotation marks, while Indirect Speech is a sentence spoken indirectly by the speaker and written without using quotation marks. There are some rules to convey the direct speech into indirect speech (reported speech). It involves changing the structure of the statement, questions, and command, especially tenses, pronouns, and adverb of time and place as well.

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The author was born in Jakarta on July 14, 1988. The author grew up in a small town in West Sumatra Province, namely Solok Town. A happy childhood was spent in the Solok town as well as education. Starting from Elementary School, SD Pertiwi Kota Solok (Now it has changed its name to SDN 20 Kota Solok), then SMP Negeri 1 Kota Solok, and continued to SMA Negeri 1 Kota Solok. Then, the author continued his education to the undergraduate level (S1) in the English Education study program at Mahaputra Muhammad Yamin University (UMMY) Solok, and completed his undergraduate level (S1) in 2011. After that, the author continued his education to the master's level (S2) in the English Education study program at Pascasarjana Padang State University (UNP) in 2013, and completed his master's level in May 2016. Alhamdulillah, in September 2016, she was accepted as a lecturer in the English Education study program at the Nahdlatul Ulama University of West Sumatra (UNU Sumbar), located in Padang City under the auspices of LLDIKTI Region X. The author was also mandated to be the Head of the English Education Study Program at UNU Sumbar from 2018 to 2024. In April 2024, the author was appointed as lecturer at Padang State University (UNP).

CHAPTER 16

CONDITIONAL SENTENCE IN ENGLISH

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16.1. INTRODUCTION

Conditional sentences, often known as "if-clauses," consist of complex phrases with two parts: a condition (protasis) and a result (apodosis). They describe scenarios in which one event is dependent on another, allowing speakers and writers to debate possibilities, hypotheses, and possible consequences. Mastery of conditional sentences is essential for effective communication because they enable the expression of cause-and-effect relationships, predictions, and logical deductions. For example, understanding and applying conditionals can improve clarity and precision in both written and spoken language (nobledesktop.com, 2024).

In everyday conversation, conditional statements are essential. They are used to give advice ("If I were you, I would consult a doctor"), make promises ("If you finish your homework, we can go to the park"), and explain possible outcomes ("If it rains tomorrow, the event will be postponed"). In professional settings, conditionals make it easier to discuss project dependencies and hypothetical possibilities, which helps in strategic planning and decision-making. For example, in business communications, conditionals can be used to explain possible advantages and disadvantages while informing stakeholders about possible future scenarios (Ju, 2024).

Conditional sentences in English are commonly categorized into four primary types with distinct functions:

1. **Zero Conditional:** Expresses general truths or scientific facts. Structure: *If + present simple, present simple*. Example: "If water reaches 100°C, it boils." (grammarly.com, 2025)
2. **First Conditional:** Describes real and possible future events. Structure: *If + present simple, will + base verb*. Example: "If you study hard, you will pass the exam." (grammarly.com, 2025)
3. **Second Conditional:** Pertains to hypothetical or unlikely present or future situations. Structure: *If + past simple, would + base verb*. Example: "If I won the lottery, I would travel the world." (grammarly.com, 2025)
4. **Third Conditional:** This clause relates to hypothetical situations in the past and their possible outcomes. The structure is *if + past perfect, would have + past participle*. For example, "If they had left earlier, they would have caught the train." (grammarly.com, 2025)
5. **Mixed Conditional:** Mixed conditionals combine the second and third conditionals to present an unreal condition in the past or the present and an unreal result in the past or the present. The first form presents an unreal condition in the past that changes an unreal outcome in the present (the past changes the present). Structure: *If + past perfect, modal + base*. The second form presents an unreal condition in the present that changes an unreal outcome in the past (the present changes the past). Structure: *If + simple past, would/could + present perfect* (Farlex International, 2016).

A comprehensive understanding of these conditional forms enables individuals to convey a wide range of meanings, from stating universal facts to discussing unreal past events, thereby enriching both personal and professional communication.

16.2. TYPES OF CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

A. Zero Conditional: General Truths and Scientific Facts

The Zero Conditional is used to talk about general truths, scientific facts, and situations that are always true when the condition is met. It describes what happens in the real world when a certain condition is fulfilled. The structure of the Zero Conditional is straightforward and involves using the simple present tense in both the if-clause and the main clause (Murphy, 2019).

1. Structure

The zero conditional follows a simple structure: *If + present simple, present simple* (Murphy, 2019)

2. Usage

Zero conditional sentences describe situations where one action always leads to another, meaning the result is a universal truth, a scientific fact, or a habitual action. These statements are factual and do not speculate about possibilities, hypotheticals, or future conditions (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 2015). It is commonly used in:

- a. Scientific laws and natural facts (*If you heat ice, it melts.*)
- b. Rules and instructions (*If you press this button, the computer turns on.*)
- c. General truths and habitual actions (*If I drink coffee at night, I can't sleep.*)

3. Example and Explanation

3.1. Scientific and Natural Facts

- a. *If you mix red and blue, you get purple.*
- b. *If water reaches 100°C, it boils.*
- c. *If plants don't get sunlight, they die.*

These sentences describe universal truths based on scientific principles. The relationship between the two clauses is fixed and always true, regardless of time (Murphy, 2019).

3.2. Rules and Instructions

- a. *If you enter the wrong password, the system locks you out.*
- b. *If you touch a hot stove, you burn your hand.*
- c. *If the fire alarm rings, leave the building immediately.*

These statements are used for giving instructions or safety precautions that apply in all situations. They are often found in manuals, emergency guidelines, and workplace rules (Quirk et al., 2010).

3.3. General Truths and Habits

- a. *If I don't exercise, I feel sluggish.*
- b. *If John eats too much sugar, he gets headaches.*
- c. *If the baby cries, the mother picks her up.*

These sentences describe cause-and-effect relationships that are generally true in a person's life or society. They do not refer to a single event but rather an established pattern (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 2015).

4. Variation of Zero Conditional

4.1. Using "When" Instead of "If"

In zero conditionals, "if" can often be replaced by "when" without changing the meaning, since the result is always the same (Murphy, 2019).

- a. *When water freezes, it turns into ice. (= If water freezes, it turns into ice.)*
- b. *When you don't water plants, they wither.*

4.2. Negative Zero Conditional

To express negative truths or facts, use "don't" or "doesn't" in either clause (Quirk et al., 2010):

- a. *If you don't wear sunscreen, you get sunburned.*
- b. *If metal doesn't get oxygen, it doesn't rust.*

4.3. Modal Verbs in Zero Conditionals

Sometimes, modal verbs like *can*, *may*, *must* are used to express rules or recommendations (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 2015).

- a. *If you drink too much alcohol, you may feel sick.*
 - b. *If you heat glass too quickly, it can break.*
 - c. *If you drive without a license, you must pay a fine.*
- (Quirk et al., 2010)

5. Common Mistakes

- ✗ *If you will press the button, the machine turns on.*
 - ✓ *If you press the button, the machine turns on.*
- Zero conditionals never use "will" in the if-clause (Murphy, 2019).**
- ✗ *If you not eat breakfast, you feel hungry later.*
 - ✓ *If you don't eat breakfast, you feel hungry later.*
- "Not" should be used with an auxiliary verb like "don't" or "doesn't." (Quirk et al., 2010)**

16.3. FIRST CONDITIONAL

The First Conditional is a crucial structure in English grammar used to discuss real and possible situations in the present or future. It describes what will happen if a certain condition is met. The First Conditional is often used to talk about future events that are likely to occur if the present condition is satisfied. This conditional form is essential for expressing predictions, plans, warnings, promises, and offers.

1. Structure

The **first conditional** follows a straightforward pattern: ***If + present simple, will + base verb.*** This structure expresses a

cause-and-effect relationship in the future, where the first clause (the condition) must be fulfilled for the second clause (the result) to happen (Murphy, 2019).

2. Usage

The first conditional is used to describe real and possible situations in the future. It expresses what will happen if a certain condition is met. The likelihood of the event occurring is high, unlike the second conditional, which describes unreal or hypothetical situations (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 2015).

- a. To predict the future based on present conditions
- b. To express warnings or threats
- c. To make promises and offers
- d. To give instructions or advice

3. Example and Explanation

3.1. Predictions Based on Likely Future Events

These sentences predict what will happen if the condition in the if-clause occurs.

- a. *If you don't wear a coat, you will catch a cold.*
- b. *If she eats too much candy, she will get a stomachache.*
- c. *If we leave now, we will arrive on time.*

These sentences describe likely outcomes that depend on a specific future event. The speaker assumes that the condition is realistic (Murphy, 2019).

3.2. Warnings and Threats

The first conditional is commonly used to warn someone about possible negative consequences (Quirk et al., 2010).

- a. *If you don't stop shouting, I will call security!*
- b. *If you break the rules, you will be punished.*
- c. *If you don't submit your assignment, you will fail the course.*

These sentences emphasize consequences, often as a way to discourage unwanted behavior (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 2015).

3.3. Promises and Offers

The first conditional is often used to make promises, offers, or assurances (Murphy, 2019).

- a. *If you help me, I will buy you a gift.*
- b. *If you work hard, I will give you a bonus.*
- c. *If you need help, I will be there for you.*

These sentences indicate that the speaker intends to keep their promise if the other person fulfils the condition.

3.4. Giving Advice or Instructions

First conditional sentences are also used to provide advice or instructions (Quirk et al., 2010).

- a. *If you feel sick, you should see a doctor.*
- b. *If you don't understand the topic, ask the teacher for help.*
- c. *If the fire alarm rings, leave the building immediately.*

These sentences suggest logical or recommended actions based on a future condition.

4. Variation in First Conditional

4.1. Using Modals Instead of "Will"

Instead of "will," we can use other modal verbs such as can, may, might, must, should, or could to change the meaning slightly (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 2015).

- a. *If you study hard, you can pass the exam.* (possibility)
- b. *If you miss the deadline, you might lose points.* (possibility)
- c. *If you want to succeed, you must work hard.* (necessity)
- d. *If it rains, we should stay indoors.* (recommendation)

4.2. Using "Unless" Instead of "If Not"

"Unless" means "if not" and can replace if + negative clause (Quirk et al., 2010).

- a. *If you don't study, you will fail the test.*
- b. *Unless you study, you will fail the test.*

(Both sentences have the same meaning, but "unless" makes the sentence more concise.)

4.3. Using "Imperatives" in the Main Clause

Instead of using "will," we can use an imperative (a command or instruction) in the main clause (Murphy, 2019).

- a. *If you see Anna, tell her to call me.*
- b. *If it gets cold, wear a jacket.*

These sentences give direct instructions or requests instead of predictions.

5. Common Mistakes

Mistake 1: Using "will" in the if-clause

✗ *If you will study hard, you will pass the exam.*

✓ *If you study hard, you will pass the exam.*

Why? The if-clause must be in the present simple tense, not future tense (Murphy, 2019).

Mistake 2: Using the wrong tense in the main clause

✗ *If it rains, we go home early.*

✓ *If it rains, we will go home early.*

Why? The main clause must have "will" + base verb to indicate a future result (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 2015).

16.4. SECOND CONDITIONAL

The Second Conditional is a vital structure in English grammar used to discuss hypothetical or unreal situations in the present or future. It describes what would happen if a certain condition, which is currently unreal or unlikely, were met. This conditional form is essential for expressing imaginary scenarios, giving advice, making polite requests, and discussing dreams or wishes.

1. Structure

The **second conditional** follows this pattern: *If + past simple, would + base verb.*

Even though the if-clause uses the past simple tense, it does not refer to the past. Instead, it describes an imaginary or hypothetical present or future situation (Murphy, 2019).

2. Usage

The second conditional is used to talk about things that are unreal or unlikely to happen (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 2015), such as:

- a. Hypothetical situations in the present or future
- b. Unlikely or impossible conditions
- c. Desires, wishes, or dreams
- d. Giving advice in an indirect/polite way

3. Example and Explanation

3.1. Hypothetical Present Situations

This usage describes something that **is contrary to reality** at the moment.

- a. *If I were taller, I would play basketball professionally.*
(But I am not tall.)
- b. *If she had more free time, she would take up painting.*
(But she doesn't have free time.)

- c. *If they spoke French, they would work in Paris.* (But they don't speak French.)

These sentences express imaginary present situations that are not true in reality (Quirk et al., 2010).

3.2. Hypothetical Future Situations

The second conditional can also describe situations that are unlikely or impossible in the future.

- a. *If I won the lottery, I would travel the world.* (But I probably won't win the lottery.)
- b. *If we lived on Mars, we would need oxygen tanks to survive.* (But we don't live on Mars.)
- c. *If she became president, she would change the education system.* (But she is unlikely to become president.)

These sentences refer to future possibilities that are highly unlikely or impossible (Murphy, 2019).

3.3. Expressing Desires, Wishes, and Dreams

The second conditional is commonly used to express wishes or unreal dreams.

- a. *If I were a millionaire, I would buy a private jet.*
- b. *If we had a bigger house, we would invite more guests.*
- c. *If he could sing well, he would audition for a talent show.*

These sentences reflect fantasies or desires that are not true in the present (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 2015).

3.4. Giving Polite Advice

Using the second conditional makes advice sound softer and more polite.

- a. *If I were you, I would apologize to her.* (Polite advice instead of directly saying, "Apologize to her!")
- b. *If he were more responsible, he would get a promotion.* (Indirect way to criticize someone.)

- c. *If I had more time, I would help you with your project.*
(Polite way of saying “I can’t help.”)

This form makes statements sound less direct and more considerate (Quirk et al., 2010).

4. Variation in Second Conditional

4.1. Using "Were" Instead of "Was"

Traditionally, "were" is used instead of "was" in formal English, especially with "I" and "he/she/it" (Murphy, 2019)

- a. *If I were you, I would take that job.* (More formal)
- b. *If he were rich, he would donate to charity.*

However, in informal speech, "was" is also acceptable:

- c. *If I was you, I would take that job.* (Less formal, but still used in everyday speech.)

4.2. Using Modals Instead of "Would"

Instead of "would," other modal verbs (could, might, should) can be used to modify the meaning (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 2015).

Table 16.1. The Use of Modal Verbs in Second Conditional

Modal Verb	Meaning	Example
Could	Possibility	<i>If I had more money, I could buy a car.</i> (I might be able to buy it.)
Might	Less certainty	<i>If she studied harder, she might pass the exam.</i> (There is a chance.)
Should	Recommendation	<i>If he exercised more, he should feel better.</i> (It would be good for him.)

These modals add different shades of meaning to second conditional sentences (Quirk et al., 2010).

4.3. Using "Unless" Instead of "If Not"

"Unless" means "if not" and can be used instead of a negative if-clause (Murphy, 2019).

- a. *If you didn't study, you wouldn't pass the test.*
- b. *Unless you studied, you wouldn't pass the test.* (Same meaning, but shorter.)

4.4. Using "Even If" for Stronger Emphasis

"Even if" means that the result would be the same no matter what happens (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 2015).

- a. *Even if I won the lottery, I wouldn't quit my job.*
- b. *Even if he apologized, she wouldn't forgive him.*

These sentences express a strong hypothetical stance.

5. Common Mistakes

Mistake 1: Using "Will" Instead of "Would"

✗ *If I had more money, I will buy a new car.*

✓ *If I had more money, I would buy a new car.*

Mistake 2: Using "Will" in the If-Clause

✗ *If she will study harder, she would pass the exam.*

✓ *If she studied harder, she would pass the exam.*

Mistake 3: Forgetting That the If-Clause Uses the Past Simple

✗ *If I have a car, I would drive to work.*

✓ *If I had a car, I would drive to work.*

16.5. THIRD CONDITIONAL

The Third Conditional is a crucial structure in English grammar used to discuss hypothetical situations in the past that

did not happen. It describes what would have happened if a certain condition, which is now impossible to fulfill, had been met. This conditional form is essential for expressing regrets, analyzing past events, and considering alternative outcomes.

1. Structure

The **third conditional** follows this structure: *If + past perfect, would have + past participle*

The third conditional always refers to the past and describes situations that did not happen. It is used to imagine an alternative past where something was different, leading to a different outcome (Murphy, 2019).

2. Usage

The **third conditional** is used for:

- a. Expressing regrets (*wishing the past had been different*)
- b. Speculating about an alternative past
- c. Blaming or explaining why something didn't happen
- d. Analyzing past mistakes and lessons learned

The **main point** is that the **condition in the if-clause did not happen, and the result in the main clause did not occur either** (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 2015).

3. Example and Explanation

3.1. Expressing Regrets

The third conditional is often used to **express regret about past decisions or events**.

- a. *If I had studied harder, I would have passed the exam.*
(But I didn't study hard, so I failed.)
- b. *If we had left earlier, we wouldn't have missed the flight.*
(But we left late, so we missed it.)

- c. *If she had told me the truth, I wouldn't have been angry.*

(But she didn't tell me the truth, so I was angry.)

These sentences reflect on the past and express what someone wishes had happened differently (Quirk et al., 2010).

3.2. Speculating About an Alternative Past

The third conditional is used to **imagine how things could have been different**.

- a. *If he had taken the job offer, he would have moved to New York.*
- b. *If I had invested in Bitcoin in 2010, I would have been rich by now.*
- c. *If they had trained harder, they might have won the tournament.*

These sentences do not express regret but rather hypothetical situations that could have resulted in a different past (Murphy, 2019).

3.3. Explaining Why Something Didn't Happen

We can also use the third conditional to **explain the reason for a past event**.

- a. *If you had woken up earlier, you wouldn't have been late to work.*
- b. *If the company had advertised more, they would have attracted more customers.*
- c. *If she had checked her email, she would have seen the invitation.*

These sentences analyze past mistakes or explain why a situation turned out the way it did (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 2015).

3.4. Blaming or Criticizing Past Actions

The third conditional can also be used to **blame someone for a past mistake**.

- a. *If you had listened to me, this wouldn't have happened!*
- b. *If he had driven more carefully, he wouldn't have crashed the car.*
- c. *If they had followed the instructions, the machine wouldn't have broken.*

These sentences criticize someone for making the wrong decision in the past (Quirk et al., 2010).

4. Variation in Second Conditional

Instead of "would have," we can use could have, might have, or should have to modify the meaning (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 2015).

Table 16.2. The Variation in Second Conditional

Modal Verb	Meaning	Example
Could have	Possibility	<i>If I had studied, I could have passed the exam. (It was possible.)</i>
Might have	Less certainty	<i>If she had called earlier, she might have reached him. (There was a chance.)</i>
Should have	Regret	<i>If we had left on time, we should have arrived earlier. (It was the right thing to do.)</i>

These modals add different degrees of certainty or obligation to the sentence (Murphy, 2019).

5. Common Mistakes

Mistake 1: Using "Would Have" in the If-Clause

✗ *If I would have studied harder, I would have passed the exam.*

✓ *If I had studied harder, I would have passed the exam.*

Why? The if-clause must always use the past perfect (*had* + *past participle*), not "would have" (Quirk et al., 2010)

Mistake 2: Using the Wrong Tense in the Main Clause

✗ *If he had trained harder, he will win the race.*

✓ *If he had trained harder, he would have won the race.*

Why? The main clause must use "would have" + past participle to show a hypothetical past event (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 2015).

Mistake 3: Confusing the Third Conditional with Other Conditionals

✗ *If she studied more, she would have passed the exam.*
(Incorrect mix of second and third conditionals.)

✓ *If she had studied more, she would have passed the exam.*

Why? The third conditional always refers to past events, so we must use the past perfect in the if-clause (Murphy, 2019).

16.6. MIXED CONDITIONAL

Mixed Conditionals are a unique and versatile structure in English grammar used to discuss hypothetical situations where the time in the if-clause is different from the time in the main clause. They allow speakers to express complex ideas about how past events could affect the present or how present conditions could have influenced the past. This conditional form is

essential for expressing nuanced thoughts, regrets, and hypothetical scenarios that span different time frames (Murphy, 2019).

1. Common Structures and Variations

1.1. Type 1: Present Result of a Past Condition

Structure: *If + past perfect, would + base verb (present result)*

Usage: Used when a hypothetical past event has an impact on the present.

Example Sentences:

- a. *If I had studied medicine, I would be a doctor now. (But I didn't study medicine, so I am not a doctor now.)*
- b. *If she had married him, she would be living in New York. (But she didn't marry him, so she isn't living in New York.)*
- c. *If we had taken that job, we would be working in Canada now. (But we didn't take the job, so we are not working in Canada.)*
(Murphy, 2019)

1.2. Type 2: Past Result of a Present Condition

Structure: *If + past simple, would have + past participle (past result)*

Usage: Used when a present reality or characteristic caused a different outcome in the past.

Example Sentences:

- a. *If she were more attentive, she would have noticed the mistake earlier. (But she is not attentive, so she didn't notice the mistake.)*
- b. *If I were richer, I would have bought that expensive car last year.*

(But I am not rich, so I didn't buy the car.)

- c. *If they were better at planning, they wouldn't have missed the deadline.*

(But they are not good at planning, so they missed the deadline.)

(Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 2015)

2. Usage

Mixed conditionals allow speakers to describe how different time periods interact. They provide greater flexibility in discussing cause-and-effect relationships that do not fit neatly into the standard conditional types (Murphy, 2019; Quirk et al., 2010).

Mixed conditionals are often used for:

- a. Regret and hypothetical outcomes
- b. Explaining current situations based on past events
- c. Speculating about the past based on present reality

2.1. Present Consequences of a Past Event

In these sentences, a past condition that was not fulfilled has a direct impact on the present. Examples:

- a. *If she had studied harder, she would be at university now.*
- b. *If I had saved more money, I wouldn't be struggling financially now.*
- c. *If they had built a bridge, it would be easier to cross the river now.*

These sentences focus on how past actions (or inactions) continue to affect the present (Quirk et al., 2010).

2.2. Past Consequences of a Present Situation

These sentences describe how a current reality is responsible for a different past outcome. Examples:

- a. *If he were more careful, he wouldn't have crashed his car last week.*

- b. *If I were a better cook, I wouldn't have ruined the dinner party yesterday.*
- c. *If she were more patient, she wouldn't have argued with her boss last Friday.*

These sentences emphasize that a present characteristic or trait caused a past event (Murphy, 2019).

3. More Example

3.1. Present Result of a Past Condition

Table 16.3. Examples of Present Result of a Past Condition

Past Condition	Present Result
<i>If I had gone to medical school,</i>	<i>I would be a doctor now.</i>
<i>If he had invested in stocks,</i>	<i>he would be rich now.</i>
<i>If we had left earlier,</i>	<i>we wouldn't be stuck in traffic now.</i>

3.2. Past Result of a Present Condition

Table 16.4. Example of Past Result of a Present Condition

Present Condition	Past Result
<i>If she were more confident,</i>	<i>She would have accepted the job offer.</i>
<i>If they were taller,</i>	<i>They would have been chosen for the basketball team.</i>
<i>If I were more careful,</i>	<i>I wouldn't have lost my wallet yesterday.</i>

4. Common Mistakes in Mixed Conditionals

Mistake 1: Using the Wrong Tense in the If-Clause

✗ *If I have studied harder, I would be a doctor now.*

✓ *If I had studied harder, I would be a doctor now.*

Why? The if-clause must use the past perfect when referring to past conditions (Quirk et al., 2010).

Mistake 2: Using "Would Have" in the If-Clause

✗ *If he would have studied harder, he would be a lawyer now.*

✓ *If he had studied harder, he would be a lawyer now.*

Why? The if-clause should never contain "would have" (Murphy, 2019).

Mistake 3: Mixing Conditional Types Incorrectly

✗ *If she studies harder, she would have passed the exam.*

✓ *If she had studied harder, she would have passed the exam.*

Why? The correct tense must be used in both clauses (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 2015).

16.7. CONCLUSION

Conditional sentences allow us to express possibilities, hypothetical situations, and cause-and-effect relationships across different timeframes (Murphy, 2019). Here's a summary of the five main types:

1. Zero Conditional (General Truths and Scientific Facts)

Structure: *If + present simple, present simple*

Usage: Describes facts, laws of nature, and habitual actions.

Example: *If you heat water to 100°C, it boils.*

2. First Conditional (Future Possibilities)

Structure: *If + present simple, will + base verb*

Usage: Discusses real and likely future outcomes.

Example: *If it rains tomorrow, we will cancel the picnic.*

3. Second Conditional (Hypothetical or Unreal Present/Future Situations)

Structure: *If + past simple, would + base verb*

Usage: Talks about hypothetical, unlikely, or imaginary situations in the present or future.

Example: *If I won the lottery, I would travel the world.*

4. Third Conditional (Hypothetical Past Situations)

Structure: *If + past perfect, would have + past participle*

Usage: Expresses regret or imagines different outcomes for past events.

Example: *If they had left earlier, they would have caught the train.*

5. Mixed Conditionals (Combining Different Time Frames)

Structure 1: *If + past perfect, would + base verb (Past condition, present result)*

Example: *If I had studied harder, I would be a doctor now.*

Structure 2: *If + past simple, would have + past participle (Present condition, past result)*

Example: *If she were more attentive, she would have noticed the mistake earlier.*

Key Rules and Best Practices

- a. Use the correct verb tense for each conditional type. Avoid mixing tenses incorrectly (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 2015).
- b. Do not use "will" or "would" in the if-clause. (e.g., *If you will study, you will pass* ✗ → *If you study, you will pass* ✓) (Murphy, 2019)
- c. Use modal verbs like "might," "could," and "should" for flexibility. (e.g., *If I had worked harder, I might*

- have gotten a promotion*) (Quirk et al., 2010)
- d. Understand the differences between each conditional. First conditionals describe real possibilities, while second and third conditionals discuss hypothetical situations (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman, 2015).
 - e. Use mixed conditionals for more complex time relationships. This allows for more nuanced communication (Murphy, 2019).
 - f. Practice with real-life examples. The more conditionals are used in conversation or writing, the more natural they become (Quirk et al., 2010).

16.8. EXERCISE

Complete the following sentences using the correct **tense and form** of the verbs in parentheses.

1. If you _____ (eat) too much junk food, you _____ (gain) weight. (*Zero Conditional*)
2. If she _____ (not hurry), she _____ (miss) the bus. (*First Conditional*)
3. If I _____ (be) a millionaire, I _____ (buy) a mansion. (*Second Conditional*)
4. If they _____ (study) harder, they _____ (pass) the test last week. (*Third Conditional*)
5. If you _____ (not call) me last night, I _____ (not know) about the meeting. (*Third Conditional*)
6. If I _____ (work) out regularly, I _____ (be) in better shape now. (*Mixed Conditional – Past → Present*)
7. If he _____ (not be) so lazy, he _____ (get) a promotion last year. (*Mixed Conditional – Present → Past*)
8. If she _____ (not forget) her umbrella, she _____ (not be) wet now. (*Mixed Conditional – Past → Present*)
9. If we _____ (win) the lottery, we _____ (travel) around the world. (*Second Conditional*)

10. If you _____ (study) medicine, you _____ (be) a doctor now. (*Mixed Conditional – Past → Present*)

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CHAPTER 17

ENGLISH DERIVATIONAL

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17.1. INTRODUCTION

The study of English derivation is a critical component of English syntax, focusing on how new words are formed from existing ones through the addition of prefixes and suffixes. This process not only expands the lexicon but also reflects the dynamic nature of the language. Derivational morphology alters the properties of base words, transforming adjectives into nouns, for instance, and highlighting the intricate relationship between word formation and grammatical categories (Lieber, 2016, p. 267). Understanding these transformations is essential for grasping how meaning is constructed within the language.

Additionally, derivation offers insights into the cognitive processes involved in language use, revealing how speakers generate and comprehend a wide array of expressions. The ability to manipulate existing words reflects linguistic creativity and the cognitive mechanisms at play. Furthermore, examining the historical context of derivational processes in English sheds light on the cultural influences that shape the language. This chapter will provide a comprehensive overview of English derivation, exploring its mechanisms, cognitive aspects, and historical significance, ultimately illustrating the rich interplay between form and meaning in the English language.

Discussing derivation in English is inextricably linked to the concept of word classes (Rodriguez, n.d., p. 188). Derivation refers to the process by which a word class transforms into

another word class through modifications in its form. This linguistic phenomenon highlights the dynamic nature of language, where words can evolve and adapt to fulfill different grammatical roles. Understanding derivation necessitates a clear comprehension of the underlying structures of word classes, as these structures serve as the foundation for such transformations. This interplay between derivation and word classes is essential for grasping how language operates on both a structural and functional level.

Word classes in English can be broadly categorized into two divisions: content words and function words (Otta, 2009, p. 222). Content words encompass nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs, which carry significant semantic meaning and contribute to the substance of language. These words are pivotal in constructing meaningful sentences, as they convey the primary ideas and concepts. In contrast, function words, including pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections, primarily serve grammatical purposes and help articulate relationships between content words. This distinction is crucial for analyzing how words function within sentences and how their forms can be altered to shift their grammatical roles.

The study of derivational predominantly focuses on content words, as they are the primary vehicles of meaning in language. By examining how nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs can transform from one class to another, we unveil the intricate mechanisms of English morphology. For instance, an adjective can be converted into a noun, as seen in the transformation from "happy" to "happiness." This process not only illustrates the flexibility of English but also underscores the importance of derivation in expanding vocabulary and enhancing expressive capacity. Such transformations are central to understanding how language users manipulate words to convey nuanced meanings.

The processes of derivation enable a deeper exploration of the relationships among different word classes. For example, the transformation of verbs into nouns can be illustrated by the conversion of "decide" into "decision." This change not only alters the grammatical category of the word but also shifts its function within a sentence. Similarly, adjectives can become adverbs, as in the case of "quick" transforming into "quickly." These derivational processes demonstrate how meaning can shift and adapt, allowing speakers and writers to articulate complexities in communication. This fluidity is particularly important in creative and academic writing, where precise language choices can significantly impact clarity and effectiveness.

Additionally, the role of prefixes and suffixes in derivation cannot be overlooked. Affixes are crucial in modifying the meanings of root words, enabling the creation of new words that fit specific grammatical contexts (Lopez, 2009/2009, p. 233). For instance, adding the suffix "-ness" to the adjective "dark" forms the noun "darkness," transforming an attribute into a concept. Similarly, the prefix "un-" can be added to "happy" to create "unhappy," thereby altering the meaning of the original word. These morphological processes not only enrich the lexicon but also enhance the expressive potential of the language, illustrating the adaptability of English in various contexts.

Moreover, the implications of derivation extend beyond mere word formation; they also influence language acquisition and literacy development (Dalrymple, 2001, p. 78). Understanding how derivational processes operate aids learners in deciphering unfamiliar words and grasping their meanings through contextual clues. This awareness fosters a more profound engagement with the language, empowering individuals to navigate complex texts and articulate their

thoughts with greater precision and clarity. As such, the study of derivation is vital not only for linguists but also for educators and learners, emphasizing the interconnectedness of word formation, meaning, and language use. Knowing the derivation for each word class will facilitate our ability to define word classes accurately, serving as a crucial criterion in this process, alongside notional, inflectional, distributional, and functional aspects.

In the field of linguistics, understanding the complexities of word classes and their roles within language is essential for effective communication and analysis. To achieve this, several key criteria are employed: notional, inflectional, derivational, distributional, and functional (Johnson, 1999, p. 189). Each of these criteria provides a unique lens through which to examine words, revealing their meanings, grammatical properties, and syntactic behaviors. By exploring these criteria in detail, linguists can gain valuable insights into the structure of language and the intricate relationships between form and function. Below are the explanations of each criterion, highlighting their significance in linguistic analysis.

1. **Notional Criterion:** This criterion pertains to the inherent meaning of a word, focusing on the concepts it conveys. It helps categorize words based on their semantic roles in communication and contributes to understanding how meaning is constructed in language.
2. **Inflectional Criterion:** This involves examining the various inflectional suffixes that can be attached to a word. These suffixes modify a word's grammatical properties, such as tense, number, or case, altering its syntactic function while maintaining its core meaning.
3. **Derivational Criterion:** This criterion looks at the derivational suffixes that can transform a base word into a new word with a related but distinct meaning. This process

expands vocabulary and allows for richer expression by creating new forms of words.

4. **Distributional Criterion:** This analyzes the contexts in which a word can occur, identifying the other words it can appear alongside. Understanding distributional patterns is essential for grasping a word's syntactic behavior and the grammatical structures it participates in.
5. **Functional Criterion:** This addresses the specific role a word plays within a sentence, such as serving as a subject, verb, or modifier. Recognizing a word's function is critical for understanding how meaning is constructed in discourse and the overall structure of sentences.

These criteria collectively provide a comprehensive framework for analyzing the multifaceted nature of language, revealing the intricate interplay between meaning, form, and function. This chapter will focus specifically on the derivational criterion, delving into how derivational suffixes transform base words into new forms, thereby enriching the vocabulary and enabling nuanced expression. By examining the processes involved in derivation, we can gain insights into the mechanisms of word formation and the ways in which language evolves to accommodate new concepts and ideas. Understanding derivation not only enhances our grasp of linguistic structure but also illuminates the creative aspects of language use, illustrating how speakers can convey complex meanings through morphological innovation.

17.2. DERIVATIONAL IN NOUN

Derivation in English is a fascinating morphological process that significantly expands the lexicon by transforming base words into new forms through the addition of suffixes. Among the most common derivational suffixes in English are **-tion**, -

ment, and **-ness**. Each of these suffixes serves to create nouns from verbs or adjectives, altering the meaning and grammatical function of the original word while providing a structure that facilitates clearer communication. However, it's important to note that not all nouns can pass these derivational aspects. For example, the word "clock" cannot undergo derivation but can pass the notional aspect, demonstrating that we need to employ various criteria—such as notional, inflectional, derivational, distributional, and functional—to accurately define a word class.

The suffix **-tion** is one of the most prevalent derivational suffixes, typically used to form nouns from verbs. For instance, the verb "inform" becomes the noun "information," which refers to the data or knowledge that is communicated. Similarly, the verb "educate" transforms into "education," denoting the process of teaching and learning. Another example is "celebrate," which becomes "celebration," indicating the act of commemorating an event. This transformation not only changes the part of speech but also encapsulates the concept of the act or process associated with the original verb. The addition of **-tion** often indicates the result or state of an action, making it integral in academic and formal contexts. Yet, not all nouns derived in this way can be examined solely through the lens of derivation; they must also be assessed for their notional meaning, distribution, and function within sentences.

Similarly, the suffix **-ment** is employed to derive nouns from verbs, focusing primarily on the action or process related to the base verb. Taking the verb "develop" as an example, the derivation leads to "development," which refers to the process of developing or the state of being developed. Another instance is "enjoy," which becomes "enjoyment," indicating the state of taking pleasure in something. Additionally, "achieve" transforms into "achievement," referring to a result or accomplishment attained through effort. This suffix often emphasizes the result

of an action, enhancing clarity in discussions about progress or growth. In contexts such as business or education, these derived nouns become essential for articulating accomplishments and milestones. However, it's crucial to remember that nouns like "clock" illustrate that not all terms can pass through derivational processes, highlighting the need to consider all aspects in word classification.

The suffix **-ness** serves a different function by transforming adjectives into nouns, often denoting a state, quality, or condition. For instance, the adjective "happy" becomes "happiness," which refers to the state of being happy. Another example is "dark," which transforms into "darkness," indicating the quality or state of lacking light. Furthermore, the adjective "kind" changes to "kindness," capturing the quality of being friendly and considerate. This transformation allows speakers to discuss abstract qualities and emotions in a more nuanced way. The suffix **-ness** is particularly valuable in philosophical or psychological contexts, where understanding states of being is crucial. However, as with other suffixes, not all nouns derived from adjectives can be analyzed exclusively through derivation; they must also be evaluated in terms of their notional meaning, inflectional properties, and functional roles in sentences.

The derivational processes involving the suffixes **-tion**, **-ment**, and **-ness** are vital in the formation of new nouns in English. Each suffix contributes uniquely to the language, facilitating clearer expression of actions, states, and qualities. By altering the grammatical function and meaning of base words, these suffixes enhance the richness of English vocabulary and enable speakers to articulate complex ideas with precision. Understanding these derivational forms is essential for anyone looking to master the intricacies of English morphology and its application in effective communication. Recognizing the limitations of derivation, as evidenced by examples like "clock,"

reinforces the importance of employing a comprehensive approach that includes notional, inflectional, derivational, distributional, and functional criteria in defining word classes.

17.3. DERIVATIONAL IN VERB

Derivation in verbs is a vital aspect of English morphology that enhances the flexibility and richness of the language. This process often involves the addition of specific suffixes such as **-ize** and **-ify**, which transform base words into verbs, conveying specific meanings and functions. Each of these suffixes plays a crucial role in expanding vocabulary and enabling precise communication. However, it's essential to recognize that not all verbs can pass through the derivational aspect; for instance, the word "sleep" cannot undergo derivation but can still fulfill the notional aspect. This highlights the necessity of employing multiple criteria—such as notional, inflectional, derivational, distributional, and functional—to accurately classify and analyze word classes.

The suffix **-ize** is one of the most common derivational suffixes used to form verbs from nouns or adjectives. For instance, the noun "real" transforms into the verb "realize," which means to become aware of or to understand something fully. Another example is "modern," which becomes "modernize," referring to the process of making something more contemporary or up-to-date. Additionally, the noun "organ" can be transformed into "organize," which denotes the act of arranging or systematizing something. These transformations not only change the grammatical category but also enrich the semantic content of the words. While these derived verbs illustrate the derivational aspect clearly, we must also consider their notional meanings and how they function within sentences to fully understand their usage.

Similarly, the suffix **-ify** serves to derive verbs from nouns and adjectives, emphasizing a change or transformation. For example, the noun "beauty" becomes "beautify," which refers to the act of making something more attractive. Another instance is "clarity," which transforms into "clarify," meaning to make something clear or easier to understand. Furthermore, the adjective "simplistic" can be converted into "simplify," indicating the act of making something simpler or easier. Each of these transformations emphasizes a process of change, enhancing clarity in discussions about improvement or alteration. However, it is important to note that not all verbs derived through this suffix can be analyzed solely through derivation; some, like "sleep," illustrate that we must also evaluate their meaning and function within the broader context of language.

The derivation process involving the suffixes **-ize** and **-ify** not only enriches the language but also allows for nuanced expression. These suffixes enable speakers to articulate complex actions and transformations, making them essential tools in both everyday conversation and formal discourse. For instance, "digitize" refers to converting information into a digital format, while "amplify" means to increase the volume or intensity of something. These derived verbs demonstrate the flexibility of English in adapting to new contexts and needs. Nevertheless, as with other derivational processes, we must remember that not every verb can be assessed solely through derivation; they must also be examined for their notional meaning and functional roles in sentences.

The derivational processes involving the suffixes **-ize** and **-ify** play a crucial role in the formation of new verbs in English. Each suffix contributes uniquely to the language, facilitating clear expression of actions and transformations. By altering the grammatical function and meaning of base words, these suffixes

enhance the richness of English vocabulary and allow speakers to articulate complex ideas with precision. However, recognizing the limitations of derivation—illustrated by examples such as "sleep"—reinforces the importance of utilizing a comprehensive approach that includes notional, inflectional, derivational, distributional, and functional criteria in defining and analyzing word classes. This multifaceted perspective is essential for a deeper understanding of how language operates and evolves.

17.4. DERIVATIONAL IN ADJECTIVE

Derivation in adjectives is a crucial aspect of English morphology that enriches the language by transforming base words into descriptive forms. This transformation is often achieved through the addition of specific suffixes such as **-al** and **-y**. These suffixes not only change the grammatical function of the words but also enhance their meaning, allowing for more precise and varied expression. By examining how these suffixes operate, we can better understand their roles in expanding vocabulary and conveying complex ideas.

The suffix **-al** is commonly used to form adjectives from nouns, typically indicating a relationship or pertaining to the base noun. For instance, the noun "nation" becomes "national," describing something that is related to or characteristic of a nation. Another example is "music," which transforms into "musical," referring to something that is related to music or has a musical quality. Additionally, the noun "culture" becomes "cultural," denoting aspects related to culture. These transformations not only specify relationships but also add layers of meaning to the adjectives, enabling more nuanced discussions. By using **-al**, speakers can articulate connections between concepts, making their expressions clearer and more effective.

Similarly, the suffix **-y** serves to derive adjectives from nouns, often implying a characteristic or quality associated with the base word. For example, the noun "cloud" transforms into "cloudy," describing weather conditions filled with clouds. Another instance is "dirt," which becomes "dirty," indicating something that is unclean or soiled. Additionally, the noun "joy" transforms into "jolly," referring to a cheerful or happy disposition. These derived adjectives not only convey specific qualities but also enrich the language by providing vivid descriptions of various states or conditions. The use of **-y** allows speakers to paint a more detailed picture in their communication, adding emotional or sensory dimensions to their expressions.

The derivation processes involving the suffixes **-al** and **-y** are essential for creating descriptive language that enhances clarity and creativity. These suffixes enable speakers to articulate complex ideas and characteristics, making them valuable tools in both everyday language and literary contexts. For instance, "historical" refers to something related to history, while "dusty" describes an accumulation of dust. Such derived adjectives allow for richer storytelling and more expressive communication, emphasizing the versatility of English in accommodating diverse contexts.

The derivational processes involving the suffixes **-al** and **-y** play a significant role in the formation of new adjectives in English. Each suffix contributes uniquely to the language, facilitating clearer expression of relationships and qualities. By altering the grammatical function and meaning of base words, these suffixes enhance the richness of English vocabulary and empower speakers to convey complex ideas with precision. Understanding these derivational forms is essential for anyone looking to master the intricacies of English morphology and its application in effective communication. By recognizing the

power of derivation, speakers can expand their descriptive capabilities and engage more deeply with the language.

17.5. DERIVATIONAL IN ADVERB

Derivation in adverbs is an important aspect of English morphology that enhances the language by transforming adjectives into adverbial forms. This transformation is primarily achieved through the addition of the suffix **-ly**. By analyzing how this suffix functions, we can understand its role in creating adverbs that convey manner, degree, frequency, and more. The ability to form adverbs from adjectives allows for greater precision and variety in expression, enriching both spoken and written language.

The suffix **-ly** is the most common way to derive adverbs from adjectives, typically indicating the manner in which an action is performed. For instance, the adjective "happy" transforms into the adverb "happily," which describes the manner of performing an action with joy or pleasure. Another example is "slow," which becomes "slowly," indicating that an action is done at a reduced speed or with deliberation. Additionally, the adjective "careful" turns into "carefully," suggesting that an action is performed with caution and attention. These transformations not only change the grammatical category but also add descriptive depth, allowing speakers to convey specific nuances in their communication.

Moreover, the use of **-ly** to form adverbs from adjectives enhances the expressiveness of language by enabling the description of various actions in more detail. For example, "quick" becomes "quickly," indicating speed in the execution of an action. Similarly, the adjective "sad" transforms into "sadly," which conveys the emotion experienced during an action. Another instance is "simple," which becomes "simply," often used to indicate that something is done in a straightforward or

uncomplicated manner. Through these derivations, speakers can articulate not just what is happening, but how it is being done, enriching the overall communicative experience.

The derivation process involving the **-ly** suffix is essential for creating adverbs that add clarity and precision to descriptions of actions. These adverbs allow for more vivid storytelling and detailed explanations in both everyday conversation and formal writing. For instance, "eager" becomes "eagerly," suggesting enthusiasm in performing an action, while "gentle" transforms into "gently," indicating a soft and tender manner. The ability to modify verbs with such adverbs enhances the expressiveness of language, making it possible to convey emotions, attitudes, and nuances effectively.

In conclusion, the derivational process involving the suffix **-ly** plays a crucial role in the formation of new adverbs in English. This suffix enables the transformation of adjectives into adverbs, facilitating clear expression of manner, degree, and frequency. By altering the grammatical function and meaning of base words, **-ly** enhances the richness of English vocabulary and empowers speakers to convey complex ideas with precision. Understanding this derivational form is essential for mastering the intricacies of English morphology and its application in effective communication. The ability to create adverbs through derivation significantly enriches the language, enabling speakers to engage more fully and meaningfully with their audience.

17.6. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, the exploration of English derivation reveals the intricate mechanisms through which language evolves and adapts to the communicative needs of its speakers. By examining how prefixes and suffixes transform base words, we gain insights into the rich tapestry of the English lexicon and its capacity for innovation. The derivational processes not only

enhance our vocabulary but also illustrate the dynamic interplay between meaning and grammatical structure, emphasizing the importance of morphology within the broader context of syntax.

Moreover, understanding derivation enriches our appreciation of the cognitive processes that underpin language use. It highlights how speakers draw upon their knowledge of derivational patterns to create new expressions, demonstrating the creativity inherent in linguistic communication. As we continue to study English derivation, we recognize its significance not only in shaping the language we use today but also in reflecting the historical and cultural influences that inform its ongoing evolution. Through this lens, we can better understand the complexities of English syntax and the vital role derivational morphology plays in the structure and function of the language.

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The author is a distinguished Certified Assistant Professor of English Linguistics at Universitas Kebangsaan Republik Indonesia. His journey in linguistics began at Padjadjaran University, where he graduated in 2014 with a major in English Linguistics. Deri started his career as an English Teacher in primary school and progressed through high school to become a respected university lecturer. His commitment to academic leadership is evident through his roles, including Head of Language Lab at Politeknik Kridatama, where he fostered innovation in language learning. He later served as Secretary of the English Education Study Program at STKIP Persatuan Islam, showcasing his organizational skills. Deri's academic journey culminated in his appointment as Dean of the Faculty of Humanities at Universitas Putra Indonesia, where he shaped the academic environment and promoted intellectual growth. Deri's dedication to enhancing language education is highlighted by his development of comprehensive teaching modules. He authored "Reading Module from Basic to Advanced Level" and "Listening Module from Basic to Advanced Level" in 2018, providing essential resources for students at various proficiency levels. For those wishing to connect with him, Deri can be reached at 085624575964. His journey exemplifies the transformative power of education and the significant impact one individual can have on a community's linguistic landscape.

CHAPTER 18

SYNONYMS AND ANTONYMS: IMPROVING STYLE IN WRITING

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18.1. INTRODUCTION

In order to improve our communication abilities and enhance our language, synonyms and antonyms are essential. A synonym is a term that means the same thing as another word, or something quite similar. Examples of synonyms for the word "happy" include "joyful," "cheerful," and "content." Synonyms make writing or speaking more interesting and help prevent repetition. A story would soon get boring if every character used the word "happy" all the time. You can convey comparable meanings while keeping readers interested by employing synonyms.

Conversely, a word that has the opposite meaning of another word is called an antonym. For instance, "happy" has the antonym "sad." Antonyms are useful for highlighting meaning differences and establishing contrast. They are especially helpful for drawing attention to opposing viewpoints or feelings. When you say, "The weather was cold yesterday, but it is warm today," for example, you are illustrating the temperature shift with antonyms. Both synonyms and antonyms enhance your vocabulary, improve your writing style, and allow you to express yourself more precisely. By understanding these concepts and applying them effectively, you can make your language more dynamic and versatile.

Using synonyms and antonyms in writing is essential for improving communication's overall efficacy, variety, and clarity. Synonyms, or terms with related meanings, help authors avoid repetition and add interest to their writing. In a similar vein, antonyms—words with opposing meanings—help draw attention to contrast and differences, strengthening arguments and descriptions. These components help create a more dynamic and rich writing style, which is necessary for professional communication, academic writing, and successful narrative (Nation, 2001).

18.2. SYNONYMS

The Ancient Greek words *syn* (with) and *onoma* (name) are the etymological roots of the word synonym. Accordingly, two or more words that have the same meaning are called synonyms (Cruse, 1995: 1). For example in Bahasa Indonesia, *bunga* (flower), *kembang* (flower), and *puspa* (flower); *mati* (died), *wafat* (died), *meninggal* (died), and *tewas* (died); *buruk* (ugly/bad) and *jelek* (ugly/bad); are examples of expressions (words, phrases, and sentences) that have meanings that are similar to those of other expressions based on the context in using those words (Verhaar, 1992: 132).

According to Jaszczolt (2022), most people assume that "synonymy" means "having the same meaning," yet it is simple to demonstrate that synonymy is never complete and is always partial. Although "tall" and "high" are sometimes used interchangeably, we cannot have both: a tall boy and *a high boy. However, we can have both: a tall building and a high building. The connection in which two or more terms are in free variation in all or most contexts is the best way to define synonymy. Absolute synonymy is only reached when the synonyms are from distinct languages, as in the case of:

<i>British usage</i>	<i>US usage</i>
autumn	fall
estate agent	realtor
pavement	sidewalk

There are two primary categories of synonyms: stringent synonyms and loose synonyms. Words that can be used interchangeably in any situation are referred to as strict synonyms. The message's meaning, style, or connotation remain unchanged as a result of this substitution (Jackson & Amvela, 2000). On the other hand, actual or strict synonyms are scarce or nonexistent. Since it is highly unlikely that terms with identical meanings would still be in use, Palmer (1997) argued that true synonyms do not exist. Similarly, Kreidler (1998) asserted that no two words have all of the same linguistic characteristics and that having two terms that can entirely replace one another in every situation would be pointless.

In contrast, loose synonyms are terms that have overlapping meanings but cannot be employed interchangeably in every situation (Jackson & Amvela, 2000). This category is what linguists typically refer to when discussing synonyms. A pair of find and discover is a nice illustration to show this. Even though their fundamental meanings are identical, find and discover cannot always be used interchangeably. The distinction in specific meaning demonstrates that discover means "be the first to come across something," whereas find means "experience something in some way" (Jackson & Amvela, 2000, p. 94).

If two or more words are considered to be completely synonymous, Lyons (1995:61) lays out the following criteria: (a) the synonymous words have the same meaning; (b) the synonymous words are the same in a context; and (c) the synonymous words have the same semantic meaning in all descriptive and non-descriptive dimensions. According to

Omego (2014), synonyms have distinct forms but nearly the same meaning.

Enhancing readability and sustaining reader interest are two of the main benefits of employing synonyms. Writing can become tedious and uninteresting if the same words are used again. For instance, to keep things interesting, a writer can choose "crucial," "significant," or "essential" in place of the term "important," which they use frequently. This technique improves writing flow and aids in expressing complex ideas. A solid command of synonyms and a well-developed vocabulary enable authors to convey concepts more accurately and successfully, claims Stahl (1999).

From the author of thesynonymseeker.com (retrieved February 22, 2025) proposed explored that learning synonyms and antonyms offers several benefits that can improve both spoken and written communication. Here are some key advantages:

Enhances Vocabulary – You can utilize a greater variety of words and write and speak more expressively by increasing your understanding of synonyms and antonyms. You can use different terms that give your language more depth and variation in place of the same ones.

A well-developed vocabulary plays a crucial role in shaping an individual's writing style, influencing clarity, expressiveness, and overall effectiveness. What stated by Nation (2021) that the more words a writer knows and understands, the better they can convey ideas in a precise and engaging manner. Vocabulary enhancement allows for greater flexibility in word choice, which directly impacts tone, flow, and readability in writing. Since expanding one's vocabulary enables one to express oneself more precisely, creatively, and adaptably, it is closely related to improving one's writing style. A large vocabulary facilitates

better word choice, enhances coherence, and aids in the development of a unique literary voice. Thus, for anyone hoping to improve their writing and communication abilities, constant vocabulary growth is crucial.

Additionally, vocabulary enhancement improves coherence and flow in writing. A strong grasp of synonyms, antonyms, and transitional words helps writers connect ideas smoothly, making arguments more persuasive and narratives more engaging. Without sufficient vocabulary knowledge, writers may struggle to structure their thoughts effectively, leading to unclear or awkward writing (Hatch & Brown, 1995).

Improves Writing Skills – By avoiding repetition, using synonyms improves the readability and professionalism of your work. Conversely, antonyms aid in highlighting differences and establishing contrast, which can improve the clarity and impact of descriptions and arguments.

The capacity to steer clear of repetition and redundancy is a crucial link between vocabulary and writing style. To keep readers interested and establish a more sophisticated tone, writers with a large vocabulary can employ synonyms and a variety of sentence forms. For example, depending on the situation, a writer may use the words "excellent," "remarkable," or "outstanding" in place of the term "good." This diversity raises the text's overall aesthetic quality in addition to making it easier to read (Harmer, 2007).

Boosts Communication Skills – Accurately expressing ideas is made easier with a large vocabulary. Understanding synonyms—different terms for the same idea—and their opposites—antonyms—allows for more accurate and efficient communication in writings, presentations, and discussions.

Nation (2001) highlighted about communication skill especially in Writing that Improving coherence and clarity is one way that developing communication skills improves writing style. Effective communicators know how to rationally organize their ideas so that their communications are understandable. This skill transfers to writing, where reader understanding depends on coherent concept progression and well-constructed sentences. For example, a person with good verbal communication skills will probably write more clearly and concisely, minimizing ambiguity or superfluous complexity.

What Harmer (2007) also inline with the statement above by Nation (2001) that since both writing and communication require the capacity to express ideas effectively, convincingly, and clearly, developing excellent communication abilities immediately improves one's writing style. In addition to having a large vocabulary, effective communication also involves knowing the audience, tone, and structure. Therefore, enhancing communication abilities has a favorable impact on writing style by making it more impactful, organized, and captivating.

Aids in Language Learning – Knowing synonyms and antonyms aids language learners in becoming more fluent and understanding. It enables them to recognize words in different contexts and understand their meanings more easily, which strengthens both reading and listening skills.

Supports Creativity in Writing and Speaking – Using a wide range of words can make writing and speaking more intriguing and engaging. To communicate concepts more dynamically and vividly, writers, poets, and speakers frequently use synonyms and antonyms.

Writing may be adapted to various audiences and goals with the aid of great communication skills. Skilled writers modify

their style according to their readers, just as good speakers modify their vocabulary and tone depending on their audience. Formal corporate writing, for instance, calls for professionalism and concision, but creative writing permits a more imaginative and expressive approach. Effective writers select the right terminology, tone, and structure for their target audience with the aid of a strong communication skill set (Stahl, 1999).

All things considered, mastering synonyms and antonyms improves language proficiency and makes communication more interesting, accurate, and clear. It is an easy yet effective method to improve one's capacity to use language in a variety of contexts.

Table 18.1 Examples of Synonyms with Meanings

Words	Meaning	Synonyms
Ambiguous	Open to more than one interpretation	Vague, Unclear, Obscure, Cryptic, Equivocal
Diligent	Industrious, Assiduous, Meticulous, Persevering, Dedicated	Hardworking and attentive
Eager	having a strong desire or interest	Vague, Unclear, Obscure, Cryptic, Equivocal
Fragile	Easily broken or damaged	Easily broken or damaged
Generous	Willing to give more than expected	Kind, Charitable, Benevolent, Philanthropic, Altruistic
Humble	Having a modest opinion of oneself	Modest, Meek, Unassuming, Down-to-earth, Unpretentious

Optimistic	Hopeful and confident about the future	Positive, Upbeat, Encouraging	Cheerful, Hopeful,
Rich	Having wealth or abundance	Wealthy, opulent, loaded, moneyed	affluent, prosperous, well-off,
Quick	Moving fast or happening in a short time	Fast, speedy, prompt, instant	rapid, swift, brisk, fleet,
Quiet	Making little or no noise	Solent, still, tranquil	hushed, mute, calm, peaceful, serene
Proud	Feeling deep satisfaction or self-respect	Arrogant, vain, haughty, egoistic	confident, self-satisfied, conceited,
powerful	Having great strength or influence	Strong, forceful, dominant, robust	mighty, potent, influential,

Source: <https://leverageedu.com/blog/synonyms-list/>

A semantic relationship that exists between two language units is called a meaning relation. A word, phrase, or sentence can serve as the language unit in this case, and the semantic relation can express the meaning's similarity, conflict, sufficiency, numerous meanings, or surplus meaning. The issues of synonyms, antonyms, polysemy, homonymy, hyponymy, ambiguity, and redundancy are typically highlighted while discussing this meaning relation (Chaer, 2012: 297).

Generally speaking, synonymy is a semantic link that indicates that two words have similar meanings. This is a reciprocal relationship. Accordingly, a term is guaranteed to have the same meaning if it is synonymous with another word.

Naturally, if a speech unit A and a speech unit B are interchangeable, then the two speech units are interchangeable. In specific terms, if the words bad and terrible are interchangeable, then *senang* (enjoy) and *gembira* (happy) are likewise interchangeable.

The ability of two lexemes to substitute one another as fillers in a sentence without altering the meaning is what distinguishes synonymous relationships. Absolute synonyms are synonyms that retain their meaning. However, since every word in the language has a unique meaning, absolute synonyms are uncommon. Even though two words that are synonymous don't have the same exact meaning, they are comparable in the information they convey. To put it simply, antonyms are also known as opposite words, and synonyms are also known as equal meaning or equivalent words.

18.3. ANTONYMS

Language is a very effective means of communication. Words with opposite meanings are termed antonyms, whereas words with similar meanings are called synonyms in English and other languages. Acknowledging these terms helps improve vocabulary and make reading easier. Consider the following scenario: you are watching a movie or reading a book in English and you encounter a word that you are unfamiliar with. Understanding synonyms and antonyms can improve your reading or listening experience by assisting you in comprehending the meaning and context of a term.

Acquiring knowledge of synonyms and antonyms is crucial for improving one's ability to express oneself accurately and creatively, in addition to helping with text comprehension. This can be extremely helpful in the real world whether writing essays, making presentations, or even having regular discussions, when word choice can have a big impact on

communication impact and clarity. For example, being aware that "short" is the antonym of "tall" and that "happy" can be substituted with "joyful" can enhance and add interest to your expression.

There is reciprocity in the antonym relationship, according to Verhaar (2010:395). The reason for this is because if something is antonymous to difficult, it can be considered to be easy, and vice versa: difficult is the antonym of easy. As a result, antonymy can be seen as a different term for an object, thing, or linguistic unit whose meaning is opposed to that of another linguistic unit or opposition of meaning.

The following are the examples of substituted-based using antonyms words.

Table 18.2. Substituted-based using Antonyms Words

Word	<i>Antonym</i>	Word	<i>Antonym</i>
absence	<i>presence</i>	approval	<i>disapproval</i>
accept	<i>refuse</i>	approached	<i>receded</i>
accurate	<i>inaccurate</i>	abundant	<i>scarce</i>
advantage	<i>disadvantage</i>	advance	<i>retreat</i>
alive	<i>dead</i>	artificial	<i>natural</i>
always	<i>never</i>	ascend	<i>descend</i>
ancient	<i>modern</i>	attack	<i>defence</i>

Source: Mansor et.al (2018:225)

Semantic interactions between two speech units that have opposing meanings are known as antonyms. Antonyms are typically described as opposites in Bahasa Indonesia. In actuality, The opposite is not on the words but the meaning of the words themselves. Antonyms are simply the antithesis of meaning. Two speech units that are antonyms have a reciprocal

relationship. For instance, the words sad and happy are antonymous, whereas buying and selling are antonymous.

A semantic relationship between two speech units that expresses the opposite, conflict, or contrast between one and the other is known as an antonymy. For instance, the terms "buruk (bad)" and "bagus (good)," "mati (dead)" and "hidup (alive)," "guru (teacher)" and "siswa (student)," and "memberli (buy)" and "menjual (sell)" are antonyms (Chaer, 2012: 299)

The word "antonymy" is derived from the ancient Greek words "onoma," which means "name," and "anti," which means "against," (Djajasudarma, 2016:73). Antonymy can be defined as the opposite of meaning in a lexical pair that can be ranked, or literally as another name for an object. Synonyms, homonymy, hyponymy and polysemy are relationships of meaning that have similarities. On the other hand, antonymy is employed to denote opposite meanings. So, antonymy is the opposite of meaning. Typically, antonyms come in pairs of two words that have opposite meanings. Some examples of antonyms are:

hot and cold

near and far

tall and short

quiet and noisy

small and big

shallow and deep

Munirah (2016:20) stated that an antonym is a word that has the opposite meaning. A semantic link between two speech units that expresses opposition, conflict, or contrast between one and the other is known as an antonym or antonymy. On the surface, the meaning conflict appears to be quite straightforward. Hot is the opposite of cold, for instance, while up is the opposite of down. Some people generally believe that a conflict of meaning

is made up of specific pairs, meaning that a word can only be opposed to one other word.

In addition, antonyms play a vital role in strengthening arguments and emphasizing contrast. In persuasive writing, for instance, using antonyms can make comparisons clearer and more impactful. A writer discussing the benefits of a healthy lifestyle might contrast “active” with “sedentary” to emphasize the differences in lifestyle choices. This contrast helps readers better understand and appreciate the significance of the point being made. Research by Harmer (2007) indicates that using antonyms strategically can enhance the depth of discussion by clarifying distinctions between opposing concepts.

18.4. CONCLUSION

Acquiring and using synonyms and antonyms improves language and cognitive abilities. By using synonyms and antonyms to broaden their vocabulary, writers improve their word choice skills and their capacity to express difficult concepts. In academic and professional writing, where accuracy and clarity are crucial, this is especially helpful. According to Hatch & Brown (1995), intentionally using a diverse vocabulary might improve one's ability to communicate verbally and in writing, enabling one to express oneself more fluidly. To sum up, using synonyms and antonyms in writing promotes contrast, variety, clarity, and cognitive growth. Writers can enhance the sophistication, persuasiveness, and engagement of their texts by carefully choosing words that have opposite or comparable meanings. Adding synonyms and antonyms to one's vocabulary not only makes writing better, but it also improves communication abilities in general. According to numerous linguistic studies, getting proficient in these components is essential to improving as an expressive and successful writer.

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AUTHOR'S PROFILE



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The author was born in a remote area named Wangon district, Banyumas regency, Central Java. He graduated from *Universitas Muhammadiyah Prof. Hamka (UHAMKA)* South Jakarta in 2004. Two years later, he continued his study for master degree in *Universitas Negeri Jakarta (UNJ)* graduated in 2008. After seven years, he was registered as a student of Doctoral Program in *Sekolah Pascasarjana UNJ* and graduated in 2019. Now he is a homebase lecturer in *Universitas Al-Azhar Indonesia* in Magister Program of Applied Linguistics.

CHAPTER 19

IDIOMS

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19.1. INTRODUCTION

In English, some groups of words team up to carry a special meaning, one that's different from what each word means on its own. We call these idioms. You'll bump into them all the time when you listen to native speakers or dive into English texts. As we engage in more conversations and interact more frequently with native speakers, we soon realize that everyday communication is not just about speaking "correctly" based on grammar. To communicate effectively and make ourselves as good as native speakers, it is important to express ideas, emotions, and nuances with idiosyncratic expressions. Idioms, phrasal verbs, proverbs, and slang become very important to make conversations in English sound authentic, cool, and natural. Using idiomatic expressions and slang appropriately can help learners sound more like native speakers. This shows a higher level of language proficiency and helps build rapport with others. Please read the conversation to see the context clearly.

I'M RUNNING FUMES HERE



Source: Meta AI

Picture 19.1. Illustration for the conversation 1

Late in the afternoon, Susan looks very busy with her work, looking worn out.

Her co-worker, Emma, approaches and encourages her not too give up easily.

Emma: Hey, Susan, are you okay? You look like *you've been running on empty* all day.

Susan: Oh, Emma, ...I woke up at dawn cleaning the house—laundry, dishes, you name it—all by myself. Then I got here, and *it's been one thing after another. I've bitten off more than I can chew* with this new project, and *I'm totally wiped out. I'm running fumes* here.

Emma: Wow, you're juggling a lot! I get it—*housework alone is a full-time gig*, and then piling on this workload? You're a trooper.

- Susan: Thanks, but honestly, I feel like *I'm at the end of my rope*. I don't know how much longer I can keep this up.
- Emma: *Hang in there*, Sinta—you're tougher than you think! *You've got this in the bag*. Just take it one step at a time, and don't let it drag you down. You'll come out on top, I promise.
- Susan: (smiles weakly) I hope so. Maybe I just need to *catch my breath* and push through. Thanks, Emma—it helps to hear that.
- Emma: Anytime! *Keep your chin up*, okay? We'll grab a coffee after this madness and recharge together.
- Susan: Deal. Let's survive the day first!

Table 19.1. List of Idioms From Conversation 1

No.	Idioms	Meanings
1.	running on empty	having no energy left, like a car with an empty fuel tank
2.	one thing after another	a series of tasks or problems happening continuously
3.	bitten off more than i can chew	taken on more responsibility or work than one can handle
4.	wiped out	completely exhausted
5.	running on fumes	operating with very little energy left, similar to a car running on the last bit of gas.
6.	full-time gig	a task or job that takes up a lot of time and effort (here, "gig" is slang for job)
7.	at the end of my rope	having no more patience or energy left to cope

8.	hang in there	keep going despite difficulties; don't give up
9.	got this in the bag	having something under control or guaranteed to succeed
10.	come out on top	to succeed or win despite challenges
11.	catch my breath	take a moment to rest and recover energy
12.	keep your chin up	stay positive despite hardship

Why do Susan and Emma use these idioms? They make talking easier and more interesting. Using idioms in the conversation make English come more alive. Expressing opinions, conveying messages, completing tasks, gathering information, and responding various situation will be more vivid and relatable. Susan didn't just say she's tired—she used phrases like *running on fumes* and *at the end of my rope* to show how beat she felt. When Susan says *she's bitten off more than she can chew*, it's not just “I'm busy”—it's a picture of trying to handle too much, something Emma can relate to right away. Emma's *hang in there* isn't just “don't give up”—it's a friendly boost that sticks in Susan's mind. Emma cheered her by saying *keep your chin up* and *you've got this in the bag*. These idioms make English fun and lively because they make your words pop—Susan's *running on empty* beats a boring “I'm tired” any day (Carter and McCharty, 2019) Emma's *keep your chin up* feels like a warm pat on the back that brings people closer and more intimate (McPherron and Randolph, 2020).

Idioms or idiomatic expressions are often used in English texts. So, what's an idiom? The Cambridge Dictionary says it's “a group of words in a fixed order that has a particular meaning that is different from the meanings of each word on its own”

(Cambridge Dictionary, 2025). Idiom has a figurative (hidden) meaning in its unique and fixed expression, for example like *bitten off more than you can chew*—it means taking on too much work, not dealing with chewing food! Additionally, McPherron and Randolph (2020) call idioms as “fixed phrases with meanings tied to culture”.

The next part of the chapter will present the idioms in various contexts and categories. The idioms are put in the conversations, so that the reader can see the context comprehensively. After that, there will be a list of idioms mentioned in the conversation and their meanings.

19.2. IDIOMS FOR ENCOURAGEMENT & RESILIENCE

Alex was upset about his grade in the last exam. Hanna, Alex's best friend, approaches him and cheers him up.

WE'RE TWO PEAS IN A POD



Source: Meta AI

Picture 19.2. Illustration for the conversation 2

- Hanna : Hey, Alex, what's up? You look like *the world's caving in*.
- Alex : Ugh, Hanna, the grade of my last exam was terrible. I studied so hard, but it's like my brain froze. Now, I'm worried I'll never catch up.
- Hanna : Oh, come on, *you'll bounce back*! One bad grade doesn't define you. You're tougher than that.
- Alex : I don't know... What if I fail this semester? I feel stuck.
- Hanna : Listen, *you're golden*—you've got smarts and grit. *I'll back you up*, okay? We can study together this weekend.
- Alex : Really? You'd do that? I don't want to *drag you down* with my mess.
- Hanna : Drag me down? Please! *We're two peas in a pod*—if you're struggling, I'm right there with you. *We'll ace this next one* together!
- Alex : (smiles) Thanks, Hanna. I feel better already. Let's do this.

Table 19.2. List of Idioms From Conversation 2

No.	Idioms	Meanings
1.	the world's caving in	feeling like everything is falling apart or collapsing; an expression of extreme distress or overwhelm
2.	bounce back	to recover quickly from a setback or difficulty
3.	you're golden	you're in a great position or guaranteed to succeed; everything is fine or valuable about you
4.	back you up	to support or help someone, especially in a difficult situation

5.	drag you down	to negatively affect someone else's mood, energy, or progress because of your own problems
6.	two peas in a pod	two people who are very similar or extremely close, like peas nestled together in the same pod
7.	ace this next one	to do something exceptionally well, especially to get a perfect score or succeed brilliantly

19.3. IDIOMS FOR SUCCESS & SATISFACTION

Bryan has just broken the running record at the college stadium. He's very happy and Lisa, his girlfriend, cheers him at the finish line.

THAT'S A FEATHER IN YOUR CAP



Source: Meta AI

Picture 19.3. Illustration for the conversation 3

- Lisa : Well done, Bryan! You did it! How does it feel?
 Bryan : Lisa, *I'm over the moon!* It's my fastest time ever!
 Lisa : Awesome! That's *a feather in your cap.*

Bryan : Yeah, *I've hit the jackpot—I'm tickled pink!*
 Lisa : *You're in your element. Let's bask in the glory tonight!*
 Bryan : Deal!

Table 19.3. List of Idioms From Conversation 3

No.	Idioms	Meanings
1.	over the moon	extremely happy or delighted
2.	feather in your cap	a notable achievement or something to be proud of
3.	hit the jackpot	to achieve a great success or win something valuable, often unexpectedly
4.	tickled pink	very pleased or delighted, often with a playful or lighthearted tone
5.	in your element	being in a situation where you feel comfortable, confident, or naturally skilled
6.	bask in the glory	to enjoy praise, attention, or success fully and proudly

19.4. IDIOMS FOR LOVE

During a break at the office, Bella and Jake kick back and gush about their partners, grinning over how lucky they feel in love.

YOU TWO ARE LOVEBIRDS!



Source: Meta AI

Picture 19.4. Illustration for the conversation 4

- Bella : Jake, *I'm head over heels* for Tom—he *swept me off my feet* again! He *spoils me rotten* and treats me like a queen. He just sent me a dozen of red roses.
- Jake : You two are *lovebirds*! You deserve it, Bella—you've got *a heart of gold*. Tom's lucky to have you.
- Bella : Oh, he's *the apple of my eye*. *I put him on a pedestal*—he's just perfect to me. But you're lucky too—Sara's gorgeous! We're both blessed in love.
- Jake : Yup, I am. Sara's *the light of my life*. She's *my better half*, always making me a better guy.
- Bella : Guess we've *hit the love jackpot*!

Table 19.4. List of Idioms From Conversation 4

No.	Idioms	Meanings
1.	head over heels	completely and deeply in love
2.	swept off my feet	to be suddenly and powerfully charmed or enchanted by someone
3.	spoils me rotten	to pamper or indulge someone excessively, often with affection or gifts
4.	lovebirds	a couple who are openly affectionate and very much in love
5.	a heart of gold	having a kind, generous, and loving nature
6.	the apple of my eye	someone cherished or adored above all others
7.	put on a pedestal	to admire or idealize someone highly, treating them as perfect
8.	light of my life	a person who brings joy and brightness to your existence
9.	my better half	a loving term for a partner, implying they complete or improve you
10.	hit the love jackpot	to achieve great luck or success in finding love

19.5. IDIOMS OF AGREEMENT & DISAGREEMENT

John, Paula, and Jake are sitting in the office boardroom and discussing in the office meeting room about the latest client issue and work plan.

I SEE EYE TO EYE WITH YOU



Source: Meta AI

Picture 19.5. Illustration for the conversation 5

- John : Okay, team, we need to handle the urgent matter. Mr. Smith just called me, and he is upset about our progress for the last client. I think *he's barking up the wrong tree* if he blames it on us. Are we *on the same page here*?
- Paula : Totally, *I see eye to eye with you*, John. It's not wise at all. It's not our mess. Mr. Smith was the one who suggest us to use the old data.
- John : He told me that we should finish all the new data by Friday—*we're on the same boat* with the workload, right.
- Jake : Yep, *you can say that again!* Friday works. But I think focusing only on the old client data *misses the mark*. We should dig into the new stats and change the analysis, instead.
- John : Hmm, *I'm at odds with that*, Jake. Mr. Smith knows the old data—it shows we did our job. Dropping it could make things worse since we still actually need it, anyway.

- Jake : "But the old data's not relevant anymore—it won't solve what he's really upset about."
- Paula : Actually, Jake, *you hit the nail on the head* about the new stats. They'd make our case stronger, even if we still keep some old stuff.
- Jake : See? Paula gets it. John, let's blend both—then we're all set. We will add the new data in our analysis.
- John : Fine, I'll meet you halfway. Let's do it.

Table 19.5. List of Idioms From Conversation 5

No.	Idioms	Meanings
1.	barking up the wrong tree	to be mistaken or approaching something the wrong way
2.	on the same page	in agreement or sharing the same understanding
3.	see eye to eye	to agree fully with someone
4.	we're on the same boat	in the same situation, implying agreement
5.	you can say that again	strongly agree
6.	miss the mark	to be wrong or fail to meet the point
7.	at odds	in conflict or disagreement with someone
8.	hit nail on the head	to say something exactly right, agreeing with a point

19.6. IDIOMS OF WEALTH, HEALTH & WELLNESS

Ema, Sophia and Ryan are best friends. They are discussing in a coffee shop about their life style.

HEALTH IS WEALTH



Source: Meta AI

Picture 6, 7 and 8. Illustration for the conversation 6

Emma : Ugh, I've been working so much overtime lately. I need a break!

Ryan : Yeah, you should! *Money doesn't grow on trees*, but neither does good health. No point in *burning the candle at both ends*.

Sophia : Exactly! What's the use of *making a fortune* if you're too exhausted to enjoy it?

Emma : True... but I also want to be *sitting pretty* one day—financially secure and stress-free.

- Ryan : That's the dream! But **health is wealth**, too. No use having deep pockets if you're too sick to spend it.
- Sophia : Agreed! That's why I started yoga. You should join me—it's a great way to relax and stay fit. Remember, "*You are what you eat*," so I've also been eating healthier. It really makes a difference!
- Emma : Hmm... maybe I will. **A balanced life is important. My grandma is still very fit at 75! She's still strong and active.**
- Ryan : Wow, she must be **fit as a fiddle!** That's amazing—good health really is priceless.
- Sophia : See? That's proof that taking care of yourself pays off. Like they say, "**An apple a day keeps the doctor away.**" Small healthy habits make a big difference.
- Emma : No more **overtime** at the cost of my health. Time to focus on wellness, too!
- Ryan : Now that's a **rich decision!** Let's toast to that—smoothies on me!

Table 19.6. List of Idioms From Conversation 6

No.	Idioms	Meanings
1.	money doesn't grow on trees	money is not easy to earn and should be spent wisely
2.	burning the candle at both ends	there is no benefit in overworking and exhausting yourself by doing too much
3.	making a fortune	earning a lot of money
4.	sitting pretty	being in a comfortable financial situation
5.	health is wealth	good health is as valuable as money
6.	you are what you eat	your diet affects your health; eating healthy leads to a healthier body

7.	fit as a fiddle	being in excellent physical health
8.	an apple a day keeps the doctor away	maintaining healthy habits helps prevent illness
9.	rich decision	a decision that brings great benefits, not necessarily financial

19.7. IDIOMS OF ANIMALS

Sarah, Jessica and Matthew are chatting about Mr. Hugo, a manager avoiding a promotion talk and their office situation in the pantry room during the break time.

THE ELEPHANT IN THE ROOM IS OBVIOUS



Source: Meta AI

Picture 19.9. Illustration for the conversation 7

Sarah : Guys, someone *let the cat out of the bag*—Mr. Hugo’s been promising promotions that never happen. People are mad now!

Jessica : Yeah, ...*the elephant in the room* is obvious. Now, he keeps avoiding us. We can’t just ignore it anymore—it’s a mess!

Matthew: I've been *busy as a bee* digging up the new data lately. I think I don't really aware of it.

Sarah : I bet there's *a wolf in sheep's clothing* around here. Someone's acting nice but causing trouble—just like Lisa, who's all sweet but loves gossiping about us and spread false news!

Jessica : Ugh, I feel like *a fish out of water* with all this drama. I just wanna do my job professionally!

Sarah : Yeah, but Mr. Hugo's taking *the lion's share* of our work—he gets all the praise while we get Well, I'm busy as a bee nothing. That's why everyone's talking.

Matthew: And to think, some of us were already celebrating a promotion. *Don't count your chickens before they hatch*, right?

Jessica : True! We got ahead of ourselves. Now, we're stuck in this mess.

Matthew: (smiles) I'm still *the cat's whiskers*—handling this like a champ. Let's talk to him together later, okay?

Jessica : Deal—after this coffee!

Table 19.7. List of Idioms From Conversation 7

No.	Idioms	Meanings
1.	let the cat out of the bag	to reveal a secret, often by accident
2.	the elephant in the room	a big problem everyone ignores
3.	a wolf in sheep's clothing	someone who hides bad intentions behind a nice act
4.	as busy as bee	very busy or hardworking
5.	a fish out of water	feeling out of place or uncomfortable

6.	the lion's share	getting the biggest part of something
7.	don't count your chickens before they hatch	don't assume something will happen before it actually does
8.	the cat's whiskers	being the best or outstanding

19.8. IDIOMS OF PARTS OF THE BODY

Mike, Mark and Lily are chatting in the meeting room. They're talking about the new managing director in their department.

SHE'S HEAD AND SHOULDERS ABOVE THE REST



Source: Meta AI

Picture 19.9. Illustration for the conversation 8

- Mike : Hey, did you hear about the new managing director in our department?
- Mark : I heard that Tom and Rachel are the new candidates for that position.
- Lily : Yeah! *I'm all ears*. Who finally got the position?
- Mike : So you guys haven't heard the final decision about them. Well... I was going to tell you, but the name is

on the tip of my tongue. Ugh, but I just forgot! (Mike smiles)

Mark : Oh, come on, Mike! Don't leave us hanging and waste our time. *Spit it out!*

Mike : (giggles) Ok..Wait... ! It's Rachel! No surprise—she's *head and shoulders above the rest* when it comes to leadership skills.

Lily : I knew it! But I feel bad for Tom. He's been working so hard, and now he looks like *he's on his last legs*.

Mike : Yeah, and he didn't take the news well. I tried to cheer him up, but I ended up putting *my foot in my mouth* by saying, "Keep trying next time,buddy. You're too bossy, anyway." That was awkward, wasn't it?

Mark : Oof, that's rough. Sometimes, you just have to *bite your tongue* instead of saying something that might hurt someone's feelings.

Lily : I couldn't agree more with Mike. Tom is a hardworker, but he is too selfish, ambitious and arrogant. Somehow, I'm sure that he'll *keep his chin up*.

Mike : Indeed. Let's be honest, Rachel deserved it. She's always been *the backbone of the team*. She's also very nice and smart. She's *one in a million*.

Lily : Absolutely! Without her, our team might not be in the best performance.

Mark : Congratulations for Rachel, our new managing director! Yuhuu!

Table 19.8. List of Idioms From Conversation 8

No.	Idioms	Meanings
1.	All ears	Fully listening and paying attention
2.	On the tip of my tongue	Almost remembering something but not quite
3.	Spit it out	Stop hesitating and say what you mean quickly
4.	Head and shoulders above the rest	Significantly better than others
5.	On the last legs	Extremely tired or near failure
6.	Putting the foot in the mouth	Saying something embarrassing or inappropriate
7.	Bite the tongue	Holding back from saying something that might hurt others
8.	Keep the chin up	Stay positive even in difficult times
9.	The backbone of the team	The most important, supportive person in a group
10	One in a million	An exceptional person who is very special, unique, or extremely rare in a positive way

19.9. EXERCISES

Please match the idioms with the sentences!

A.	Money doesn't grow on trees	F.	feather in your cap	K.	hit the jackpot	P.	two peas in a pod
B.	catch my breath	G.	one thing after another	L.	hang in there	Q.	lovebirds
C.	a heart of gold	H.	barking up the wrong tree	M.	the apple of my eye	R.	head and shoulders above the rest
D.	fit as a fiddle	I.	we're at the same boat	N.	a fish out of water	S.	burning the candle at both ends
E.	let the cat out of the bag	J.	at odds	O.	bounce back	T.	putting the foot in the mouth

No	Sentences	Idioms
1.	Lisa and I support each other. Whenever I'm stressed, Lisa feels it too. We're so similar in everything, even in our emotions!	
2.	I've been handling so many projects at once that I don't even know where to start anymore!	
3.	I know you failed the last test, but don't worry—you always recover quickly. I'm sure you'll do better next time!	
4.	I need a break. Let me sit down for a second so I can rest and recover.	
5.	Even though things are tough right now, don't give up. Stay strong and stay positive!	
6.	Lily felt so uncomfortable at the event. She kept quiet, didn't know anyone and didn't understand the conversations. She's lost her comfort zone.	
7.	Scoring the highest in the entire school was a huge achievement for Mia—definitely something she should be proud of!	
8.	I can't believe I won the grand prize in the lottery! This is the luckiest day of my life!	
9.	Whenever Olivia and Daniel are together, they can't stop holding hands and laughing. They're so adorable!	
10.	Every time I see my daughter smile, my heart melts. She is the most precious person in my life.	

11.	My grandma is the kindest person I know. She always helps others and never asks for anything in return.	
12.	Emily was supposed to keep the surprise party a secret, but she accidentally told Anna about it.	
13.	Mia thought Tom was the one who caused the problem, but she was totally mistaken	
14.	I told my kids not to waste money on things they don't need—after all, it's not easy to earn!	
15.	Jake and I always argue about how to manage the project. We just can't seem to agree on anything!	
16.	We both had a rough week at work, so I totally understand how you feel. We're facing the same struggles.	
17.	Olivia has been studying and working in two different jobs and she doesn't have enough time to sleep. She's exhausted all the time!	
18.	My grandpa is 80 years old, but he still runs every morning and has amazing energy!	
19.	Olivia is the best employee in our office. Her skills and work ethic are far superior to anyone else's.	
20.	Jake needs to control his bad habit. He keeps swearing in meetings, and last time, he accidentally said bad words in front of the CEO!	

19.10. CONCLUSION

Idioms are like little puzzles in English—once you figure them out, they unlock a whole new way of speaking! An idiom is a group of words with fixed and special meaning. The words in the idiom cannot be interpreted by using their literal (usual) meanings. These groups of words have particular meanings which are different from the meanings of the individual words. Idioms have certain figurative (hidden) meanings to communicate the feelings, ideas, and experiences more effectively. These expressions, often metaphorical and non-literal. Understanding idioms not only improves language proficiency but also helps in grasping the nuances of native speech. When communicate in English, you will encounter a variety of idiomatic expressions. Mastering idioms enables speakers to express themselves more naturally. In this chapter, we presents idioms into fun categories to make them easier to memorized throughout this chapter. We have looked at idioms connected to a variety of topics in the conversational settings, including emotions, relationships, success, and daily life. Each idiom has a meaning that extends beyond its literal words, expressing cultural values and shared life experiences. By the end of the chapter, there is an exercise that can be used to evaluate the students’s understanding in using the idioms correctly.

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CHAPTER 20

TRANSITIONAL WORDS AND PHRASES

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20.1. INTRODUCTION

In both written and spoken communication, cohesion and coherence are essential for ensuring clarity and unity. One key element that supports these aspects is the use of transitional words and phrases. While some sources use these terms interchangeably, the difference lies in structure—transitional words are single words, such as *however*, *therefore*, and *meanwhile*, whereas transitional phrases consist of two or more words, such as *as a result*, *in contrast to*, and *on the other hand*. Despite this distinction, both serve the same function: connecting ideas within a text to make the writing flow more clearly and coherently (Study Guides & Strategies, n.d.).

In English, the use of transitional words and phrases not only enriches the style of writing but also helps construct more structured and convincing arguments. These transitions can function to indicate cause-and-effect relationships (as a result, due to this), comparisons (in the same way, by contrast), additions (in addition to that, furthermore), and contrasts (on the other hand, in contrast). According to Bailey (2011), appropriate transitions in writing can enhance idea cohesion and help readers understand the relationships between conveyed ideas. Additionally, Swales and Feak (2012) emphasize that effective transitions enable readers to follow the development of arguments without experiencing confusion.

In an academic context, transitional words and phrases play a crucial role in writing essays, research reports, and scholarly

publications. Using the right transition signal not only demonstrates good language skills but also showcases critical thinking abilities in logically structuring arguments. Therefore, a deep understanding of the types of transitional signals and their applications can be a valuable asset for students, academics, and professionals looking to improve their writing skills.

This chapter will discuss the basic concepts of transitional words and phrases, their main categories, and practical examples in various academic and professional writing contexts. With a systematic presentation, readers are expected to understand the function and application of transition words and phrases effectively in written communication.

20.2. TRANSITIONAL WORDS AND PHRASES IN SENTENCE STRUCTURE

Transitional words and phrases play a vital role in building textual cohesion, particularly in longer discourses such as essays, reports, and other academic writings. Their function extends beyond merely connecting ideas between paragraphs; they also help readers comprehend the logical relationships between one idea and another (Purdue University, n.d.).

One of the primary characteristics of transitional words and phrases is their flexibility in sentence positioning. They can be placed at the beginning, middle, or end of a sentence, depending on the context and intended purpose.

1. **Beginning of a Sentence** – Commonly used to indicate a clear relationship between a previous idea and a new one. When placed at the beginning of a sentence, they are often followed by a comma to mark a distinct transition.

Therefore, the results indicate a significant correlation between the variables.

On the other hand, previous research suggests a different outcome.

2. **Middle of a Sentence** – Typically used to provide contrast or additional information without shifting the main focus of the sentence. These transitions usually appear within independent clauses and are enclosed by commas.

Examples:

- a. The study, **in contrast**, found no significant differences.
 - b. This method is effective; **however**, it requires extensive training.
3. **End of a Sentence** – Although less commonly used, some transitional signals can be placed at the end to provide a conclusion or additional emphasis.

Examples:

- a. The hypothesis was rejected, **as expected**.
- b. The experiment failed, **surprisingly enough**.

Beyond sentence structure, the selection of transitional words and phrases should also consider the level of formality and the tone of writing. In academic contexts, using more formal transitions is highly recommended to maintain credibility and a professional impression in the text. In academic writing, more formal transitions often originate from Latin or more complex structures, giving an intellectual and objective tone. Meanwhile, informal transitions tend to be more casual and are frequently used in everyday conversations or non-academic writings such as blogs or popular articles.

Table 20.1.

Formal and Informal Transitional Words and Phrases

Category	Formal Transitions	Informal Transitions
----------	--------------------	----------------------

Adding Information	Moreover, Furthermore, In addition	Plus, Also
Showing Consequence	Therefore, Thus, Consequently	So, As a result
Comparing	In contrast, On the other hand	But, While
Giving Examples	For instance, For example	Like, Such as
Clarifying	That is, In other words	I mean, You know

Table 20.1 provides a comparative overview of formal and informal transitional words and phrases, highlighting their appropriate usage in different writing contexts. While formal transitions are commonly used in academic, professional, and research writing to maintain clarity and objectivity, informal transitions are more suited for casual communication, personal essays, and conversational texts. Understanding these distinctions allows writers to adapt their language based on audience expectations and the purpose of their writing, ensuring coherence and readability in various contexts.

For example, in academic essays, the following sentence is preferred:

“The study yielded inconclusive results; **therefore**, further research is necessary.”

Rather than using a more informal structure such as:

“The study didn’t give clear results, **so** more research is needed.”

By understanding how transitional words and phrases can be effectively used in various sentence positions, writers can enhance text cohesion and clarify logical relationships between ideas more systematically.

20.3. CATEGORIES OF TRANSITIONAL PHRASES IN ACADEMIC AND PROFESSIONAL WRITING

The following presents transitional words and phrases, categorizing them based on the relationships that writers commonly establish between ideas..

a. Addition

Transitions in this category are used to add information or expand on ideas that have been previously mentioned. These phrases help introduce additional ideas that support previous statements and contribute to a more convincing and structured argument. Common transitional phrases in this category include *in addition, furthermore, moreover, and besides*. Their use is essential in clarifying the relationship between supportive ideas, particularly in writing essays or research reports that require strong logical reasoning. For instance, in a study on mental health, the use of transition phrases can strengthen the main point:

“The research highlights the importance of mental health. **In addition**, it emphasizes the role of social support in recovery.”

b. Contrast and Comparison

This category helps present differences or similarities between two ideas or concepts. In comparative analysis, using transitional phrases such as *on the other hand, in contrast, similarly, and likewise* allows readers to understand comparative relationships more clearly. For example: “Some studies suggest that social media improves communication. **On the other hand**, it can also contribute to social isolation.”

c. Consequence and Cause-Effect

Transitions in this category indicate cause-and-effect relationships between ideas. Frequently used transitional phrases

include *as a result*, *consequently*, *due to this*, *because of this*, *therefore*, and *thus*. Example: “The company failed to adapt to market trends. **As a result**, its revenue declined significantly.”

d. Illustration and Example

These transitions provide examples or illustrations of a discussed idea. Examples include *for example*, *for instance*, *to illustrate*, and *as an illustration*. Example: “Several countries have implemented policies to reduce carbon emissions. **For instance**, Sweden has invested heavily in renewable energy.”

e. Sequence & Chronology

This category is used to indicate the sequence of time or steps in a process. Phrases such as *first of all*, *next*, *then*, *finally*, *subsequently*, *afterward*, and *meanwhile* are commonly found in procedural texts, laboratory reports, and historical narratives. For example, in a laboratory experiment report, these transitional phrases help clarify the procedural flow: ***First of all***, *the data must be collected*. ***Next***, *it should be analysed to determine trends*.

With a clear structure, readers can more easily understand the steps that need to be followed.

f. Summarizing & Conclusion

This category is used to summarize or conclude the ideas that have been discussed. Phrases such as *in conclusion*, *to summarize*, *in short*, *to sum up*, and *on the whole* are often used in the closing sections of academic and professional writing. Their use is essential in leaving a strong final impression on the reader. For example: ***In conclusion***, *effective leadership plays a crucial role in organizational success*. This allows readers to grasp the main point of the discussion presented earlier.”

g. Intensification

This category is used to emphasize or reinforce an idea. Phrases such as *indeed*, *absolutely*, *certainly*, *without a doubt*, and *unquestionably* provide additional emphasis in academic arguments. For instance, in a scientific discussion on climate change: “*The findings of the study are **unquestionably significant** for future research.*” By using these phrases, the writer reinforces that the research findings are highly important and cannot be overlooked.

h. Clarification & Explanation

This category is used to clarify or restate an idea in a more explicit way. Phrases such as *in other words*, *to clarify*, *that is*, and *to put it another way* are often used in academic texts to avoid ambiguity. For example: “*The policy aims to reduce traffic congestion. **In other words**, it seeks to encourage the use of public transportation.*” The use of these transitional phrases helps readers better understand the essence of the discussed policy. By understanding these various categories of transitional phrases, writers can improve the quality of their writing by building better coherence between ideas. Each category serves a specific function in helping readers clearly and effectively understand the relationships between different ideas.

20.4. EFFECTIVE APPLICATION OF TRANSITIONAL PHRASES

Proper integration of transitional phrases is key to enhancing textual cohesion. However, misuse or overuse may disrupt the flow of writing.

Consider the difference between these two passage:

- 1) The experiment was conducted. The data were analysed. The findings were definitive.

- 2) The experiment was conducted. As a result, the data were analysed, and consequently, the findings were definitive.

The first passage lacks transitional phrases. While grammatically correct, it presents the sentences as isolated statements with no clear logical connection. As a result, the text feels abrupt and disjointed. On the other hand, the second passage overuses transitional phrases. Although transitions help improve coherence, excessive use can make the writing feel forced and repetitive. In this case, both "As a result" and "Consequently" indicate cause and effect, making one of them redundant. Streamlining transitions ensures a smoother, more natural flow.

Other common errors include:

- a. Excessive reliance on transitional signals, resulting in redundancy.

Excessive reliance on transitional signals (redundancy) happens when too many transitions are used, making writing unnecessarily wordy and repetitive. The key is to use transitions only when they add clarity, rather than forcing them into every sentence.

For instance: "Online education has become increasingly popular in recent years. **Moreover**, many universities now offer fully online degree programs. **Additionally**, students appreciate the flexibility of studying at their own pace. **Besides that**, online learning allows access to a wide range of resources. **What's more**, advancements in technology have made virtual classrooms more interactive and engaging."

The paragraph feels cluttered because nearly every sentence begins with a transition, many of which serve the same function.

Revised (Correct - Clear and Concise)

“Online education has become increasingly popular in recent years, and many universities now offer fully online degree programs. **Additionally**, students appreciate the flexibility of studying at their own pace, while online learning provides access to a wide range of resources. Advances in technology have also made virtual classrooms more interactive and engaging.”

In this case, the revised version removes unnecessary transitions while maintaining a smooth flow of ideas.

b. Inappropriate Transition Phrase

Inappropriate selection of transition signals can lead to unclear relationships between ideas. Choosing the wrong transitional word can confuse the reader and obscure the logical connection between ideas. For example: (Incorrect - Inappropriate Transition Phrase)

“The government has implemented stricter environmental regulations. On the contrary, as a result of this decision, many companies have adopted greener practices.”

→ “On the contrary” suggests contrast, but the second sentence actually supports the first.

Revised (Correct - Proper Transition Phrase):

The government has implemented stricter environmental regulations. As a result, many companies have adopted greener practices.

→ “As a result” correctly indicates cause and effect.

c. Inclusion of informal or colloquial transitions in academic discourse.

Informal transitional phrases can make academic writing sound conversational or unprofessional.

Example (**Incorrect**):

Many students struggle with time management. Anyways, setting a schedule can help.

→ “Anyways” is too informal for academic writing.

Revised (**Correct**):

Many students struggle with time management. Nevertheless, setting a schedule can help.

→ “Nevertheless” is more appropriate for formal writing.

To gain a deeper understanding of the use of *transitional words and phrases*, the following exercises can be completed:

20.5. EXERCISES

EXERCISE 1. MULTIPLE CHOICE: IDENTIFYING TRANSITIONAL WORDS AND PHRASES

Instruction: Choose the *transitional word and phrase* that best fits the sentence.

1. _____ the research was conducted thoroughly, some variables were not controlled.
 - a) In contrast
 - b) Even though
 - c) As a result
 - d) Moreover
2. The new policy was implemented last month. _____, employees have reported increased productivity.
 - a) On the other hand
 - b) As a result
 - c) However
 - d) In contrast
3. The data supports our hypothesis. _____, further investigation is needed to confirm the findings.
 - a) Therefore
 - b) Nevertheless

- c) Similarly
 - d) In other words
4. The two theories share some similarities. _____, they also have key differences.
- a) In addition
 - b) On the other hand
 - c) For example
 - d) Consequently
5. The company has expanded its market overseas. _____, it has seen a significant increase in revenue.
- a) Meanwhile
 - b) Thus
 - c) In contrast
 - d) Similarly

EXERCISE 2. WRITING: USING TRANSITIONAL WORDS AND PHRASES EFFECTIVELY

Instructions:

Write a short paragraph that demonstrates logical flow and coherence. Use transitional word and phrases where necessary, but avoid overuse. Focus on making the connections between ideas clear and natural.

Example Answer:

Technology has significantly transformed education by making learning more accessible. For instance, online platforms allow students to attend classes from anywhere, breaking geographical barriers. Additionally, digital tools help teachers create interactive lessons that enhance engagement. However, excessive screen time can negatively affect students' concentration and well-being. Therefore, schools should integrate technology thoughtfully, balancing its benefits with potential challenges.

EXERCISE 3. CORRECTING INCORRECT USE OF TRANSITIONAL WORDS AND PHRASES

Instruction: Read the paragraph below and identify any incorrect or awkward use of *transitional phrases*. Rewrite the paragraph to improve its coherence.

Example:

Incorrect Version:

The company launched a new product last month. **In contrast**, sales have increased significantly. **Meanwhile**, customers have provided positive feedback. **Nevertheless**, the product is still facing some minor technical issues. **Therefore**, the company plans to release an update soon.

Corrected Version:

The company launched a new product last month. **As a result**, sales have increased significantly. **Furthermore**, customers have provided positive feedback. **However**, the product is still facing some minor technical issues. **Therefore**, the company plans to release an update soon.

Practice!

1. Social media has changed the way people communicate. On the other hand, it allows users to stay connected with friends and family. As a result, some people feel pressured to always be online. Nevertheless, spending too much time on social media can be harmful to mental health. Meanwhile, setting time limits can help maintain a healthy balance.
2. Reading books is a great way to gain knowledge. On the contrary, many people prefer watching videos for information. In addition, reading improves vocabulary and comprehension skills. As a result, it can help students perform better in school. To conclude, developing a reading habit has many benefits.

20.6. CONCLUSION

Transitional words and phrases serve as essential tools in written communication, bridging ideas, enhancing coherence, and guiding readers through the logical progression of a text. Throughout this chapter, we have explored the fundamental concepts of transitional words and phrases, their primary categories, and practical applications in various academic and professional writing contexts. Understanding how and when to use these elements effectively is crucial for writers aiming to produce clear, structured, and engaging texts. The appropriate use of transition words and phrases helps establish relationships between sentences and paragraphs, making ideas flow more smoothly. Without them, writing can appear disjointed, making it challenging for readers to follow the intended message. Conversely, overuse or misuse of transitions can lead to redundancy or confusion, emphasizing the importance of a balanced and context-appropriate application. In academic writing, transitions contribute to the development of well-organized arguments by linking evidence, contrasting viewpoints, and reinforcing key points. In professional settings, such as business reports, research papers, and official correspondence, they help ensure clarity, professionalism, and persuasiveness.

As writing continues to evolve in digital and multimedia contexts, the role of transition words remains significant in shaping structured and coherent narratives. By integrating these elements strategically, writers can enhance the readability of their texts, making them more compelling and accessible. Therefore, continuous practice and awareness of transitional expressions will enable individuals to refine their writing skills and convey their thoughts with greater precision and impact.

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THE RULES OF INTERMEDIATE ENGLISH GRAMMAR

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