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Sebagai Penulis Buku Materi Pembelajaran Bahasa Inggris terhitung sejak tanggal 20 Mei s/d 09 September 2021.

Demikian surat tugas ini dibuat agar dapat dilaksanakan dengan sebaik-baiknya.

Jakarta, 09 September 2021
Lembaga Pengembangan Kepribadian dan Karakter
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PREFACE

First of all, we thank Jesus Christ, the Son of Man, for giving us health and opportunity in finishing this module. Studying English is more like a process than an instant product. Further learning after one process is finished will give a wider point-of-view about the knowledge.

This English Module is a textbook for the first semester students of the Nationality Course at Christian University of Indonesia (UKI). The module discusses Noun, Verb, Pronoun, Adjective, Adverbs, Present Tense and Past Tense.

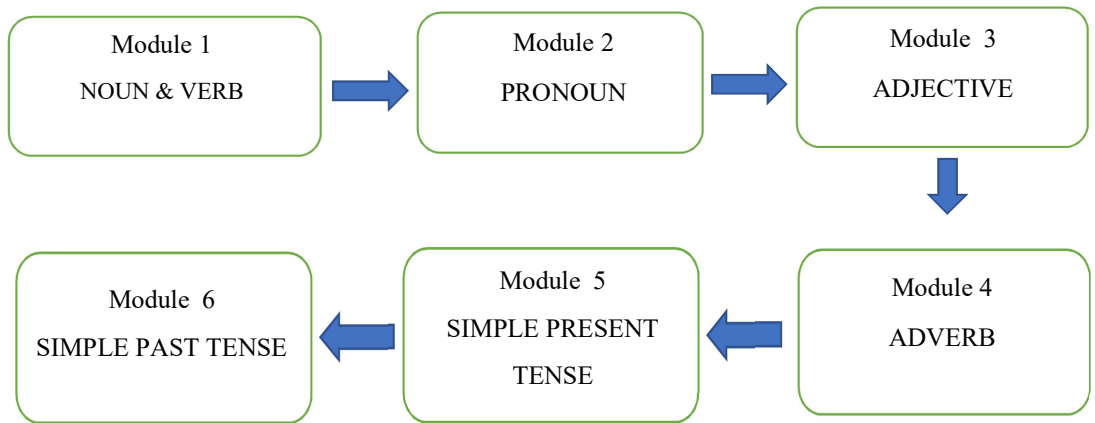
This English module consists of 7 (seven) modules and is worth 2 (two) course credits. Each module discusses theories and exercises on Noun, Verb, Pronoun, Adjective, Adverbs, Present Tense and Past Tense.

We hereby present this English module to the entire academic community of the Christian University of Indonesia (UKI), hopefully this module will be useful for the self-development and character building of students at UKI.

Jakarta, August 20, 2021

English module writing team

ENGLISH SUBJECT COMPETENCY MAP/2 SKS



How To Use The Module

1. Learn all of the chapters in this module.
2. Do The Exercise in this module.
3. If you don't completely understand the material, ask your lecturer!

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MODULE 1

NOUN & VERB

A. Introduction

Based on <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Noun>, Nouns have sometimes been defined in terms of the grammatical categories to which they are subject (classed by gender, inflected for case and number). Such definitions tend to be language-specific, since nouns do not have the same categories in all languages.

Nouns are frequently defined, particularly in informal contexts, in terms of their semantic properties (their meanings). Nouns are described as words that refer to a *person, place, thing, event, substance, quality, quantity*, etc. However this type of definition has been criticized by contemporary linguists as being uninformative.

There have been offered several examples of English-language nouns which do not have any reference: *drought, enjoyment, finesse, behalf* (as found in *on behalf of*), *dint* (*in dint of*), and *sake* (*for the sake of*). Moreover, there may be a relationship similar to reference in the case of other parts of speech: the verbs *to rain* or *to mother*; many adjectives, like *red*; and there is little difference between the adverb *gleefully* and the noun-based phrase *with glee*. There are placeholder names, such as the legal fiction *reasonable person* (whose existence is not in question), an experimental artifact, or personifications such as *gremlin*.

Linguists often prefer to define nouns (and other lexical categories) in terms of their formal properties. These include morphological information, such as what prefixes or suffixes they take, and also their syntax – how they combine with other words and expressions of particular types. Such definitions may nonetheless still be language-specific since syntax as well as morphology varies between languages. For example, in English, it might be noted that nouns are words that can co-occur with definite articles (as stated at the start of this article), but this would not apply in Russian, which has no definite articles. There have been several attempts, sometimes controversial, to produce a stricter definition of nouns on a semantic basis.

Based on <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Verb>, A **verb** (from Latin *verbum* 'word') is a word (part of speech) that in syntax conveys an action (*bring, read, walk, run, learn*), an occurrence (*happen, become*), or a state of being (*be, exist, stand*). In the usual description of English, the basic form, with or without the particle *to*, is the infinitive. In many languages, verbs are inflected (modified in form) to encode tense, aspect, mood, and voice. A verb may also agree with the person, gender or number of some of its arguments, such as its subject, or object. Verbs have tenses: present, to indicate that an action is being carried out; past, to indicate that an action has been done; future, to indicate that an action will be done. In languages where the verb is inflected, it often agrees with its primary argument (the subject) in person, number or gender. With the exception of the verb to be, English shows distinctive agreements only in the third person singular, present tense form of verbs, which are marked by adding "-s" (walks) or "-es" (fishes). The rest of the persons are not distinguished in the verb (I walk, you walk, they walk, etc.).

Latin and the Romance languages inflect verbs for tense–aspect–mood (abbreviated 'TAM'), and they agree in person and number (but not in gender, as for example in Polish) with the subject. Japanese, like many languages with SOV word order, inflects verbs for tense–aspect–mood, as well as other categories such as negation, but shows absolutely no agreement with the subject - it is a strictly dependent-marking language. On the other hand, Basque, Georgian, and some other languages, have poly personal agreement: the verb agrees with the subject, the direct object, and even the secondary object if present, a greater degree of head-marking than is found in most European languages.

B. Short Explanation

Topic on this module is about Noun & Verb in general. From this module, students will understand:

- The definition of noun
- Types of nouns and also the definition
- How to use each of the noun in the sentence
- The definition of verb
- Types of verbs and also the definition

- How to use each of the verb in the sentence

Through this module, students will understand about the noun & verb basically.

C. Learning Outcomes

After learning this module, students can identify noun words, verb and use them in a sentence, not only through listening, but also talking, reading and writing. Students can also use the noun words properly in a affirmative sentence, negative sentence and question. Students can also know and understand the types of nouns and how to use each of them in a sentence.

D. Competency Prerequisite: none

E. The Use Of The Module 1

By learning and understand this module, students as a foreign language learner, can use the noun words properly, identify types of nouns, can answer questions that related with nouns.

This module will come in handy to help the students understand materials about nouns and help them in understanding the nouns through questions.

LEARNING ACTIVITY 1

A. Definition and Function

Nouns make up the largest class of words in most languages, including English. A noun is a word that refers to a thing (book), a person (Betty Crocker), an animal (cat), a place (Omaha), a quality (softness), an idea (justice), or an action (yodeling). It's usually a single word, but not always: cake, shoes, school bus, and time and a half are all nouns.

Noun is a word used to name people, objects, animals, places, and abstract concepts. Nouns are one of the eight parts of speech.

In a sentence the noun can function as:

Function	Example
Subject of Verb	Benny has read the book for 8 hours. (Benny telah membaca buku selama 8 jam).
Subject/Object Complement	He is a mechanic. (Pria seorang mekanik.) Subject complement.
	They call her grand ma. (Mereka memanggilnya nenek) object complement.
Direct/Indirect Object	You can come in now. (Kamu dapat masuk sekarang) direct object.
	I gave him some advice. (saya memberinya beberapa nasehat.) Indirect object.
Object of Preposition	I was listening to the radio when my mom called. (saya sedang mendengarkan radio ketika ibu saya menelepon).

Table 1.1 Function Of Noun

B. Kinds of Noun

1. Countable and Uncountable

Countable is a noun that can be counted, otherwise uncountable cannot be counted. Countable nouns refer to items that can be counted, even if the number might be extraordinarily high (like counting all the people in the world, for example). Countable nouns can be used with articles such as a/an and the or quantifiers such as a few and many. Uncountable nouns are nouns that come in a state or quantity that is impossible to count; liquids are uncountable, as are things that act like liquids (sand, air). Abstract ideas like

creativity or courage are also uncountable. Uncountable nouns are always considered to be singular, and can stand alone or be used with some, any, a little, and much.

COUNTABLE NOUN		UNCOUNTABLE NOUN
Singular	Plural	
Car	Cars	Air
Melon	Melons	Milk
Woman	Women	Salt

Table 1.2 Countable and Uncountable Noun

There are three noteworthy issues related to countable and non-countable nouns.

(Issue 1) Use *fewer* with plurals and *less* with non-countable nouns.

Fewer. Use *fewer* when referring to people or things in the plural (e.g., *soldiers, lawyers, dogs, pies, clouds*).

- A low voter turnout is an indication of **fewer** people going to the polls. ✓ (Politician Dan Quayle)
- One merit of poetry few will deny: it says more and in **fewer** words than prose. ✓ (French writer Voltaire)
- Our perfect companions never have **fewer** than four feet. ✓ (French novelist Sidonie Gabrielle Colette)

(Here, *feet* is the plural of a foot with toes. If it referred to the distance, then *less than* should have been used. There's more on this below.)

Less. There's a quirk. Use *less than* (as opposed to *fewer than*) with numbers used with times and measurements.

- Unemployed? You can get a great job in **less** than three months. How? Learn to program. ✓ (Author Tucker Max)
- Butterflies cannot fly if their body temperature is **less** than 86 degrees. ✓

Use *less* with non-countable nouns (e.g., *money, smoke, time, furniture, snow*).

- All of this talk of recession offends me. I am delighted that bankers have **less** money. ✓ (Actor Chris O'Dowd)
- It takes **less** time to do a thing right than to explain why you did it wrong. ✓ (US poet Henry Wadsworth Longfellow)

It has to be said that these rules are blurring. Few people would raise an eyebrow at *less* being used with a plural noun, and even fewer would challenge *less* being used with a number that doesn't quantify a date or a measurement. For now though, especially in written work, stick to the rules.

(Issue 2) Be careful with "number of," "amount of," and "quantity of."

Writers are sometimes unsure whether to use "number of," "amount of," or "quantity of." Let's start with the easy one, "number of."

Number Of. "Number of" is used with plural (and therefore countable) nouns.

- The grand aim of all science is to cover the greatest **number of** empirical facts by logical deduction from the smallest **number of** hypotheses or axioms. ✓ (Albert Einstein)

(The words *facts, hypotheses, and axioms* are all plural nouns.)

- The first [US] census in 1790 asked just six questions: the name of the head of the household, the **number of** free white males older than 16, the **number of** free white males younger than 16, the **number of** free white females, the **number of** other free persons, and the number of slaves. ✓ (Author Tom Palmer)

(The words *males, females, persons, and slaves* are all plural nouns.) Mistakes with "number of" are rare.

Amount Of. "Amount of" is used with non-countable nouns. It is particularly well suited to concepts that are not easily measured.

- He holds a certain **amount of** disdain towards her. ✓
(*Disdain* is a non-countable noun, and it's not easily measured.)
- The one thing I regret is that my work required an enormous **amount of** travel. ✓
(Astronaut Neil Armstrong)
(*Travel* is a non-countable noun, and it's not easily measured.)
- No **amount of** experimentation can ever prove me right; a single experiment can prove me wrong. ✓ (Theoretical physicist Albert Einstein)
(*Experimentation* is a non-countable noun, and it's not easily measured.)

The next example is wrong.

- The **amount of** women in London who flirt with their own husbands is perfectly scandalous. It looks so bad. It is simply washing one's clean linen in public. ✗ (Playwright Oscar Wilde)
(*Women* is plural. It's a countable noun. This should be *The number of women*.)

Quantity Of. "Quantity of" is used with countable and non-countable nouns. It fits particularly well with concepts that can be measured (especially inanimate ones).

- Greatness is an unusual **quantity of** a usual quality grafted upon a common man. ✓ (US politician William Allen White)
(*Quality* is a countable noun. A quality is measurable and it's inanimate.)

Unlike "amount of" and "number of," the expression "quantity of" carries a [connotation](#) of accuracy.

- When women and men can shed an equal **quantity of** tears in public, that's when we'll have equal power. ✓ (US ambassador Madeleine Kunin)

(*Tears* is a countable noun. Even though tears are difficult to count or measure, *quantity of* works well here because of the connotation of accuracy.)

- The strength and power of a country depends absolutely on the **quantity of** good men and women in it. ✓ (Victorian art critic John Ruskin)

(*Quantity of* works well here because of the connotation of accuracy. Somewhat ironically, *quantity of* puts more focus on the number than *number of*.)

Let's keep examining this idea that "quantity of" is used with something measurable. The term "amount of sleep" is far more common than "quantity of sleep" because we tend to talk about the quality of sleep, which is a difficult thing to measure.

- Those who succeed seem to need a stupefying **amount of** sleep. ✓ (Actor Quentin Crisp)

However, some do quantify sleep by measuring it in hours.

- Lifestyle factors such as work schedules and stress affect the **quantity of** your sleep. ✓

(This line is from the National Sleep Foundation, which talks a lot about hours of sleep.)

Too complicated? If you're still unsure whether to "use amount of" or "quantity of" because you can't decide whether your singular, inanimate concept is measurable or not, then you might be able to avoid the issue by forcing a plural and rewording.

2. Proper and Common

Proper uses the capital letter in the initial letter (Bekasi, Gunung Agung). Common noun means general (country, lake). A proper noun is a specific, unique person, place, thing, or idea. Unlike common nouns, proper nouns are almost always capitalized. This is true whether they begin a sentence or not. A common noun is the general, non-specific term for a person, place, thing, or idea.

Usually, common nouns are not capitalized unless they begin a sentence. For example, as you work on your homework, think about the things you are using. You might be using a computer, a textbook, or a pencil.

Proper nouns contrast with common nouns, which are the words **for** something (e.g., *boy, dog, city, day*). Common nouns are written with a capital letter only when they start a sentence. Remember that everything we can see or discuss is represented by a word that names it. That word is called a noun. All nouns can be categorized into one of two groups: common nouns and proper nouns. This entry is about proper nouns, but it is worth learning about proper nouns and common nouns at the same time. All of these are generic items that we encounter on a regular basis and are common nouns.

3. Abstract dan Concrete

Abstract cannot be observed with the five senses (hate, eager). Concrete can be observed with the five senses (car, motorcycle). A concrete noun identifies something material and non-abstract, such as a chair, a house, or an automobile. Think about everything you can experience with your five senses: smell, touch, sight, hearing, or taste. A strawberry milkshake that tastes sweet and feels cold is an example of a concrete noun. An abstract noun identifies something immaterial and abstract, such as rest, dread, or transportation. Think about something you can describe but do not experience with your five senses. Sure, you might be able to feel the rubber basketball as it leaves your hand and hear it “whoosh” through the net. You may be able to see your score on your test and feel the weight of the paper in your hands, but none of these senses can fully capture the meaning of these abstract nouns.

It is not always easy to differentiate between an abstract noun and a concrete noun, and it is not unusual for students to argue over whether a noun is abstract or concrete. For example, "laughter" is often cited as an abstract noun, but "laughter" can be heard, which would make it a concrete noun. We would agree that "laughter" is a concrete noun, but what about "love," "work," and "result"? It is fairly easy to make cases for these being concrete nouns, but they are classified as abstract nouns. Be aware that the distinction between abstract noun and concrete noun is sometimes blurry.

Also, be aware that classifying a noun as abstract or concrete may depend on context or even the classifier's definition of perceivable. Look at these two examples:

- Working for Disney was a childhood **dream** come true. (American actress Brittany Curran) (In this context, "dream" is an abstract noun with a meaning similar to "hope.")

- When I was a little kid, I used to have a vivid recurring **dream** about Captain Hook. (American actress Cristin Milioti) (In this context, "dream" does not mean "hope." Here, "dream" could be classified as a concrete noun, especially if you think a dream is perceived via your senses.)

4. Collective Noun

Collective states the name of a group or group (community, neighbourhood). A collective noun is a word or phrase that refers to a group of people or things as one entity. One common error that arises from using collective nouns is subject-verb disagreement: writers often become confused about whether to treat a collective noun as singular or plural. While collective nouns are mostly treated as singular, there are exceptions.

Collective nouns represent more than one person or thing in a class. It isn't possible to have just one lion in a pride, and a single flower does not make a bouquet. Thus, a collective noun always describes a plurality of one kind or another.

Singular or Plural? Writers are sometimes unsure whether to treat a collective noun as singular or plural. In fact, a collective noun can be singular or plural depending on the sense of the sentence. For example:

- That team **is** the worst in the league. ✓

(Here, the collective noun "team" is treated as singular.)

- The team **are** not communicating among themselves. ✓

(This time, "team" is treated as plural because the focus is on the individuals within the team.)

A collective noun is the word used to represent a group of people, animals, or things. "Group," "team," and "crowd" are examples of collective nouns. You should match your collective noun with a singular verb (e.g., the group **is**, the team **believes**, the crowd **was** moving) unless the context of your sentence makes a singular verb seem awkward or wrong. Therefore, a collective noun can be singular or plural depending on the sense of the sentence. Look at this example:

- The shoal **was** moving north. ✓

(Here, the shoal is considered as a single unit; therefore, "shoal" is singular.)

However, on occasion, the context means that singular verb feels wrong:

- The shoal **were** darting in all directions. ✓

(In this example, "shoal" is treated as plural because the context puts the focus on the individuals within the group.)

To simplify matters, a word for the individuals within the group can be introduced. In the first example below, it is necessary to decide whether the collective noun "jury" should be singular or plural. However, by adding "members of," you are forced to use a plural verb.

- The jury **is/are** to convene at 4 o'clock.

(With this example, the writer must decided whether to treat "jury" as singular or plural.)

- The members of the jury **are** to convene at 4 o'clock. ✓

(With "the members" added, no decision is required – the verb must be plural.)

5. Noun Phrase and Compound Noun

Apart from being a simple form consisting of only one word, a noun may be in the form of a phrase which is a noun phrase where it is the result of a combination of noun (as head) and a modifier such as determiner (a, an, the, this, that, my, his, her, such, each, every), adverb (too, very, so), adjective (beautiful, funny, interesting, lovely), and other nouns.

Example:

- a bank
- this cat
- my can
- such a lovely diary

A noun phrase is a group of words that work together to name and describe a person, place, thing, or idea. When we look at the structure of writing, we treat a noun phrase the same way we treat a common noun.

Like all nouns, a noun phrase can be a subject, object, or complement.

- **Singing in the bath** relaxes me.

(Here, the noun phrase is the subject of the verb "relaxes.")

- I know **the back streets**.

(Here, the noun phrase is the direct object of the verb "know.")

- She was **the devil in disguise**.

(Here, the noun phrase is a subject complement following the linking verb "was.")

Nouns may also collaborate with nouns or other parts of speech such as verbs, prepositional phrases, or adjectives to form words with new meanings called compound nouns.

Combination	Compound Noun Example
noun + noun	newspaper, boardmarker
noun + verb	wordplay, teardrop
noun + prepositional phrase	father-in-law, passer-by
adjective + noun	blackboard, redhead

Table 1.3 Compound Noun

A compound noun is a noun that is made with two or more words. A compound noun is usually [noun + noun] or [adjective + noun], but there are other combinations (see below). It is important to understand and recognize compound nouns. Each compound noun acts as a single unit and can be modified by adjectives and other nouns.

There are three forms for compound nouns:

- open or spaced - space between words (tennis shoe)
- hyphenated - hyphen between words (six-pack)
- closed or solid - no space or hyphen between words (bedroom)

When writing a compound noun, use the one-word version if it exists. If it doesn't, use the hyphenated version if it exists. If it doesn't, use the two-word version, but consider the hyphenated version if it eliminates ambiguity or helps your readers. Form the plural of a two-word or hyphenated compound noun by pluralizing the principal word.

- My brothers-in-law were both stung when the Portuguese men-of-war entered in the swimming area.

With a compound noun like *mother-in-law*, add 's to create the possessive form (regardless of whether it's singular or plural).

- To protect her sister-in-law's business, she asked the bank to freeze her sons-in-law's bank accounts.

C. Noun Substitute

Is a construction that functions as a noun, namely: gerund, infinitive, and noun clause.

1. Gerund (verb + ing) and Infinitive (to + verb)

Gerund is formed from the simple form of verb (bare infinitive) with suffix -ing, while the infinitive consists of the particle to and simpler form of the verb. Even though they function as nouns, gerunds and infinitives still behave like verbs, for example, they can be accompanied by direct objects, adverbs, or prepositional phrases.

Example:

1	She loves reading (wanita itu suka membaca) gerund (direct object)
---	---

2	She loves reading in the backyard. (wanita itu suka membaca dibelakang rumah) gerund + prepositional phrase "in the backyard"
3	She needs to hear that (wanita itu perlu mendengarkan ini) infinitive (direct object)
4	She just wants to discuss with you (wanita itu hanya ingin berdiskusi denganmu) infinitive + prepositional phrase "to you"

Table 1.4 Gerund

All gerunds end "-ing." A gerund is a noun formed from a verb (e.g., **running** quickly, **guessing** a number, **baking** cakes). Here are some examples of gerunds in sentences.

- **Running** the tap will clear the air pocket.
(This is formed from the verb "to run.")
- She is known for **talking** quietly.
(This is formed from the verb "to talk.")
- My highlight was **visiting** New York.
(This is formed from the verb "to visit.")

Be careful. Not every word that ends "-ing" is a gerund. Present participles are formed from verbs and they also end "-ing." In fact, the present participle of a verb and the gerund are always identical. The difference is how they are used. Gerunds are used like nouns, but present participles are used as adjectives or to form verb tenses. For example:

- I like **baking**.

(This is a gerund.)

- I need some baking powder.

(This is a present participle used as an adjective.)

- She was baking a cake.

(This is a present participle used to form the past progressive tense.)

Gerunds are different to other nouns because they maintain some of their verb-like properties. More specifically, gerunds can take direct objects and be modified by adverbs. This makes them useful for writing concise sentences that flow naturally.

- The quick development of the process is essential.

(This eight-word sentence is clunky. There is no gerund.)

- Quickly **developing** the process is essential.

(In this six-word sentence, a gerund has been modified by the adverb "quickly" and has the direct object "the process." It is two words shorter than the first example and more natural sounding.)

2. Noun Clause

A noun clause is a dependent clause that acts as a noun. Noun clauses begin with words such as how, that, what, whatever, when, where, whether, which, whichever, who, whoever, whom, whomever, and why. Noun clauses can act as subjects, direct objects, indirect objects, predicate nominatives, or objects of a preposition.

- Whoever smelt it dealt it.

(Here, the noun clause is a subject.)

- My command is whatever you wish.

(Here, the noun clause is a subject complement.)

- I will give what you said some thought.

(Here, the noun clause is an indirect object. That's pretty rare.)

if/whether/that/ question word + S + V + ...

Example:

1	She knows what he meant (wanita itu mengerti apa yang pria itu sampaikan)
2	She wonders if her dad was upset (wanita itu bertanya apakah ayahnya sedih)

Table 1.5 Noun Clause

LEARNING ACTIVITY 2

A. Definition of Verb

Verb is a word that express the subject's action, events or circumstances.

- A physical action (e.g., "to swim," "to write," "to climb").
- A mental action (e.g., "to think," "to guess," "to consider").
- A state of being (e.g., "to be," "to exist," "to appear").

You might find it useful to think of verbs as "doing" words.

B. Kinds of Verb

It can be grouped into: transitive and intransitive, regular and irregular, action and stative, finite and non-finite, causative and linking verbs.

The following is a brief explanation and example sentences.

1. Transitive dan Intransitive

Transitive verb followed by a direct object that takes action from subject, in other words, the action of a transitive verb is done to someone or something. Most verbs are transitive. While an intransitive verb is not because the action the subject does not involve the direct object, in other words, it is not done to someone or something. It only involves the subject.

Example:

Transitive Verb	Intransitive Verb
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• carry• read• throw• receive• play	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• arrive• come• listen• sneeze• work

Table 1.6 Transitive & Intransitive

1	He played the game (Dia bermain permainan itu)
2	He often sneezes while cooking. (Pria itu sering bersin-bersin ketika memasak.)

Table 1.7 Example of Transitive & Intransitive

To find the direct object of a transitive verb, find the verb and ask "what?" or "whom?". If this question seems nonsensical, you're probably dealing with an intransitive verb.

- All the toys **opened their eyes** as the clock **struck midnight**.

(Q: Opened what? A: their eyes)

(Q: Struck what? A: midnight)

(A direct object does not have to be something tangible. If it answers the question "what?" or "whom?" in relation to a verb, then it's a direct object. *Midnight* is intangible, but it's a perfectly good direct object for the verb *to strike*.)

- No amount of time can **erase the memory of a good cat**, and no amount of masking tape can ever totally **remove his fur** from your couch. (Author Leo Buscaglia)
- You **can't get eight cats to pull a sled through snow**. (TV producer Jeff Valdez)

(Q: Can't get what? A: eight cats to pull a sled through snow)

Transitive verbs are common. They even appear inside the direct objects of other transitive verbs.

- I **loathe people who keep dogs**. They are cowards who **haven't got the guts to bite people** themselves.

(Q: Loathe what? A: people who keep dogs)

(Q: Haven't got what? A: the guts to bite people)

(If you look at just the two direct objects in this example (i.e., the texts in bold), there's a transitive verb in each one. Q: Keep what? A: dogs; Q: To bite what? A: people)

Here are some examples of intransitive verbs (shaded).

- **Laugh** and the world **laughs** with you; **snore** and you **sleep** alone. (Writer Anthony Burgess)

(These are all intransitive verbs. You can't laugh something, snore something or sleep something.)

- If the context **changes**, your greatest strength can **emerge** as a weakness. (Cricket commentator Harsha Bhogle)

(These are both intransitive verbs. You can't emerge something, but, hang on, you can change something, e.g., your socks or hairstyle. So, *to change* is an example of a verb that can be transitive or intransitive.)

As we've just seen with *to change*, determining whether a verb is transitive or intransitive can get tricky because some verbs can be both. It depends on the precise meaning. If the verb only involves the subject, it will be intransitive. Let's look at the example again, putting *changes* through the test:

- If the context **changes**, your greatest strength can emerge as a weakness.

(Q: Changes what? A: Well, nothing...it just changes. That's what your answer will look like when you're dealing with an intransitive verb.)

Let's look at a similar example:

- If you **change** the context, your greatest strength can emerge as a weakness.

(Q: Changes what? A: the context. Now, *to change* is transitive!)

Let's do another one:

- I could feel his muscle tissues **crumple** under my force. It's ludicrous these mortals even attempt to enter my realm. (Boxer Mike Tyson)

(Q: Crumple what? A: Nothing...just crumple. Intransitive.)

Let's create a similar but transitive example:

- I could **crumple** his muscle tissues with my force.

(Q: Crumple what? A: his muscle tissues. Transitive.)

As we touched upon with *to change* and *to crumple* in the examples above, some verbs can be transitive or intransitive. Here's a list of common verbs that can be transitive or intransitive with examples.

Verb	Transitive and Intransitive Example
to agree	She agreed my terms . (Transitive) She agreed yesterday. (Intransitive)

to play	She will play the hornpipe . (Transitive) She will play tonight. (Intransitive)
to run	I ran the show . (Transitive) I ran. (Intransitive)
to walk	She is walking the dog . (Transitive) She is walking there. (Intransitive)
to eat	Let's eat pie . (Transitive) Let's eat. (Intransitive)
to demonstrate	She demonstrated her skills . (Transitive) She demonstrated. (Intransitive)
to sit	I sat her on my lap. (Transitive) I sat near the window. (Intransitive)
to stand	I stood the pole under the sheet. (Transitive) I stood for hours. (Intransitive)

Table 1.8 Example of Transitive & Intransitive2

2. Regular and Irregular

Regular verbs are verbs in which the majority of verb-2 and verb-3, which obtained by adding the suffix -ed or -d to the basic form (verb-1). Irregular verbs are more varied. An irregular verb is one that does not form its simple past tense or its past participle by adding "-ed" or "-d" to the base form. Irregular verbs contrast with regular verbs, which form the simple past tense and past participle by adding "-ed" or "-d."

Example:

regular verb	irregular verb
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Play • smash • jump • watch • cook 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • come • meet • run • sing • taste

Table 1.9 Regular & Irregular Verb

1	<p>She smashed the ball hard (wanita itu memukul dengan keras bola itu) regular: smash-smashed-smashed</p>
2	<p>He came on time. (pria itu datang tepat waktu) irregular: come – came – come</p>

Table 1.10 Example of Regular & Irregular Verb

For regular verbs, the "simple past tense" and "past participle" are formed like this:
Add "ed" to most verbs:

- jump > jumped
- paint > painted

If a verb of one syllable ends [consonant-vowel-consonant], double the final consonant and add "ed":

- chat > chatted
- stop > stopped

If the final consonant is "w," "x," or "y," don't double it:

- sew > sewed
- play > played
- fix > fixed

If the last syllable of a longer verb is stressed and ends [consonant-vowel-consonant], double the last consonant and add "ed":

- incur > incurred
- prefer > preferred

If the first syllable of a longer verb is stressed and the verb ends [consonant-vowel-consonant], just add "ed":

- open > opened
- enter > entered
- swallow > swallowed

If the verb ends "e," just add "d":

- thrive > thrived
- guzzle > guzzled

If the verb ends [consonant + "y"], change the "y" to an "i" and add "ed":

- cry > cried
- fry > fried

It is somewhat ironic that the most regularly used verbs in English are irregular. They are:

Base Form	Simple Past Tense	Past Participle
Be	was/were	has been
Come	Came	has come
Get	Got	has got (🇬🇧) gotten (🇺🇸)
Go	Went	has gone

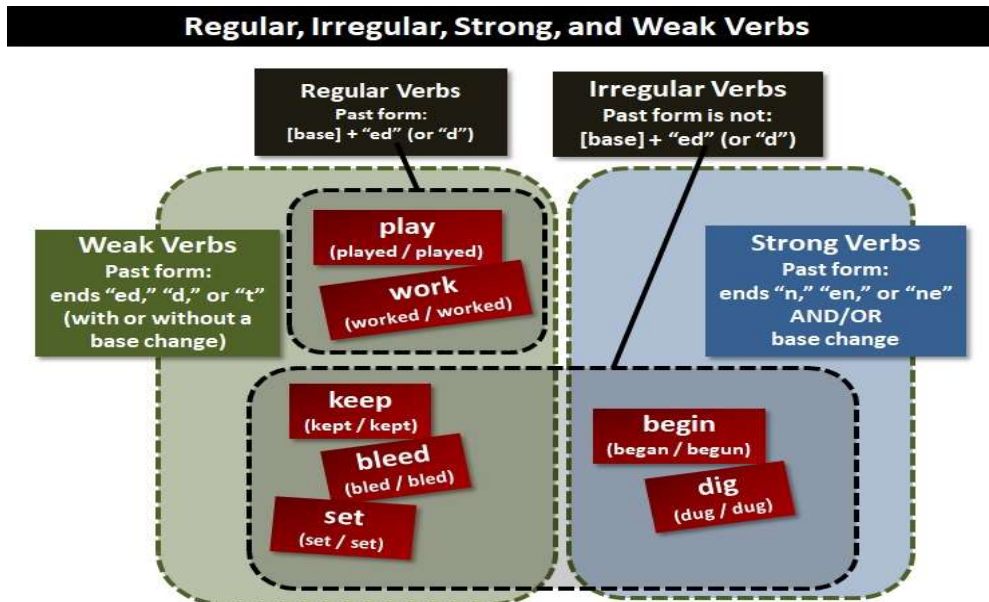
Know	Knew	has known
Make	Made	has made
Say	Said	has said
See	Saw	has seen
Take	Took	has taken
Think	thought	has thought

Table 1.11 Verbs are Irregular

A regular verb is a type of weak verb.

The terms "regular verb" and "weak verb" are not synonyms (i.e., they do not mean the same). Similarly, the terms "irregular verb" and "strong verb" are not synonyms.

Here is an infographic explaining how verbs are classified:



Picture 1.1 Regular, Irregular, Strong, and Weak Verbs

The terms "irregular verb" and "strong verb" are not synonyms (i.e., they do not mean the same). Similarly, the terms "regular verb" and "weak verb" are not synonyms.

3. Action dan Stative

Action verbs are verbs to state that the subject is doing an action or something is happening, while the stative verb is to express conditions that do not change or tend not to change.

Example:

action verb	stative verb
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Drink • sleep • teach • read • work 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • have • love • prefer • seem • owe

Table 1.12 Action and Stative verb

1	They worked hard (Mereka bekerja dengan keras.) action
2	you prefer ice cream to milk. (Kamu lebih suka es krim daripada susu.) stative

Table 1.13 Example of Action and Stative Verb

4. Finite dan Non-Finite

Finite verb is a verb influenced by present or past tense and related with the subject in terms of person (first / second / third) and number (singular / plural), while non-finite verb is not, In other words, you cannot tell if a sentence is in the past tense, present tense, or future tense by looking at a non-finite verb. Therefore, a non-finite verb is never the main verb in a sentence.

The groups of finite verb are: transitive and intransitive verbs, action and stative verbs, linking verbs, and also auxiliary verbs. Non-finite verbs include: present participle (-ing form), past participle (-ed form), infinitive (to + verb), and bare infinitive.

Example:

1	She is walking fast (wanita itu berjalan dengan cepat) finite verb, stative verb
2	The technology growing up in rapid non-finite verb, present participle

Table 1.14 Example of Non-Finite Verbs

A finite verb is always one word. Usually, it will be a standard verb in the past tense (e.g., *played, ate*), a verb in the present tense (e.g., *plays, eats*), or an auxiliary verb in the present or past tense (namely, *am, is, are, was, were, has, have, had, does, do, or did*). But, here's a quirk. When a sentence includes a modal auxiliary verb (e.g., *can, could, may, might, must, ought to, shall, should, will, would*), it is the finite verb in the sentence, even though modal auxiliary verb don't change their forms depending on the subject or the tense. The modal auxiliary verbs are considered finite verbs because they are the first verbs in their verb chains and are immediately followed by bare infinitives.

- You will **pay** for that.

("Will" is the modal auxiliary verb and the finite verb. "Pay" is the bare infinitive.)

- Alfie should **have said** no.

("Should" is the modal auxiliary verb and the finite verb. "Have" is the bare infinitive. "Said" is a past participle.)

- I can **think** whatever I like.

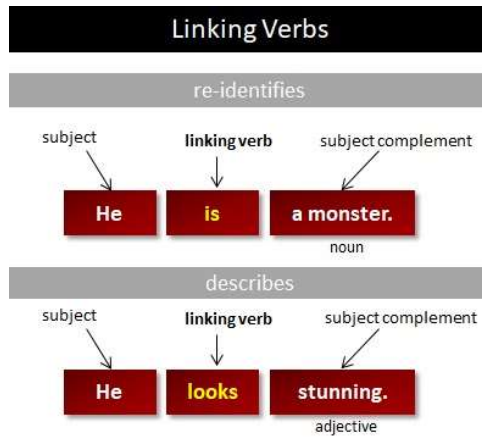
("Can" is the modal auxiliary verb and the finite verb. "Think" is the bare infinitive. "Like" is a finite verb in the present tense with the subject "I." It is common to have more than one finite verb in a sentence. Remember that the main verb in any sentence will always be a finite verb, so there will always be at least one.)

Finite verbs contrast with non-finite verbs. There are three types of non-finite verb:

- **Gerunds**. All gerunds end "-ing." They are nouns formed from verbs.
 - John loves **dancing**.
("Loves" is the finite verb. "Dancing" is a gerund. Note that, unlike "loves," it doesn't have a subject or show tense.)
- **Infinitives**. Most infinitives have "to" before. An infinitive is the basic form of a verb.
 - John hates **to sing**.
("Hates" is the finite verb. "To sing" is an infinitive. Note that, unlike "hates," it doesn't have a subject or show tense.)
- **Participles**. This is the tricky one. There are two types of participle: present participles (ending "-ing") and past participle (usually end "-ed," "-d," "-t," "-en," or "-n"). Participles can either function as adjectives (e.g., **cooking** oil) or follow a finite verb to help with tense (e.g., John was **cooking** dinner.).
 - John fixed the **broken** fence.
("Fixed" is the finite verb. "Broken" is a past participle functioning as an adjective. Note that, unlike "fixed," it doesn't have a subject or show tense.)
 - John was **fixing** it.
("Was" is the finite verb. "Fixing" is a present participle helping to create the past progressive tense. Note that, unlike "was," it doesn't have a subject of its own or give us any clue whether we're talking about the past tense, present tense, or future tense.)

5. Linking Verb

Linking verb connects subject of sentences with their descriptions. A linking verb is used to re-identify or to describe its subject. A linking verb is called a linking verb because it links the subject to a subject complement.



Picture 1.2 Linking Verbs

Example:

- | |
|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Feel • look • smell • sound • taste • become • continue • grow • seem • be (am, is, are, was, were, be, been, being) |
|---|

Table 1.15 Example of Linking Verbs

1	We are old and grumpy (kami tua dan suka menggerutu.)
---	--

2	He looks sad. (Pria itu terlihat sedih)
---	--

Table 1.16 Example of Linking Verbs2

The word, phrase, or clause that follows a linking verb to re-identify or describe the subject is called the subject complement. In these next four examples, everything after the linking verb is the subject complement. Also note that a subject complement functions as either an adjective (when it describes) or a noun (when it re-identifies).

- **He** seems drunk.
(Here, the subject complement describes. It is an adjective.)
- **The soup** tastes too garlicky to eat.
(Here, the subject complement describes. It is an adjective phrase.)
- **His proposal** is madness.
(Here, the subject complement re-identifies. It is a noun.)
- **Jenny** is a star of the future.
(Here, the subject complement re-identifies. It is a noun phrase.)

Linking verbs do not express actions. The verbs "to be," "to become," and "to seem" are always linking verbs. However, some verbs can be linking verbs or non-linking verbs depending on the context.

- **Tony** always smells like the soup.
(Here, "smells" is a linking verb. It describes "Tony," the subject.)
- Tony always smells the soup.
(Here, "smells" is not a linking verb. Remember that a linking verb does not express an action.)
- **He** felt sick when he felt the heat.

(Here, the first "felt" is a linking verb, but the second "felt" isn't.)

6. Active Verb

Active verb shows that the subject makes someone or something do an action. Let, make, have, and get are some of the most popular Active verbs.

An active sentence is the opposite of a passive sentence. In an active sentence, the subject performs the action of the main verb. In a passive sentence, the action of the main verb is done to the subject.



Picture 1.3 Active Sentence

Example:

1	He makes me call her (pria itu membuat saya menelepon wanita itu.)
2	He had his car washed yesterday (mobil pria itu dicuci minggu lalu)

Table 1. 17 Example of Active Sentence

In these examples of active sentences, note that the subjects (shaded text) are performing the actions of the verbs (bolded text).

- The dog **ate** the biscuits.

(Here, *the dog* is the subject of the sentence. *The dog* is the subject of the verb *ate*. *The dog* is performing the action of the verb.)

- Curiosity **killed** the cat.

(*Curiosity* (the subject) is performing the action of *killed* (the main verb).)

- Hammerhead sharks **will pester** you as you approach the reef.

(*Hammerhead sharks* (the subject) is performing the action of *will pester* (the main verb).)

- Some weasel **removed** the cork from my lunch. (Comedian WC Fields)

(*Some weasel* (the subject) is performing the action of *removed* (the main verb).)

In these passive versions of the same sentences, note that the subjects (shaded text) are not performing the actions of the verbs (bolded text). The actions are being done to the subjects.

- The biscuits **were eaten** by the dog.

(Here, *the biscuits* is the subject of the sentence. *The biscuits* is the subject of the verb *were eaten*, but *the biscuits* is not performing the action of the verb. In fact, the action of the verb is being done to *the biscuits*. Therefore, this is a passive sentence not an active one.)

- The cat **was killed** by curiosity.

(The action of *was killed* (the main verb) is being done to *the cat* (the subject).)

- You **will be pestered** by hammerhead sharks as you approach the reef.

(The action of *will be pestered* (the main verb) is being done to *you* (the subject).)

- The cork **was removed** from my lunch by some weasel.

(The action of *was removed* (the main verb) is being done to *the cork* (the subject).)

C. Phrasal Verb

Verbs are not always *simple* in a word form, but also in phrases called phrasal verbs. The phrase is the result of a combination with adverbs (adverbs) and / or prepositions (prepositions). Some phrasal verbs have the meaning of which can be guessed from each of the constituent words, while some others do not because they mean expressions.

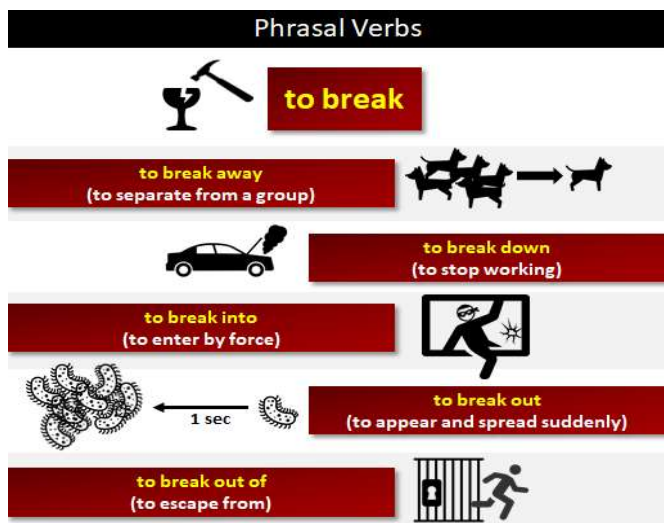
Example:

<ul style="list-style-type: none">• call on• carry out• get in• give away• make up• read over• run out• take off• turn off• wake up
--

Table 1.18 Phrasal Verb

1	We run out of time (kami kehabisan waktu)
2	Take off your shoes before entering the house (lepaskan sepatumu sebelum memasuki rumah)

Table 1.19 Example of Phrasal Verb



Picture 1.4 Phrasal Verbs

Some phrasal verbs are transitive (i.e., they can take a direct object), and some phrasal verbs are intransitive (i.e., do not take a direct object).

Here are some examples of transitive phrasal verbs. (The direct objects are in bold.)

- Fill in **the form** as quickly as possible.
- Did you go over **those reports** last night?
- I will look into **it** immediately.
- I felt compelled to hand **the purse** in .

(Note: Some phrasal verbs are separable. There is more on this below.)

Here are some examples of intransitive phrasal verbs. (The phrasal verbs are still, but there are no direct objects of course. That's the whole point.)

- If you're unhappy, please stand up .
- The lorry is starting to drop back.
- The tree could fall down.

- Do not give in.

Some phrasal verbs can be transitive or intransitive depending on their meaning. For example:

- She will show up soon.

(This is intransitive. It means "She will appear soon.")

- She will show up the opposition.

(This is transitive. It means "She will embarrass the opposition.")

Some transitive phrasal verbs are separable. This means the direct object appears between the verb and the preposition. For example:

- I will make **you** up to look like a princess.
- She talked **her father** into letting her attend the party.

Some transitive phrasal verbs are inseparable. This means the direct object appears after the preposition. For example:

- She looks up to **her sister**.
- You must stick to **the plan** at all costs.

Lots of transitive phrasal verbs can be used in a separable way or an inseparable way. For example:

- He looked **my address** up on the National Voter Register.

(This is the separable way.)

- He looked up **my address** on the National Voter Register.

(This is the inseparable way.)

Here's a quirk: When the direct object is a pronoun (like *it*), you cannot use the inseparable way.

For example:

- He looked up **it** on the National Voter Register. ✘

- He looked **it** up on the National Voter Register. ✓

D. Auxiliary Verb

Auxiliary verb are verbs that appear before the main verb. An auxiliary verb (or helping verb) accompanies a main verb to help express tense, voice or mood.

expressing tense. In these examples, the main verbs are in bold and the auxiliary verbs are highlighted.

- She **was** **waiting** for an hour.
- She **is** **waiting** in the hall.

expressing voice. Voice is for declaring whether a subject performs or receives an action. Active voice means subject takes action, while the passive means that the subject receives the action.

- Our dessert **was** **eaten** by the dog.
- The geese **are** **driven** through the snicket.

express mood. The mood in English serves to show the attitude of the writer or speaker towards what is written or said. Mood can be divided into indicative (to make a statement), subjunctive (to tell an unreal situation (conditional, wish, as if / though), requirement, or suggestion), and imperative (to give orders, warnings, advice, instructions, or requests).

- **Did** you **win**?

(Here, the auxiliary verb *to do* is used to form the interrogative mood, i.e., to ask a question.)

- **Don't** **forget** your wallet.

(Here, the auxiliary verb *to do* (in its negative form) is used to form the imperative mood, i.e., to give an order.)

Another example Voice and Mood:

1	I have studied hard
---	---------------------

	(saya telah belajar keras) active voice
2	The car was washed by my dad (mobil itu dicuci oleh bapak saya) passive voice
3	He is angry (dia marah) indicative mood
4	He hopes his score were good (pria itu berharap nilainya bagus) subjunctive mood
5	Do your best (lakukan yang terbaik) imperative mood

Table 1.20 Example of Voice and Mood

The most common auxiliary verbs are "be," "do," and "have" (in their various forms).

The main auxiliary verbs are *to be*, *to have*, and *to do*. They appear in the following forms:

- **To Be:** am, is, are, was, were, being, been, will be
- **To Have:** has, have, had, having, will have
- **To Do:** does, do, did, will do

There is another kind of auxiliary verb called a modal auxiliary verb (or modal verb). The modal auxiliary verbs are *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *must*, *ought to*, *shall*, *should*, *will*, and *would*. The modal auxiliary verbs never change their forms. Primary auxiliary verb serves to strengthen the meaning of the main verb.

Auxiliary Verbs

auxiliary verbs	various forms
be	am is are was were being been will be
have	has had having will have
do	does did will do

help to express **tense**, **mood**, or **voice**

tense

He had eaten the whole pie.
past perfect tense

He was snoring all night.
past progressive tense

mood

Did it go well?
interrogative mood

Do try our tarts.
imperative mood

voice

The pie was eaten by the dog.
passive voice

Picture 1.5 Auxiliary Verb

Primary Auxiliary Verb example:

1	I am playing now (saya sedang bermain sekarang)
2	The has been stolen (mobil tersebut telah dicuri)

Table 1.21 Example of Auxiliary Verb

Modal auxiliary verb can be used to express, among others: willingness (willingness), ability (ability), possibility (possibility), suggestion (suggestion) or advice (advice).

Modal Auxiliary Verb example:

1	He'll help me (dia akan membantu saya) willingness
2	You should study now (kamu harus belajar sekarang) suggestion

Table 1.22 Example of Modal Auxiliary

Modal auxiliary verbs combine with other verbs to express ideas such as necessity, possibility, intention, and ability. In each example below, the verb phrase is in bold and the modal auxiliary verb is highlighted.

Modal auxiliary verbs expressing necessity:

- It is during our darkest moments that we **must focus** to see the light. (Greek philosopher Aristotle)
- I don't say we all **ought to misbehave**, but we **ought to look** as if we could. (Actor Orson Welles)
- A baby is God's opinion that life **should go on**. (American Poet Carl Sandburg)

Modal auxiliary verbs expressing possibility:

- It is never too late to be what you **might have been**. (George Eliot)
- If there were no bad people, there **would be** no good lawyers. (Author Charles Dickens)

Modal auxiliary verbs expressing intention:

- We **shall heal** our wounds, collect our dead and continue fighting. (Founding father of the People's Republic of China Mao Zedong)

Modal auxiliary verbs expressing ability:

- No one **can feel** as helpless as the owner of a sick goldfish. (Cartoonist Kin Hubbard)
- Well, either side **could win** it, or it **could be** a draw. (Football manager Ron Atkinson)
(Sometimes, more than one sense is expressed. Here, could expresses both ability and possibility.)

Be, have and do are not always auxiliary verbs. Here they are as the main verbs (in bold) being supported by auxiliary modal verbs (highlighted).

- I have inspiration. If I was educated, I would **be** a damn fool. (Musician Bob Marley)
(That should be were educated, Bob. Just sayin'.)
- I really like vampire books. I might **have** a problem. (Irish writer Sarah Rees Brennan)
- If you can **dream** it, you can **do** it. (Enzo Ferrari)

There's another related term we should cover: verb phrase. A verb phrase is made up of the main verb and any auxiliary verbs. Any adverbs that appear alongside or inside a verb phrase are not part of the verb phrase. In each example below, the verb phrase is in bold with auxiliary verbs highlighted.

- Rose **has been drinking** heavily since breakfast.
(The adverb heavily is not part of the verb phrase.)
- Peter **is definitely taking** you to the airport.
(The adverb definitely is not part of the verb phrase.)

SUMMARY

Learning Activity 1

A noun is a word that refers to a thing (book), a person (Betty Crocker), an animal (cat), a place (Omaha), a quality (softness), an idea (justice), or an action (yodeling). It's usually a single word, but not always: cake, shoes, school bus, and time and a half are all nouns.

Kinds of noun:

1. Countable and Uncountable
2. Proper and Common
3. Abstract dan Concrete
4. Collective Noun
5. Noun Phrase and Compound Noun

Noun substitute is a construction that functions as a noun, namely: gerund, infinitive, and noun clause.

Learning Activity 2

Verb is a word that express the subject's action, events or circumstances. Kinds of verb can be grouped into:

1. transitive and intransitive
2. regular and irregular
3. action and stative
4. finite and non-finite
5. causative and linking verbs

EXERCISE

Learning Activity 1

Fill in the blanks with the correct forms of the given nouns for the following exercise. Use each noun only one time.

Chair	Job	experience	information	hair
Luggage	Progress	furniture	Permission	work

1. I don't have much . Just two small bags.
2. They are going to tell you all you want to know. They are going to give you a lot of .
3. There is room for everybody to sit down. There are a lot of .
4. We have no , not even a bed or a table.
5. 'What does Alan look like?' He's got a long beard and very short .
6. Carla's English is very bad. She must make .
7. George is unemployed. He's looking for a .
8. If you want to leave work early, you have to ask for .
9. I don't think Ann will get the job. She hasn't got enough .
10. Shakespeare's are wonderful.

Answer:

1. I don't have much **luggage**. Just two small bags.
2. They are going to tell you all you want to know. They are going to give you a lot of **information**.
3. There is room for everybody to sit down. There are a lot of **chairs**.
4. We have no **furniture**, not even a bed or a table.
5. 'What does Alan look like?' He's got a long beard and very short **hair**.

6. Carla's English is very bad. She must make **progress**.
7. George is unemployed. He's looking for a **job**.
8. If you want to leave work early, you have to ask for **permission**.
9. I don't think Ann will get the job. She hasn't got enough **experience**.
10. Shakespeare's **works** are wonderful.

Circle the nouns in the sentences.

1. I love red cars.
2. John and Mary went to the supermarket and bought eggs and cheese.
3. We had pizza for lunch.
4. They never told me that they had so much money.
5. She's writing an essay on democracy.
6. He had a brilliant idea.
7. The British Library is near King's Cross Station.
8. He has three brothers and ten nieces and nephews.
9. Could you pass the salt?
10. She travelled to Tokyo and Shanghai.

Answers

1. I love red **cars**.
2. **John** and **Mary** went to the **supermarket** and bought **eggs** and **cheese**.
3. We had **pizza** for **lunch**.
4. They never told me that they had so much **money**.
5. She's writing an **essay** on **democracy**.
6. He had a brilliant **idea**.

7. The **British Library** is near **King's Cross Station**.
8. He has three **brothers** and ten **nieces** and **nephews**.
9. Could you pass the **salt**?
10. She travelled to **Tokyo** and **Shanghai**.

Learning Activity 2

Complete the following sentences using appropriate verb forms.

1. The teacher the lesson yesterday.
teaches
taught
has taught
2. Now he questions to see if the students have understood the lesson.
asks
is asking
asked
3. As he not satisfied with the answers, he the lesson tomorrow.
is, will repeat
was, would repeat
is, repeated
4. John in hospital for two weeks.
is lying
lies
has been lying
5. We him yesterday.
were visiting
visited
have visited
6. He completely.
recovers

recovered

has recovered

7. Most probably he to school next week.

will come

would come

has come

8. Mark for jobs ever since he passed his examination in March.

has applied

has been applying

applied

9. Last month he for an interview.

has appeared

appeared

was appearing

10. He for the results.

waits

is waiting

waited

11. I to my friend a fortnight ago inviting her to spend the holidays with me.

have written

wrote

was writing

12. Yesterday, I her reply.

was receiving

received

have received

Answer:

1. The teacher **taught** the lesson yesterday.
2. Now he **is asking** questions to see if the students have understood the lesson.

3. As he **is** not satisfied with the answers, he **will repeat** the lesson tomorrow.
4. John **has been lying** in hospital for two weeks.
5. We **visited** him yesterday.
6. He **has recovered** completely.
7. Most probably he **will come** to school next week.
8. Mark **has been applying** for jobs ever since he passed his examination in March.
9. Last month he **appeared** for an interview.
10. He **is waiting** for the results.
11. I **wrote** to my friend a fortnight ago inviting her to spend the holidays with me.
12. Yesterday, I **received** her reply.

Directions: Fill the blanks with the correct form of verb.

1. We _____ (has paid/have paid) him the money.
2. I _____ (have bought/has bought) my sister a watch.
3. _____ (Show/Shows) me your hands.
4. You _____ (has made/have made) your shirt dirty.
5. We _____ (are waiting/is waiting) for Rohan.
6. These books _____ (belong/belongs) to me.
7. She _____ (want/wants) to go.
8. We _____ (will like/would like) to visit the museum.
9. He _____ (has finished/have finished) talking.
10. My brother _____ (enjoy/enjoys) playing cricket.
11. We _____ (find/found) the house deserted.
12. We _____ (hope/hoped) that you would succeed.
13. She _____ (has assured/have assured) me that she is ready to help.

14. Nobody _____ (know/knows) when he will arrive.
15. We _____ (must find out/find) where to put it.
16. I _____ (shall show/show) you how to operate it.
17. Jack _____ (cannot/could not) decide what he should do next.
18. I _____ (can't/could not) imagine why she has behaved like that.
19. Can you _____ (tell/told/tells) me where he lives?
20. The club _____ (chose/chosen) Mr. Sam as the treasurer.

Answer:

1. have Paid
2. have bought
3. Show
4. have made
5. are waiting
6. belong
7. wants
8. would like
9. has finished
10. enjoys
11. found
12. hoped
13. has assured
14. knows
15. must find out
16. shall show
17. could not
18. can't imagine

19. tell

20. chose

MODULE 2

PRONOUN

A. Introduction

Based on <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pronoun>, In linguistics and grammar, a **pronoun** (abbreviated pro) is a word that substitutes for a noun or noun phrase.

Pronouns have traditionally been regarded as one of the parts of speech, but some modern theorists would not consider them to form a single class, in view of the variety of functions they perform cross-linguistically. An example of a pronoun is "you", which is both plural and singular. Subtypes include personal and possessive pronouns, reflexive and reciprocal pronouns, demonstrative pronouns, relative and interrogative pronouns, and indefinite pronouns.

The use of pronouns often involves anaphora, where the meaning of the pronoun is dependent on an antecedent. For example, in the sentence *That poor man looks as if he needs a new coat*, the antecedent of the pronoun *he* is dependent on *that poor man*.

Pronouns (*antōnymía*) are listed as one of eight parts of speech in *The Art of Grammar*, a treatise on Greek grammar attributed to Dionysius Thrax and dating from the 2nd century BC. The pronoun is described there as "a part of speech substitutable for a noun and marked for a person." Pronouns continued to be regarded as a part of speech in Latin grammar (the Latin term being *pronomina*, from which the English name – through Middle French – ultimately derives), and thus in the European tradition generally.

In more modern approaches, pronouns are less likely to be considered to be a single word class, because of the many different syntactic roles that they play, as represented by the various different types of pronouns listed in the previous sections.

B. Short Explanation

Topic on this module is about Pronoun in general. From this module, students will understand:

- The definition of pronoun
- Types of pronouns and also the definition
- How to use each of the pronoun in the sentence

Through this module, students will understand about pronoun.

C. Learning Outcomes

After learning this module, students can identify pronoun and use them in a sentence, not only through listening, but also talking, reading and writing. Students can also use the pronoun properly in a affirmative sentence, negative sentence and question. Students can also know and understand the types of pronouns and how to use each of them in a sentence

D. Competency Prerequisite: none

E. The Use Of The Module 2

By learning and understand this module, students as a foreign language learner, can use the pronoun words properly, identify types of pronouns, can answer questions that related with pronouns.

This module will come in handy to help the students understand materials about pronouns and help them in understanding the pronouns through questions.

LEARNING ACTIVITY 1

A. Definition of Pronouns

Pronouns are words used to replace nouns which can be people, objects, animals, places, or abstract concepts.

Pronouns

A pronoun replaces a noun.



In fact, a pronoun replaces anything functioning as a noun.



Picture 2.1 Pronouns

B. Kinds of Pronoun (Part 1)

Pronouns are one of the eight parts of speech, divided into personal pronoun, demonstrative pronoun, interrogative pronoun, relative pronoun, indefinite pronoun, reflexive pronoun, intensive pronoun, reciprocal pronoun, and expletive pronoun.

1. Personal Pronoun

Personal pronoun is a pronoun used for a specific person, animal, object or thing. It depends on the role (subject, object, possessive), number, person-th, and gender of the noun being replaced.

Number	Person	Case			
		Subjective	Objective	Possessive	Reflexive
Singular	1st	I	Me	mine	Myself
	2nd	you	You	yours	Yourself
	3rd	she, he, it	her, him, it	hers, his, its	Herself, himself, itself
Plural	1st	we	Us	Ours	ourselves
	2nd	you	You	Yours	yourself
	3rd	they	them	Theirs	themselves

Table 2.1 Personal Pronouns

As you can see from the table above, the personal pronouns are categorized by person. There are three person categories:

First Person. The first-person personal pronouns (I and we) represent those speaking.

Second Person. The second-person personal pronouns (you (singular) and you (plural)) represent those being addressed.

Third Person. The third-person personal pronouns (he/she/it and they) represent those who are neither speaking nor being addressed (i.e., everybody else).

Another example:

1	She likes to read in the afternoon. (Wanita itu suka membaca di sore hari.) singular, 1st person, subject
2	Yours is inside the closet. (Punamu di dalam lemari.) singular, 2nd person, subject

Table 2.2 Example of Personal Pronouns

Based on how they're used, personal pronouns are categorized as one of the following:

- Subjective Personal Pronoun

I, you, he, she, it, we, and they are the subjective personal pronouns. These are the versions used for the subjects of verbs. For example:

- You are happy.
- They won the league.

- Objective Personal Pronoun

The objective personal pronouns are me, you, him, her, it, us, and them. These are the versions used when the personal pronouns are objects (i.e., direct objects, indirect objects, or objects of prepositions). For example:

- Paul knows her.
(The personal pronoun is a direct object.)
- Paul gave them the letter.
(The personal pronoun is an indirect object.)
- Paul went with him.
(The personal pronoun is an object of a preposition.)

- Possessive Personal Pronoun

The possessive pronouns are mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, and theirs. They represent something that is owned and tell us who the owner is. For example:

- Myra protected the pantry, believing all the food was hers.

(Here, hers represents all the food and tells us the owner is Myra. A possessive pronoun replaces a possessive determiner and a noun, e.g., her food becomes hers, my story becomes mine, and their jellybean becomes theirs. Note that possessive determiners are classified as pronouns too.)

- Reflexive Personal Pronoun

The reflexive pronouns are myself, yourself, himself, herself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, and themselves. A reflexive pronoun refers back to the subject.

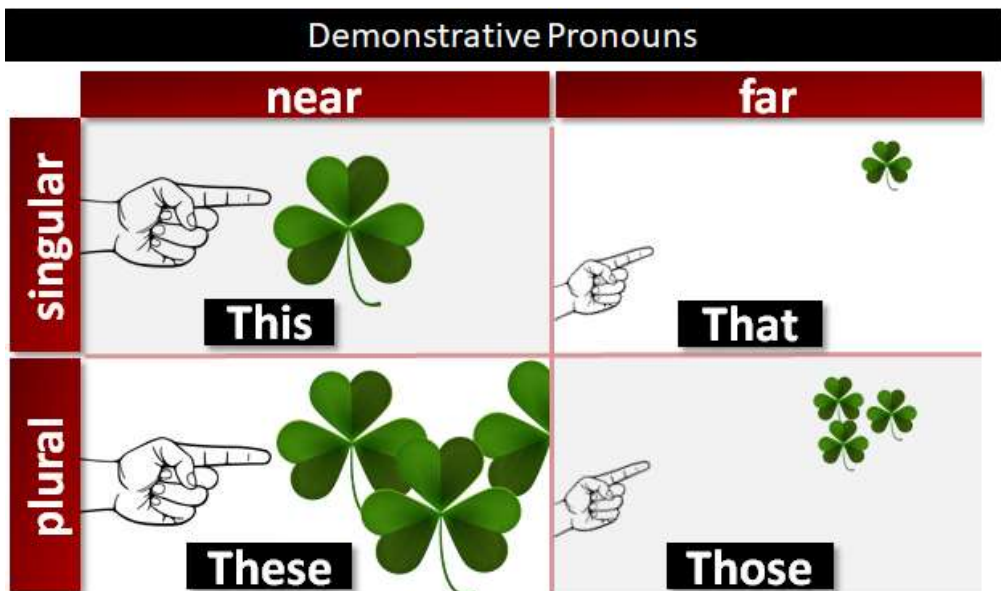
- David did not blame himself for Myra's aggression.
(The subject is David. The reflexive pronoun himself refers back to David.)

2. Demonstrative Pronoun

Demonstrative pronoun is a pronoun that uses the parameter number and distance. The pronouns are replaced are generally in the form of objects, but can also be people or things. Also, a demonstrative pronoun is a pronoun that represents a noun and expresses its position as near or far (including in time). The demonstrative pronouns are "this," "that," "these," and "those."

Number	Distance	Pronoun
Singular	far (jauh)	that
	near (dekat)	this
Plural	far (jauh)	those
	near (dekat)	these

Table. 2.3 Demonstrative Pronoun



Picture 2.2 Demonstrative Pronoun

Like all pronouns, demonstrative pronouns replace nouns or noun phrases. More specifically, a demonstrative pronoun stands in for something that has been previously mentioned or is understood from context (called its antecedent).

- Do you remember the lobster with the blue claw? Can I have that please?
(Here, "that" stands in for something previously mentioned. The antecedent of "that" is the noun phrase "the lobster with the blue claw.")
- This is delicious.
(Here, the context tells us what "this" represents. The antecedent of "this" is "lobster" or "meal.")
- Do you remember the two lobsters holding claws? Can I have those please?
(The antecedent of "those" is shown in bold.)
- These are delicious.
(Remember that, with demonstrative pronouns, the antecedent does not always appear in nearby text. The antecedent is often understood from the context of the speaker's surroundings.)

The singular demonstrative pronouns "this" and "that" stand in for singular things (e.g., "the lobster with the blue claw"). The plural demonstrative pronouns "these" and "those" stand in for plural things (e.g., "the two lobsters holding claws").

As well as telling us whether its antecedent is singular or plural, a demonstrative pronoun also tell us whether its antecedent is near or distant. "That" and "those" stand in for distant things (e.g., "the lobsters in the tank"). "This" and "these" stand in for near things (e.g., "the lobsters on the plate").

- Paint this but not that. Remove these but not those.
(Demonstrative pronouns are pretty efficient. They tell us what, how many, and where. These two short sentences convey the following information: "Paint the nearby wall I'm pointing to but not the distant wall I'm pointing to. Remove the picture hooks I'm pointing to but not those distant picture hooks I'm pointing to.")

Remember that demonstrative pronouns stand in for things. (Typically, they stand in for a noun phrase or a previously expressed idea.) Demonstrative pronouns do not modify nouns. When "this," "that," "these," and "those" modify nouns, they are demonstrative determiners (called demonstrative adjectives in traditional grammar). In the four examples below, we have demonstrative determiners modifying nouns (shown in bold). In the first four examples above, the demonstrative pronouns stood in for these nouns.

- This idea is ludicrous.
- Is that bike yours?
- Eat these crumpets tonight.
- Throw those rolls away.

Example:

1	This is the nicest film I've ever watched. (Ini film yang paling bagus yang pernah saya tonton.)
2	Is this your car? (Apakah ini mobilmu?)

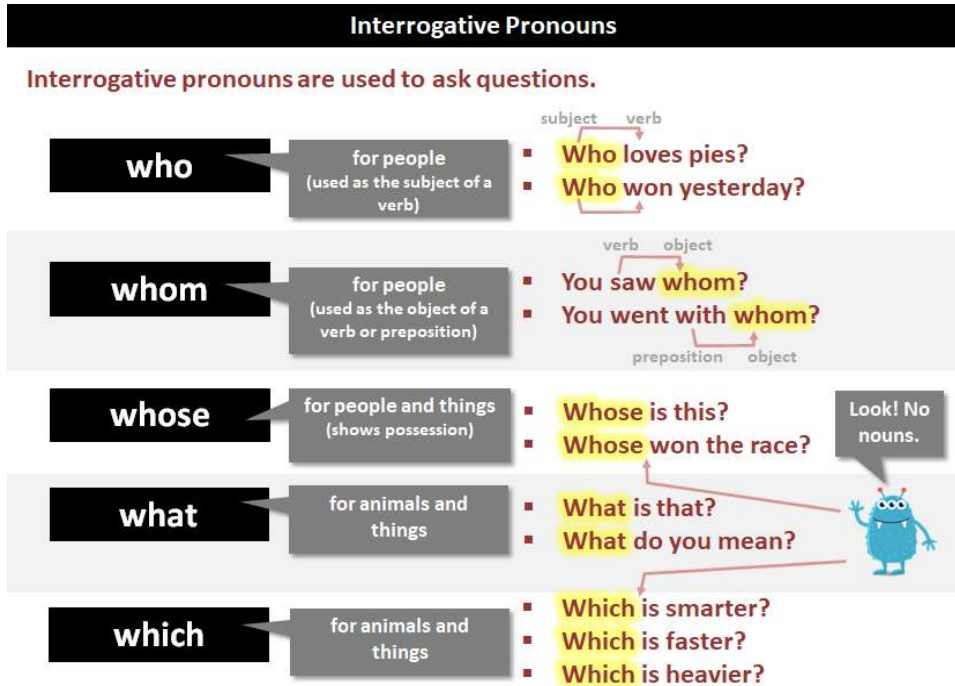
Table 2.4 Example of Demonstrative Pronoun

3. Interrogative Pronoun

Interrogative Pronoun is a pronoun used to make a question. These English pronouns include:

- who(ever)
- what(ever)
- which(ever)
- whose

The other, less common interrogative pronouns are the same as the ones above but with the suffix "-ever" or "-soever" (e.g., "whatever," "whichever," "whatsoever," "whichever")
whom



Picture 2.3 Interrogative Pronouns

Easy Examples of Interrogative Pronouns:

- What is that?
- Which is yours?
- Who done it?
- Whom shall we ask?
- Whose is this?
- Whatever did you say?
- Whomsoever did you find?
- Whosever is this?

Example:

1	The car which I sold yesterday is my favourite. (Mobil yang saya jual kemarin adalah kesukaan saya.)
2	The man whom (who = informal) you talked to two weeks ago is my dad. (Orang yang kamu ajak bicara kemarin adalah ayah saya.)

Table 2.6 Example of Relative Pronoun

The function of a relative pronoun is to head (or introduce) an adjective clause. An adjective clause follows a noun:

(1) To identify it.

For example:

- The man **who** won the lottery is outside.
(The adjective clause (highlighted) identifies the man.)

(2) To tell us something interesting about it.

For example:

- Inspector Smith, **who** won the lottery, is outside.
(The adjective clause (highlighted) tells us something interesting about Inspector Smith.)

Relative Pronoun (To identify)

relative pronoun

The man **who** stole your bike has been caught.

noun adjective clause



The clause identifies "the man."

Look! No commas!

Relative Pronoun (To Tell Us More)

relative pronoun

His car **, which is 2 days old,** broke down again.

noun adjective clause



The clause gives us more information about "his car."

There are commas!

Picture 2.5 Relative Pronoun (To Identify)

In each of these examples, the relative pronoun is bold and the adjective clause is highlighted.

- The girl who stole your phone is outside.
(The relative pronoun "who" heads an adjective clause that identifies "the girl.")
- I rode the bike that Jack gave me back home.
(The relative pronoun "that" heads an adjective clause that identifies "the bike.")
- Mrs Miggins, who owns a pie shop, is outside.
(The relative pronoun "who" heads an adjective clause that tells us something interesting about "Mrs Miggins.")
- I rode my bike, which now had a dozen bent spokes, back home.
(The relative pronoun "which" heads an adjective clause that tells us something interesting about "my bike.")

5. Indefinite Pronoun

Indefinite pronoun is a pronoun for people, things, or things in general (not specific). These pronouns can be singular, plural, or one of the two. The most common ones are all, any, anyone, anything, each, everybody, everyone, everything, few, many, nobody, none, one, several, some, somebody, and someone.

Example:

Singular	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• anybody/anyone (siapapun)• everybody/everyone (semua orang, setiap orang)• somebody, someone, one (seseorang)• nobody (tak seorangpun)• anything (apapun)• everything (segalanya)• something (sesuatu)• nothing (tak satupun)• another (tambahan, yang lain)• each (setiap)• either (yang satu atau yang lain)• neither (tidak satupun dari keduanya)• enough (cukup)• little (sedikit)• less (lebih sedikit)• much (banyak)
----------	---

Plural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • both (dua-duanya) • several (beberapa) • many (banyak) • few (sedikit) • fewer (lebih sedikit) • ones
Singular / Plural	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • all (semua, seluruh, satu hal) • none (tak seorangpun, tidak ada) • some (beberapa) • any (~jumlah tidak tentu atau tak terbatas) • more (lebih) • most (mayoritas)

Table 2.7 Indefinite Pronouns

Here are some examples of indefinite pronouns (shaded):

- A classic is **something** that **everybody** wants to have read and **nobody** wants to read. (Mark Twain, 1835-1910)
- Of those who say **nothing**, **few** are silent. (Thomas Neill)
- **Everything** is funny as long as it is happening to **somebody** else. (Will Rogers, 1879-1935)
- **Everybody** likes a kidder, but **nobody** lends him money. (Arthur Miller, 1915-2005)
- I don't know **anything** about music. In my line, you don't have to. (Elvis Presley, 1935-1977)

1	You know everything. (Kamu tahu semuanya.)
2	She saw something wrong about the house. (Dia melihat sesuatu yang tidak beres dari rumah itu.)

Table 2.8 Example of Indefinite Pronouns

The Difference between Indefinite Pronouns and Indefinite Adjectives

When a word like *all*, *any*, *anyone*, etc. is used as an adjective, it is known as an indefinite adjective. (In the examples below, the indefinite pronouns are shaded.)

- **All** in the lobby must remain seated.
(This is an indefinite pronoun.)
- **All** personnel in the lobby must remain seated.
(This is an indefinite adjective. It modifies "personnel.")
- Please take **some** to Mrs Chandler.
(indefinite pronoun)
- Please take **some** lemons to Mrs Chandler.
(This is an indefinite adjective. It modifies "lemons.")

Are Indefinite Pronouns Singular or Plural?

Some indefinite pronouns are always singular, some are always plural, and some can be both depending on the surrounding text or context. (This is covered in more detail in the "Why Should I Care" section below. Here is a list:

Singular Indefinite Pronouns	Plural Indefinite Pronouns	Indefinite Pronouns Which Can be Singular or Plural
------------------------------	----------------------------	---

Another	Both	All
Anybody	Few	Any
Anyone	Fewer	More
Anything	Many	Most
Each	Others	None
Either	Several	Some
Enough		Such
Everybody		
Everyone		
Everything		
Less		
Little		
Much		
Neither		
Nobody		
No-one		
Nothing		
One		
Other		
Somebody		
Someone		
Something		

Table Table 2.9 Indefinite Pronouns Singular or Plural

LEARNING ACTIVITY 2

A. Kinds Of Pronoun (Part 2)

6. Reflexive Pronoun

Reflexive pronoun is a pronoun that is used to express that the subject of a sentence receives the action of the verb (reciprocal action).

Singular	myself, yourself, herself, himself, itself
Plural	yourselves, ourselves, themselves

Table 2.10 Reflexive Pronoun

A reflexive pronoun is used when something does something to itself. For example:

- John pinched himself.
(The reflexive pronoun himself tells us that John did something to John.)

Compare the example above with this:

- John pinched his sister.
(There is no reflexive pronoun in this example. John did something to someone else, not to himself.)

Example:

1	She does it for herself. (wanita itu melakukannya untuk dirinya.)
2	Go fix yourself. (perbaiki dirimu sendiri.)

Table 2.11 Example of Reflexive Pronoun

In identifying Reflexive Pronouns, in most sentences, somebody does something to someone else. For example:

- I like him.
- He spoke to her.
- She thumped him.
- The dog bit her.

However, sometimes people (or things) do things to themselves, and this is when you can use *myself, yourself, herself, himself, itself, ourselves, yourselves, and themselves* as reflexive pronouns. For example:

- **I** like myself. ✓
- **He** spoke to himself. ✓
- **She** thumped herself. ✓
- **The dog** bit itself. ✓

7. Intensive Pronoun

Intensive pronoun is a pronoun that is used to emphasize the antecedent (noun or other pronoun that is an intensive pronoun in a sentence referring to it). For example:

- **The mayor** himself presented the prize.

(*The mayor* is the noun being emphasized. It is called the [antecedent](#) of the intensive pronoun. The antecedent of a pronoun is the thing the pronoun refers to.)

When used for emphasis, words like "myself," "himself," etc. are called intensive pronouns. An intensive pronoun is used to refer back to a noun or pronoun in order to emphasize it. Here is a list of the intensive pronouns:

- myself
- yourself
- herself
- himself
- itself
- ourselves
- yourselves
- themselves

The shape is the same as a reflexive pronoun.

Example:

1	The bedroom itself is fine, but the bathroom is cramped. The house itself is nice. (rumah tersebut sudah bagus.)
2	I myself are the victim of that crime. (saya sendiri adalah korban dari kejahatan tersebut.)

Table 2.12 Intensive Pronoun

In these next examples, the intensive pronouns are shaded, and the people or things being emphasized (i.e., the antecedent) are in bold.

- **She** will paint the fence herself.

(The intensive pronoun "herself" emphasizes that "she" will do it. A painter won't paint it. Her friend won't paint it. Her daughter won't paint it. SHE will paint it.)

- **The guides** baked these cookies themselves.

(The intensive pronoun "themselves" emphasizes that "the guides" baked the cookies, i.e., not their mothers.)

- **I** heard his proposal myself.

(The intensive pronoun "myself" emphasizes that "I" heard the proposal.)

The antecedents of intensive pronouns are not always people. Look at this example:

- **The mouse** opened the packet itself. ✓

You can test if it's an intensive pronoun by removing it and seeing if you get the same effect by emphasizing the thing you're trying to emphasize with your voice (shown here in uppercase).

- **SHE** will paint it.
- **I** heard the proposal.
- **THE MOUSE** opened the packet.

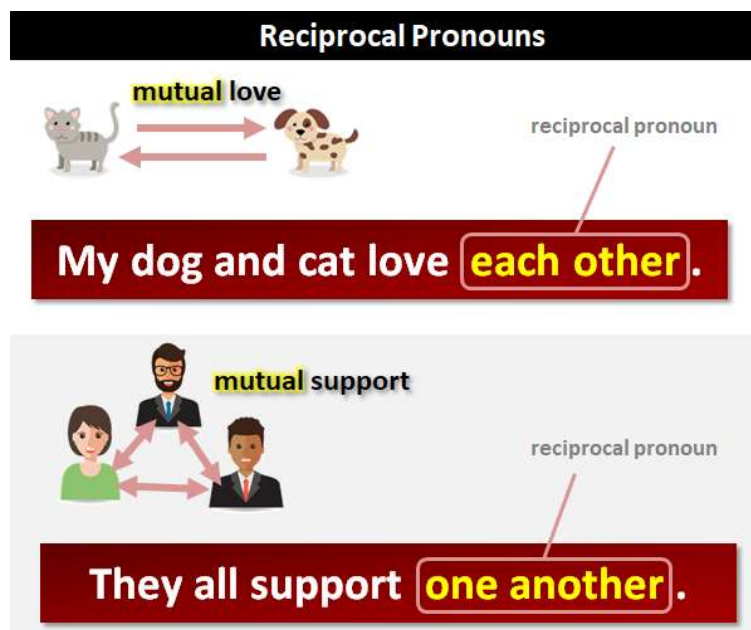
8. Reciprocal Pronoun

Reciprocal pronoun is a pronoun that is used when two or more subjects take the same action against one another. This pronoun consists of: each other and one another. A reciprocal pronoun is used to express a mutual action or relationship.

Example:

1	They hate each other. (Mereka saling membenci.)
2	They helped one another during hard days. (Mereka menolong satu sama lain selama masa-masa sulit.)

Table 2.13 Example of Reciprocal Pronoun



Picture 2.6 Reciprocal Pronouns

Here are some another easy examples of the reciprocal pronoun *each other*. Use *each other* when there are two things.

- Jack and Jill hate each other.

(Note that Jack hates Jill, and Jill hates Jack. The action is reciprocated.)

- They gave each other presents.
- Have you seen each other 's solution?

(Note: *Each other* is treated as singular. Therefore, the possessive apostrophe is placed before the *s*.)

Here are some easy examples of the reciprocal pronoun *one another*. Use *one another* when there are two more than things.

- The crayfish started eating one another.

The team members played their hearts out for one another.

- They deliberately blocked one another's proposals.
- The competitors were deliberately blocking one another's view to gain an advantage.

(Note: *One another* is treated as singular. Therefore, the possessive apostrophe is placed before the *s*.)

9. Expletive Pronoun

Expletive pronoun are "empty words" or words that are useful for emphasizing certain parts of a sentence but do not add meaning. There / it is used with the verb be to form expletive constructions.

Expletive Pronoun example:

1	There is nothing in my house. (Tidak ada apa-apa di rumahku.)
2	It was hard for me during the test. (Saat tes dulu adalah sulit untuk saya.)

Table 2.14 Example of Expletive Pronoun

B. Pronoun-Antecedent Agreement

Pronoun-antecedent agreement is a match between pronoun and antecedent in terms of number, person, and gender. Antecedent itself is a word, phrase, or clause that is replaced by a pronoun. This agreement is necessary of course if there are both in the sentence

1	He should put his inside the closet. (Dia harusnya meletakkannya kepunyaannya didalam lemari.) He = antecedent, his= pronoun
2	I decided not to go, and my friends decided to leave theirs with me. (Saya memutuskan untuk tidak pergi, dan teman-teman saya menitipkan barang-barangnya kepada saya) friends = antecedent, theirs = pronoun

Table 2.15 Example of Pronoun-antecedent agreement

SUMMARY

- Pronouns are words used to replace nouns which can be people, objects, animals, places, or abstract concepts.
- Kinds of pronoun:
 1. Personal Pronoun:
 - a. Subjective Personal Pronoun
 - b. Objective Personal Pronoun
 - c. Possessive Personal Pronoun
 - d. Reflexive Personal Pronoun
 2. Demonstrative Pronoun
 3. Interrogative Pronoun
 4. Relative Pronoun
 5. Indefinite Pronoun
 6. Reflexive Pronoun
 7. Intensive Pronoun

8. Reciprocal Pronoun

9. Expletive Pronoun

EXERCISE

The following exercises will help you gain greater understanding about how pronouns work. Choose the best answer to complete each sentence.

Learning activity 1

Demonstrative Pronoun Exercises

Choose the correct **demonstrative pronoun** to fill the blank, remembering that demonstratives include the words this, that, these and those.

1. I really like watching old shows. _____ are some of the best things on TV.
 - a. Those
 - b. That
 - c. This
 - d. These

2. Please hand me _____ .
 - a. those
 - b. that
 - c. this
 - d. these

3. _____ is some of the nicest weather we've had lately.
 - a. Those
 - b. That
 - c. This
 - d. These

Indefinite Pronoun Exercises

Choose one of the following **indefinite pronouns** to fill each blank: something, everyone, anywhere

4. After the parade, _____ met up in the town square.
 - a. something
 - b. everyone
 - c. anywhere
5. Would you like _____ to drink.
 - a. something
 - b. everyone
 - c. anywhere
6. I searched all over, but couldn't find my notes _____ .
 - a. something
 - b. everyone
 - c. anywhere

Interrogative Pronoun Exercises

Select an **interrogative pronoun** to fill the blank in each sentence.

7. _____ flavor do you prefer?
 - a. Whom
 - b. Which
 - c. Who
8. I heard someone at the door but wasn't sure _____ it was.

- a. what
- b. which
- c. whom

9. _____ do you want for lunch?

- a. what
- b. which
- c. who

Intensive Pronoun Exercises

Choose the correct **intensive pronoun** to fill the blank, remembering that they always end in *self* or *–selves*.

10. I slipped on the sidewalk and hurt _____ .

- a. himself
- b. themselves
- c. myself

11. The kids rode the rollercoaster by _____ .

- a. themselves
- b. herself
- c. himself

12. She bought _____ a new car.

- a. himself
- b. myself
- c. herself

Personal Pronoun Exercises

Choose the correct **personal pronoun** to fill each blank.

13. _____ am learning to speak better English.

- a. I
- b. Me
- c. You

14. Thanks for the package! Please leave _____ on the table.

- a. them
- b. them
- c. it

15. Ben was surprised when _____ discovered that his friends were hiding in the living room.

- a. she
- b. he
- c. they

Possessive Pronoun Exercises

Choose the correct **possessive pronoun** to fill each blank.

16. I lost _____ phone last night.

- a. mine
- b. my
- c. ours

17. They bought new furniture for _____ house.

- a. mine
- b. their
- c. ours

18. We're going to get _____ test results today.

- a. mine
- b. yours
- c. our

Reciprocal Pronoun Exercises

Choose the correct **reciprocal pronoun** to fill the blank, remembering that reciprocal pronouns include *each other* and *one another*.

19. Dan and I waved hello to _____.

- a. each other
- b. one another

20. The students talked to _____.

- a. each other
- b. one another

21. The two boys threw the ball back and forth to _____.

- a. each other
- b. one another

Learning Activity 2

Reflexive Pronoun Exercises

Choose the correct **reflexive pronoun** to fill the blank.

22. I'm always talking to _____.

- a. themselves
- b. myself
- c. herself

23. John likes to do things by _____.

- a. myself
- b. ourselves
- c. himself

24. You can do it _____.

- a. yourself
- b. himself
- c. themselves

Relative Pronoun Exercises

Choose the correct **relative pronoun** to fill the blank.

25. The tallest child, _____ was also oldest, was also most outgoing.

- a. who
- b. that
- c. whose

26. I don't recognize the song _____ is playing.
- a. which
 - b. that
 - c. who
27. I rode my bike, _____ has a headlight, home in the dark.
- a. that
 - b. whom
 - c. which

Answer:

1. A. I really like watching old shows. *Those* are some of the best things on TV.
2. B. Please hand me *that*.
3. C. *This* is some of the nicest weather we've had lately.
4. B. After the parade, *everyone* met up in the town square.
5. A. Would you like *something* to drink.
6. C. I searched all over, but couldn't find my notes *anywhere*.
7. B. *Which* flavor do you prefer?
8. C. I heard someone at the door but wasn't sure *whom* it was
9. A. *What* do you want for lunch?
10. C. I slipped on the sidewalk and hurt *myself*.
11. A. The kids rode the rollercoaster by *themselves*.
12. C. She bought *herself* a new car.

13. A. *I* am learning to speak better English.
14. C. Thanks for the package! Please leave *it* on the table.
15. A. Ben was surprised when *he* discovered that his friends were hiding in the living room.
16. B. I lost *my* phone last night.
17. B. They bought new furniture for *their* house.
18. C. We're going to get *our* test results today.
19. A. Dan and I waved hello to *each other*.
20. B. The students talked to *one another*.
21. A. The two boys threw the ball back and forth to *each other*.
22. B. I'm always talking to *myself*.
23. C. John likes to do things by *himself*.
24. A. You can do it *yourself*.
25. A. The tallest child, *who* was also oldest, was also most outgoing
26. B. I don't recognize the song *that* is playing.
27. C. I rode my bike, *which* has a headlight, home in the dark.

Demonstrative Pronouns Exercises

1. _____ of them had seen it before:
- A. – those
- B. – neither
- C. – such
2. Is _____ yours?

- A. – that
 - B. – those
 - C. – these
3. Everyone ate early. When we arrived, _____ was left.
- A. – that
 - B. – such
 - C. – none
4. Please give me one of _____.
- A. – that
 - B. – those
 - C. – this
5. _____ are nice-looking.
- A. – this
 - B. – that
 - C. – these

Answer:

- 1. B. Neither of them had seen it before.
- 2. A. Is that yours?
- 3. C. Everyone ate early. When we arrived, none was left.
- 4. B. Please give me one of those.
- 5. C. These are nice-looking.

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MODULE 3

ADJECTIVE

A. Introduction

Based on <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Adjective>, In linguistics, an adjective (abbreviated adj) is a word that modifies a noun or noun phrase or describes its referent. Its semantic role is to change information given by the noun.

Traditionally, adjectives were considered one of the main parts of speech of the English language, although historically they were classed together with nouns.[1] Nowadays, certain words that usually had been classified as adjectives, including the, this, my, etc., typically are classed separately, as determiners.

Adjectives feature as a part of speech (word class) in most languages. In some languages, the words that serve the semantic function of adjectives are categorized together with some other class, such as nouns or verbs. In the phrase "a Ford car", "Ford" is unquestionably a noun but its function is adjectival: to modify "car". In some languages adjectives can function as nouns: for example, the Spanish phrase "*uno rojo*" means "a red [one]".

As for "confusion" with verbs, rather than an adjective meaning "big", a language might have a verb that means "to be big" and could then use an attributive verb construction analogous to "big-being house" to express what in English is called a "big house". Such an analysis is possible for the grammar of Standard Chinese, for example.

Different languages do not use adjectives in exactly the same situations. For example, where English uses "to be *hungry*" (*hungry* being an adjective), Dutch, French, and Spanish use "*honger hebben*", "*avoir faim*", and "*tener hambre*" respectively (literally "to have hunger", the words for "hunger" being nouns). Similarly, where Hebrew uses the adjective זקוק (*zaqūq*, roughly "in need of"), English uses the verb "to need".

In languages that have adjectives as a word class, it is usually an open class; that is, it is relatively common for new adjectives to be formed via such processes as derivation. However, Bantu languages are well known for having only a small closed class of adjectives, and new adjectives are not easily derived. Similarly, native Japanese adjectives (*i*-adjectives) are considered a closed class (as are native verbs), although nouns (an open class) may be used in the genitive to convey some adjectival meanings, and there is also the separate open class of adjectival nouns (*na*-adjectives).

B. Short Explanation

Topic on this module is about Adjective in general. From this module, students will understand:

- The definition of adjective
- Types of adjectives and also the definition
- How to use each of the adjective in the sentence

Through this module, students will understand about adjective.

C. Learning Outcomes

After learning this module, students can identify adjective and use them in a sentence, not only through listening, but also talking, reading and writing. Students can also use the adjective properly in an affirmative sentence, negative sentence and question. Students can also know and understand the types of adjectives and how to use each of them in a sentence

D. Competency Prerequisite: none

E. The Use Of The Module

By learning and understand this module, students as a foreign language learner, can use the adjective properly, identify types of adjectives, can answer questions that related with adjective.

This module will come in handy to help the students understand materials about adjective and help them in understanding the adjective through questions.

LEARNING ACTIVITY 1

A. Definition of Adjectives

Adjective is a word used to describe a noun (noun) or pronoun (pronoun) which can be a person, a place, an animal, an object or an abstract concept (thing).



Picture 3.1 Adjectives

Here are some examples of adjectives. (In each example, the adjective is highlighted.)

1. Adjective Before the Noun

An adjective usually comes directly **before** the noun it describes (or "modifies," as grammarians say).

- old man

- green coat
- cheerful one

("One" is a pronoun. Don't forget that adjectives modify pronouns too.)

When adjectives are used like this, they're called **attributive adjectives**.

2. Adjective After the Noun

An adjective can come **after** the noun.

- Jack was old.
- It looks green.
- He seems cheerful.

In the three examples above, the adjectives follow linking verbs ("was," "looks," and "seems") to describe the noun or pronoun. (When adjectives are used like this, they're called predicative adjectives.)

3. Adjective Immediately After the Noun

Sometimes, an adjective comes **immediately after** a noun.

- the Princess Royal
- time immemorial
- body beautiful
- the best seats available
- the worst manners imaginable

When adjectives are used like this, they're called **postpositive adjectives**. Postpositive adjectives are more common with pronouns.

- someone interesting

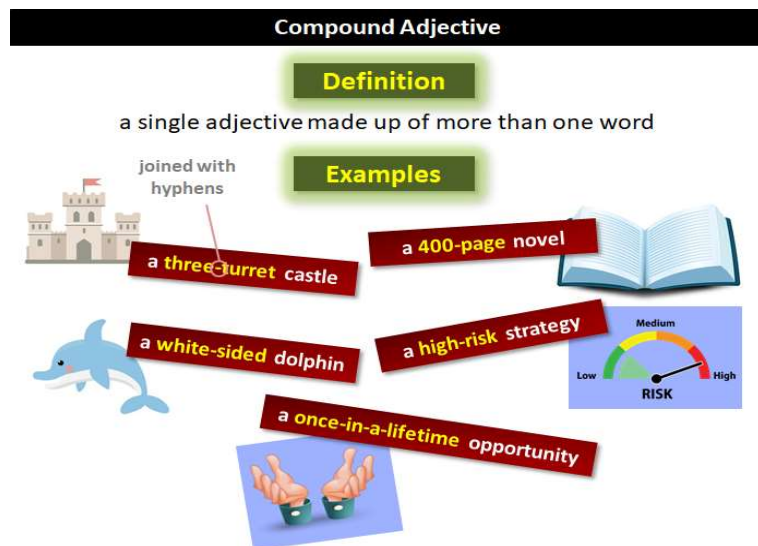
- those **present**
- something **evil**

Adjective, Adjective Phrase, and Compound Adjective may be in the form of a simple one consisting of only one word, or in the form of a phrase, namely: an adjective phrase which is the result of a combination of the adjective as a head and modifier and / or determiner

Adjective example	Adjective Phrase example
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • dark • hot • young 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • homemade dark cookies (modifier + adjective) • this hot soup (determiner + adjective) • many young women (determiner + adjective)

Table 3.1 Example of Adjectives

Adjectives may also combine with other parts of speech such as nouns or verbs (verbs) to form new words called compound adjectives. A compound adjective is a single adjective made up of more than one word. The words in a compound adjective are usually grouped together using hyphens to show it is a single adjective.



Picture 3.2 Compound Adjective

Combination	Compound Adjective example
adjective + noun	high-speed chased
adjective + past participle	well-known writer
adjective + present participle	good-looking person
noun + adjective	oil-free stuffs

Table 3.2 Example of Compound Adjective

Here are some example of compound adjectives (shaded):

- four-foot table
- 12-page magazine
- free-range eggs
- never-to-be-forgotten experience
- well-deserved award

Real-Life Examples of Compound Adjectives

- I'm the underdog, the 5-foot-6-inch wrestler. The kids don't say, "I can beat Rey." They say "I can be like Rey." (Professional wrestler Óscar Gutiérrez, aka Rey Mysterio)
- Cross-country competition taught me valuable lessons. Training counted more than ability as I could compensate with diligence and discipline. I applied this in everything I did. (President of South Africa Nelson Mandela)
- Why do we have front-page news about celebrity divorces instead of front-page news about global warming? (Model Heather Mills)
- Privileged girls armed with nothing more than guinea-pig-rearing certificates have started to move into law, consultancy, media and the arts. (Paraphrased from a quotation by author Peter York)

Compound adjectives are often joined together with hyphens to show they are single adjectives.

Compound adjectives can also be grouped using italics, quotation marks, and title case.

- It's a *bona fide* purchaser.

(It is common convention to write foreign words in italics. When those words are a compound adjective, the italics group them, eliminating the need for hyphens.)

- Is that your "go away" look?

(If there's a reason to put your compound adjective in quotation marks (e.g., it's a genuine quotation or a ship's name), then the quotation marks group the adjective, eliminating the need for hyphens.)

- Did you watch the Harry Potter documentary?

(If your compound adjective is a title written in title case (i.e., using capital letters for the principal words), then the title case groups your adjective, eliminating the need for hyphens.)

Punctuating compound adjectives correctly will not only showcase your writing skills but also help your readers to absorb your words more easily. When a compound adjective is not grouped to show it is one grammatical unit, it can cause your readers' scan to stutter momentarily as they group the words into a single entity themselves.

Also, if you're following British writing conventions, you don't have a choice. In the UK, readers expect hyphens in their compound adjectives. In the US, readers are more lenient.

- Women in mystery fiction were largely confined to little old lady snoops. (US author Marcia Muller) (✓ for Americans) (✗ untidy for Brits)
- Women in mystery fiction were largely confined to little-old-lady snoops. ✓ (acceptable for all)

Things to remember:

- Use hyphens in your compound adjectives to showcase your writing skills, to protect your readers from reading-scan stutter, and to eliminate ambiguity with the meaning.
- Check your two-word compound adjective (e.g., "back-breaking") isn't acceptable as one word (e.g., "backbreaking").
- If you're dealing with two single-word adjectives (as opposed to a two-word compound adjective), you'll be able to put "and" between them. Don't link two independent adjectives with a hyphen.
- Don't use a hyphen with an adverb like "very," "extremely," or "professionally."
- Link the adverb "well" to the adjective it's modifying with a hyphen.

LEARNING ACTIVITY 2

A. Adjective Position and Adjective Order

Before we talk about the order of adjectives, we need to understand the difference between cumulative adjectives and coordinate adjectives.

The Order of Adjectives	
Cumulative Adjectives	Coordinate Adjectives
Should follow a specific order	✗
Should be separated by commas	✓
Can be separated by "and"	✓
dark green washing bowl	Commas are okay. big, shiny, round ball
	A different order is okay. big, round, shiny ball
	Using "and" is okay. big, round, and shiny ball

Picture 3.3 The Order of Adjectives

Cumulative adjectives work together to modify their noun. They cumulate (or combine together) as they get nearer to the noun to create a more specific meaning. Cumulative adjectives must appear in a specific order, and they cannot be separated by commas or the word "and." Look at these examples:

- a handmade mixing bowl
- those unsold goalkeeper gloves
- my first yellow taxi cab

As the order of these adjectives cannot be changed, they are cumulative adjectives. As such, they cannot be separated by commas or the word "and." Let's put them to the test...

- a mixing handmade bowl ✘

(Changing the order stops the adjectives cumulating their meaning as they get nearer to "bowl." That's why changing the order sounds wrong.)

- those unsold and goalkeeper gloves

(Adding "and" interrupts the adjectives cumulating their meaning as they get nearer to "gloves." That's why adding "and" sounds wrong.)

- my first, yellow, taxi cab

(Using a "comma" interrupts the adjectives cumulating their meaning as they get nearer to "cab." That's why adding commas is wrong. However, these words still sound okay. Well, to refine the test, instead of inserting a comma, insert "and." If your phrase sounds awful, the commas are wrong.)

Remember that cumulative adjectives cumulate as they get nearer the noun. They demand a certain order, and they won't tolerate any interruptions with commas or conjunctions (e.g., "and," "or," "but").

B. The Order of Cumulative Adjectives in English

Notice that this page started with the title "The Order of Adjectives," but now we have the title "The Order of Cumulative Adjectives." We've refined the title because only cumulative adjectives demand this order:

1	<input type="checkbox"/> <u>Article</u> , <input type="checkbox"/> <u>Demonstrative Determiner</u> , or <input type="checkbox"/> <u>Possessive Determiner</u>	<input type="checkbox"/> a, an, the <input type="checkbox"/> this, that, those, these <input type="checkbox"/> my, your, his, our
2	Quantity	one, three, ninety-nine
3	Opinion or Observation	beautiful, clever, witty, well-mannered
4	Size	big, medium-sized, small
5	Physical Quality	thin, lumpy, cluttered
6	Shape	square, round, long
7	Age	young, middle-aged, old
8	Colour/Color	red, blue, purple
9	Origin or Religion	French, Buddhist
10	Material	metal, leather, wooden
11	Type	L-shaped, two-sided, all-purpose
12	<input type="checkbox"/> Purpose, or <input type="checkbox"/> Attributive Noun	<input type="checkbox"/> mixing, drinking, cooking <input type="checkbox"/> service, football, head

Table 3. 3 Example of The Order of Cumulative Adjectives

C. Coordinate Adjectives

Coordinate adjectives are also multiple adjectives that modify the same noun, but, with coordinate adjectives, their order is far less important because they can be used individually with the noun. In other words, they do not cumulate their meaning with other adjectives. Also, coordinate adjectives should be separated with commas or "and" to make it clear they're not cumulative adjectives.

- white, lumpy spots ✓
- white and lumpy spots ✓
- lumpy, white spots ✓
- lumpy and white spots ✓

(These are coordinate adjectives because they can be reversed or separated with a comma or "and.")

The word "coordinate" means "equal in rank." Coordinate adjectives can only come from the Placements 3-11 in the above table, but their order isn't important. Often, they will come from the same category. When this happens, it is normal to use "and" between them. For example:

- sweet, black and yellow, sticky toffees ✓

Be careful with the precedence list. Sometimes, an adjective and a noun are inseparable because they belong together as a single semantic unit (i.e., a recognized thing). For example:

- my wooden Spanish guitar ✓

(As a "Spanish guitar" is a recognized thing, "Spanish" doesn't take its place according to the precedence list. It cannot be separated from "guitar.")

- my Spanish wooden guitar ✓

(This is also correct, but it's different. These are cumulative adjectives taking their order according to the precedence list. This could be a bass guitar made in Spain.)

Here are some more examples:

- He was a deluded **fat cat** in City of London.
- The rock ripped his expensive **wet suit**.
- The gamble was a **long shot**.

(It doesn't matter what adjectives accompany these terms (called **compound nouns**), the shaded words must always be together. This is why *purpose* is the last category in the order of adjectives. When you add an adjective like "mixing" to "bowl," you create a recognized thing, "mixing bowl.")

If there is more than one adjective in front of the noun, we need to follow the adjective order, which is the adjective order by category: opinion, size, shape, age, color, origin, material, purpose.

Example:

<p>She owns two happy big brown dogs.</p> <p>(Wanita itu memiliki dua ekor anjing besar yang ceria.)</p>	<p>Keterangan:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• happy = opinion• big = size• brown = color
--	---

Table 3.4 Example of Coordinate Adjective

D. Adjective phrase

In a phrase or sentence, the adjective may be in an attributive position that is placed in front of the noun, a postpositive that is behind the noun (without the linking verb interrupted), or the predicative that is placed after the noun with the interrupted of linking verb.

In each example below, the adjective phrase is shaded and the head adjective is bold.

- She had **extremely blue** eyes.

(This adjective phrase describes the noun eyes. The adjective "blue" heads the adjective phrase.)

- She wore very **expensive** shoes.

(This adjective phrase describes (or "modifies" as grammarians say) the noun "shoes." The adjective "expensive" heads the adjective phrase.)

- Sarah was **hostile** towards me.

(This adjective phrase modifies the noun "Sarah." The adjective "hostile" heads the adjective phrase. Like a normal adjective, an adjective phrase can be used before the noun it's modifying (as in the first two examples) or afterwards (as here).)



Picture 3.4 Adjective Phrase

Posisi	Contoh Adjective
Attributive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> beautiful women They are beautiful women. (Mereka adalah wanita-wanita yang cantik.)
Postpositive	someone special
Predicative	We are beautiful. (Kami cantik.)

Table 3.5 Example of Adjective Phrase

In an adjective phrase, the head adjective can be at the start, the middle or the end of the phrase.

- I am **sad** about the result. (start)
- I am awfully **sad** about the result. (middle)
- I am very **sad**. (end)

The other words inside the adjective phrase are known as the dependents of the head adjective. They are typically adverbs ("awfully" and "very") or prepositional phrases ("about the result").

If you ever find yourself discussing adjective phrases, it won't be too long before you encounter the terms "attributive adjective" and predicative adjective.

E. Attributive and Predicative Adjective

An **attributive adjective** typically sits **before** the noun it is modifying.

- The **beautifully carved** frames are priceless.

(The adjective phrase is before the noun it modifies ("frames"). This is an attributive adjective phrase.)

Predicative Adjective. A predicative adjective typically sits **after** the noun it is modifying.

- The frames are beautifully **carved** and priceless.

(The adjective phrase is after the noun it modifies ("The frames"). This is a predicative adjective phrase.)

When an adjective phrase (or any adjective for that matter) appears before its noun, it is highly likely to be an attributive adjective. However, an adjective that appears after its noun can also be attributive.

- The frames **beautifully carved by monks** are priceless.

(The adjective phrase is after the noun it modifies ("The frames"), but this time it's an attributive adjective.)

Even though most attributive adjectives sit before their nouns, the position of an adjective does not determine whether it is attributive or predicative. An attributive adjective sits inside the noun phrase of the noun it modifies, and a predicative adjective sits outside the noun phrase of the noun it modifies. Typically, a predicative adjective is linked to its noun with a linking verb (e.g., "to be," "to look," "to smell," "to taste").

- The dog **covered in mud** looks **pleased** with himself.

(In this example, the first adjective phrase – even though it's positioned after its noun ("The dog") – is attributive because it appears inside the noun phrase "The dog covered in mud."

The second is predicative because it appears outside the noun phrase of the noun it modifies. Note how it is linked to its noun with a linking verb ("looks").)

F. Adjective Degree

Adjectives can be used to make comparisons. This word can change form according to the kind of comparison. Here are three kinds of comparisons in English

Kinds	Degree of Comparison example
positive degree	membandingkan kesetaraan.
	I am as good as you in English. (Saya sebaik kamu di pelajaran Bahasa Inggris.)
comparative degree	membandingkan dua orang, hewan, benda, atau hal. <i>Adjective</i> mengalami perubahan dari bentuk standar ke bentuk <i>comparative</i> dengan mengikuti pola tertentu.
	You should be better than yesterday. (kamu harus lebih baik dari kemarin.)
superlative degree	untuk membandingkan tiga atau lebih orang, hewan, benda, atau hal. <i>Adjective</i> mengalami perubahan dari bentuk standar ke bentuk <i>superlative</i> dengan mengikuti pola tertentu.
	She was the best of all of them. (Wanita itu dulu yang terbaik dari mereka semua.)

Table 3.6 Example of Adjective Degree

Every adjective and adverb can be written in one of three degrees:

- **The Positive Degree.** This offers no comparison. It just tells us about the existence of a quality. For example:
 - adjectives: slow, beautiful, happy
- **The Comparative Degree.** This compares two things to show which has the lesser or greater degree of the quality. For example:
 - adjectives: slower, more beautiful, happier
- **The Superlative Degree.** This compares more than two things to show which has the least or greatest degree of the quality. For example:

- adjectives: slowest, most beautiful, happiest

Here is the adjective "hungry" in all three degrees of comparison:

- Lee is **hungry**. (positive degree)
- Lee is **hungrier** than Mark. (comparative degree)
- Lee is the **hungriest** of all. (superlative degree)

Here are the rules for forming the comparative and superlative degrees of adjectives:

Type of Adjective	Example in the Positive Degree	How to Form the Comparative Degree	How to Form the Superlative Degree
one syllable	<input type="checkbox"/> strong	add <i>er</i> <input type="checkbox"/> stronger	add <i>est</i> <input type="checkbox"/> strongest
one syllable ending vowel consonant	<input type="checkbox"/> thin	double consonant and add <i>er</i> <input type="checkbox"/> thinner	double consonant and add <i>est</i> <input type="checkbox"/> thinnest
more than one syllable	<input type="checkbox"/> famous	add <i>less or more</i> <input type="checkbox"/> more famous	add <i>most or least</i> <input type="checkbox"/> least famous
more than one syllable ending y	<input type="checkbox"/> silly	remove <i>y</i> add <i>ier</i> <input type="checkbox"/> sillier for less <input type="checkbox"/> less silly	remove <i>y</i> add <i>iest</i> <input type="checkbox"/> silliest for least least silly
irregular	<input type="checkbox"/> bad <input type="checkbox"/> good <input type="checkbox"/> many	no rules <input type="checkbox"/> worse <input type="checkbox"/> better <input type="checkbox"/> more	no rules <input type="checkbox"/> worst <input type="checkbox"/> best <input type="checkbox"/> most

Table 3.7 Comparative and Superlative Degree of Adjective

LEARNING ACTIVITY 3

A. Adjective Clause dan Reduced Adjective Clause

Adjective clause is a subordinate clause that functions as an adjective, explain the noun or pronoun that is in the main clause of a complex sentence.

When we think of an adjective, we usually think about a single word used before a noun to modify its meanings (e.g., tall building, smelly cat, argumentative assistant). However, an adjective can also come in the form of an adjective clause. An adjective clause usually comes after the noun it modifies and is made up of several words, which, like all clauses, will include a subject and a verb.

complex sentence = main clause + adjective clause

Table 3.8 Complex Sentence

This English clause is formed by a relative pronoun (who (ever), whom (ever), whose, which (ever), that) or relative adverb (where, when, why).

adjective clause = relative pronoun +/- subject + verb

adjective clause = relative adverb + subject + verb

Table 3.9 Adjective Clause

Here are some examples of adjective clauses:

- The carpets that you bought last year have rotted.
- The follies which a man regrets most in his life are those which he didn't commit when he had the opportunity. (US journalist Helen Rowland, 1876-1950)

(Even though this is a quotation by an American journalist, nowadays, most writers in the US would use *that* instead of *which*. There's more on this below.)

- Bore: a person who talks when you wish him to listen.

An adjective clause (also called a relative clause) will have the following three traits:

- **Trait 1.** It will start with a relative pronoun (*who, whom, whose, that, or which*) or a relative adverb (*when, where, or why*).

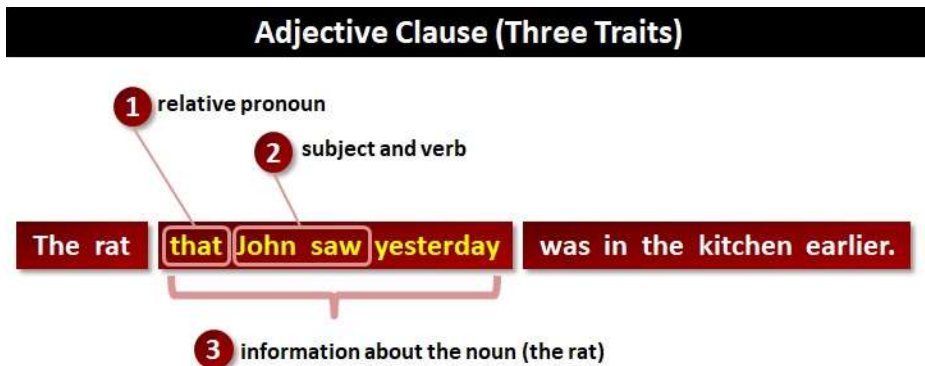
(This links it to the noun it is modifying.)

(Note: Quite often, the relative pronoun can be omitted. However, with an adjective clause, it is always possible to put one in. There is more on this below.)

- **Trait 2.** It will have a subject and a verb.
- **Trait 3.** It will tell us something about the noun.

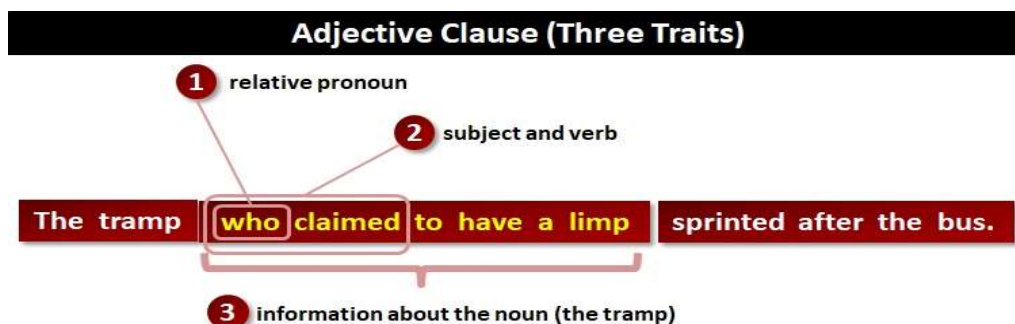
(This is why it is a kind of adjective.)

Look at the three traits in this example:



Picture 3.5 Adjective Clause (Three Traits)

Quite often, the relative pronoun is the subject of the clause. Look at the three traits in this example:



Picture 3.6 Adjective Clause (Three Traits)²

The adjective clause may be shortened (reduced) to a reduced adjective clause by removing relative pronouns and changing the verb used into participles.

Adjective Clause example	Reduced Adjective Clause example
The man who always goes to work by bicycle is my boss. (Pria yang selalu pergi ke kantor dengan sepeda itu adalah bos saya.)	The man always going to work by bicycle is my boss.

Table 3.10 Example of Adjective Clause and Reduced Adjective Clause

It is common for the relative pronoun to be reduced. Look at these another examples:

- The carpets which you bought last year have gone moldy. ✓
- The film which you recommended scared the kids half to death. ✓
- The follies which a man regrets most in his life are those which he didn't commit when he had the opportunity. ✓ (Helen Rowland, 1876-1950)

This is not always possible though:

- Bore: a person who talks when you wish him to listen. ✗

When the adjective clause starts with a relative adverb (*when, where* or *why*), the relative adverb cannot be omitted.

- I don't remember a time when words were not dangerous. (Libyan author Hisham Matar)
(You can often omit a relative pronoun, but you can't omit a relative adverb. So, you can't omit *when* in this example.)

B. Another kinds of Adjective

There are several types of adjectives, including stative and dynamic adjectives, as well as inherent and non-inherent adjectives. Stative adjectives characterize conditions that tend to be permanent (small, black, tall), Stative adjectives cannot normally be used in imperative constructions:

*Be big/red/small

Further, they cannot normally be used in progressive constructions:

*He is being big/red/small

While dynamic adjectives are associated with behavior (foolish, friendly, playful).

For instance, *brave* denotes an attribute which may not always be in evidence (unlike *red*, for example), but which may be called upon as it is required. For this reason, it is appropriate to use it in an imperative:

Be *brave*!

Dynamic adjectives include:

<i>calm</i>	<i>mannerly</i>
<i>careful</i>	<i>patient</i>
<i>cruel</i>	<i>rude</i>
<i>disruptive</i>	<i>shy</i>
<i>foolish</i>	<i>suspicious</i>
<i>friendly</i>	<i>tidy</i>

good *vacuous*
impatient *vain*

All dynamic adjectives can be used in imperatives (*Be careful!*, *Don't be cruel!*), and they can also be used predicatively in progressive constructions:

- Your son is being *disruptive* in class
- My parents are being *foolish* again
- We're being very *patient* with you

The majority of adjectives are stative. The stative/dynamic contrast, as it relates to adjectives, is largely a semantic one, though as we have seen it also has syntactic implications.

The inherent adjective directly characterizes the noun he describes (someone special = special characterizes someone directly, someone who is special), while the non-inherent adjective is the opposite (my old friend = not "my friend who is old", but rather old characterizes a friendship that is has been working on for a long time)

Most attributive adjectives denote some attribute of the noun which they modify. For instance, the phrase *a red car* may be said to denote *a car which is red*. In fact most adjective-noun sequences such as this can be loosely reformulated in a similar way:

an *old* man ~a man who is *old*

difficult questions ~questions which are *difficult*

round glasses ~glasses which are *round*

This applies equally to postpositive adjectives:

something *understood* ~something which is *understood*

the people *responsible* ~the people who are *responsible*

In each case the adjective denotes an attribute or quality of the noun, as the reformulations show. Adjectives of this type are known as INHERENT adjectives. The attribute they denote is, as it were, inherent in the noun which they modify.

However, not all adjectives are related to the noun in the same way. For example, the adjective *small* in *a small businessman* does not describe an attribute of the businessman. It cannot be reformulated as *a businessman who is small*. Instead, it refers to *a businessman whose business is small*. We refer to adjectives of this type as NON-INHERENT adjectives. They refer less directly to an attribute of the noun than inherent adjectives do. Here are some more examples, showing the contrast between inherent and non-inherent:

Inherent	Non-inherent
<i>distant</i> hills	<i>distant</i> relatives
a <i>complete</i> chapter	a <i>complete</i> idiot
a <i>heavy</i> burden	a <i>heavy</i> smoker
a <i>social</i> survey	a <i>social</i> animal
an <i>old</i> man	an <i>old</i> friend

Table 3. 11 Inherent & Non-Inherent

SUMMARY

- Adjective is a word used to describe a noun (noun) or pronoun (pronoun) which can be a person, a place, an animal, an object or an abstract concept (thing).
- Coordinate adjectives are also multiple adjectives that modify the same noun, but, with coordinate adjectives, their order is far less important because they can be used individually with the noun.
- An attributive adjective typically sits before the noun it is modifying.
- A predicative adjective typically sits after the noun it is modifying.
- Adjectives can be used to make comparisons.
- Every adjective and adverb can be written in one of three degrees:
 - The Positive Degree
 - The Comparative Degree.

➤ The Superlative Degree

- Adjective clause is a subordinate clause that functions as an adjective, explain the noun or pronoun that is in the main clause of a complex sentence.
- The adjective clause may be shortened (reduced) to a reduced adjective clause by removing relative pronouns and changing the verb used into participles.
- There are several types of adjectives, including stative and dynamic adjectives, as well as inherent and non-inherent adjectives. Stative adjectives characterize conditions that tend to be permanent (small, black, tall), Stative adjectives cannot normally be used in imperative constructions.
- All dynamic adjectives can be used in imperatives (Be careful!, Don't be cruel!), and they can also be used predicatively in progressive constructions.

EXERCISE

Learning Activity 1

Complete the following sentences using the appropriate form of the adjective given in the brackets.

1. He is than his neighbors.

rich

richer

richest

2. The brides were much than the grooms.

young

younger

youngest

3. He is too to be taught.

intelligent

more intelligent

most intelligent

4. He is than I thought him to be.

clever

cleverer

cleverest

5. When the old woman became, she began to move about.

stronger

more strong

much strong

6. He is much now.

good

better

best

7. The offer was too to be true.

good

better

best

8. He fishes with success than I do.

great

greater

greatest

9. Shakespeare is the playwright in English.

great

greater

greatest

10. The pain was than he could bear.

much

more

most

11. The thing of all was that his son was rude to him.

bad

worse

worst

12. Jane was the player of the two.

good

better

best

Answer:

1. He is **richer** than his neighbors.
2. The brides were much **younger** than the grooms.
3. He is too **intelligent** to be taught.
4. He is **cleverer** than I thought him to be.
5. When the old woman became **stronger**, she began to move about.
6. He is much **better** now.
7. The offer was too **good** to be true.
8. He fishes with **greater** success than I do.
9. Shakespeare is the **greatest** playwright in English.
10. The pain was **more** than he could bear.
11. The **worst** thing of all was that his son was rude to him.
12. Jane was the **better** player of the two.

More Adjective Exercise

1. Form adjectives from the following **nouns**:
 - A. water
 - B. ice

C. syrup

2. Form adjectives from the following **verbs**:
 - A. walk
 - B. amaze
 - C. decay

3. Which of the following sentences contains a proper **denominal adjective**?
 - A. People in New York are usually busy.
 - B. New York residents are often busy.
 - A. We had fun listening to classic French music.
 - B. Music by the French is fun to listen to.
 - A. He speaks Russian.
 - B. He speaks the Russian language.

4. Choose the **superlative adjective** in each group of sentences:
 - A. I like dark coffee.
 - B. This is the fastest car I've ever driven.
 - C. I'd like darker curtains.
 - A. This is good ice cream.
 - B. Meet Sue, my younger sister.
 - C. Of all the options available, this seems to be the best one.
 - A. This is a better play than the last one.
 - B. The box was blue, and oddly shaped.
 - C. This is the most exciting thing I've ever experienced!

5. Choose the **absolute adjective** in each group of sentences:
- A. We live in a blue house.
 - B. The grass is greener on the other side.
 - C. This is the shortest my hair has ever been.
- A. That's a short dress.
- B. Why don't you choose a longer style?
- C. Just because it's the shortest dress doesn't mean it's the most stylish.
- A. Our house is bigger than our grandmother's is.
- B. They live in the biggest house I've ever seen.
- C. That's a big house!
6. Choose the **adjective** from each of the following groups of words:
- A. interest, interesting, party
 - B. amount, colorful, medicine
 - C. fur, hilarious, cup
7. Fill in the blanks with the best **compound adjective** for the situation.
- A. With _____ temperatures, this is the coldest winter on record.
- below zero
 - below-zero
 - freezing
- B. Jeremy gave Linda a _____ engagement ring.
- gorgeous diamond
 - gorgeous-diamond

- big
- C. We're celebrating with a _____ bottle of champagne.
- costly
 - ten-year-old
 - 10 year old
8. Choose the sentence containing the **denominal adjective**:
- A. We practiced for the play.
 - B. We spent two hours practicing the Shakespearean play.
 - C. We practiced Shakespeare's play for two hours.
9. Choose the **comparative adjective** in each group of sentences:
- A. This list is longer than the last one.
 - B. This is probably the longest one I've ever seen.
 - C. This is a long list.
- A. Stop acting so weird.
 - B. You're acting weirder than ever.
 - C. You're the weirdest person in this class.
- A. This is the chocolatiest cake I've ever tasted.
 - B. Have some chocolate cake.
 - C. Do you think this cake tastes chocolatier than the last one?
10. For each of the following sentences, choose the correct **order of adjectives** to fill in the blank.
- A. His grandfather lives in the _____ house down the street.
 - big old yellow

- yellow old big
 - old big yellow
- B. The shop offers all kinds of _____ objects.
- interesting old antique
 - old antique interesting
 - old interesting antique
- C. We went for a long walk on a _____ trail.
- Beautiful new 5-mile
 - New, beautiful 5-mile
 - 5-mile new, beautiful

11. A, B, or C? Which phrase contains the **denominal adjective**?

- A. open door
- B. fun time
- C. Parmesan flavor

12. Some **compound adjective** contain hyphens. Which of the following sentences is correct?

- A. He's a decent-judge of character.
- B. She submitted a 190-page document supporting her position.
- C. We're adopting a two year old parakeet.

13. Which sentence uses the correct **order of adjectives**?

- A. We took a ride on a red, new, Italian motorbike.
- B. We took a ride on an Italian, new, red motorbike.
- C. We took a ride on a new red Italian motorbike.

14. For each of the following sentences, choose the correct **order of adjectives** to fill in the blank.

A. I was thrilled to receive a _____ book with my order.

- big, beautiful, leather-bound
- leather-bound, big, beautiful
- beautiful big leather-bound

B. His clown costume consists of a red nose, oversized shoes, and a _____ jacket.

- Size 4X polka-dotted silk smoking
- polka-dotted silk smoking size 4X
- polka dotted size 4x silk smoking

C. I've been shopping for the perfect _____ chopsticks.

- Japanese long sushi
- long Japanese sushi
- long sushi Japanese

15. From each group, choose the sentence containing the correct **compound adjective**.

A. Jennifer is overworked. She has been putting in 12 hour days lately.

B. Jennifer is overworked. She has been putting in 12-hour days lately.

C. Jennifer is overworked. She has been putting in 12-hour-days lately.

A. Jim prefers spicy, Caribbean-style food.

B. Jim likes Caribbean foods with lots of spice.

C. Jim's favorite foods are spicy ones with Caribbean flavors.

A. He's grown two inches since last time we saw him.

B. He's grown by a whole two inches since we last saw him.

C. He's had a two-inch growth spurt since last time we saw him.

Answer:

1. A. Watery
B. Icy
C. Syrupy
2. A. Walking
B. Amazing
C. Decaying
3. B, A, B
4. B, C, C
5. A, A, C
6. A. Interesting
B. Colorful
C. Hilarious
7. A. below-zero
B. gorgeous diamond
C. ten-year-old
8. B. We spent two hour practicing the Shakespearean play.
9. A, B, C
10. A. big old yellow
B. interesting old antique
C. beautiful new 5-mile
11. C. Parmesan Flavor
12. B. She submitted a 190-page document supporting her position.
13. C. We took a ride on a new red Italian motorbike.
14. A. beautiful big leather-bound
B. size 4x polka-dotted silk smoking
C. long Japanese sushi
15. B, A, C

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MODULE 4

ADVERB

A. Introduction

Based on <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Adverb>, An **adverb** is a word or an expression that modifies a verb, adjective, another adverb, determiner, clause, preposition, or sentence. Adverbs typically express manner, place, time, frequency, degree, level of certainty, etc., answering questions such as *how?*, *in what way?*, *when?*, *where?*, and *to what extent?*. This is called the adverbial function, and may be performed by single words (adverbs) or by multi-word adverbial phrases and adverbial clauses.

Adverbs are traditionally regarded as one of the parts of speech. Modern linguists note that the term "adverb" has come to be used as a kind of "catch-all" category, used to classify words with various types of syntactic behavior, not necessarily having much in common except that they do not fit into any of the other available categories (noun, adjective, preposition, etc.)

Adverbs are considered a part of speech in traditional English grammar, and are still included as a part of speech in grammar taught in schools and used in dictionaries. However, modern grammarians recognize that words traditionally grouped together as adverbs serve a number of different functions. Some describe adverbs as a "catch-all" category that includes all words that do not belong to one of the other parts of speech.

A logical approach to dividing words into classes relies on recognizing which words can be used in a certain context. For example, the only type of word that can be inserted in the following template to form a grammatical sentence is a noun:

The _____ is red. (For example, "The hat is red".)

When this approach is taken, it is seen that adverbs fall into a number of different categories. For example, some adverbs can be used to modify an entire sentence, whereas others cannot. Even when a sentential adverb has other functions, the meaning is often not the same. For example, in the sentences *She gave birth naturally* and *Naturally, she gave birth*, the

word *naturally* has different meanings: in the first sentence, as a verb-modifying adverb, it means "in a natural manner", while in the second sentence, as a sentential adverb, it means something like "of course".

Words like *very* afford another example. We can say *Perry is very fast*, but not *Perry very won the race*. These words can modify adjectives but not verbs. On the other hand, there are words like *here* and *there* that cannot modify adjectives. We can say *The sock looks good there* but not *It is a there beautiful sock*. The fact that many adverbs can be used in more than one of these functions can confuse the issue, and it may seem like splitting hairs to say that a single adverb is really two or more words that serve different functions. However, this distinction can be useful, especially when considering adverbs like *naturally* that have different meanings in their different functions. Rodney Huddleston distinguishes between a *word* and a *lexicogrammatical-word*.

Grammarians find difficulty categorizing negating words, such as the English *not*. Although traditionally listed as an adverb, this word does not behave grammatically like any other, and it probably should be placed in a class of its own.

B. Short Explanation

Topic on this module is about Adverb in general. From this module, students will understand:

- The definition of adverb
- Types of adverbs and also the definition
- How to use each of the adverb in the sentence

Through this module, students will understand about adverb.

C. Learning Outcomes

After learning this module, students can identify adverb and use them in a sentence, not only through listening, but also talking, reading and writing. Students can also use the adverb properly in a affirmative sentence, negative sentence and question. Students can also know and understand the types of adverbs and how to use each of them in a sentence

D. Competency Prerequisite: none

E. The Use Of The Module 4

By learning and understand this module, students as a foreign language learner, can use the adverb properly, identify types of nouns, can answer questions that related with adverb.

This module will come in handy to help the students understand materials about adverb and help them in understanding the adverb through questions.

LEARNING ACTIVITY 1

A. Adverbs Modify Or Describe Verbs.

An adverb is a word that can modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. Lots of adverbs end "-ly." For example:

- She swims **quickly**.

(Here, the adverb "quickly" modifies the verb "swims.")

- She is an **extremely** quick swimmer.

(The adverb "extremely" modifies the adjective "quick.")

In the examples above, every adverb is a single word, but an adverb can be made up of more than one word. For example:

- How: He ran **at 10 miles per hour**.

(The bold text is an adverbial phrase.)

- When: He ran **when the police arrived**.

(The bold text is an adverbial clause.)

- Where: He ran **to the shops**.

(adverbial phrase)

- Why: He ran **to fetch some water**.

(This is an adverbial phrase. Look at the list above. There are no single-word adverbs that tell us why.)

- How often: He ran **every day**.

(adverbial phrase)

- How much: He ran **quicker than me**.

(adverbial phrase)

B. Function

Adverbs modify, describe us more about other words, usually verbs:

An adverb that modifies a verb usually tells you how, when, where, why, how often, or how much the action is performed. (NB: The ones that end "ly" are usually the ones that tell us how the action is performed, e.g., "quickly," "slowly," "carefully," "quietly.")

Here are some examples of adverbs modifying verbs:

- Anita placed the vase **carefully** on the shelf.

(The word "carefully" is an adverb. It shows how the vase was placed.)

- Tara walks **gracefully**.

(The word "gracefully" is an adverb. It modifies the verb "to walk.")

- He runs **fast**.

(The word "fast" is an adverb. It modifies the verb "to run.")

- You can set your watch by him. He **always** leaves at 5 o'clock.

(The word "always" is an adverb. It modifies the verb "to leave.")

- The dinner guests arrived **early**.

(Here, "early" modifies "to arrive.")

- She **sometimes** helps us.
(Here, "sometimes" modifies "to help.")
- Will you come **quietly**, or do I have to use earplugs? (Comedian Spike Milligan)
(Here, "quietly" modifies "to come.")
- I am the only person in the world I should like to know **thoroughly**. (Playwright Oscar Wilde)
(Here, "thoroughly" modifies "to know.")

Adverbs

Adverbs tell us **how, when, where, how often, and how much.**

<p>how</p> <p>quietly easily carefully well slowly badly</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Talk quietly. ▪ Sarah drove slowly. ▪ She examined the box carefully.
<p>when</p> <p>now today later yesterday tomorrow</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Leave now. ▪ Post the parcel today. ▪ Tony left yesterday.
<p>where</p> <p>here there inside nearby overseas</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Bring it here. ▪ I used to live there. ▪ The issues are happening overseas.
<p>how often</p> <p>always often rarely sometimes</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ You always complain. ▪ Check your work often. ▪ Toby sometimes lies.
<p>how much</p> <p>very extremely entirely too enormously</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ The rip is extremely noticeable. ▪ Don't work too hard. ▪ It is entirely inappropriate!



Picture 4.1 Adverbs

Sometimes adverbs tell us more about adjectives:

If you examine the word "adverb," you could be forgiven for thinking adverbs only modify verbs (i.e., "add" to "verbs"), but adverbs can also modify adjectives and other adverbs. Here are some examples of adverbs modifying adjectives:

- The **horridly** grotesque gargoyle was undamaged by the debris.

(The adverb "horridly" modifies the adjective "grotesque.")

- Peter had an **extremely** ashen face.

(The adverb "extremely" modifies the adjective "ashen.")

- **Badly** trained dogs that fail the test will become pets.

(The adverb "badly" modifies the adjective "trained.")

(Note: The adjective "trained" is an adjective formed from the verb "to train." It is called a participle.)

- She wore a **beautifully** designed dress.

(The adverb "beautifully" modifies the adjective "designed.")

Adverbs can also modify or adjust other adverbs:

Examples:

- Peter Jackson finished his assignment **remarkably quickly**.

(Here, the adverb "quickly" modifies the verb "to finish." The adverb "remarkably" modifies the adverb "quickly.")

- We're showing kids a world that is **very scantily** populated with women and female characters. They should see female characters taking up half the planet, which we do. (Actress Geena Davis)

(In this example, the adverb "scantly" modifies the adjective "populated." The adverb "very" modifies the adverb "scantly.")

C. Rules

1. In most cases, an adverb is made by adding '-ly' to an adjective:

Adjective	Adverb
quick	quickly
slow	slowly
cheap	cheaply

Table 4.1 '-ly'

Examples:

- They *certainly* had an interesting book.
- She *carefully* picked up the sleeping cat.
- Time goes *quickly* when we are busy studying
- She walked *slowly* to the front door.

If the adjective ends in '-y', replace the 'y' with 'i' and add '-ly':

Adjective	Adverb
angry	angrily
happy	happily
easy	easily

Table 4.2 'i' + '-ly'

If the adjective ends in '-ible', '-able', or '-le', replace the '-e' with '-y':

Adjective	Adverb
terrible	terribly
probable	probably

Table 4.3 '-y'

If the adjective ends in '-ic', add '-ally':

Adjective	Adverb
basic economic	basically economically

Table 4.4 '-ally'

Note: Exception: *public* - *publicly*

2. Some adverbs have the same form as the adjective:

Adjective	Adverb
hard	late
high	near
early	straight
fast	wrong

Table 4.5 Adverbs = Adjectives

Compare:

- Those are *hard* exercises.
- They work *hard*
- They saw many *high* skyscrapers.
- That eagle flew *high* in the air.
- Those are *fast* cars.
- She drove very *fast*.

3. 'Well' and 'good'

'*Well*' is the adverb that corresponds to the adjective '*good*'.

Examples:

- They are good pianists.

- He plays the guitar *well*.
- She is a *good* swimmer.
- He swims *well*.
- She is a *good* employer.
- She works *well*

LEARNING ACTIVITY 2

A. Kinds Of Adverbs

1. Adverbs Of Manner

Adverbs of manner tell us how something occurs. An adverb of manner will explain how an action is carried out. Very often adverbs of manner are adjectives with -ly added to the end, but this is certainly not always the case. In fact, some adverbs of manner will have the same spelling as the adjective form.

Some examples of adverbs of manner include:

- Slowly
- Rapidly
- Clumsily
- Badly
- Diligently
- Sweetly
- Warmly
- Sadly

Examples:

- He spoke... *loudly, softly*.
- Johnny coughed *loudly* to attract their attention.

- She plays the saxophone *beautifully*. (after the object)
- She ate the cheese cake *greedily*.
- She swims *well*, (after the main verb)
- She ran... *slowly, rapidly*.

BE CAREFUL!

The adverb should not be placed between the verb and the object:

Examples:

- She ate *greedily* the cheese cake [incorrect]
- She ate the cheese cake *greedily* [correct]

If there is a preposition before the object, e.g. *towards*, we can place the adverb either before the preposition or after the object.

Examples:

- That boy ran *happily towards* his grandmother.

Sometimes an adverb of manner is put before a verb + object to add emphasis:

Examples:

- That man *gently* woke the sleeping child.

Some writers place an adverb of manner at the beginning of the sentence to catch our attention and make us curious:

Examples:

- *Slowly* he picked up the machete.

(We want to know *what* occurred *slowly*, *who* did it *slowly*, *why they did it slowly*)

However, adverbs should always come AFTER intransitive verbs (=verbs which have no object).

Examples:

- This city grew *quickly*
- She waited *patiently*

Also, these common adverbs are almost always put AFTER the verb:

- *badly*
- *fast*
- *hard*
- *well*

The position of the adverb is important when there is more than one verb in a sentence. If the adverb is put after a *clause*, then it modifies the whole action described by the clause.

Notice the difference in meaning between the following pairs of sentences:

- She *quietly* asked me to leave the building (= her request was quiet)
- She asked me to leave the building *quietly* (= the leaving was quiet)
- He *quickly* agreed to re-type the business letter (= his agreement was quick)
- He agreed to re-type the business letter *quickly* (= the re-typing was quick)

2. Adverbs Of Place

Adverbs of place tell us *where* something occurs.

They are usually put after the main verb or after the object:

Examples:

after the main verb:

- She looked *everywhere*
- Peter looked *down, up, around, away...*
- She's going *back, out, home*

- Come *in*

after the object:

- We built a house *nearby*
- He took the child *outside*

An adverb of place, sometimes called spatial adverbs, will help explain where an action happens. Adverbs of place will be associated with the action of the verb in a sentence, providing context for direction, distance and position: southeast, everywhere, up, left, close by, back, inside, around. These terms don't usually end in -ly.

Adverbs of place examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

Common Adverbs of Place

'Here' and 'there'

With verbs of movement, *here* means towards or with the speaker:

- It's in *here* (= come with me to see it)
- Come *here* (= towards me)

There means away from, or not with the speaker:

- It's in *there* (= go by yourself to see it)
- Put it *there* (= away from me)

Here and *there* are combined with prepositions to make many common adverbial phrases: *over here, over there; under here, under there; down here, down there; up there, up here*

Here and *there* are put at the beginning of the sentence in exclamations or when emphasis is needed.

They are followed by the verb if the subject is a noun:

- *Here* comes the truck. (followed by the verb)

Or by a pronoun if this is the subject (it, she, he etc.):

- *There* he goes! (followed by the pronoun)
- *Here* it is! (followed by the pronoun)

NOTE: most common adverbs of place also function as prepositions.

Examples:

across, about, along, around, behind, down, by, in, off, on, over, round, through, under, up.

Go to Prepositions or Phrasal Verbs

Other adverbs of place: ending in '-wards', expressing movement in a particular direction: backwards, westwards.

Examples:

- That yacht sailed *westwards*.
- Dog doesn't usually walk *backwards*.

BE CAREFUL! 'Towards' is a preposition, not an adverb, so it is always followed by a *noun* or a *pronoun*:

- She walked *towards the truck*.
- He ran *towards his grandmother*.

expressing both movement and location:

abroad, overseas, ahead, sideways, uphill, outdoors, indoors

Examples:

- She worked *abroad*.
- That girl went *outdoors*.

3. Adverbs Of Degree

Usage

Adverbs of degree tell us about the intensity or degree of an action, an adjective or another adverb.

Common adverbs of degree:

Almost, quite, nearly, just, too, hardly, enough, very, completely, extremely.

Adverbs of degree are usually placed:

1. before the main verb:
e.g. She was *just* leaving. He has *almost* finished.
2. before the adjective or adverb they are modifying:
e.g. The snow was *extremely* cold.

Examples:

- He doesn't *quite* know what he'll do after university.
- She *hardly* noticed what he was saying.
- He is *too* tired to go out tonight.
- We are *completely* exhausted from the trip.

Enough, very, too

Enough as an adverb meaning 'to the necessary degree' goes *after* adjectives and adverbs.

Examples:

- Is your coffee milk *hot enough*? (adjective)
- She didn't work *hard enough*. (adverb)

It also goes before nouns, and means 'as much as is necessary'. In this case it is not an adverb, but a 'determiner'.

Examples:

- We don't have *enough bread*.
- They have *enough food*.

Too as an adverb meaning 'more than is necessary or useful' goes *before* adjectives and adverbs, e.g.

- They work *too* hard. (adverb)
- That milk is *too* hot. (adjective)

Enough and too with adjectives can be followed by '*for someone/something*'.

Examples:

- He's not experienced *enough* for this task.
- This milk was *too* hot for her.
- That gown is big *enough* for her.

We can also use '*to + infinitive*' after enough and too with adjectives/adverb.

Examples:

- They're *too* young to have kids!
- That coffee milk was *too* hot to drink.
- She didn't work hard *enough* to pass the test.
- He's old *enough* to know better.

Very goes before an adverb or adjective to make it stronger.

Examples:

- She ran *very* quickly. (adverb)
- That stewardess was *very* beautiful. (adjective)

If we want to make a negative form of an adjective or adverb, we can use a word of opposite meaning, or *not very*.

Examples:

- She ran slowly OR She *didn't* run *very* quickly.

- That stewardess was ugly OR That stewardess was *not very* beautiful

BE CAREFUL! There is a big contrast between too and very.

- Too suggests there is an issue:

She speaks *too* quickly (*for me to understand*).

- Very expresses a fact or reality:

She speaks *very* quickly.

Other adverbs like *very*

These common adverbs are used like very and not very, and are listed in order of strength, from positive to negative:

especially, particularly, extremely, rather, quite, pretty, fairly, not particularly, not especially.

Note: *rather* can be positive or negative, depending on the adjective or adverb that follows:

Positive: That police officer was *rather* nice.

Negative: That movie was *rather* disappointing.

Note on inversion with negative adverbs

Normally the subject goes before the verb:

SUBJECT	VERB
She	left
He	goes

Table 4. 6 The subject goes before the verb

However, some negative adverbs can cause an inversion - the order is reversed and the verb goes before the subject

Examples:

- He has *never* seen such courage.

Never has he seen such courage.

- He *rarely* left the house.

Rarely did he leave the house.

Negative inversion is used in writing, not in speaking.

Other adverbs and adverbial expressions that can be used like this:

seldom, scarcely, hardly, not only

but also, no sooner

than, not until, under no circumstances.

4. Adverbs Of Certainty

Adverbs of certainty express how certain or sure we feel about an action or event.

Usage

Common adverbs of certainty:

definitely, certainly, undoubtedly, probably, surely

- a. Adverbs of certainty go before the main verb but after the verb 'to be':
 - She *definitely* left the building this afternoon.
 - She is *probably* in the mall.
- b. With other auxiliary verb, these adverbs go between the auxiliary and the main verb:
 - She has *certainly* forgotten the appointment.
 - She will *probably* remember soon.
- c. Sometimes these adverbs can be placed at the beginning of the sentence:
 - *Undoubtedly*, Nelson Mandela was a great prominent person.

BE CAREFUL! with *surely*. When it is put at the beginning of the sentence, it means the speaker thinks something is true, but is looking for confirmation:

- *Surely* he's got a mountain bike?

Viewpoint And Commenting Adverbs

Some adverbs and adverbial expressions which describe us about the speaker's viewpoint or opinion about an action, or make some comment on the action.

Viewpoint

Frankly, I think she is a criminal. (= this is my frank, honest opinion)
Theoretically, they should pay charges. (= from a theoretical point of view but there may be another way of looking at the situation)

These adverbs are placed at the beginning of the sentence and are separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma.

Some common Viewpoint adverbs:

seriously, confidentially, honestly, surprisingly, ideally, personally, officially, economically, obviously, surely, undoubtedly, clearly.

Examples:

- *Geographically*, Ireland is rather cut off from the rest of Europe.
- *Personally*, He'd rather go by motorbike.
- *Surprisingly*, this vehicle is cheaper than the smaller model.

Commenting

These are very similar to viewpoint adverbs, and often the same words, but they go in a different position - after the verb *to be* and before the main verb.

Examples

- He *obviously* enjoyed his chicken noodle.
- He is *certainly the best person for that task*.

Some common Commenting adverbs:

definitely, obviously, simply, certainly.

5. Relative Adverbs

The following adverbs can be used to join sentences or clauses. They replace the more formal structure of *preposition + which* in a relative clause:

where, when, why

Examples:

- There was a very cold winter the year *when* she was born.

(when = in which)

- Tell us (the reason) *why* you were late home.

(why = for which, but could replace the whole phrase 'the reason for which')

- That's the office *where* they met for the first time.

(where = at/in which)

- We remember the date *when* we first met.

(when = on which)

Adverbs of Time

Adverbs of time tell us *when* an action happened, but also *for how long*, and *how often*.

Examples:

- When: *yesterday, later, today, last year, now.*
- For how long: *not long, for a while, all day, since last year*
- How often: *never, frequently, yearly, sometimes, often.*

"When" adverbs are usually placed at the end of the sentence:

Examples:

- I'm going to tidy my room *tomorrow*.
- Blond girl went to the Bears' house *yesterday*.

This is a "neutral" position, but some "*when*" adverbs can be put in other positions to give a different emphasis

Compare:

- *Later* that blond girl ate fried rice. (the time is more important)
- That blond girl *later* ate fried rice. (this is more formal, like a policeman's report.)
- That blond girl ate fried rice *later*. (this is neutral, no particular emphasis)

"For how long" adverbs are usually placed at the end of the sentence:

Examples:

- My mother lived in Madagascar *for a year*.
- She stayed in the Bears' house *all day*.

Notice: '*for*' is always followed by an expression of *duration*:

Examples:

- *for three centuries*.
- *for five days*,
- *for a week*,
- *for several years*,

'*since*' is always followed by an expression of *a point in time*:

Examples:

- *since Friday*,
- *since 2010*,
- *since the last semester*.

Adverbs of Frequency

Adverbs of frequency are used to express time or how often something occurs. Adverbs of frequency can be split into two main groups. The first, adverbs of indefinite frequency, are terms that have an unclear meaning as to how long or *how often* something occurs: *usually, always, normally*. These adverbs will usually be placed after the main verb or between the auxiliary verb and infinitive.

Adverbs of frequency examples in the following sentences are in bold for easy identification.

- The adverb is **usually** placed before the main verb.
- I can **normally** make the shot.
- I will **always** love

Adverbs of definite frequency will usually be placed at the end of the sentence.

- We get paid **hourly**.
- I come here
- The situation seems to change **monthly**.
- The newspaper is bought **daily**.

"How often" adverbs expressing the *frequency* of an action are usually placed before the main verb but after auxiliary verbs (such as *be, have, may, must*):

Examples:

- He *is never* air-sick. (after the auxiliary *is*)
- We *have never* forgotten our mother's advice. (after the auxiliary *have* and before the main verb *forgotten*)
- We *often* eat vegetarian food. (before the main verb)
- She *never* drinks milk. (before the main verb)
- We *must always* fasten our seat belts. (after the auxiliary *must*)

Some other "*how often*" adverbs express the *exact number of times* an action happens and are usually placed at the end of the sentence:

Examples:

- She visits her grandmother *once a month*.
- This journal is published *weekly*.

When a *frequency* adverb is placed at the end of a sentence it is much stronger.

Compare:

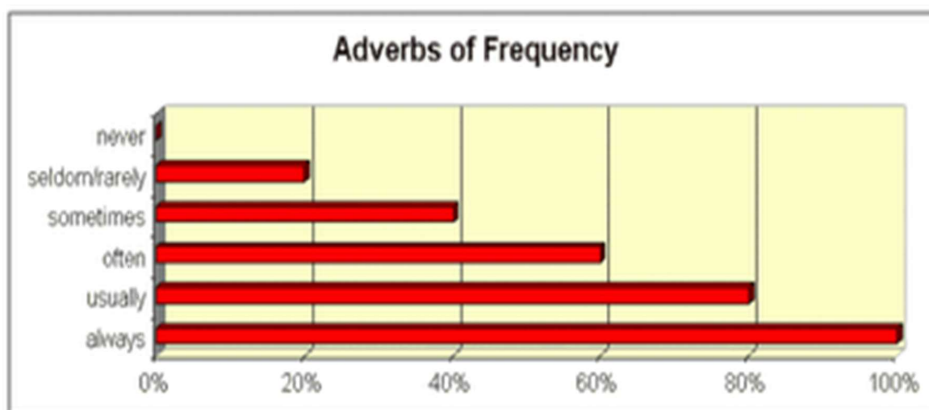
- He *regularly* visits Italy.
- He visits Italy *regularly*.

Adverbs that can be used in these two positions:

- *generally*
- *occasionally*
- *normally*
- *regularly*
- *usually*
- *sometimes*
- *often*

'*Yet*' and '*still*'

Yet is used in questions and in negative sentences, and is put at the end of the sentence or after *not*.



Picture 4.2 Adverbs of Frequency

Examples

- Have you finished your work *yet*? (= a simple request for information) No, *not yet*.
(= simple negative answer)
- They haven't met him *yet*.
(= simple negative statement)
- Haven't you finished *yet*?
(= expressing slight surprise)

Still expresses continuity; it is used in positive sentences and questions, and is placed before the main verb and after auxiliary verbs (such as *be, have, might, will*)

Examples:

- He is *still* hungry.
- He is *still* waiting for you
- Are you *still* here?
- Do you *still* work for the RCTI?

B. Order Of Adverbs Of Time

If you need to use more than one adverb of time at the end of a sentence, use them in this order:

1: *'how long'*

2: *'how often'*

3: *'when'* (think of 'low')

Example:

- 1 + 2 : I work (1) *for five hours* (2) *every day*
- 2 + 3 : The magazine was published (2) *weekly* (3) *last year*.
- 1 + 3 : I was abroad (1) *for two months* (3) *last year*.
- 1 + 2 + 3 : She worked in a hospital (1) *for two days* (2) *every week* (3) *last year*.

C. More Grammar Rules About Adverbs

1. You can use adverbs before adjectives

That was a totally stupid thing to do

He was surprisingly good at Spanish for a beginner

Jack is absolutely brilliant at speaking Spanish but not so good at writing tasks.

She said she was terribly sorry for what he did.

2. You can use adverbs TOGETHER WITH other adverbs

He finished the TOEIC writing exam amazingly quickly.

He complained because she made his milk-shake incredibly slowly.

3. You can use adverbs with PAST PARTICIPLES

We have been happily married for 17 years.

Don't go home until you have completely finished what you are doing!

SUMMARY

- An adverb is a word that can modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb. Lots of adverbs end "-ly."
- An adverb that modifies a verb usually tells you how, when, where, why, how often, or how much the action is performed.
- If you examine the word "adverb," you could be forgiven for thinking adverbs only modify verbs (i.e., "add" to "verbs"), but adverbs can also modify adjectives and other adverbs.
- Adverbs can also modify or adjust other adverbs.
- Rules:
 1. In most cases, an adverb is made by adding '-ly' to an adjective
 2. Some adverbs have the same form as the adjective
 3. 'Well' and 'good'
- Kinds of adverbs:
 1. Adverbs of manner
 2. Adverbs of place
 3. Adverbs of degree
 4. Adverbs of certainty
 5. Relative adverbs
 - a. Adverbs of Time
 - b. Adverbs of Frequency

EXERCISE

Choose the best answer by crossing A, B, or C

4. I found his home very _____.
 - A. Easily
 - B. frequently
 - C. difficultly
5. Johan behaves very _____ with his elders.
 - A. Goodly
 - B. Easily
 - C. Badly
6. Her father will be _____ of town this weekend.
 - A. inside
 - B. out
 - C. outside
4. Johan plays football _____.
 - A. aggressively
 - B. hardly
 - C. sympathetically
5. She doesn't care for anything and _____ looks happy every time.
 - A. since
 - B. hence
 - C. ago
6. They called the police officers _____ after the accident.
 - A. immediately
 - B. peacefully
 - C. slowly
7. Dylan is a _____ paid employee of this company.
 - A. lowly
 - B. hardly
 - C. highly

8. John was stuck in a jam for _____ two hours.
 - A. nearly
 - B. correctly
 - C. simply
9. How _____ do you go there?
 - A. never
 - B. often
 - C. seldom
10. Thompson was _____ happy when he got his first job.
 - A. extremely
 - B. halfly
 - C. fully

Answer:

1. A. easily
2. C. badly
3. C. outside
4. A. aggressively
5. B. hence
6. A. immediately
7. C. highly
8. A. nearly
9. B. often
10. A. extremely

ADVERBS EXERCISES

The following exercises will help you gain greater understanding about how adverbs work. Choose the best answer to complete each sentence.

1. The driver stopped the bus _____.

- A. Financially
 - B. Exactly
 - C. Abruptly
 - D. Now
2. During autumn, colorful leaves can be seen falling _____ from trees.
- A. Everywhere
 - B. Very
 - C. Gently
 - D. Loudly
3. My grandmother always smiled _____.
- A. Cheerfully
 - B. Sadly
 - C. Never
 - D. Yesterday
4. After the party, confetti was strewn _____.
- A. Blandly
 - B. Everywhere
 - C. Later
 - D. Carefully
5. It's time to go _____.
- A. Before
 - B. Now
 - C. Yesterday
 - D. Lightly

Answer:

- 1. C. The driver stopped the bus abruptly.
- 2. C. During autumn, colorful leaves can be seen falling gently from trees.

3. A. My grandmother always smiled cheerfully.
4. B. After the party, confetti was strewn everywhere.
5. B. It's time to go now.

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MODULE 5

SIMPLE PRESENT TENSE

A. Introduction

Based on https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Present_tense, The **present tense** (abbreviated **pres** or **prs**) is a grammatical tense whose principal function is to locate a situation or event in the present time.^[1] The present tense is used for actions which are happening now. In order to explain and understand present tense, it is useful to imagine time as a line on which the past tense, the present and the future tense are positioned. The term *present tense* is usually used in descriptions of specific languages to refer to a particular grammatical form or set of forms; these may have a variety of uses, not all of which will necessarily refer to present time. For example, in the English sentence "My train leaves tomorrow morning", the verb form *leaves* is said to be in the present tense, even though in this particular context it refers to an event in future time. Similarly, in the historical present, the present tense is used to narrate events that occurred in the past.

There are two common types of present tense form in most Indo-European languages: the present indicative (the combination of present tense and indicative mood) and the present subjunctive (the combination of present tense and subjunctive mood). The present tense is mainly classified into four parts:

1. Simple present
2. Present perfect
3. Present continuous
4. Present perfect continuous

The present indicative of most verbs in modern English has the same form as the infinitive, except for the third-person singular form, which takes the ending *-[e]s*. The verb *be* has the forms *am, is, are*. For details see English verbs. For the present subjunctive, see English subjunctive.

A number of multi-word constructions exist to express the combinations of present tense with the basic form of the present tense is called the simple present; there are also constructions known as the present progressive (or present continuous) (e.g. *am writing*), the present perfect (e.g. *have written*), and the present perfect progressive (e.g. *have been writing*). Use of the present tense does not always imply the present time. In particular, the present tense is often used to refer to future events (*I am seeing James tomorrow*; *My train leaves at 3 o'clock this afternoon*). This is particularly the case in condition clauses and many other adverbial subordinate clauses: *If you see him,...*; *As soon as they arrive...* There is also the historical present, in which the present tense is used to narrate past events.

B. Short Explanation

Topic on this module is about Simple Present Tense in general. From this module, students will understand:

- The definition of simple present tense
- The use of simple present tense
- How to use each of the simple present tense in the sentence

Through this module, students will understand simple present tense.

C. Learning Outcomes

After learning this module, students can identify simple present tense and use them in a sentence, not only through listening, but also talking, reading and writing. Students can also use the simple present tense properly in a affirmative sentence, negative sentence and question. Students can also know and understand the use simple present tense and how to write it in a good sentence

D. Competency Prerequisite: none

E. The Use Of The Module 5

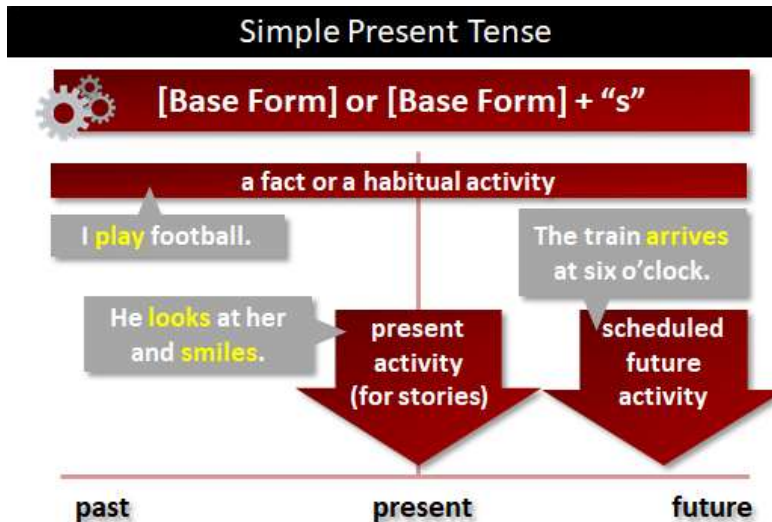
By learning and understand this module, students as a foreign language learner, can use the simple present tense properly, identify the use simple present tense, can answer questions that related with simple present tense. This module will come in handy to help the students

understand materials about simple present tense and help them in understanding the simple present tense through questions.

LEARNING ACTIVITY 1

A. Simple Present Tense

The simple present, also called present simple or present indefinite, is a verb tense which is used to show repetition, generalization or habit. Less commonly, the simple present can be used to talk about scheduled actions in the near future and, in some cases, actions happening now. Read on for detailed descriptions, examples, and simple present exercises.



Picture 5.1 Simple Present Tense

B. Simple Present Uses

1. USE 1 Repeated Actions



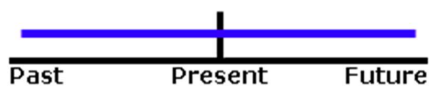
Picture 5.2 Repeated Actions

Use the simple present to express the idea that an action is repeated or usual. The action can be a hobby, a habit, a scheduled event, a daily event or something that often happens. It can also be something a person often forgets or usually does not do.

Examples:

- The commuter train leaves every morning at 8 AM.
- The commuter train does not leave at 9 AM.
- When does the commuter train usually leave?
- She always forgets her purse.
- He never forgets his wallet.
- The Earth circles the Sun every twelve months.
- Does the Moon circle the Earth?
- He plays tennis.
- He does not play tennis.
- Does he play tennis?

2. USE 2 Facts or Generalizations



Picture 5.3 Facts or Generalizations

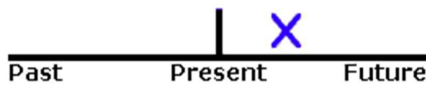
The simple present can also indicate the speaker believes that a fact was true before, is true now, and will be true in the future. It is not important if the speaker is correct about the fact. It is also used to make generalizations about people or things.

Examples:

- Dogs like milk.
- Bats do not like milk.

- Do rats like milk?
- Texas is in USA.
- Texas is not in the Philippines.
- Eyeglasses are made of glass.
- Eyeglasses are not made of wood.
- Jakarta is a small city. *It is not important that this fact is untrue.*

3. USE 3 Scheduled Events in the Near Future



Picture 5.4 Scheduled Events in the Near Future

Speakers occasionally use simple present to talk about scheduled events in the near future. This is most commonly done when talking about urban transportation service, but it can be used with other scheduled events as well.

Examples:

- The commuter train leaves tonight at 6 PM.
- The passenger bus does not arrive at 11 AM, it arrives at 11 PM.
- When do we board the passenger aircraft?
- The seminar starts at 10 o'clock.
- When does our class begin tomorrow?

4. USE 4 Now (Non-Continuous Verbs)



Picture 5.5 Non-Continuous Verbs

Speakers sometimes use the simple present to express the idea that an action is happening or is not happening now. This can only be done with non-continuous verbs and certain mixed verbs.

Examples:

- I am here now.
- He is not here now.
- She needs help right now.
- She does not need help now.
- She has her passport in her hand.
- Do you have your passport with you?

C. Simple Present Forms

The simple present is just the base form of the verb. Questions are made with *do* and negative forms are made with *do not*.

- Statement: You speak Spanish.
- Question: Do you speak Spanish?
- Negative: You do not speak Spanish.

In the third person singular, *-s* or *-es* is added. Questions are made with *does* and negative forms are made with *does not*.

- Statement: She speaks Spanish.
- Question: Does she speak Spanish?
- Negative: She does not speak Spanish.

The **simple present tense** is quite easy to form.

base form

or

base form

+

"s"

Let's look at the verb **to run** (whose base form is **run**). In the simple present tense, **run** looks like this:

Person	Example
First person singular	I run
Second person singular	You run
Third person singular	He/She/It runs
First person plural	We run
Second person plural	You run
Third person plural	They run

Table 5.1 Example of Simple Present Tense

In other words, it only changes in the third person singular (he / she / it). It adds either **s**, **es** or **ies**.

To create a negative sentence, use "do not" + [base form of the verb]. (Use "does not" with third person singular (he / she / it).)

"do not" or "does not" + [base form of the verb]

- I do not like chocolate.

- Angela does not run a youth club full of glue-sniffers.
- I do not ride horses in the summer.
- It does not always snow here in January.
- Dawn does not play chess in the evenings.

In speech and writing (especially informal writing), "do not" is often shortened to "don't," and "does not" is often shortened to "doesn't." If you want to add some emphasis, use one of the long versions (i.e., "do not" or "does not"), and emphasize the word "not."

If you need to ask a question, you can use the following word order for a yes/no question:

do" or "does" + [subject] + base form of verb

- Do you like chocolate?
- Does Angela run the youth club?

You can use the following word order for a question-word question:

[question word] + "do" or "does" + [subject] + base form of verb

- Why does Tony talk so quickly?
- When do the farmers plant the corn?

You can use the following word order for a choice question:

"do" or "does" + [subject] + base form of verb + choice A + or + choice B

- Does Mark sing or dance?
- Do they want hamburger or sausages?

The Spelling Rules, for regular verbs, just add s:

- talk > talks
- improve > improves

For verbs that end in s, ss, sh, ch, x and o, add es:

- guess > guesses
- mash > mashes

- fix > fixes
- go > goes

For verbs ending [consonant]-y, change the y to i and add es:

- fly > flies
- study > studies

LEARNING ACTIVITY 2

A. Simple Present Tips

1. Adverb Placement

Adverbs are words that answer the questions when, where, and how, for example, *recently, never, below, slowly, frankly*. Typically, adverbs end in *-ly* though there are a few adjectives that take this ending too, such as *lovely, friendly, lonely*.

Adverbs can be used to modify an adjective or an entire sentence. When modifying an adjective, the adverb immediately precedes it: *particularly hot weather, recently re-elected president*.

When modifying an entire sentence, adverbs can be placed in four positions:

- at the beginning;
- at the end;
- after the verb *to be* and all auxiliary verbs: *can, may, will, must, shall*, and *have*, when *have* is used as an auxiliary (for example in *I have been in Spain twice*);
- before all the other verbs.

Some adverbs can appear in all four positions; others have less freedom, for example, they cannot be the first word in the clause.

Beginning of the sentence

Adverbs placed at the beginning of the clause are often separated by a comma. The comma is obligatory after *however, in fact, therefore, nevertheless, moreover, furthermore, and still*.

- *Usually the summer is hot and humid.*
- *Sometimes she wishes it was not so hot.*
- *Unfortunately, this summer is particularly hot.*

Some adverbs cannot begin a declarative sentence. These are: *always, ever, rarely, seldom* and *never*.

Next to the agreeing verb

There are two positions next to the agreeing verb (this is the verb that changes its form depending on the number of the subject, and also the tense): immediately before and immediately after the verb. In which of the two positions the adverb will appear depends on the verb.

Auxiliary verbs (*have, be*): the adverb **follows** the verb;

- *The summer is **usually** hot and humid.*

Modal verbs (*have, can, will, shall, may, must, might*): the adverb **follows** the verb;

- *This summer will **hopefully** be cool and dry.*

All other verbs (*sleep, dance, read, want, etc*): the adverb **precedes** the verb.

- *She **sometimes** wishes it was not so hot.*

The placement of adverbs with respect to the verb *to have* depends on whether *to have* is used as an auxiliary verb (part of a verb complex), or as a main verb (standing alone and meaning 'possess'). When it is an auxiliary, the adverb follows it; when it is a main verb, the adverb precedes it.

- *He has **always** been very interested in technology.*
- *She **always** has a pair of pliers in her handbag.*

End of the sentence

The adverbs that most frequently appear at the end of the sentence are:

- adverbs of frequency: *usually, normally, often, frequently, sometimes, occasionally*;
- adverbs of manner (answering the question how): *slowly, quickly, badly, silently*;
- adverbs of time: *today, already, last week, this year*.

Example

- *The summer is very hot **usually**.*
- *She opened the envelope **carefully**.*
- *There is no wind **today**.*

Some adverb cannot be last in a sentence. These are the same adverbs that cannot come first: *always, ever, rarely, seldom* and *never*.

2. Active / Passive

Examples:

- Once a week, Thomas cleans the car. *Active*
- Once a week, the car is cleaned by Thomas. *Passive*

English has two voices: active and passive. The active voice is used when the subject of the sentence does the action. In the example, A is the subject and B is the object.

For example: My mom sings that song.

A B

The passive voice is used when we focus on the object of the sentence. In the example, B becomes the subject.

For example: That song is sung by my mom.

B A

When it is important to know who does the action, we use *by*. The noun that follows *by* is called the “agent.” My mom was the subject in the active sentence, but it becomes the agent in the passive sentence.

Sometimes, when the agent is unknown, or unimportant to the meaning of the sentence, we do not use *by*.

For example: This sweater is made in China.

We form the passive with *be* + past participle (3rd form of the verb).

In the present simple, the passive is: *am / is / are* + past participle (3rd form of the verb).

Remember!

- The past participle always stays the same. Only the form of *be* changes.
- The subject and verb must always agree in number.

	Subject	Verb	Object
Active	The teachers	Help	the new student.
Passive	The new student	is helped	by the teacher.
Active	The teachers	Help	the new students.
Passive	The new students	are helped	by the teachers.

Table 5.2 Example of Past Participle

Negative and Questions

Notice that the helping verb in passive sentences is always a form of the verb *be*.

	Active	Passive
Affirmative	Ben walks the dog. They make cookies here.	The dog is walked by Ben. Cookies are made here.
Negative	Ben doesn't walk the cat. They don't make sandwiches here.	The cat isn't walked by Ben. Sandwiches aren't made here.
Question	Does Ben walk the rabbit? How do they make the cookies?	Is the rabbit walked (by Ben)? How are the cookies made?

Table 5.3 Active & Passive Sentence

Remember!

The passive voice is often used:

- When we talk about art, science, or literature.

For example: The scientific method is used for experiments.

- To explain directions and instructions.

For example: Baseball is played with nine players on the team.

- In news reports and academic writing.

For example: The environment is studied by many scientists.

Past Participles (3rd form of the verb)

English verbs have three main forms:

Infinitive	1. Base Form	2. Simple Past	3. Past Participle (3rd form)
to cook	cook	cooked	cooked
to do	Do	did	done
to eat	eat	ate	eaten

Table 5.4 Three Main Forms English Verbs

Past participles for regular verbs are also the same as the past tense (add –ed).

Base Form	Simple Past	Past Participle (3rd form)	Passive Sentence
Solve	solved	solved	The problem is solved.
Carry	carried	carried	The heavy boxes are carried by Moby.

Table 5.5 Example of Past Participle for Regular Verbs

Many past participles for irregular verbs are the same as the past tense.

Base Form	Simple Past	Past Participle (3rd form)	Passive Sentence
Make	Made	Made	The pizza is made by Moby.
Cut Put	Cut Put	Cut Put	The sandwich is cut in two pieces. Apples are put in the bowl.
Build	Built	Built	The houses are built very fast.
Buy Catch	Bought Caught	Bought Caught	The food is bought by my mom. The thieves are caught by the police.

Table 5.6 Example of Past Participle for Irregular Verbs

There are many irregular verbs with irregular past participles, and those have to be memorized.

It is easiest to remember them in groups that follow the same spelling pattern.

Base Form	Simple Past	Past Participle (3rd form)
Past Participle ends in <i>-en</i>		

Bite	Bit	Bitten
Eat	Ate	Eaten
Forget	Forgot	Forgotten
Get	Got	Gotten
Give	Gave	Given
Ride	Rode	Ridden
Speak	Spoke	Spoken
Take	Took	Taken
Write	Wrote	Written
Past Participle vowel changes from <i>a</i> to <i>u</i>		
Drink	Drank	Drunk
Sing	Sang	Sung
Swim	Swam	Swum
Past Participle changes from <i>ew</i> to <i>own</i>		
Blow	Blew	Blown
Fly	Flew	Flown
Grow	Grew	Grown

Know	Knew	Known
Throw	Threw	Thrown
Past Participle changes from <i>ore</i> to <i>orn</i>		
Wear	Wore	Worn
Past Simple and Past Participles are very different		
Do	Did	Done
See	Saw	Seen
Go	Went	Gone

Table 5.7 Easiest To Remember Past Participle

Some verbs cannot be used in the passive because they have no object. Some of these verbs are: happen, come, sleep, arrive, have, go, live, stay, walk, cry.

LEARNING ACTIVITY 3

A. Parts of Speech

English has eight parts of speech. Every word belongs to one of those eight categories.

Part of Speech	Examples	Sentences
Verbs words that show action or being	run, play, study, sleep, become, go	We go on vacation in August.

Nouns words that name a person, place, thing, or idea	Moby, mother, school, New York, cat, table, history, weather	Moby and Ben go on vacation in August.
Pronouns words that take the place of nouns	I, you, he, she, it, we, they	We go on vacation in August.
Adjectives words that describe or modify nouns or pronouns	red, small, intelligent, dark, careful Adjectives also include the articles: a, an, the	We go on a long and fun vacation in August.
Adverbs words that describe or modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs	quickly, carefully, very, almost, sometimes, not, too	We usually go on a long and fun vacation in August.
Prepositions words that show time, place, or position	on, in, at, up, before, behind, under	We go on vacation in August.
Conjunctions words that connect two or	and, but, or, for	We go on a long and fun vacation in August.

more words or groups of words		
Interjections words that show excitement or emotion	Oh! Yes! Help! Oh no! Wow!	Hooray! It's August! We're going on vacation!

Table 5.8 Part of Speech

SUMMARY

- The simple present, also called present simple or present indefinite, is a verb tense which is used to show repetition, generalization or habit. Less commonly, the simple present can be used to talk about scheduled actions in the near future and, in some cases, actions happening now.
- Simple Present Uses:
 - a. Repeated Actions
 - b. Facts or Generalizations
 - c. Scheduled Events in the Near Future
 - d. Now (Non-Continuous Verbs)
- When modifying an entire sentence, adverbs can be placed in four positions:
 - at the beginning;
 - at the end;
 - after the verb to be and all auxiliary verbs: can, may, will, must, shall, and have, when have is used as an auxiliary (for example in I have been in Spain twice);
 - before all the other verbs.

EXERCISE

Choose the best answer by crossing A, B, or C

1. He _____ his dog everyday
 - a. To feed
 - b. Feed
 - c. Feeds
 - d. Feeding

2. They _____ always _____ to the dentist
 - a. Do not, go
 - b. Does not, go
 - c. Do not, went
 - d. Does not, went

3. When __ you _____ a shower?
 - a. Do, took
 - b. Do, take
 - c. Do, taken
 - d. Do, taking

4. Q: Do you like to sing?
A: ...
 - a. Yes, I likes to sing
 - b. Yes, I like to sing

- c. Yes, I am liking to sing
- d. Yes, I liked to sing
5. Thomas and I _____ together.
- a. Do surfing
- b. Don't surfing
- c. Do surfs
- d. Don't surf
6. They ___ breakfast every day at 7 AM
- a. Eat
- b. To eat
- c. Ate
- d. Eaten
7. Q: How do you go to school?
- A: I ___ the bus to school
- a. Rode
- b. Ridden
- c. Ride
- d. Riding
8. Q: When do you do your homework?
- A: ...
- a. I have did my homework at 7 PM
- b. I did my homework at 7 PM

c. I do my homework at 7 PM

d. I am doing my homework at 7 PM

9. Q: Do you enjoy playing in the park?

A: ...

a. No, I doesn't enjoy playing in the park

b. No, I no enjoy playing in the park

c. No, I don't enjoy playing in the park

d. No, I don't enjoys playing in the park

10. Q: Does she love her mother?

A: ...

a. She love her mother

b. She loves her mother

c. She to love her mother

d. She is loving her mother

Make sentences in the simple present tense.

In the simple present tense, the verb takes the marker –s when the subject is a singular noun or pronoun. With plural subjects, the verb does not take the marker –s.

Compare:

My sister sings very well. (Here the verb 'sing' takes the marker '-s' because the subject is the singular noun 'my sister'.)

My sisters sing very well. (Here the verb 'sing' does not take the marker –s because the subject is a plural noun – my sisters.)

1. I _____ at a bank.
work
works
working
2. She _____ with her parents.
live
lives
living
3. Cows _____ on grass.
feed
feeds
feeding
4. He _____ a handsome salary.
earn
earns
earning
5. Janet _____ to be a singer.
want
wants
wanting
6. Emily _____ delicious cookies.

make

makes

making

7. Arti and her husband _____ in Singapore.

live

lives

living

8. Rohan and Sania _____ to play card games.

like

likes

liking

9. Sophia _____ English very well.

speak

speaks

speaking

10. Martin _____ for a walk in the morning.

go

goes

going

11. My grandfather _____ his pet dog.

adore

adores

adoring

12. Plants ————— water and sunlight for making their food.

need

needs

needing

Answer:

1. I work at a bank.
2. She lives with her parents.
3. Cows feed on grass.
4. He earns a handsome salary.
5. Janet wants to be a singer.
6. Emily makes delicious cookies.
7. Arti and her husband live in Singapore.
8. Rohan and Sania like to play card games.
9. Sophia speaks English very well.
10. Martin goes for a walk in the morning.
11. My grandfather adores his pet dog.
12. Plants need water and sunlight for making their food.

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MODULE 6

SIMPLE PAST TENSE

A. Introduction

Based on https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Past_tense, The **past tense** is a grammatical tense whose function is to place an action or situation in the past. Examples of verbs in the past tense include the English verbs *sang*, *went* and *washed*. Most languages have a past tense, with some having several types in order to indicate how far back the action took place. Some languages have a compound past tense which uses auxiliary verbs as well as an imperfect tense which expresses continuous or repetitive events or actions. Some languages inflect the verb, which changes the ending to indicate the past tense, while non-inflected languages may use other words, such as "yesterday" or "last week" to indicate that something took place in the past.

In some languages, the grammatical expression of past tense is combined with the expression of other categories such as Grammatical and aspect (see tense–aspect). Thus a language may have several types of past tense form, their use depending on what aspectual or other additional information is to be encoded. French, for example, has a compound past (*passé composé*) for expressing completed events, and imperfect for continuous or repetitive events.

Some languages that grammaticalise for past tense do so by inflecting the verb, while others do so periphrastically using auxiliary verbs, also known as "verbal operators" (and some do both, as in the example of French given above). Not all languages grammaticalise verbs for past tense – Mandarin Chinese, for example, mainly uses lexical means (words like "yesterday" or "last week") to indicate that something took place in the past, although use can also be made of the tense/aspect markers *le* and *guo*.

The "past time" to which the past tense refers generally means the past relative to the moment of speaking, although in contexts where relative tense is employed (as in some

instances of indirect speech) it may mean the past relative to some other time being under discussion.^[1] A language's past tense may also have other uses besides referring to past time; for example, in English and certain other languages, the past tense is sometimes used in referring to hypothetical situations, such as in condition clauses like *If you loved me ...*, where the past tense *loved* is used even though there may be no connection with past time.

Some languages grammatically distinguish the recent past from remote past with separate tenses. There may be more than two distinctions.

In some languages, certain past tenses can carry an implication that the result of the action in question no longer holds. For example, in the Bantu language Chichewa, use of the remote past tense *ánámwalíra* "he died" would be surprising since it would imply that the person was no longer dead.^[2] This kind of past tense is known as discontinuous past. Similarly certain imperfective past tenses (such as the English "used to") can carry an implication that the action referred to no longer takes place.^[3]

A general past tense can be indicated with the glossing abbreviation pst

B. Short Explanation

Topic on this module is about Simple Past tense in general. From this module, students will understand:

- The definition of simple past tense
- The use of simple past tense
- How to use each of the simple past tense in the sentence

Through this module, students will understand about simple past tense

C. Learning Outcomes

After learning this module, students can identify simple past tense and use them in a sentence, not only through listening, but also talking, reading and writing. Students can also use the simple past tense properly in a affirmative sentence, negative sentence and question. Students can also know and understand the use of simple past tense and how to write it in a good sentence

D. Competency Prerequisite: none

E. The Use Of The Module 6

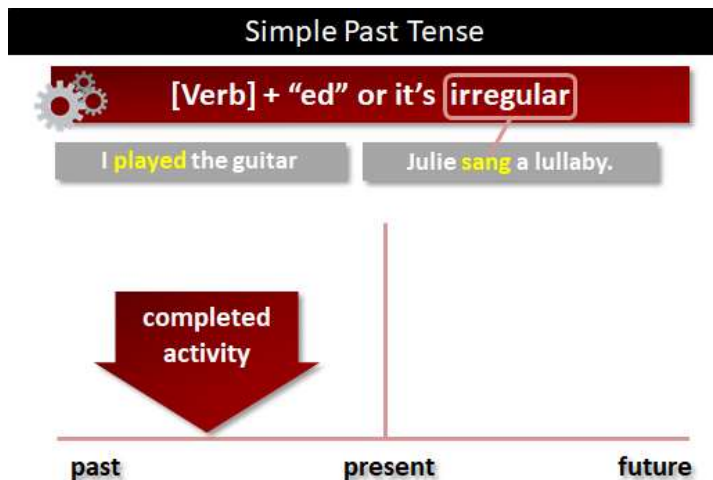
By learning and understand this module, students as a foreign language learner, can use the simple past tense properly, identify the use simple past tense, can answer questions that related with simple past tense.

This module will come in handy to help the students understand materials about simple past tense and help them in understanding the simple past tense through questions.

LEARNING ACTIVITY 1

A. Simple Past Tense

The simple past, also called past simple or past indefinite is a verb tense which is used to show that a completed action took place at a specific time in the past. The simple past is also frequently used to talk about past habits and generalizations.



Picture 6.1 Simple Past Tense

B. Simple Past Forms

The simple past is formed using the verb + ed. In addition, there are many verbs with irregular past forms. Questions are made with *did* and negative forms are made with *did not*.

- Statement: You called Deborah.
- Question: Did you call Deborah?
- Negative: You did not call Deborah.

However, there are some spelling rules. If a verb of one syllable ends [consonant-vowel-consonant], double the final consonant and add "ed":

- chat > chatted
- stop > stopped

If the final consonant is w, x, or y, don't double it:

- sew > sewed
- play > played
- fix > fixed

If last syllable of a longer verb is stressed and ends [consonant-vowel-consonant], double the last consonant and add "ed":

- incur > incurred
- prefer > preferred

If the first syllable of a longer verb is stressed and the verb ends [consonant-vowel-consonant], just add "ed":

- open > opened
- enter > entered
- swallow > swallowed

If the verb ends "e", just add "d":

- thrive > thrived
- guzzle > guzzled

If the verb ends [consonant + "y"], change the "y" to an "i" and add "ed":

- cry > cried
- fry > fried

If it's an irregular verb, the **simple past tense** is formed in all sorts of different ways. Here are some examples:

- break > broke
- catch > caught
- find > found
- see > saw

You just have to learn them.

LEARNING ACTIVITY 2

A. Using the Simple Past Tense

When making a statement, you can use the following word order:

[subject] + [verb]

- The Martians landed near the aqueduct.
- The burglar used the fire escape.

If you need the negative version, you can use the following word order:

"did not" + base form of verb

- The Martians did not land near the aqueduct.
(We could have used "didn't" instead of "did not.")

- The burglar did not use the fire escape.

If you need to ask a question, you can use the following word order for a yes/no question:

"did" + [subject] + base form of verb

- Did the Martians land near the aqueduct?
- Did the burglar use the fire escape?

You can use the following word order for a question-word question:

[question word] + "did" + [subject] + base form of verb

- Why did the Martians land near the aqueduct?
- When did the burglar use the fire escape?

You can use the following word order for a choice question:

"did" + [subject] + base form of verb + choice A + or + choice B

- Did the Martians land near the aqueduct or the town?
- Did the burglar use the fire escape or the stairs?

B. Simple Past Uses

1. USE 1 Completed Action in the Past



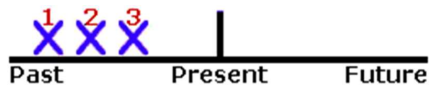
Picture 6.2 Completed Action in the Past

Use the simple past to express the idea that an action started and finished at a specific time in the past. Sometimes, the speaker may not actually mention the specific time, but they do have one specific time in mind.

Examples:

- He saw a play yesterday.
- He didn't see a play yesterday.
- Last year, she traveled to Japan.
- Last year, she didn't travel to Japan.
- Did you have dinner last night?
- He washed his car.
- He didn't wash his car.

2. USE 2 A Series of Completed Actions



Picture 6.3 A Series of Completed Actions

We use the simple past to list a series of completed actions in the past. These actions happen 1st, 2nd, 3rd, and so on.

Examples:

- I finished work, walked to the beach, and found a cozy place to swim.
- He arrived from the airport at 9:00, checked into the hotel at 10:00, and met the others at 11:00.
- Did she add flour, pour in the milk, and then add the eggs?

3. USE 3 Duration in the Past



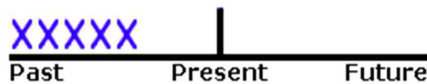
Picture 6.4 Duration in the Past

The simple past can be used with a duration which starts and stops in the past. A duration is a longer action often indicated by expressions such as: for five years, for six minutes, all day, all year, etc.

Examples:

- I lived in USA for five years.
- Shania studied Spanish for two years.
- We sat at the park all day.
- We did not stay at the party the entire time.
- We talked on the hand-phone for twenty minutes.
- A: How long did you wait for them?
B: We waited for two hours.

4. USE 4 Habits in the Past



Picture 6.5 Habits in the Past

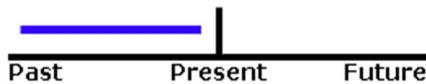
The simple past can also be used to describe a habit which stopped in the past. It can have the same meaning as "used to." To make it clear that we are talking about a habit, we often add expressions such as: always, often, usually, never, when she was a kid, when he was younger, etc.

Examples:

- I studied Spanish when I was a kid.
- She played the guitar.
- She didn't play the saxophone.
- Did you play a musical instrument when you were a child?

- He worked at the mall after school.
- We never went to campus, We always skipped class.

5. USE 5 Past Facts or Generalizations



Picture 6.6 Past Facts of Generalizations

The simple past can also be used to describe past facts or generalizations which are no longer true. As in USE 4 above, this use of the simple past is quite similar to the expression "used to."

Examples:

- He was shy as a kid, but now he is very outgoing.
- She didn't like carrots before.
- Did you live in California when you were a kid?
- People paid much more to make hand-phone calls in the past.

Simple Past Tips

IMPORTANT When-Clauses Happen First

Clauses are groups of words which have meaning but are often not complete sentences. Some clauses begin with the word "when" such as "when I dropped my pen..." or "when class began..." These clauses are called when-clauses, and they are very important. The examples below contain when-clauses.

Examples:

- When I paid his one dollar, he answered my question.
- He answered my question when I paid his one dollar.

When-clauses are important because they always happen first when both clauses are in the simple past. Both of the examples above mean the same thing: first, I paid his one dollar,

and then, he answered my question. It is not important whether "when I paid his one dollar" is at the beginning of the sentence or at the end of the sentence. However, the example below has a different meaning. First, he answered my question, and then, I paid his one dollar.

Example:

- I paid his one dollar when he answered my question.

C. Adverb Placement

Adverbs are words that answer the questions when, where, and how, for example, *recently, never, below, slowly, frankly*. Typically, adverbs end in *-ly* though there are a few adjectives that take this ending too, such as *lovely, friendly, lonely*.

Adverbs can be used to modify an adjective or an entire sentence. When modifying an adjective, the adverb immediately precedes it: *particularly hot weather, recently re-elected president*.

When modifying an entire sentence, adverbs can be placed in four positions:

- at the beginning;
- at the end;
- after the verb *to be* and all auxiliary verbs: *can, may, will, must, shall*, and *have*, when *have* is used as an auxiliary (for example in *I have been in Spain twice*);
- before all the other verbs.

Some adverbs can appear in all four positions; others have less freedom, for example, they cannot be the first word in the clause.

1. Beginning of the sentence

Adverbs placed at the beginning of the clause are often separated by a comma. The comma is obligatory after *however, in fact, therefore, nevertheless, moreover, furthermore*, and *still*.

- **Sometimes** she wishes it was not so hot.

Some adverbs cannot begin a declarative sentence. These are: *always, ever, rarely, seldom* and *never*.

2. Next to the agreeing verb

There are two positions next to the agreeing verb (this is the verb that changes its form depending on the number of the subject, and also the tense): immediately before and immediately after the verb. In which of the two positions the adverb will appear depends on the verb.

Auxiliary verbs (*have, be*): the adverb **follows** the verb;

- *The summer was **usually** hot and humid.*

modal verbs (*have, can, will, shall, may, must, might*): the adverb **follows** the verb;

- *This summer will **hopefully** be cool and dry.*

all other verbs (*sleep, dance, read, want, etc*): the adverb **precedes** the verb.

- *She **sometimes** wishes it was not so hot.*

The placement of adverbs with respect to the verb *to have* depends on whether *to have* is used as an auxiliary verb (part of a verb complex), or as a main verb (standing alone and meaning ‘possess’). When it is an auxiliary, the adverb follows it; when it is a main verb, the adverb precedes it.

- *He had **always** been very interested in technology.*
- *She **always** had a pair of pliers in her handbag.*

3. End of the sentence

The adverbs that most frequently appear at the end of the sentence are:

adverbs of frequency: *usually, normally, often, frequently, sometimes, occasionally*;

adverbs of manner (answering the question how): *slowly, quickly, badly, silently*;

adverbs of time: *today, already, last week, this year*.

- *She opened the envelope **carefully**.*

Some adverb cannot be last in a sentence. These are the same adverbs that cannot come first: *always, ever, rarely, seldom* and *never*.

LEARNING ACTIVITY 3

A. Active / Passive

Examples:

- Thomas repaired the car. *Active*
- The car was repaired by Thomas. *Passive*

As a **grammatical voice**, the passive allows for an object of a sentence in an active sentence to move into the subject position of the passive sentence. The simple past passive is an English verb form that refers to verbs in the **past tense, simple aspect**, indicative mood, and passive voice.

1. Formation of the Simple Past Passive

As with most other conjugated verbs in the English language, the simple past passive is a periphrastic verb phrase, which means that “a phrase of two or more words performs a single grammatical function that would otherwise be expressed by the inflection of a single word.” Verbs in the simple past passive are formed by the past tense form of the verb *be* plus a past participle (**regular** or **irregular**). Only **transitive verbs** (verbs that can take objects) and **verbs with verb phrase complements** may be conjugated in the passive voice. The verb phrase patterns for the simple past passive are as follows:

- first person singular – was + past participle – I *was called* into an emergency meeting.
- second person singular – were + past participle – You *were invited* to the party.
- third person singular – was + past participle – The tree *was scorched* by lightning.

- first person plural – were + past participle – *We were hated* for our opinion.
- second person plural – were + past participle – *You were described* as misfits.
- third person plural – were + past participle – Many sad stories *were reported* by the evening news.

Some English also allow for the simple past passive to be formed by the past tense form of the verb *get* plus a past participle in declarative sentences. The use of *get* as a passive auxiliary requires the addition of the *do* **operator** in interrogative sentences. The verb phrase patterns for the simple past passive with the auxiliary verb *get* are as follows:

- first person singular – got + past participle – I *got attacked* by Japanese lady beetles.
- second person singular – got + past participle – *Did you get examined* by a doctor?
- third person singular – got + past participle – The dress *got damaged* in the wash.
- first person plural – got + past participle – *We got shaken* by the earthquake.
- second person plural – got + past participle – *You got dealt* a bad hand.
- third person plural – got + past participle – Your clothes *got washed* this afternoon.

Notice that the past tense of the verb *be* is **irregular** in all persons and numbers but that the **past tense** of the verb *get* is identical in all persons and numbers.

2. Uses of the Simple Past Passive

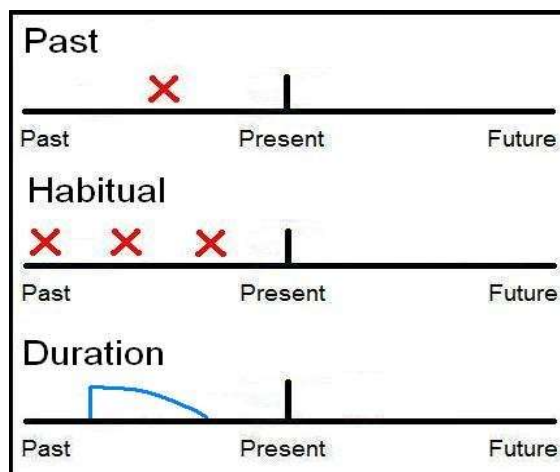
Like the **simple past in the active voice**, the simple past passive expresses a discrete, completed, noncontinuous action or event in the past. Also like the simple past active, the simple past passive occurs most often in sentences that (1) express discrete actions in the past, (2) describe past habits and routines, (3) state past general facts and truths, (4) express past thoughts and feelings, and (5) express noncontinuous duration in the past. For example:

- The appetizers were eaten before the party.
- The door was unlocked every morning by the janitor.

- The elderly man was loved by all his neighbors.
- Our floors were scrubbed every Wednesday.

Just as with the difference between the simple present active and the simple present passive, the main grammatical and semantic difference between the simple past in the active voice and the simple past in the passive voice is that the simple past passive allows an object of an active sentence to appear in the subject position. For example, the use of the active voice in *Dinosaurs roamed the world* means that the subject is the noun phrase *Dinosaurs* and the direct object is the noun phrase *the world*. By changing the same sentence into the passive voice — *The world was roamed by dinosaurs* — the original direct object *the world* moves into the subject position. By using the passive voice, a speaker can emphasize an object from an active sentence and/or de-emphasize the subject from an active sentence.

The following visual illustrates the uses of the simple past of English verbs:



Picture 6.7 Visual Illustrates the uses of the simple past of English verbs

The simple past passive expresses discrete, completed, noncontinuous actions or events in the past while moving an object from an active sentence into the subject position.

SUMMARY

- The simple past is defined as a verb form that expresses discrete, completed, noncontinuous actions or events in the past
- The simple past passive is periphrastic, which means consisting of a “phrase of two or more words that perform a single grammatical function that would otherwise be expressed by the inflection of a single word.”
- The simple past passive is formed by the past tense form of the verb *be* plus a past participle (regular or irregular).
- Only transitive verbs and verbs with verb phrase complements may be conjugated into the passive voice.
- The main grammatical and semantic difference between the simple past in the active voice and the simple past in the passive voice is that the simple past passive allows an object of an active sentence to appear in the subject position.

EXERCISE

Choose the best answer by crossing A, B, or C

1. It was dark, so didn't _____ them clearly.
 - a. see
 - b. saw
 - c. Seeing
2. When I was young, I used to _____ on this public square every morning.
 - a. jog
 - b. jogged
 - c. jogging
3. Even though I had _____ clearly, she still could not understand what I meant.
 - a. explain
 - b. explained
 - c. explaining
4. Although it was a difficult question but he _____ correctly.
 - a. answer
 - b. answered
 - c. answering
5. Daniel opened the window and the cockatoo _____.
 - a. fly
 - b. flew
 - c. flying
6. He could not phone you because he _____ in hurry.
 - a. is
 - b. was
 - c. being
7. My uncle _____ a letter for me but I can't find it.
 - a. Writes
 - b. Wrote
 - c. Writing

8. Gabriela was _____ so hard when I came to her house.
- a. studies
 - b. studied
 - c. studying
9. I am so sorry, I _____ hear you.
- a. doesn't
 - b. didn't
 - c. wasn't
10. Why didn't you _____ your grandpa's house?
- a. visit
 - b. visited
 - c. visiting

Answers:

- 1. A. see
- 2. A. jog
- 3. B. Explained
- 4. B. answered
- 5. B. flew
- 6. B. was
- 7. B. Wrote
- 8. C. studying
- 9. B. didn't
- 10. A. visit

Simple Past Tense Exercise: change the verbs in brackets to the simple past. Be careful with spellings.

1. They all (go) ___ shopping.
2. I never (imagine) ___ I would see you here.
3. We (book) ___ two tickets for the show.
4. He (collect) ___ his children from school.
5. Were you (frighten) ___ of the dark when you were young?
6. Who (eat) ___ my chocolate?
7. I (feel) so tired that I went straight to bed.
8. We (grow) ___ this tree from a seed.
9. She (lose) ___ her way home.
10. He thought I (steal) his umbrella.

Answer:

1. went
2. imagined
3. booked
4. collected
5. frightened
6. ate
7. felt
8. grew
9. lost
10. stole

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