

EFL TEACHING DEVELOPMENT: A GUIDANCE FOR EFL TEACHERS

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FOREWORD

Praise and gratitude we pray to God Almighty, because thanks to His grace the author's book entitled "EFL Teaching Development: A Guidance for EFL Teachers" was completed on time. This book is the result of the author's observations and ideas who feel the need for a guidance book that can be used by EFL teachers when teaching English. It is hoped that this book can help lead teachers to be able to teach English in the classrooms more easily.

This book contains theories and model practices about EFL teaching from basic knowledge to advanced knowledge. The theories are arranged in such a way that they are easy to understand and accompanied by appropriate model exercises that teacher can give to the students to measure students' understanding in learning. Therefore, with the presentation of theory and practice, I hope this book can be a good and useful reference for teachers who are teaching EFL.

In this occasion, I as the dean of teacher training and education of UIN Salatiga, would like to thank the authors who have written this book and compiled it well so that this book can also be used by students from various majors to be able to learn English from basic to advance. I would also like to thank the publishers who have assisted in the publication of this book.

This book is of course still far from perfect, for that we are requested to provide input in the form of criticism and suggestions that will be useful for the improvement of the book in the future.

Salatiga, November 16th 2023

Prof. Dr. Mansur, M.Ag

PREFACE

ENGLISH is one of the international languages that used for communication which plays an important role in daily life. English is currently an obligation that must be mastered by various levels of society, from elementary school students to society in general. We can find English both written and spoken in all aspects of social interaction, therefore it is important for all levels of society to learn and master English so that they can communicate and understand everything that is conveyed in English.

Teaching English as foreign language is not always easy. There are some methods that need to be applied in order to gain students' active participation in teaching and learning process so that the target of the learning can be achieved. Therefore, teachers should design varies activities for the class.

With the presence of a book entitled "EFL Teaching Development: A Guidance for EFL Teachers", it is hoped that it can help the EFL teachers in teaching English in their classrooms. This book provides explanations and model exercises that are expected to help teachers in teaching English more easily. It is hoped that this book can be a guide or reference for the teachers of EFL who teach students to improve the students' knowledge and skills in English.

Despite all that, the author still feels that there are many shortcomings in the preparation of this book. For this reason, constructive criticism and suggestions are expected from readers for future improvements.

Dr. Sari Famularsih, M.A.

The authors would like to thank her husband, beloved sons and daughter, and friends who have provided support, prayers, and cooperation so that this book can be published and is expected to contribute to them in developing EFL teaching activities for the students in mastering English.

Author

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PART OF SPEECH

Words are divided into different kinds or classes, called **Part of Speech**, according to their use; according to the work they do in a sentence (Wren, Martin, and Rao, 2006: 3). The parts of speech are eight in number; Noun, Adjective, Pronoun, Verb, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction, and Interjection.

1. Noun

A noun is a word used as the *name* of a person, place, or thing (Wren, Martin, and Rao, 2006: 4).

A. CONCRETE NOUN AND ABSTRACT NOUN.

Concrete noun is a noun that shows an object that has a tangible object. For the example; sword, Indonesia (name of a country), team, fish, etc. there are four types of **Concrete Noun**, they are: **Proper Noun**, **Common Noun**, and **Collective Noun**. Look at the example below:

John is a diligent *student*.

The noun *John* refers to a *particular* student, but the noun *student* might be applied to any other student as well as to John. We call *John* a **Proper Noun**, and *student* a **Common Noun**. Similarly:

Ana is a Proper Noun, while *girl* is a **Common Noun**

Jake is a Proper Noun, while boy is a **Common Noun**

A **Common Noun** is a name given in common to every person or the same class or kind, a **Proper Noun** is the name of some particular person or place. (Wren, Martin, and Rao, 2006: 4).

A **Collective Noun** is the name of a number (or collection) of persons or things taken together and spoken of as one whole; as, (Ibid: 5):

A crowd= A collection of people There is *a crowd* over there.

An army= A collection of soldiers The Indonesian army is here.

Abstract noun is a noun that do not have form or intangible object, such as; ideas, qualities, or concepts. For the example; kindness, pain, brotherhood, cooperation, etc.

B. COUNTABLE AND UNCOUNTABLE NOUN.

Countable nouns (also known as **count nouns**) are nouns that can be considered as individual, separable items, which means that we are able to count them with numbers—we can have one, two, five, 15, 100, and so on. We can also use them with the indefinite **articles** *a* and *an* (which signify a single person or thing) or in their **plural forms** (Herring, 2016).

SINGULAR	PLURAL
A BOOK	TWO BOOKS
A TABLE	A FEW TABLES
A CHAIR	MANY CHAIRS

Nouns that cannot be divided or counted as individual elements or separate parts are called **uncountable nouns**, also known as **mass nouns** or **non-count nouns** (Herring, 2016). Here some examples of uncountable noun:

- a tea
- some information
- a tea spoon of sugar
- a kilogram of salt

C. MASCULINE, FEMININE, COMMON, AND NEUTER GENDER

A noun that denotes a *male* animal is said to be of the Masculine Gender, a noun that denotes a female animal is said to be of the Feminine Gender, a noun that denotes either a male or a female is said to be of the Common Gender, a noun that denotes a thing that is neither male nor female (i.e., thing without life is said to be of the Neuter Gender (Wren, Martin, and Rao, 2006: 4). Please look at the table below:

Masculine gender	Father, brother, cock, Jake (person's name), etc.
Feminine gender	Mother, sister, hen, Ana (person's name), etc.
Common gender	Teacher, friend, foreigner, etc.
Neuter gender	River, mountain, sky, knife, etc.

2. Adjective

Adjective is a word used with a noun to describe or point out, the person, animal, place or thing which the noun names, or to tell the number or quantity (Wren, Martin, and Rao, 2006: 16).

Adjectives may be divided into the following classes:

- 1) Adjective of Quality, show the kind or quality of a person or thing, as; strange movement, *deep* ocean.
- 2) Adjective of Quantity, show how much of a thing is meant, as; much sugar, sufficient water.
- 3) Numeral Adjective, show how many persons or things are meant, or in what order a person or thing stands, as; two, first, a dozen of, double.
- 4) Demonstrative Adjective, point out which person or thing is meant, as; the, these, such, the other.
- 5) Interrogative Adjective, used with nouns to ask questions, as; what, which, whose.
- 6) Possessive Adjective, expresses who owns (or 'possesses')

something, as; my, your, our, their, his, her, its.

- 7) Distributive Adjective, a describing word that refers to separate things, as; every, each, either, neither.

3. Pronoun

Pronouns are words that are used in place of nouns in a sentence (Herrings, 2013: 61). Pronouns can be divided into:

a. Personal Pronoun

A personal pronoun is a pronoun (a word that functions as and acts as a substitute for a noun or nouns) that represents a grammatical person within a sentence. Personal pronoun changes its form based on position un *subject* and *object* or *possessive*.

- 1) **Subject**, it is when it becomes subject of a sentence. They are; I, you, we, they, he, she, it, and person's name.

Example: They need police's help.

- 2) **Object**, it is used when it becomes object of a sentence. They are; me, you, us, them, her, him, it, and person's name.

Example: This is my laptop, and I like it.

Joko accompanied Ali to the hospital.

b. Possessive Pronoun

A pronoun that is used to express ownership or possession. Possessive pronoun divided into two categories as follows:

- 1) Followed by noun: my, your, his, her, its, our, their, 's.

Example: This is my book.

Rudy's laptop is being repaired.

- 2) Not followed by noun: mine, yours, his, hers, its, ours, theirs.

Example: This car is mine.

These dollars are ours.

c. Reflexive Pronoun

A pronoun that refers back to the subject of the clause in which it is used, they are: myself, ourselves, yourself/yourselves, himself,

herself, itself, themselves.

d. Relative Pronoun

A relative pronoun is used to connect a clause or phrase to a noun or pronoun, there are: who, whom, whose, that, which, of which, where.

Table of Pronoun					
Personal		Possessive		Reflexive	Relative
Subject	Object	Followed by noun	Not followed by noun		
I	me	my	mine	myself	who
We	us	our	ours	ourselves	whom
You	you	your	yours	yourself	whose
They	them	their	theirs	themselves	that
He	him	his	his	himself	which
She	her	her	hers	herself	of which
It	it	its	its	itself	where

4. Verb

Verbs are used to indicate the actions, processes, conditions, or states of beings of people or things (Herring, 2016: 117). We can classify verbs as follows:

a. According to its form

- 1) Finite verbs: A verb that acts as a full verb which is limited by grammatical properties; which have the past or the present form.

Example: I write a book

- 2) Infinite (Non-finite) verbs: Incomplete verb, which functions as a grammar other than the verb; verbs in any other form (infinitive, -ing, or -ed)

Example: Writing is my hobby.

b. According to the object

- 1) Transitive Verbs: A verb that needs object.

Example: Jessica cut my hair.

- 2) Intransitive Verbs: A verb that doesn't need object or complement because it already can be understood.

Example: No one speaks this time.

c. According to the time changes and the way of writing

- 1) Regular Verbs: A verb that can change regularly according to the tense form by adding *-d* or *-ed* so that it becomes the Past Tense (verb2) and Past Participle (verb3).
- 2) Irregular Verbs: verbs that change according to the normal rules where the Past Tense (verb2) and Past Participle (verb3) do not occur due to the addition of *-d* or *-ed* from verb1.

d. According to its function in a sentence

- 1) Full verbs: Verbs used to state an action.
Example: break, pass, create, bargain, push, etc.
- 2) Linking verbs: Verbs are used to link subject with pronoun or adjective, or which explain the subject.
Example: look, seem, smell, feel, appear, remain, get, sound, taste, etc.
- 3) Auxiliary verbs: Verbs that help the other verbs to form a complete sentence and it has grammatical function.
Examples: to be (is, am, are, was, were, be, being, been), do (do, does, did), have (have, has, had), and modal (can, could, will, would, may, might, must, ought to, shall, should, use to, used to, need, dare).

5. Adverb

A word that modifies the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb is called an adverb (Wren, Martin, and Rao, 2006: 98). Adverbs may be divided into following classes, according to their meaning:

- a. Adverbs of Time : tonight, in February, tomorrow, yesterday, etc.
- b. Adverbs of Frequency : always, usually, probably, often, ever, never, etc.
- c. Adverbs of Place : here, in front of, nowhere, etc.
- d. Adverbs of Manner : beautifully, gladly, daily, fast, lately, etc.
- e. Adverbs of Direction : below, forward, up there, etc.
- f. Adverbs of Quantity : twice, three folds, once, etc.
- g. Adverb of Degree : extremely, fairly, only, etc.

6. Preposition

Prepositions are used to express the relationship of a noun or pronoun (or another grammatical element functioning as a noun) to the rest of the sentence (Herring, 2016: 476). Preposition can be classified as follows:

- a. One syllable, for example: at, in, on, above, inside, into, near, of, between, etc.
- b. Two syllables, for example: along with, instead of, next to, owing to, etc.
- c. Three syllables, for example: as well as, in spite of, on behalf of, on account of, etc.
- d. Four syllables, for example: for the sake of, with a view to, in the eyes of, etc.

7. Conjunction

A **conjunction** is a linking word such as **and**, **or**, **but**. Conjunctions are used to connect words or sentences (Seaton and Mew, 2007: 135). Conjunction can be classified as follows:

- a. Coordinating conjunction
Coordinating conjunction is a word that joins two words or sentences which have equal grammatical rank.

Example: For, and, nor, but, or, yet, so.

b. Correlative Conjunction

Correlative conjunctions are pairs of words that correlate two equally important clauses or phrases in one complete thought.

Example: Both ... and, not only...but also, either...or, neither...nor, whether...or.

c. Subordinating conjunction

Subordinating conjunction is a conjunction or phrase that links a dependent clause to an independent clause

Example: as, just as, as long as, as soon as, before, since, until, when, whenever, while, where, wherever, anywhere, everywhere, as if, as though, as + adverb + as, as often as, because, since, so that, in order that, so + adjective + that, so + adverb + that, such a(n) + noun + that, so much/many/little/few + noun + that, if, unless, although, even though, though, while, whereas.

8. Interjection

An **interjection** is a word that expresses a sudden, strong feeling such as **surprise**, **pain**, or **pleasure** (Seaton and Mew, 2007: 138).

Here are some interjections in English; *Wow!*, *Goodness!*, *Oh!*, *Good!*, *Oh no!*, *Hooray!*, *Gosh!*, *Hey!*, etc.

A, AN/THE

The words **a**, **an** and **the** belong to this group of words called determiners. Determiners are words such as **this**, **those**, **my**, **their**, **which**. They are special adjectives that are used before nouns (Seaton and Mew, 2007: 71). The words **a** and **an** are called indefinite articles. You can use them with singular nouns to talk about any single person

or thing. The use of a or an depends on the pronunciation of the following the spelling.

A is used before all consonant sounds, and **an** before all vowel sounds. **A** changes to an before any word beginning with a vowel sound.

a pen	a book	a bag	a dictionary
an eraser	an envelope	an arrow	an example

The has some functions:

- To show something that we already know or something that is already become common knowledge.

Example: *The man in the corner is Siska's uncle.* (Lelaki di pojok itu paman Siska)

Context: Both the speaker and the listener know which man is being discussed.

The sun is round. (Matahari itu bulat)

Context: There is only one sun that we all know.

- To indicate a specific object; and it will disappear when referring to common objects (for uncountable nouns)

Example: *Coffee is bitter.* (Kopi itu pahit)

Context: In general, all coffee is bitter.

The coffee in the refrigerator is cold. (Kopi di kulkas dingin)

Context: We are referring to coffee specifically.

THIS, THAT, THESE, THOSE

The words **this**, **that**, **these**, and **those** are determiners. They are used to tell which thing or person you mean. These words are called **demonstrative determiners**, or **demonstrative adjectives** (Seaton and Mew, 2007: 73).

This indicates that something is near us; that indicates that it is at a distance.

This bottle is on the table.

That bottle is over there on the table.

The plural of this is these; the plural of that is those.

These bottles are on the table.

Those bottles are over there on the table.

We use *there is* with singular nouns; we use *there are* with plural nouns (Dixon, 1971: 11.)

There is a pencil on the desk

There are pencils on the desk.

There is one girl at the park

There are several girls at the park.

REGULAR AND IRREGULAR VERB

Verbs can be regular or irregular (Wren, Martin, and Rao, 2006: 85). Regular verbs form their past tense and past participle by adding *ed*. Irregular verbs form their past tense and past participle in a different way from adding “*ed*”.

The past tense form of regular verbs adds *ed* to the simple form (Dixon, 1971: 19).

Type-typed

cry-cried

examine-examined

The past tense form of irregular verbs must be memorized.

Buy-bought

sing-sang

go-went

We distinguish three types of irregular verbs (Wren, Martin, and Rao, 2006: 85):

- 1) Verbs in which all three forms are the same (e.g., cut-cut-cut)
- 2) Verbs in which two of the three forms are the same (e.g., sit-sat-sat)
- 3) Verbs in which all three forms are different (e.g., ring-rang-rung)

GERUNDS

Gerunds are nouns that are formed from verbs. They are identical in appearance to present participles (the base form of the verb + “-ing”). Because they function as nouns, gerunds can be subjects or objects, and they can also act as **adjective complements** (Herring, 2016).

I enjoy swimming.

Singing is my hobby.

Do you like jogging?

Smoking is not good for your health.

CAUSATIVE FORM

An appropriate form of *to have* or *to get* plus the past participle is used to show that the subject caused someone else to perform an action.

Look at these examples below:

I have my car washed once a week.

I had my work done by myself.

Did he have his car painted?

I often get my room cleaned by my mother.

Did he get his car painted?

MUCH, MANY, A LOT OF

Much is used with non-countable nouns; that is, things that cannot be counted and do not add s to show plurality (Dixson, 1971: 69).

Much is used for uncountable noun

Much sugar	much water	much coffee
------------	------------	-------------

Many is used for countable noun

Many cups of sugar	many glasses of water	many bottles of coffee
--------------------	-----------------------	------------------------

A lot of is used interchangeably with *much* and *many*. *A lot of* is the most used term of these three.

A lot of sugar	a lot of books	a lot of love
----------------	----------------	---------------

ANY, SOME

In general, we use some (also somebody/someone/something) in positive sentence and any (also anybody, etc) in negative sentences (Murphy, 2019).

Please look at the examples below:

some	any
I bought some books.	I didn't buy any books.
She's diligent. She always got something to do.	She's lazy. She never got anything to do.
I'm sleepy. I need some times to sleep.	I'm not sleepy. I don't need any time to sleep.

ALSO, TOO, EITHER

Also, and *too* change to *either* in negative sentences (Dixson, 1971:70). Please look at the followings example:

- I want to go too
- I don't want to go *either*
- They also want that chance
- They don't want that chance *either*.

EITHER, NEITHER

Use either and neither to avoid repetition in negative sentences (Dixson, 1971)

- He doesn't understand and she doesn't understand.
- He doesn't understand and she doesn't *either*.
- He doesn't understand and *neither* does she.
- I didn't go to Bali and they didn't go to Bali.
- I didn't go to Bali and they didn't *either*.
- I didn't go to Bali and *neither* did they.

WOULD RATHER

Would rather is followed by the simple form of the verb means to *prefer* (Dixon, 1971). If someone *would rather* to do something, they would prefer to do it (Chalker, 1990). *Would rather* is used when somebody chooses something than another one.

Please look at the following examples:

I can go later; I'd much rather sleeping in the weekend.

I'd rather go holidays with my friends than alone

Would you rather think she is beautiful and smart or attractive and brave?

I would rather stay up late to finish my work than wake up early to do it.

AUXILIARY VERBS

Auxiliary verbs (also called **helping verbs**) are verbs that add functional meaning to other “main” or “full” verbs in a clause. They are used to create different **tenses** or **aspects**, to form negatives and interrogatives, or to add emphasis to a sentence. However, they do not have semantic meaning unto themselves (Altenberg & Vago, 2010).

The **primary auxiliary verbs** are *be*, *do*, and *have*, and they are the most commonly occurring auxiliaries in English. Each can also be used as a main verb in a clause, and each is able to conjugate to reflect plurality, tense, or aspect. The verbs *can*, *could*, *will*, *would*, *shall*, *should*, *must*, *may*, and *might* are known as **modal auxiliary verbs**. These are distinguished by the fact that they are **unable** to conjugate into different forms, and they are only followed by a verb in its base form. The remaining verbs—*ought to*, *used to*, *need*, and *dare*—are known as **semimodal verbs**, since they do not share all the characteristics of the modal verbs above and only function as auxiliary verbs in certain ways (Altenberg & Vago, 2010).

Here is the complete list of auxiliary verbs:

- be
- do
- have
- can
- could
- will
- would
- shall
- should
- must
- may
- might
- ought to
- used to
- need

MODAL AUXILIARY

Modal auxiliary verbs are verbs that function to provide a different context to the verb they follow and usually more functional.

Modal auxiliary verbs are:

<i>Can</i>	<i>Will</i>	<i>Shall</i>	<i>Must (have to)</i>	<i>May</i>
<i>Could</i>	<i>Would</i>	<i>Should</i>	<i>Ought to</i>	<i>Might</i>

Can is used to say that something is possible or allowed, or that somebody has the ability to do something and it is used like this: can + infinitive (can do / can see etc.). Sometimes could is the past of can. Could is especially used with: **see, hear, smell, taste, feel, remember, understand.**

May or might is used to say that something is possible. You can use may or might. The negative forms are **may not** and **might not**. May

and might are also used to talk about possible actions or happenings in the future.

When somebody says *I **have to** do something*, it means that it is necessary to do it, it is obliged to do it. **Must** is similar to **have to**. Must or have to can be used when you give your own opinion (for example, to say what you think is necessary, or to recommend someone to do something). While **have to** (not usually must) to say what someone is obliged to do. This is a fact, not the speaker's own opinion. **Must** is also used in written rules and instructions.

Shall in British English is same with will, it is used to talk about plan or willingness. The difference is shall only be used for **I** and **We**. In American English, shall is rarely used except in polite questions, and it is only used for **I** and **We**. In American English, shall can also be used in **obligation**. For this context, shall *can be used for any subject*. Should can be used to give **advice** or to give an **opinion**. *You should do something* means it is a good thing to do or the right thing to do, while *you shouldn't do something* means it isn't a good thing to do. However, **should** is not as strong as **must** or **have to**. It is used when something is not right or what is expected. You can use **ought to** instead of should in the sentences as well. t is said as 'ought to do'.

TAG ENDINGS

Tag endings ask a question or invite confirmation of some fact we already know. Tag endings contain a pronoun and an auxiliary verb but not a main verb. Use a negative tag ending after an affirmative sentence (Dixon, 1971).

Jake will come to the meeting, won't he?

She is Indonesian singer, isn't she?

You work it all by yourself, don't you?

You don't get any information, do you?

She didn't answer the call, did she?

SUPPOSED TO

We can use *be supposed to* or *be meant to* in place of *should* for something that is expected or required to happen. We use *supposed to* to say what is intended, arranged or expected (Murphy, 2019: 90).

I *supposed to* go home before the rain drops.

You *supposed to* drive the car slowly.

We *supposed to* print all the documents before the boss come.

He *supposed to* be here before 11.

She was *supposed to* perform on this stage.

My laptop *supposed to* be repaired before the final examination.

USED TO

Used to describes an action that continued for some time in the past but that does not happen at the present time (Dixson, 1971: 109).

I used to wake up late.

(Now I don't wake up late)

She used to learn English.

(Now she does not learn English)

He used to pick me up after school.

(Now he doesn't pick me up)

DIRECT INDIRECT SPEECH

Say is particularly used when quoting people's exact words - that is, when using direct speech, (whether it is statements, exclamations, commands or questions) (Chalker, 1990).

Please look at the following examples:

I said, "I always believe that you can do it."

"Stop talking about it", he said.

My mother said, "You must arrive at home before 9PM"

"I will go home on time", I said to my mother.

STILL/ANYMORE

Still means “even up to the present time”, it indicates some continuing action, *still* usually comes before the main verb (Dixson, 1971: 131).

I still teach English in school.

They are still working in the company.

Anymore indicates that an action that went on in the past has been discontinued, we usually place *anymore* at the end of a negative sentence

I don't teach English in school anymore.

They are not working in the company anymore.

SYNONYMS

Synonym is one, two, or more words or language expressions that have the same or nearly the same meaning with another word in the same language.

Below are some examples of synonyms:

Word	Synonym
Above	Over
Garbage	Trash
Raise	Lift
Auto	Car
Woman	Lady
Rock	Stone
Street	Road
Stop	Cease
Close	Shut
Reply	Answer

The list above shows that synonym does not change the part of the speech of word. A noun must be synonymous with noun, adverb with adverb, verb with verb, and adjective must be with adjective, e.g.:

a. Noun:

- opportunity = change
- bargain = agreement
- consultation = discussion

b. Verb:

- evacuate = leave
- assisted = helped
- require = need

c. Adjective:

- angry = mad
- small = tiny
- important = necessary

d. Adverb:

- Fast = quickly
- frequently = often
- far = away

On the other hands, one word in English can possibly have two or more synonymous words, such as:

1. Voyage : jaunt, ramble, outing, journey, pilgrimage, tour, expedition.

2. Fragrance: aroma, redolence, perfume, scent, stink.

Those words usually have different emphasis, suggestion, and usage.

For example:

- **expired** could have the synonym **no longer fresh**, if you mean milk that's *past its sale date*.
- **expired** could have the synonym **dead**, if you mean *no longer alive*.

This case can make learners get difficulties in finding the synonymous word.

MULTIPLE MEANING WORDS

As we know, one word in English may has several meanings. For the result, the students should to pay attention in the context to know the meaning of those words appropriately. In English, it is called multiple meaning. Multiple meaning is words that have several meanings depending upon how they are used in a sentence. Commonly, there are two types of multiple meaning:

1. Those that sound alike (also known as homophones, or homonyms)
e.g.: *Michael took a trip to Chicago.*
Be careful, or you will trip!
2. Those that sound different (also known as heterophones, or heteronyms)
e.g.: *I would like to read (V1) the book you just read (V3).*

Below are some examples of multiple meaning words:

- a. I hope they find a cure for cancer.
- b. Can you cure my hiccups?

The two sentences above show how the word “cure” can be used in different sentence. In the first sentence the italic word, cure, has a meaning as noun (obat) and the second, the meaning as verb (menyembuhkan).

- a. Jessy bought a picture for her house.
- b. Picture a rainbow in your mind!

Like the previous example, the sentences above, the word picture has different meaning. The first sentence, the word picture has a function as a noun, and the meaning is *gambar*. The second one, as verb, and the appropriate meaning is *bayangkan*.

ANTONYMS

When we talk about antonym, we always remember about this term, “opposite”. So, an antonym can be defined as a word that is the opposite meaning of another in the same language. Almost similar to synonym, when a word has opposite meaning with another in the same language, it should be related to the word of the same part of speech. Notice some of the examples below:

Antym	Part of speech
Beautiful >< ugly	(both are adjective)
Give >< take	(both are verb)
In >< out	(both are adverb)
Sell >< buy	(both are verb)
Laugh >< cry	(both are verb)
Fat >< thin	(both are adjective)
Boy >< girl	(both are noun)

There are three kinds of antonyms:

1. Graded antonyms

It deals with levels of the meaning of the words, and there is scale ~~indeed~~

For example:

- a. Big and small
- b. Young and old
- c. Warm and cool

2. Complementary antonyms

It is an antonym that has a relationship, only two possibilities – either one or another-, and there is no scale among those words. It completes each other.

For example:

- a. Off and on

- b. Dead and alive
 - c. Arrive and leave
3. Relational antonyms

They are antonyms with pairs, for there to be a relationship, both must exist. It can be called as couple word.

For example:

- a. Husband and wife
- b. Left and right
- c. Come and go

Sometimes, an antonym can be built by adding some prefixes:

Prefix	Antonym	
Prefix “in”	Convenient	Inconvenient
	Discipline	indiscipline
Prefix “non”	Essential	nonessential
	Sense	nonsense
Prefix “un”	Belief	unbelief
	Certain	uncertain

HOMOPHONE

Homophones are words which have resembled pronunciation, have similar or different spelling, but the meaning are different. Because of the same pronunciation, especially in spoken, it requires accuracy to understand the context of sentence completely. Thus, learners can conclude by their selves also comprehend the true meaning automatically.

Example:

Homophone of the word *whether* is *weather*. They have same pronunciation but differ on meaning.

Whether means conjunction which is showing choice or doubt (Indonesia: apakah).

Weather means cause something to change shape or color because of the sun (Indonesia: cuaca).

HYPONYMS

Hyponyms are words which its part is in the same class. In other word, this term refers to words grouping. Excessively word mastery will make it easier to learners to cluster the words.

Example:

Hyponym of the word *furniture* are *chair, table, cupboard*.

HOMONYMS

A homonym is a word that has the similar spelling and pronunciation as another word but it has a meaning different from it. In other words, a way to identify a homonym is to look out for words with the same spellings and pronunciation but which usually have different meanings.

Let us see some examples:

BILL

Bill – this is a noun that means “money owed for goods or services supplied or a written or printed account or statement of money owed”. It also means a printed or written advertisement for a program, event, concert, show, etc. Look at these sentences:

- He requested his bill from the waiter.
- We distributed the handbills for the concert.

Bill – this is also a noun that means the beak of a bird, that is, the projecting jaws of a bird, covered with a horny sheath. E.g.

- The cormorant has a hooked bill.
- The pelican picked the fish with its large bill.

FAIR

Fair – this is an adjective that means attractive or beautiful to look at, light in color. It also means just, impartial, free from discrimination or dishonesty. E.g.

- She is a fair woman.
- It is a fair weather.
- The decision of the judge was fair enough.

Fair – in this regard, the word fair, which is a noun, means a travelling entertainment with sideshows, rides, etc. that visits different places from time to time. It also means an exhibition, a regular assembly at a specific place for the sale of goods, etc.

- I got the journal at the university book fair.
- The child won big balloons at the fair.

SIMPLE PRESENT TENSE

The simple present expresses daily habits or usual activities, expresses general statements of fact, and it used for events or situations that exist always, usually, or habitually in the past, present, and future (Azar, 1941: 3). The simple present tense describes an action which goes on every day or all the time (Dixson, 1971: 6). The simple present tense: third person singular *does not/doesn't* + infinitive; other persons *do not/don't* + infinitive. The simple past tense negative for all persons is *did not/didn't* + infinitive (Thomson & Martinet, 1985: 75).

I work	we work
you work	you work
he works	} they work
she works	
it works	

We form negative form of the simple present tense by putting *do not* or *does not* before the verb. Note that after *does not*, the verb does not have the s of the third person singular affirmative statement (Dixson, 1971: 21).

I do not understand

We do not understand

You do not understand

You do not understand

He does not understand

She does not understand

It does not understand

They do not understand

We form simple present tense questions by placing *do* or *does* before the subject.

Do I work

do we work

Do you work

do we work

Does he work

Does she work

do they work

Does it work

When we want to talk about *something followed by noun, adjective, and adverb*, we put *linking verbs is, am, are* after the subject.

I am

We are

You are

You are

He is

She is

It is

They are

Negatives and Questions

Form the negative of to be by placing *not* after the verbs.

I am a student

I am not a student

They are my friends

They are not students here

Form questions with *to be* by placing the verb before the subject.

She is absent today.

Is she absent today?

Why is she absent today?

How is the progress of our project?

PRESENT CONTINUOUS TENSE

We create the present continuous tense by using the **present participle** (*-ing* form) of the verb after the present-tense form of the **auxiliary verb** *be*. Unlike the **present simple tense**, which is used to express things that are **always** the case or are at a fixed time in the future, we use the **present continuous** (also called the **present progressive**) **tense** to speak about actions that are currently happening, whether generally or at the exact moment of speech. It can also be used to describe actions or events that are planned for the future (but are not definitively fixed in time, such as a timetable) (Herring, 2016: 640).

Actions happening at the moment of speech.

The present continuous is most frequently used when something or someone is doing the activity being described at the time it is being described. The object of the verb in this sentence is typically present with or quite close to the speaker.

Example:

- I am doing my homework now.
- She is crying because she cut his finger.
- We are going home.
- It is raining here.

Actions happening currently, but not at the moment of speech

The present continuous can also be used to describe a current event that is not occurring at the exact time of speaking. It usually refers to a continuous, longer-term activity that the person or item in question is currently engaged in but which is not (necessarily) permanent.

Example:

- I am living beside oh John.
- She is working in a garment company.
- They are working on the project.

Actions or events planned for the future

The present continuous can also depict future events, just like the present simple tense does. But unlike the present simple, it describes what someone is anticipating or planning to do rather than what will happen at a specific time in the future. This is not reflected in the verb's structure; rather, the future intention is determined using information from the rest of the sentence.

Example:

- I am having my dinner later.
- She is learning English next month.
- We are watching movie together next week.

With adverbs

The present participle can also be followed by time-related adverbs to further explain or clarify when or how frequently something occurs.

Example:

- “She is *already* leaving.” (She is leaving sooner than I expected)
- “I am *still* living next to John.” (I continue to live next to John, perhaps longer than I expected.)

The adverb *always*.

A unique situation arises when the adverb *always* is placed between the verb *be* and the present participle. As you might anticipate, this doesn't mean that the activity *always* occurs; rather, it just means that it does so quite frequently. It usually denotes that the action or event is dubious or bad to some extent. We use this to give hyperbolic emphasis to how frequently something happens or occurs.

Example:

- She is always coming to the meeting on time.
- He is always breaking anything.
- I always forgetting where I put my phone.

Negative sentences.

In the present continuous, a negative statement explains what is not occurring right now. These are created by following the auxiliary verb *be* with the word *not*. *Be* and *not* can also be contracted in the second, third, and first-person plurals (though *not* in the first person singular).

Example:

- I am not doing my homework
- She is eating
- We aren't going home before the work is done.
- He is not visiting his mother this week.

Interrogative sentences.

The verb *be* and the subject are reversed to create interrogative (question) sentences in the present continuous tense. Adverbs that explain or specify the time are placed at the beginning of the sentence or at the end.

Example:

- Are you sleeping?
- Is she working?

- Are they running?
- Is he cooking?
- Is it working?

The present continuous can also be used with the **question words** *who, what, where when, why, and how*.

Example:

- *What* are you doing?
- *Where* is she going?
- *Why* is he crying?
- *Who's* speaking
- *When* are you taking the test?

Negative interrogative sentences.

The use of negative interrogatives implies that the speaker expects (or expected) something to be the case while still posing a question. If something suddenly stops happening, they might be used to express surprise. The sentences are created by inverting *be* and the subject, followed by the word *not* after the subject. *Be* and *not* can both be contracted; if so, the contraction comes before the subject. The statement may sound less formal and stuffy as a result. Adverbs can also be used to define or explain time.

Example:

- Is he *not* playing piano anymore?
- You want to go now? Isn't it raining?
- Wait, isn't she still working there?

Like the negative sentence, *no longer* can be used instead of *not*. Please note that we don't use other adverbs in this case:

Example:

- Are Jake and Jane *no longer* working together?
- Is Ana *no longer* playing piano?

The question words *why* and *how* can also be used with negative interrogative sentences in the present continuous. Once more, it conveys the speaker's surprise (and perhaps dismay) that something is false:

Example:

- Why are you not working today?
- How is she not eating her dinner now?
- Why are you not studying now?

PRESENT PERFECT TENSE

The **present perfect tense** (sometimes referred to as the **present perfect simple tense**) is formed by using the present tense of the auxiliary verb *have* (or *has*, if used with third-person singular pronouns) along with the *past participle* of the “main” verb.

Despite its name, the present perfect is used to give general information about something that happened in the past (anytime “before now”), but which did not occur at a definitive point in time (Herring, 2016: 653).

For example:

- I have seen that movie already.
- He has been to Bali.
- We have decided where we want to go for holiday.
- She has lied to us so many times.

Present Perfect vs. Past Simple

The present perfect tells us about something that occurred at some indefinite period in the past. However, if something happened at a specific point in time in the past (“last night,” “two years ago,” “yesterday,” etc.), then we must use the **past simple tense**.

For example:

- I saw that movie last week.
- He went to Bali last holiday.

Present perfect: “He has been to Bali.” (Generally, at some point in his lifetime.)

Past simple: “He went to Bali last holiday.” (We say *last holiday* because the exact point in time is specified.)

PRESENT PERFECT CONTINUOUS TENSE

The **present perfect continuous** is the combination of the continuous and perfect aspects with the present tense. It is used for actions that began in the past and continue to have relevance in the present.

The main difference between it and the present perfect aspect is that the present perfect continuous aspect emphasizes the progress of the action instead of its completion. Like the present continuous, it is typically only used with **action verbs**, not with stative verbs. The present perfect continuous is formed using *have/has + been + the present* participle (Herring, 2016: 722).

For example:

- I have been waiting for you for years.
- She has been studying for hours.
- We have been working together over years.
- My cat has been sleeping quietly.
- She has been renovating her house for a week.
- They have been playing together since morning.

SIMPLE PAST TENSE

The simple past is used to indicate an action completed in the past (Wren, Martin, and Rao, 2006: 69). It often occurs with adverbs or adverb phrases of past time.

She watched the movie yesterday.

I sent her message two days ago.

She left the house a year ago.

Sometimes this tense is used without an adverb of time. In such cases the time may be either implied or indicated by the context.

I learned English in Singapore.

He didn't sleep well.

The Simple Past is also used for past habits;

I used to for 8 hours in a day.

I used to listen to music before I sleep.

When we want to talk about *something followed by noun, adjective, and adverb*, we put *linking verbs* **was** and **were** after the subject.

I was

We were

You were

You were

He was

She was

It was

They were

Negatives and Questions

Form the negative of the past tense of *to be* by placing *not* after the verb. The contracted forms *wasn't* and *weren't* are generally used (Dixson, 1971: 18).

I was not (I wasn't)

we were not (we weren't)

you were not (you weren't)

you were not (you weren't)

he was not (he wasn't)

she was not (she wasn't)

it was not (it wasn't)

they were not (they weren't)

Form question in the past tense of *to be* by placing the verb before the subject.

She was here yesterday.

Was she here last yesterday?

PAST CONTINUOUS TENSE

Also called the **past progressive**, the **past continuous tense**, is used to describe something that was in progress at a certain moment in the past and either finished in the past or continued until the present moment.

It is called the *past continuous* because it uses the past tense of the auxiliary verb *be* (*was* or *were*) followed by the **present participle** of the main verb (which is used to describe an action that is or was *continuously* happening) (Herring, 2016: 665). T

he past continuous is chiefly used for past actions which continued for some time but whose exact limits are not known and are not important (Thomson and Martinet, 1986).

Examples:

- I was doing my homework when Lisa come over my house.
- The phone rang while I was cooking in the kitchen.
- I was still finishing my work at 3 o'clock in the morning.
- Sorry I didn't hear your call; I was listening music with earphones.
- She was working on her thesis when her mother came home.
- The bell rang when she was working in the garden.
- We were going to do it yesterday at 6 p.m., but we were too busy at that time.

PAST PERFECT TENSE

The **past perfect tense** expresses the idea that something occurred before another action in the past. It can also show that something happened before a specific time in the past.

To form the past perfect, we use *had* (the past tense of the auxiliary verb *have*) + the **past participle** of the main verb. Because we use the past perfect to highlight two separate points in the past, we often use

the conjunctions *before*, *when*, *because*, *until*, or *by the time* to specify the order in which they occurred in time (Herring, 2016: 666).

Examples:

- The show had already ended when I arrived there.
- He had lost his phone when I tried to call him.
- Had you ever ridden a horse?
- I had already finished my dinner when he came and brought me some food.
- She hadn't dreamed of living in the US before she visited the country.
- I helped him with his work after I had finished my work.
- When I arrived there, they already returned to their country.

PAST PERFECT CONTINUOUS TENSE

The **past perfect continuous** is the combination of the continuous and perfect aspects with the past tense. It is used for actions that took place before another past action. The main difference between it and the past perfect structure is that the past perfect continuous emphasizes the progress of the action instead of its completion.

It is also used to emphasize the action's strong effect on another moment in the past. Like the past continuous, the past perfect continuous is generally only used with action verbs, not stative verbs. It is formed using *had + been* + the present participle (Herring, 2016: 725).

For example:

- I had been waiting for you for years, but it was no use.
- She had been studying for hours, and she slept on her desk.
- We have been working together over years, so we knew each other very well.
- My cat has been sleeping quietly, but then suddenly we woke up.

- She has been renovating her house for a week, when her parents suddenly came to her house.
- They have been playing together since morning, so they were too tired to do their homework.

FUTURE TENSE WITH *WILL*

A. We use I'll ... (= I will) when we've just decided to do something (Murphy, 2019: 42). When we say 'I'll do something', we announce our decision:

- Oh, I left the door open. I'll go and shut it.
- What would you like to drink? I'll have orange juice, please.
- Did you call Max? Oh no, I forgot. I'll call him now.

We do not use the present simple (I do / I go etc.) in these sentences:

- I'll phone him now. (Not I phone him now)
We often use I think I'll ... / I don't think I'll ...:

- I'm a little hungry. I think I'll have something to eat.
- I don't think I'll go out tonight. I'm too tired.

In spoken English will not is usually won't:

- I can see you're busy, so I won't stay long. (= I will not stay long)

B. We often use **I'll** in these situations:

Offering to do something

- That bag looks heavy. I'll help you with it. (Not I help)

Agreeing to do something

- A: Can you give Tom this book?

B: Sure, I'll give it to him when I see him this afternoon.

Promising to do something

- Thanks for lending me the money. I'll pay you back on Friday.
- I won't tell anyone what happened. I promise.

We use won't to say that somebody refuses to do something:

- I've tried to give her advice, but she won't listen.
- The car won't start. (= the car 'refuses' to start)

Will you (do something)? = please do it:

- Will you please turn the music down? It's too loud.

C. We do not use will to talk about what has been decided or arranged before:

- I'm going on holiday next Saturday. (Not I'll go)

Compare:

- I'm meeting Kate tomorrow morning. (Decided before)
- A: I'll meet you at half past ten, OK?
B: Fine. See you then. (Decided now)

FUTURE CONTINUOUS TENSE

We use the Future Continuous Tense to talk about actions which will be in progress at a time in the future (Wren, Martin, and Rao, 2006: 71). The future continuous describes an action that will be going on when another action takes place (Dixon, 1971).

This time tomorrow I will be drinking coffee in a coffee shop in Singapore.

Please don't come at 5, because I will be sleeping at that time.

We also use this sentence to talk about actions in the future which are already planned or which are expected to happen in the normal course of things.

I will be doing my assignment when they come.

They will be coming soon.

We form the future continuous with *will be* and the present participle of the main verb (Dixon, 1971: 68).

I will be sleeping

We will be sleeping

You will be sleeping

You will be sleeping

He will be sleeping	}	They will be sleeping
She will be sleeping		
It will be sleeping		

FUTURE PERFECT TENSE

We use the **future perfect tense** to say that something will finish or complete at a specific point in the future. We also often include durations of time to indicate how long something has been happening once a future moment in time is reached. In addition, we can use the future perfect tense to make a present prediction about something that we believe has or should have happened in the past. The most common way we create the future perfect tense is by using *will + have* + the **past participle** of the verb (Herring, 2016: 691).

Examples:

- She will have slept for 18 hours if she doesn't wake up until 12 o'clock.
- We will have lived together for 7 years next year.
- This January, I will have worked in this company for three years.

SPELLING

"Spelling is the process of representing language by means of a writing system" (National Council of Teachers of English, 1996. p. 51). Spelling is the writing of one or more words with letters. It attempts to transcribe the sounds of the language into alphabetic letters.

Here are some terms in learning about spelling:

- **Phonology** – how words sound
- **Morphemes** – how words are constructed from meaningful elements

- **Homonym** – words that sound similar, but have different meanings and spellings
- **Homophone** – type of homonym where the word is pronounced the same as another word

Some rules of spelling to know are as follows:

1. I Before E, Except After C

- In many words that include an “i” and an “e” side-by-side, the “i” comes first.
- Words that illustrate this concept include **niece**, **belief**, **cashier** and **achieve**.
- It is generally true that “i” comes before “e,” unless the vowel pair follows the letter “c” (such as with **conceit**, **ceiling**), or if the vowel pair makes a long /a/ sound, such as in **neighbor** or **weigh**.
- So, the rule goes like this:
→ I before E, **except after C**, unless, it sounds like A (eI), as in **neighbor** or **weigh**

2. Adding Suffixes to Words that End in y

- When you add a suffix that starts with *e* (such as *-ed*, *-er*, or *-est*) to a word that ends in *y*, the *y* usually changes to an *i*.
- Example:
Cry – cried – crier
Lay – laid (note the irregular spelling: no E)
Baby – babies
Ugly – ugliest
- The *y* doesn’t change for the suffix *-ing*. E.g.: cry → crying.
- If the word in question has two consonants before the *y*, change the *y* to *i* before adding the suffix *-ly*. E.g: happy

→ happily.

- Of course, there are always exceptions: Dry → dryly
(**not drily**)

3. The silent *e*

- Typically, an *e* after a consonant at the end of a word is silent, but it does affect the way you pronounce the vowel that comes before the consonant.
- The *e* makes the vowel sound of the word (or syllable) long (like the *i* sound in kite) instead of short (like the *i* sound in kitten).
- ***It's important to get the silent e right, because its presence or absence can change the meaning of a word.***
Example: The monkey **bit** me. Keep your fingers out of the cage: the monkey's **bite**.
- By adding the *e* to the end of bit, the word is changed from past to present tense.
Example: Don't **cut** yourself on the sharp knives. The kitten is really **cute**.
In this case, the silent *e* creates a completely different word.

4. Double Consonant

- Double consonants are frequently found in words that have suffixes added to them:
Example: I **dropped** the heavy bags to the floor. Someone **called** for you earlier.
- Some words can be pronounced as either one or two syllables, but the spelling remains the same:
Example: **Blessed** are the meek for they shall inherit the Earth.

- In this case, blessed is pronounced as two syllables: *bless-ed*.
Example: The father **blessed** his son before the wedding.
- In this sentence, blessed is pronounced as one syllable: *blest*.
- Be particularly careful with words where a double consonant can change the pronunciation and the meaning of the word.
Example: Cacti are native to the **desert**. Would you like ice cream for **dessert**?

5. Plural Suffixes

- When do you add s and when do you add -s/-es to make a plural?
The rule is this: **if a word ends in -s, -sh, -ch, -x, or -z, you add -es**.
Example: I only had to take one **bus**; you had to take two **buses**. I only get one **wish**; you get two **wishes**.
- For **all other endings**, add -s.
Example: I have one **cat**; you have two **cats**. I have one **cup**; you have two **cups**.
- Be careful of words that don't change when they're pluralized (e.g., fish, sheep, moose).
- If you are unsure, check the dictionary.

Activity

- After learning about spelling, click the link below:
- https://www.learning-english-online.net/pronunciation/the-english-alphabet/#google_vignette
- You'll find 4 Exercises.
 1. Exercise 1: Write the correct letter!
 2. Exercise 2: Write the correct word!

3. Exercise 3: Choose the spelled word!
 4. Exercise 4: Choose the correct phonetic spelling!
- You have to work on the exercises carefully, since the exercises are online, once you finish, click the button “Check” and then screenshot your result.
 - Put you screenshot of 4 exercises in Microsoft word and submit within the deadline.

PRONUNCIATION

The act of producing the sounds of speech is called **pronunciation**. Pronunciation in English is quite difficult as when you see letters in an English word, they won't always be pronounced the same way.

Take the letter “c” for example. In the world cup it is pronounced as “k” but it is different to the word “place”. When a “c” is next to “h” it's often “ch” like in “chocolate” but in the word “ache” it is pronounced as “k” again.

There are many strategies for making the pronunciation better but the International Phonetic Alphabet is such a great tool for English students to practice their pronunciation with. As we follow British English language.

International Phonetic Alphabet

- In the IPA every sound has a unique symbol, so when you read it, you know exactly how to pronounce the English word.
- There are 26 alphabets in English alphabets. But there are 47 sounds, including new 3 sounds added.
- For example, the words **though**, **thought**, **cough** all have the same letters *o-u-g-h* spellings but they are pronounced differently.

VOWELS				DIPHTHONGS			
ɪ	ɪ:	ʊ	u:	ɪə	eə		
e	ə	ɜ:	ɔ:	ʊə	aʊ	əʊ	
æ	ʌ	ɑ:	ɒ	eɪ	aɪ	ɔɪ	
CONSONANTS							
p	f	t	θ	tʃ	s	ʃ	k
b	v	d	ð	dʒ	z	ʒ	g
h	m	n	ŋ	r	l	w	j

1. Vowels

VOWELS			
ɪ	ɪ:	ʊ	u:
e	ə	ɜ:	ɔ:
æ	ʌ	ɑ:	ɒ

- There are 5 English vowels:
- *a, e, i, o, u*
- But there are 12 English vowel sounds.
- Some of them are long some of them are short.
- Vowel sounds come smoothly from the mouth.

These are smooth sounds.

- | | |
|--|--|
| • /ɪ/ <u>p</u> in, <u>E</u> nglish | • /ɪ:/ <u>s</u> ea, <u>b</u> ee |
| • /ʊ/ <u>l</u> ook, <u>put</u> , <u>c</u> ould | • /u:/ <u>bl</u> ue, <u>fo</u> ol |
| • /e/ <u>b</u> ed, <u>h</u> ead | • /ə/ <u>th</u> e, <u>a</u> , <u>w</u> oman |
| • /ɜ:/ <u>w</u> ord, <u>h</u> ear <u>d</u> | • /ɔ:/ <u>or</u> , <u>bo</u> ard, <u>do</u> or |
| • /æ/ <u>cat</u> , <u>ba</u> g | • /ʌ/ <u>cut</u> , <u>c</u> ome |
| • /ɑ:/ <u>car</u> , <u>ar</u> t | • /ɒ/ <u>cl</u> ock, <u>wh</u> at |

2. Diphthongs

- There is another group of vowel sounds called “Diphthongs”.
- These are sounds that change from one vowel sound to another.

- /ɪə/ here, deer
- /eə/ care, air
- /ʊə/ poor, insure
- /aʊ/ round, doubt
- /əʊ/ no, road
- /eɪ/ take, wait
- /aɪ/ five, height
- /ɔɪ/ noise, boy

VOWELS	
ɪə	eə
ʊə	aʊ əʊ
eɪ	aɪ ɔɪ

3. Consonant

- Consonant is divided into two; those are **unvoiced consonant and voiced consonant**.
- The top row are **unvoiced consonants** which means that sound is made by air moving from the back of your mouth, through and out your lips.
- There is one extra letter that is unvoiced, down the bottom.
- Unvoiced sounds use just air. You can't feel anything in your vocal cords.

CONSONANTS							
p	f	t	θ	tʃ	s	ʃ	k
b	v	d	ð	dʒ	z	ʒ	g
h	m	n	ŋ	r	l	w	j

Unvoiced consonant

- /p/ play, stop
- /f/ food, laugh
- /t/ ten, little
- /θ/ method, both
- /tʃ/ chair, match
- /s/ small, scene
- /ʃ/ shell, machine
- /k/ character, quick
- /h/ hot, hair, whole

Voiced Consonant

- /b/ bad, baby
- /d/ day, bed
- /g/ got, exam
- /v/ vain, over
- /ð/ they, father, with
- /z/ zoo, goes
- /ʒ/ measure, vision
- /m/ moon, lamp
- /n/ can, pneumonia
- /ŋ/ string, tongue
- /dʒ/ just, age, soldier
- /l/ look, small
- /r/ real, wrong
- /j/ yes, Europe
- /w/ window, twin

DESCRIBING PICTURE

In this lesson, we will study about how to deliver your thought or ideas in describing particular pictures. You'll also learn the phrases, sentences, or expressions that can be used while describing the pictures.

How to describe a picture?

1. General topic
2. The setting
3. Describing what's inside
4. What you can see?
5. Making guess
6. Paraphrasing
7. Making some deductions
8. Comparing
9. Facts and Opinions
10. Develop a Conversation

1. General Topic

To start describing picture, you will need to create/decide the general topic of the picture. The expressions you may use in describing picture are:

- All these pictures show ...
- This set of pictures shows ...
- Here we have X pictures, all related to ...
- The main topic here is ...
- The topic illustrated here ...
- The pictures are about ...
- In these pictures I can see ...

2. The setting

After providing the general topic or main idea of the picture, you can provide the setting of the picture, be it setting of place, time,

or atmosphere. You may use the following phrases:

- This photo must have been taken in___ because (of) _____
- I think this photo was taken in_____ because (of) _____
- The picture was described when _____ in _____

3. Describing what's inside the picture

The picture must consist of several elements that you can point out. Mentioning those elements will add the detail while describing the picture. The example of expressions you may use:

- In the foreground / background, we can see _____
 - On the left / right, there is _____
 - At the top / bottom, we can find _____
 - In this picture / these pictures here (pointing) are _____
- etc.

4. What you can see?

To provide more informative description, you can add the activity captured in the picture. The expression you may use:

- I can see _____
- I think / It seems + present continuous to describe the actions/activity.
- She/He/They look(s) like _____

For example:

- I can see a woman in a traditional costume dancing with other women.
- I think the man wearing a red hat is the chief officer.
- I can see a leopard hidden behind a tree stalking his prey.

5. Making a guess

If you don't know exactly what's happening in the photo, use modal verbs → **COULD, MAY, MIGHT**

For instances:

- **He might be waiting for someone because he is looking at his watch.**
- **She could be asking for directions because she has a map in her hand**

You can also use: **SEEM TO be + ing.**

e.g.: They **seem to be birdwatching** because they're holding binoculars.

Another formula you can use is **LOOK AS IF/THOUGH+ clause+ ing.**

e.g.: He looks as if he is inspecting tickets.

6. Paraphrasing

When you don't know a word, try to make yourself understand the word you are intended to describe by paraphrasing. You can refer to what you do /how you feel /what happens when you / how it works, etc.

For example:

- It's a type/kind/sort of tool used for making holes.
→ What you intend to say is a drill.
- It's a domestic appliance used for heating liquids fast.
→ What you intend to say is microwave.
- It's how you feel when you say something inappropriate.
→ What you want to say is the feeling of embarrassed.

7. Making some deductions

To describe a picture, you can make a conclusion reached by logical reasoning after observing the picture carefully. For example:

- The people in this photo must be blue collar workers because they're wearing overalls.
- The photo can't have been taken in the summer because the people are wearing winter clothes.

But, if you cannot see the picture clearly, you can use the following expression.

- It's hard to see, perhaps _____
- I can't see clearly what he is doing. Maybe he's _____
- Is it perhaps _____?

8. Comparing

If you are given two pictures, you can describe the pictures by comparing one to another. Here are the expressions you can use:

- In contrast / On the other hand, this other picture shows a very similar/different situation with the first/second picture _____.
- Both pictures show/ Neither of these pictures show _____
- This one is far / a lot / much + comparative than A little (bit) / slightly + comp. than _____
- It is(n't) as + adj + as _____
- It is similar to/different from/the same as _____

9. Facts and opinions

In describing a picture, you can state the fact about it and then adding the comment using your point of view or opinion related to the picture. The expressions that can be used as follows:

- Everybody knows that ...
- Many people believe that ...
- I find it (a bit) + adj.
- I'm (not) interested in + noun/ing.
- I'm (not) very fond of / keen on + noun/ing.
- In my opinion, ...
- I believe/think that ...
- It seems to me that ...

10. Develop a conversation

- Talk in sentences and don't produce a list of items you see.
- Organize your description and don't describe the same thing

more than once.

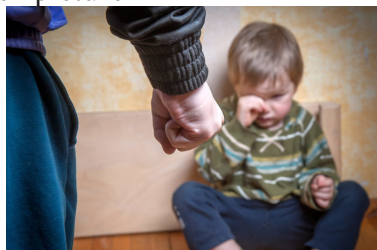
- Start with a general idea of the subject before going into details.
- Give some personal reaction to the picture

For example, you can develop the description as follows

- It reminds me of my childhood because _____
- You can/can't see things like these in my country because _____
- This makes me think of _____ because _____
- I don't know much about this but I know about _____

Activity

- Describe the following pictures using your own words minimum 5 sentences in each picture



LOOK AT THE PICTURE & READ THE TEXT

A picture description is an ideal way of practicing your English vocabulary in all sorts of fields. Pictures provide serious language practice and can be meaningful in the classroom for stimulating discussion and bringing enormous variety to lesson. They also provide the teacher with a flexible and convenient tool to test many different things in exam. Here you have some techniques and exam tips I have put together to help you describe a picture or photograph:

- Study them carefully and decide on how to structure your picture description.

- Don't worry if you find it a bit difficult at first, we'll practice a lot to make things easier in time.
- I've also included some exercises that will help you to improve your ability in describing.
- After all, as the saying has it: "A picture paints a thousand words"

How to Describe a Picture?

1. Identify the picture

You can say it with some ways as follows:

This document is a(n)

drawing – cartoon – photo – cover
advertisement – painting – poster
portrait – film still – article – etc.

It (probably) comes from a

magazine – newspaper – novel – comic – Instagram –
Pinterest – etc.

It was drawn / painted / created / captured by

It was published / created in (year) / on (date)

It is a recent

It dates from

Example:

The Runaway , by Norman Rockwell , 1958



This document
is a painting by Norman Rockwell.

It was painted by Norman
Rockwell in 1958/ It dates from
1958. It is entitled "The Runaway".

2. Description

Useful expressions:

- The scene takes place in / at ...
- The main character(s) is / are ...
- The secondary character(s) is / are ...
- There is / are ...
- We can see / notice (that) ...
- It is composed of / made up of...
- We are struck by ...
- Our attention is drawn to ...
- It shows

Useful words:

- Shades of
- (to) stand out against
- Bright / vivid colours
- Pale / soft colours
- In contrast to
- Colourful

Useful Prepositions

- | | |
|----------------|-----------------|
| • Behind | • In |
| • In front of | • On |
| • Opposite | • Inside |
| • Face to face | • Outside |
| • Next to | • Against |
| • Near | • Above |
| • Side by side | • Underneath |
| • Between | • Under |
| • Among | • In the middle |

Example

First let's describe the painting / the picture.
As we can see the scene takes place in a café.
It must be breakfast time / in the morning.
There are three characters, a waiter who is standing from the other side of the counter, a policeman and a boy who are in profile. The waiter is in the background and the other two characters are in the foreground.
Both the waiter and the policeman look welcoming / friendly / kind / gentle / protective. They are smiling to the child.
At the bottom of the painting our attention is drawn by a red bundle / hobo bag with white spots. The bag is on the floor. This red bag stands out against the rest of the painting. The boy is really young, he may be nine years old. He is wearing a yellow T-shirt and jeans. He has got short blond hair and a round face. The boy's bright yellow T-shirt is in contrast to the policeman's dark blue uniform.



3. Interpretation and Opinion

Useful expressions

- It expresses / symbolizes...
- It pictures / depicts
- The message is / the purpose is to ...
- It's a criticism of ...
- To my mind / In my opinion
- From my point of view ...
- As a conclusion / to conclude / in conclusion it represents / illustrates...
- The author wants to
- It's a symbol of / a message of...
- I think / believe that
- It seems to me that

Useful words:

- Sadness
- Happiness
- Loneliness

- Anger
- Hatred
- Disaster
- Love
- Solidarity
- Peacefulness

Useful adjectives:

- | | |
|--------------|--------------|
| • Ordinary | • Wonderful |
| • Ridiculous | • Awful |
| • Terrific | • Witty |
| • Striking | • Moving |
| • Silly | • Gorgeous |
| • Odd | • Ugly |
| • Provoking | • Repulsive |
| • Touching | • Convincing |
| • Amazing | • Powerful |
| • Great | • Satirical |

Example:

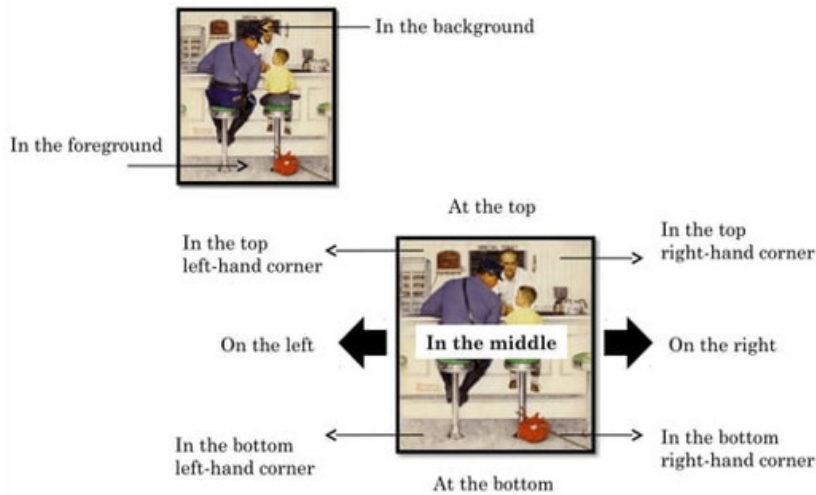


From my point of view, this is a very touching and moving painting because it depicts ordinary people in their everyday lives .

The little boy probably had an argument with his parents and he ran away from home. The boy was quite daring / bold to venture alone into the streets and he is telling his story to the two men .

The red bundle symbolizes the boy's anger. As he is no longer angry , the bundle has been left on the floor.

4. Positions of Objects



Activity

PRACTICE 1

Takes after Might Could be Shows	To tell The background Make it out Perhaps	She has got Would say It looks as though Looks like	Looks Can't be Maybe
---	---	--	----------------------------



This photo (1) a young mother and her two kids.
I (2) they must be from somewhere in South America.
(3) they're in a crowded market, although it is difficult (4) because you can't see much of (5)
The mother has her hair up in a bun and a roundish face. She (6) fed up, but this (7) because she's tired. (8) she's had a busy day shopping.
The child with its arm around her neck (9) a little boy.

It seems he's aware of the camera.

The little girl (10) more than three. She's a little plump, but you can see that she really (11) her mother. (12) her mother's mouth and the most beautiful almond-shaped eyes. She's holding something in her hand ...
I can't really (13) It (14) be a charm or (15) it's a crucifix.

PRACTICE 2

Location

➤ Match the phrases on the left with the appropriate places in this photograph

- at the bottom
- at the top
- on the right-hand side
- on the left-hand side
- in the top left-hand corner
- in the bottom right-hand corner
- in the foreground
- in the background
- on the left
- on the right
- in the middle



Picture discussion

➤ Look carefully at the photograph and answer the questions. Remember to use the expressions you learn to make suggestions and give your opinion.

A Description

1. What can you see in the photograph?
2. How are the eight people in this photograph related?
3. What else could you describe to the examiner?

B General questions

1. How many people are there in your family?
2. Would you like to be a twin, a triplet, a sextuplet? Why? Why not?
3. Why do you think parents often dress twins in the same clothes?
4. From a child's point of view, what are the pros and cons of being part of a big family?
5. From the parents' point of view, what are the advantages and disadvantages of having only one child?

M. Cristina C. B.

Describe using your own words minimum 10 sentences



LOOK AT THE PICTURE AND WRITE

Language Basic 1

In order to write a story from series of pictures, student must understand about:

1. **Mechanics**

- Writing mechanic relates with the rules and conventions concerning technical aspects of writing composition.

- The category of writing mechanics includes technical areas such as punctuation and spelling that concern expressive accuracy.

2. **Sentence formation**

- It relates to sentence structure in which dealing the order of all the parts in a sentence: subject, predicate, objects, phrases, punctuation, etc.
- It deals a lot with independent and dependent clauses and how they combine (explained below), the placement of words and phrases next to what they modify, as well as the use of proper grammar.

Language Basic 2

Students also have to know about the structure of the story.

- Title
- Theme (Main Idea)
- Write a topic sentence (optional)
- Use grammatical sentences
- Be Coherent & Cohesive
- Have a proper introduction, body, conclusion.

How to Write a Story

1. **Make sure that your story has a title, plot, problem, closing and a setting.** Does it all make sense? How are your characters involved> don't start writing until you have a good plan for your story. Ask others if they think it's good.
2. **The beginning of your story/book should have a little background on your character(s) and setting, and also a description.** You want to paint a mental picture for your readers so they know what's going on.
3. **Make the first few sentences/paragraphs exciting and detailed to catch your reader's attention.** This will make them want to read further.

4. **As you write, use a lot of adjectives and elaborate your words.** Instead of saying “The elephant I saw was big”, say “The colossal elephant that stood before me was amazing, ivory tusks gleaming in the sunlight, its intelligent brown eyes gazing deeply into mine.” Makes a different, right?
5. **Always remember to use proper punctuation, and don’t write SO detailed that your readers get confused.**
6. **Remember to follow through with your plot and characters.** Don’t introduce a character and then never mention it for the rest of the story. Give each setting and character an entrance and exit (unless your main character(s) are at the very beginning and end of the story.
7. **Be consistent.** Don’t start your story as a scary tale and then make it to comedy.
8. **Write so that when you read it over, you can see a picture in your brain of what is happening.** Describing the setting is most important:
 - What can the character(s) see? What does it look like? Describe color, lighting, movements, people and depth.
 - What can they feel? What does it feel like? Describe texture, temperature, wetness/dryness and shape.
 - What can they hear? What does it sound like? Describe the way people speak, background sounds (birds, wind) and other sounds.
 - What can they smell? What does it smell like? Describe what it smells like, if it smells good or bad and what they are smelling.
 - What can they taste? What does it taste like? Describe if it tastes good or bad and what they are tasting.
 - Never overdo description. Readers have a good enough imagination to get most of a scene in their head. Use description as a base for action.

9. **Point of view!** Point of view! Focus on your characters. If you end up telling the story of another character, try switching to their point-of-view so we can see it through their eyes.
10. **Elaborate terms.** Instead of saying, “I went back into my mind, trying to find that moment.”, say, “I raced back into my memory, searching with desperation to find that moment.” Adjectives can easily be over-done, but if you do them right it’s a great effect. Try to use few “-ly” words.
11. **Pacing.** A simple concept that takes a lifetime to master- in general, balance the exciting parts of the story with the dull and necessary parts. Keeping a reader engaged is an art form, and it requires thinking about your intended audience and what they want to hear. Try to make the climax of the story (Ex: a battle, a journey, etc.) just before the closing, but calm things down as you reach the end.
12. **When you do end your story, be sure that you don’t leave any loose ends, unless there is supposed to be a twist (or a sequel).** Read over it and check that everything was summed up, and that your main closing is satisfying overall and you will land a bestseller, or would you?

Activity

- Write a story based on the following pictures.
- Each picture should be at least become 1 paragraph.
- Use the vocabulary provided as the building blocks to write down your idea based on the pictures.
- Do not forget to write down the moral story of the series of pictures.

Picture 1



Vocabulary:

- Hot
- Thirsty
- Crow
- Desert

Picture 2



Vocabulary:

- Flying away
- Searching
- Water

Picture 3



Vocabulary:

- Finding
- Village
- A jug

Picture 4



Vocabulary:

- Water
- Not much

Picture 5



Vocabulary:

- Saw
- Pebbles

Picture 6



Vocabulary:

- Put ... in
- Filled ... with
- Getting rise
- High enough

Picture 7



Vocabulary:

- Drinking
- Happy
- Satisfied
- Full

SENTENCE ARRANGEMENT

A. Simple sentence

Simple sentence has the most basic element but it delivers a complete thought. It consists of a subject and a verb at the minimum construction. It can have a compliment for additional info but it's optional.

Example:

- Joe waited for the train.
“Joe” = subject, “waited” = verb
- The train was late.
“The train” = subject, “was” = verb
- Mary and Samantha took the bus.
“Mary and Samantha” = compound subject, “took” = verb
- I looked for Mary and Samantha at the bus station.
“I” = subject, “looked” = verb
- Mary and Samantha arrived at the bus station early but waited until noon for the bus.
“Mary and Samantha” = compound subject, “arrived” and “waited” = compound verb

B. Compound sentence

Compound sentence contains two or more independent clauses joined together with a coordinator such as for, and or but. Compound Sentence can make writing rich and colorful, provide more detail, and make paragraphs more interesting and engaging. It is important to understand the components of a compound sentence and to use the proper punctuation to join clauses.

What is independent clause?

- An independent clause is a clause that contains three things:
1. Subject (something or someone that the sentence is all about).
 2. An action (a verb - something that is being done).
 3. Complete thought (there are no questions as to meaning at the end of the sentence).

What is coordinator?

- A coordinator is a conjunction that connects words, phrases, and clauses that are coordinate, or equal to each other.
- When you have two independent clauses joined by one of these coordinators, that is a compound sentence.
 - Usually a comma is required, before the coordinator.
 - There are six coordinators in the English Language: "FANBOYS"
- For, And, Nor, But, Or, Yet, So

Example:

Max likes to hunt, and he is going hunting on Friday.

"Max likes to hunt" is an independent clause.

- "Max" is the subject
- "likes" is the action, and
- "To hunt" expressed a complete thought
- "He is going fishing on Friday" is an independent clause.
- "He" is the subject
- "Is going" is the action, and

→ “Hunting on Friday” expressed a complete thought.
Both independent clauses are joined by coordinator:
→ “and”

C. Complex sentence

A Complex Sentence is made of an independent clause and one or more dependent clauses connected to it. A dependent clause is similar to an independent clause, or complete sentence, but it lacks one of the elements that would make it a complete sentence.

What is dependent clause?

Dependent clauses cannot stand alone as a sentence, but they can be added to an independent clause to form a complex sentence.

For example:

- because Mary and Samantha arrived at the bus station\
- before noon
- while he waited
- at the train station
- after they left on the bus

A complex sentence joins an independent clause with one or more dependent clauses. Dependent clauses begin with subordinating conjunctions.

Below are some of the most common subordinating conjunctions:

- unless
- until
- when
- whenever
- whereas
- wherever
- while
- though
- after

The dependent clauses can go first in the sentence, followed by the independent clause, as in the following:

Tip: When the dependent clause comes first, a comma should be used to separate the two clauses.

Example:

- **Because** Marry and Samantha arrived at the bus station before noon, I did not see them at the station.
- **While** he waited at the train station, Joe realized that the train was late.
- **After** they left on the bus, Mary and Samantha realized that Joe was waiting at the train station.

Independent clauses can go first in the sentence, followed by the dependent clause:

Tip: When the independent clause comes first, a comma should not be used to separate the two clauses.

- I did not see them at the station **because** Mary and Samantha arrived at the bus station before noon.
- Joe realized that the train was late **while** he waited at the train station.
- Mary and Samantha realized that Joe was waiting at the train station **after** they left on the bus.

D. Compound vs Complex

Complex sentences are often more effective than compound sentences because a complex sentence indicates clearer and more specific relationships between the main parts of the sentence. The word “before” for instance, tells readers that one thing occurs before another. A word such as “although” conveys a more complex relationship than a word such as “and” conveys. Compound sentences vs complex sentences

Periodic sentence

The term PERIODIC SENTENCE is used to refer to a complex sentence beginning with a dependent clause and ending with an independent clause.

Example:

While he waited at the train station, Joe realized that the train was late.

Periodic sentences can be especially effective because the completed thought occurs at the end of it, so the first part of the sentence can build up to the meaning that comes at the end.

Coordinate conjunction

Can we begin the sentences with “And”? The short answer is “no.” You should avoid beginning a sentence with “and,” “or,” “but,” or the other coordinating conjunctions. These words generally are used to join parts of a sentence, not to begin a new sentence. However, such sentences can be used effectively because sentences beginning with these words stand out, they are sometimes used for emphasis. If you use sentences beginning with one of the coordinating conjunctions, you should use these sentences sparingly and carefully.

Subordinate conjunction

Can we begin the sentences with “Because”? There is nothing wrong with beginning a sentence with “because.” Perhaps some students are told not to begin a sentence with “because” to avoid sentence fragments (something like “Because Mary and Samantha arrived at the bus station before noon” is a sentence fragment). It is perfectly acceptable to begin a sentence with “because” as long as the sentence is complete (as in “Because Mary and Samantha arrived at the bus station before noon, I did not see them at the station.”)

Activity

Combine the following sentences by making use of a subordinating conjunction or a correlative conjunction to form complex sentences.

1. You speak up. Nobody is going to know.
2. You are the only friend. You taught me right from wrong.
3. I was not happy. I went to the reception for the sake of my friend.
4. You do not finish it. You will have to face the consequences.
5. I do not know the person. He owns a brand new Mercedes Benz.
6. My brother does not watch animation movies. My brother liked Kungfu Panda.
7. I don't think I will be able to make it. I missed the bus.
8. You should do it. I will have to ask Praveen to do it.
9. There are no trains available. We took a flight.
10. Seetha finishes her work. Seetha will be on her way.

USING GAMES IN TEACHING

Language learning is hard work. Effort is required at every moment and must be maintained over a long period of time. Games help the teacher to create the context in which the language is useful and meaningful. By doing so, the language learning is expected to be more vividly experienced and, therefore, better remembered. Here are some of the advantages of using games in the classroom:

- Games are a welcome break from the usual routine of the language class.
- They are motivating and challenging.
- Learning a language requires a great deal of effort. Games help students sustain the effort of learning.
- Games provide language practice in various skills.
- They encourage students to interact and communicate.
- They create a meaningful context for language use.

- Games entertain, teach, and promote fluency.

When to Use Game?

- Games are usually used as short warm-up activities or when there is some time left at the end of a lesson.
- To an extent, games does not rule out the possibility to be used at all stages of language learning but should be suitable and carefully chosen.
- Game can also be used to recall the learning material in a pleasant, entertaining way.

Why using game in class time?

- Games are fun and children like to play them.
- Games add variation to a lesson and increase motivation by providing a plausible incentive to use the target language.
- The game context makes the foreign language immediately useful for children
- The game makes the reason for speaking plausible even to reluctant children.
- By using game, students can learn English without being aware that they are studying.
- Students can participate positively.

How to choose game?

- A game must be more than fun
- A game should involve “friendly” competition
- A game should keep all the students involved and interested
- A game should encourage students to focus on the use of language rather than on the language itself
- A game should give students a chance to learn, practice, or review specific language material

Here are some general benefits of Game in classroom:

Affective:

- Lowers affective filter
- Encourage creative and spontaneous use of language
- Promotes communicative competence
- Motivates
- Fun

Cognitive:

- Reinforces
- Reviews and extends
- Focuses on grammar communicatively

Class Dynamics:

- Students centered
- Teacher acts only as a facilitator
- Builds class cohesion
- Fosters whole class participation
- Promotes healthy competition

Adaptability

- Easily adjusted for age, level, and interest.
- Utilizes all four skills
- Requires minimum preparation after development

Learning language through games is one of effective and interesting ways that can be applied in any classroom. Games not merely used for fun, but more importantly, for useful practices and review of language lessons, thus leading toward the goal of improving learners' communicative competence

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