

ENGLISH AUXILIARY VERBS  
THEIR CHARACTERISTICS  
AND  
THEIR TEACHING SUGGESTIONS



In Partial Fulfilment  
of the Requirements of the  
Sarjana Degree



by

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Yogyakarta, January 1988

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AND  
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**A Thesis  
Presented to  
The Department of English  
SANATA DHARMA  
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**In Partial Fulfilment  
of the Requirements of the  
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**by**

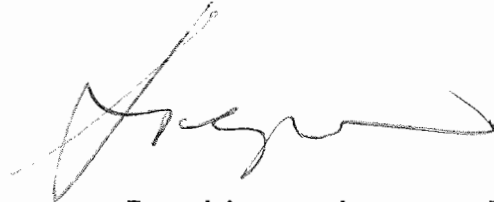
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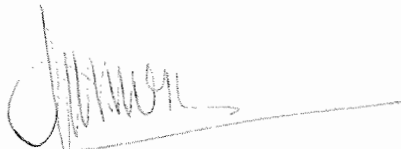
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## Chapter I

### INTRODUCTION

It is inevitable that if one uses a language, especially English, one always uses a verb or more. Consequently, the learning of the language, in this case English, always includes the learning of its verbs, which, in various ways can be divided into several classes depending on certain criteria.

One of the classifications of English verbs made is that of full verbs or lexical verbs on one part, and auxiliary verbs in another part. As the occurrence of auxiliary verbs is as often as that of full verbs, it is also necessary to pay attention to the characteristics and usages of auxiliary verbs. Because, in my opinion, the more one knows what one learns, the more one knows how to use it correctly and appropriately.

#### I.1. Definition

Before going further into the discussion about their characteristics, it is better to know what auxiliary verbs are and what full verbs are. Many grammarians define what they are, some of

them are Jack E. Conner, Homer C. House and Susan Emolyn Harman, Howard Jackson, Randolph Quirk and Sidney Greenbaum, as well as J.C. Nesfield.

Jack E. Conner in A Grammar of Standard English says "An auxiliary verb is a verb which is neither a copula nor a notional verb, and which conveys none but grammatical information".<sup>1</sup>

Clearly, he differentiates the auxiliary verb from a copula, which some other grammarians may call as a linking verb, which is also called as a full verb by the other grammarians.

While Homer C. House and Susan Emolyn Harman in Descriptive English Grammar say "An auxiliary verb is a verb form which assists in the formation of voice, tense, mood of other verbs".<sup>2</sup> And another grammarian, Howard Jackson, in Analyzing English says also about the auxiliary verb "Auxiliary verbs are a closed subclass and have a mainly grammatical function".<sup>3</sup>

From the definitions above, we can see that the three grammarians mention the importance of auxiliary verbs, that is, they function to convey grammatical categories or grammatical information such as voice, tense, and mood as mentioned by House and Harman.<sup>4</sup> In addition, Howard Jackson

mentions aspect as one of grammatical categories besides those mentioned before.<sup>5</sup>

The term a closed subclass, into which the auxiliary verbs are included, refers to the number of those kinds of verbs which are limited, meaning that the additional members of that class are not allowed. This is compared to the term open class or subclass which refers to the extendable number of verbs. So, it is possible to include a new member into this class.<sup>6</sup>

Those verbs which are included into the closed subclass of auxiliary are: be (with its various forms: is, am, are, was, were); have (has, had); do (does, did); may (might); can (could); will (would); shall (should); must; and also dare; need; ought; used.<sup>7</sup>

A full verb, or a lexical verb, as being differentiated from the previous one, namely the auxiliary verb, carries a lexical meaning or a notion in itself. It is the one used as a principal verb to express a full meaning of its own.<sup>8</sup> For examples, the verbs has and wants in the following sentences:

(1) He has ten horses

(2) He wants to climb a mountain

Has in the above example expresses the notion of "possession", while wants expresses the meaning of "to have a strong desire to ....". Those are lexical meanings which might be found in the dictionaries.

As the number of these kinds of verbs are not limited and are possibly added, they are included into an open class. The examples of full verbs are as follow: go, come, sing, run, walk, and still many others. Those are included into the type of verbs which can stand by itself or without any objects. The others which are included into the type of verbs which usually need objects are: want, desire, plan, intend, mean, attempt, try, expect, hope, etc.

So far, the ideas of auxiliary verbs and full verbs have been clear. The former relates to the function of conveying grammatical categories. The latter relates to the notion outside the linguistic reality.

## I.2. Background

It is admitted that when students, in this case Indonesian students, learn how to use English auxiliary verbs, they often find them difficult. One of the reasons is, according to my own

experience in teaching them, they are sometimes confused with the fact that some of those included into the class of auxiliary verbs are also included into the other class, such as the class of full verbs, or that of copulas.

The other reason, which is considered more common, is concerning the meanings of them, especially those of modal auxiliaries. The fact that the meanings, and consequently the usages of modal auxiliaries are complicated, often makes the students confused about how to use them correctly and appropriately.

The problems of teaching them must also appear. English teachers are, therefore, demanded to present them as simply as possible to make the students really understand and use them. So, it is necessary to discuss some suggestion on teaching them in this thesis.

### I.3. Objective

This thesis attempts to give descriptions on English auxiliary verbs as clearly as possible, so that one will know why certain are verbs said to be auxiliaries, which ones are included into primary auxiliaries and which ones are included

into modal auxiliaries, also, how important auxiliary verbs are, and how to deal with them.

More than that, it also tries to give some suggestions on their teaching, especially concerning the modal auxiliaries, which are considered more complicated than the primary ones. This is meant to help English teachers, especially those who teach Indonesian students, concerning how to teach modal auxiliaries in a less complicated way.

#### I.4. Scope

In this thesis, we will deal with the problems of what the differences between English auxiliary verbs and full verbs are, in terms of: their forms, their positions in verb phrases and in sentences, their functions in verb phrases as well as their meanings.

#### I.5. Organization

This thesis consists of six chapters which are organized as the following way:

Chapter one is the Introduction, it presents the overview of the whole thesis concerning the definition, the background, objective, scope, and organization of this thesis.

Chapter two deals with the differences between auxiliary verbs and full verbs in terms of their forms.

Chapter three deals with the differences between auxiliary verbs and full verbs in terms of their positions.

Chapter four deals with the differences between auxiliary verbs and full verbs in terms of their functions.

Chapter five deals with the differences between auxiliary verbs and full verbs in terms of their meanings.

Chapter six deals with the conclusion and some teaching suggestions.

## References:

1. Jack E. Conner, A Grammar of Standard English, p.159.
2. Homer C. House and Susan Emolyn Harman, Descriptive English Grammar, p.96.
3. Howard Jackson, Analyzing English: An Introduction to Descriptive linguistics, p.62.
4. House and Harman, loc.cit.
5. Jackson, op.cit., p.72.
6. Randolph Quirk and Sidney Greenbaum, A University Grammar of English, p.19.
7. Jackson, loc.cit.
8. J.C. Nesfield, Modern English Grammar, p.53.

## Chapter II

### THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN AUXILIARY VERBS AND FULL VERBS IN TERMS OF THEIR FORMS

#### II.1. English Verb Forms in General

Most of English verbs change their forms when they are used with different persons, numbers, or tenses. Their various forms can usually be identified by the presence of certain suffixes such as -s or -es; -d or -ed, and -ing. According to Knud Schibbye, the English verb normally has four forms.<sup>1</sup>

1. The basic form, functioning as infinitive present indicative, with the exception of the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular, imperative, and subjunctive. For examples: like, love, judge, add.

2. The basic form + -s, functioning in the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular present indicative. For examples: likes, loves, judges, adds.

3. The basic form + (e)d, functioning in the past and past-participle. For examples: liked, loved, judged, added.

4. The basic form + -ing, functioning as present participle and gerund. For examples: liking, loving, judging, adding.

While Randolph Quirk and Sidney Greenbaum have different terms to refer to the same forms mentioned by Schibsbye, namely base form; -s form or present form for the 3<sup>rd</sup> person singular; -ed form or past form as well as past-participle form; and -ing form or present participle form.<sup>2</sup>

The terms irregular verbs will be given to those verbs which do not take the suffix -ed or -d in the past or past-participle forms.<sup>3</sup> For examples: leave - left - left; come - came - come; The past form and the past participle form of leave are left and left, while the past and the past-participle forms of come are came and come. There is no -d or -ed suffix.

## II.2. The Forms of English Auxiliary Verbs

As English auxiliary verbs can still be classified into two classes, namely the class of Primary auxiliaries and that of Modal auxiliaries, their forms will be dealt separately. Those included into primary auxiliaries are be, have, and do. Those included into modal auxiliaries are may, can, will, shall, must, ought, used, dare, and need<sup>4</sup>.

## II.2.1. Forms of Primary Auxiliaries

### II.2.1.1. Be

Of all English verbs, Be has the most various kinds of forms, in that it almost changes with all different persons or numbers, as well as tenses, besides the contracted or uncontracted forms.

#### 1. Base form: be

For example: He will be coming back soon.

#### 2. Present form for the first person singular: am

contracted positive form : 'm

uncontracted negative forms: am not or 'm not'

contracted negative form: ain't (this is, in fact, used also for isn't, aren't, hasn't, and haven't)<sup>5</sup>

For example: I am leaving for Jakarta now.

#### 3. Present form for the third person singular: s

contracted positive form : 's'

uncontracted negative form: is not or 's not

contracted negative form : isn't

For example: He is invited to come here.

4. Present form for the second person, the first and the third person plural: are  
 contracted positive form : 're  
 uncontracted negative form: are not 're  
not  
 contracted negative form : aren't

For example: We are having lunch together

5. Past form for the first and the third person singular : was  
 contracted positive form : -  
 uncontracted negative form: was not  
 contracted negative form : wasn't

For example: I was sleeping when you came in.

6. Past form for the second, the first, and the third person plural : were  
 contracted positive form : -  
 uncontracted negative form: weren't  
 For example: They were caught by the train.

7. Present-participle form : being  
 contracted positive form : -  
 uncontracted negative form: not being  
 contracted negative form : -

For example:

The lesson is being taught quickly.

8. Past-participle form : been

contracted positive form : -

uncontracted negative form: -

contracted negative form : -

For example:

She has been told about her fault.

#### II.2.1.2. Have

Its kinds of forms are not as many as the previous be which is the most inflected verb of all English verbs. The various forms of have are shown as follow:

1. Base form: have

2. Present form for all persons except for the third person singular : have

contracted positive form : 've

uncontracted negative form: have not or 've not

contracted negative form : haven't

For example: We have met you before.

3. Present form for the third person singular: has

contracted positive form : 's

uncontracted negative form: has not or 's not

contracted negative form : hasn't

For example: She has received my letter.

4. Past form for all persons : had  
 contracted positive form : 'd  
 uncontracted negative form: had not or 'd  
not  
 contracted negative form : hadn't

For example:

The accident had happened before they arrived.

5. Present-participle form : having  
 contracted positive form : -  
 uncontracted negative form: not having  
 contracted negative form : -

For example:

Having finished his work, he left us quickly.

6. Past-participle form : -

### II.2.1.3. Do

Like have, do takes its various forms in less complete kinds than be does. Those forms are shown in the following description.

1. Base form: do  
 2. Present form for all persons, except for the third person singular : do  
 contracted positive form : -  
 uncontracted negative form: do not  
 contracted negative form : don't

For example: Do you understand? \*

3. Present form for the third person singular : does

contracted positive form : -

uncontracted negative form: does not

contracted negative form : doesn't

For example: She does not love you.

4. Past form for all persons : did

contracted positive form : -

uncontracted negative form: did not

contracted negative form : didn't

For example: Did you come to the meeting?

5. Present-participle form : -

6. Past-participle form : -

## II.2.2. Forms of Modal Auxiliaries

### II.2.2.1. May

1. Present form for all persons: may

contracted positive form : -

uncontracted negative form: may not

contracted negative form : mayn't

For example: She may become angry.

2. Past form : might

contracted positive form : -

uncontracted negative form: might not

contracted negative form : mightn't

For example:

We might find this lesson easy.

4. Past-participle form : -

### II.2.2.2. Can

1. Present form for all persons: can  
 contracted positive form : -  
 uncontracted negative form: cannot  
 contracted negative form : can't

For example:

The students can listen carefully to the teacher.

2. Past form for all persons : could  
 contracted positive form : -  
 uncontracted negative form: could not  
 contracted negative form : couldn't

For example:

I could accompany you to go shopping.

3. Present and past participle form: -

### II.2.2.3. Will

1. Present form for all persons: will  
 contracted positive form : 'll  
 uncontracted negative form: will not or  
'll not

contracted negative form : won't

For example: We will meet again.

2. Past form for all persons : would  
 contracted positive form : 'd  
 uncontracted negative form: would not or  
'd not

contracted negative form : wouldn't

For example: I would help you if you want

3. Present and Past participle forms: -

#### II.2.2.4. Shall

1. Present form for all persons: shall

contracted positive form : 'll

uncontracted negative form: shall not or  
'll not

contracted negative form : shan't

For example: We shall overcome.

2. Past form for all persons : should

contracted positive form : -

uncontracted negative form: should not

contracted negative form : shouldn't

For example:

You should pay attention to me.

3. Present and past-participle form: -

#### II.2.2.5. Must

1. Present form for all persons: must

contracted positive form : -

uncontracted negative form: must not

contracted negative form : mustn't

For example: You must give me some money.

2. Past form for all persons : -

3. Present and past participle forms: -

#### II.2.2.6. Ought

1. Present form for all persons: ought  
 contracted positive form : -  
 uncontracted negative form: ought not  
 contracted negative form : oughtn't  
 For example: He ought to revise his work.
2. Past form : -
3. Present and past participle forms: -

#### II.2.2.7. Used

1. Present form for all persons: -
2. Past form for all persons : used  
 contracted positive form : -  
 uncontracted negative form: used not, or  
did not used,  
 or did not  
use  
 contracted negative form : usedn't, or  
didn't used  
 or didn't use  
 For example: I used to spend my time here
3. Present and past participle forms: -

#### II.2.2.8. Dare

1. Present form for all persons: dare  
 contracted positive form : -  
 uncontracted negative form: dare not  
 contracted negative form : daren't

For example:

He daren't decide what to do.

2. Past form : dared  
 contracted positive form : -  
 uncontracted negative form: dared not  
 contracted negative form : -

For example:

He dared not say any thing when I challenged him.

3. Present and Past-participle forms: -

#### II.2.2.9. Need

1. Present form for all persons: need  
 contracted positive form : -  
 uncontracted negative form: need not  
 contracted negative form : needn't  
 For example: She needn't come early.

2. Past forms: -

3. Present and past particular forms: -

In terms of regular of irregular verbs, both primary and modal auxiliaries can be said as irregular ones because of their forms. It is clearly seen that the past forms and the past-participle forms of both primary and modal auxiliaries, except for dare, do not take the suffixes such as -d, -ed, which are the marks of regular verbs.<sup>6</sup>

The most distinctive feature of modal auxiliaries, compared with primary auxiliaries, is that there is no -s ending together with modal auxiliaries when they are used with the third person singular subject in present tense. In other words, there is no concord between modal auxiliaries and subjects. Besides, they never take either present or past participle form, and because of this, the modal auxiliaries are said to be defective.<sup>7</sup>

A question may arise, why do all modal auxiliaries lack the special form for the third person singular subject? George O. Curme in English Grammar says "The absence of an ending in the third person singular of any present time form usually marks it as a subjunctive."<sup>8</sup>

Is there any relation between modal auxiliaries and subjunctive, then? What is a subjunctive?

George O. Curme, as well as other grammarians, say that subjunctive is one of English moods, the other ones are indicative and imperative. While moods are described as the changes in the form of the verb to show the various ways in which the action or state is thought of by the speaker.<sup>9</sup>

The indicative mood is said to be representing something as a fact, or as in close relations with reality, or in interrogative form to inquire after a fact. With this kind of mood, the verb form is determined by number or person of the subject. For example: The sun rises every morning. In this sentence, the verb rises is used in indicative mood because it shows a fact about the rising of the sun occurring every morning.<sup>10</sup>

The imperative mood is said to be the mood of command or request, and the like, the verb form of which is always the base one. It is because it is always directed to the second person plural subject which is rarely mentioned. For example: Go!; Run!

While the subjunctive mood is said to be "representing something as not actually belonging to the domain of fact or reality, but as merely existent in the mind of the speaker as a desire, wish, volition, plan, conception, though, sometimes with more or less hope of realization ... "<sup>11</sup>. For examples:

(1) God save the queen.

(2) I desire that he do it as soon as possible.

Sentence (1) conveys the idea that it is a kind of hope or wish. The form of the verb "save" in this case has no concord with the subject which is a third person singular used in the present tense. If this verb is added with the -s ending, the whole sentence will not convey the idea of wish or hope but fact.

While sentence (2) states that the speaker has a desire toward someone to do something as soon as possible. The verb do in the subclause is not added by an -s ending as the general rule for the third person singular subject used in the present tense. As a matter of fact, the absence of present tense is the mark of subjunctive mood.<sup>12</sup>

In terms of this verb-form feature, modal auxiliaries are the same as subjunctive, in that they do not change their forms with different persons or numbers. The problem is, why do modal auxiliaries have the same features as those of subjunctive in terms of their forms?

Originally, as a matter of fact, all modal auxiliaries were full verbs having their own lexical meanings and having various forms based on tense, number, as well as person. Their meanings do not denote facts, but merely present something in mind such as possibility, volition, permission,

ability, necessity, obligation, hope, desire, and some others. These ideas are closely related to those expressed by subjunctive.<sup>13</sup> In other words, they are capable of expressing mood, similar to the subjunctive.

This similarity leads such verbs as can, may, will, shall, must, ought, used, dare, and need to be treated like subjunctive. Consequently, they have the same mark as the subjunctive does, in terms of their forms, namely the absence of -s ending for the third person singular subject. Or, they have the same forms for all persons and numbers.

### II.3. Forms of Full Verbs

Unlike auxiliary verbs, the number of full verbs or lexical verbs are not limited. However, they can be classified into two classes based on their needs of objects. Those which do not need any objects are classified into Transitive verbs, and those which need an object to follow them are classified into Intransitive ones.<sup>13</sup>

The following verbs are the examples of Transitive and Intransitive verbs.

Transitive verbs

want  
wish  
plan  
decide  
expect  
hope  
tell  
speak  
bring  
teach  
buy  
cut  
put

Intransitive verbs

go  
come  
sleep  
walk  
stay  
stand  
sit  
run  
sing  
complain  
live  
dance  
cry

As full verbs take all kinds of forms which are mentioned by Quirk and Greenbaum previously, the way of explaining them will be slightly different from that of explaining auxiliary verbs.

=====				
<u>Base form</u>	<u>-s form</u>	<u>-ing form</u>	<u>past form</u>	<u>past-participle form</u>
want	wants	wanting	wanted	wanted
wish	wishes	wishing	wished	wished
plan	plans	planning	planned	planned
decide	decides	deciding	decided	decided
expect	expects	expecting	expected	expected

---

<u>Base form</u>	<u>-s form</u>	<u>-ing form</u>	<u>past form</u>	<u>past-participle form</u>
hope	hopes	hoping	hoped	hoped
tell	tells	telling	told	told
speak	speaks	speaking	spoke	spoken
bring	brings	bringing	brought	brought
teach	teaches	teaching	taught	taught
buy	buys	buying	bought	bought
cut	cuts	cutting	cut	cut
put	puts	putting	put	put
go	goes	going	went	gone
come	comes	coming	came	come
sleep	sleeps	sleeping	slept	slept
walk	walks	walking	walked	walked
stay	stays	staying	stayed	stayed
stand	stands	standing	stood	stood
sit	sits	sitting	sat	sat
run	runs	running	ran	run
sing	sings	singing	sang	sung
complain	complains	complaining	complained	complained
live	lives	living	lived	lived
dance	dances	dancing	danced	danced
cry	cries	crying	cried	cried

---

Most full verbs, as a matter of fact, have no contracted forms, either in positive or negative usages.



From the description about forms above, we can see the differences between auxiliary verbs in general and full verbs in terms of forms. In fact, all full verbs are influenced by number and person. This is seen in the present form of full verbs with the third person subject. While in the case of auxiliary verbs, it is only the primary ones which experience such conjugation, the modals do not.

If all auxiliary verbs, with the exception of dare, are said to be irregular verbs, the full verbs can be said to be both irregular and irregular verbs. Some of them are included into irregular verbs, some others are included into regular verbs.

Concerning the possibility of being contracted (either in positive or negative usage), it can be said that all auxiliary verbs have the contracted forms, especially in negative usage. While most of full verbs have no such contraction.

## References:

1. Knud Schibbye, A modern English Grammar, p.6.
2. Quirk and Greenbaum, A Grammar of Standard English, p.27.
3. House and Harman, Descriptive English Grammar, p.99.
4. Quirk and Greenbaum, op.cit., p.26.
5. Ibid., p.36.
6. House and Harman, loc.cit.
7. A.S. Hornby, Guide to Patterns and Usage in English, p.2.
8. George O. Curme, English Grammar, English Grammar, p.56.
9. Ibid.
10. Ibid.
11. ibid.
12. House and Harman, op.cit., p.11.
13. Curme, op.cit., p.61.

## Chapter III

### THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN AUXILIARY VERBS AND FULL VERBS IN TERMS OF THEIR POSITIONS

In discussing the positions of auxiliary verbs or full verbs in this chapter, we will deal with the positions of them both in a verb phrase and in a sentence. This will deal with the question such as: Does an auxiliary verb always take its position in front of another verb in a verb phrase? Or, which one should come first, if there are more than one auxiliary verbs in a verb phrase? If it is related with other elements in a sentence, where is an auxiliary verb placed? This will be dealt in the following discussion.

#### III.1. The positions of auxiliary verbs and full verbs in verb phrases

When a verb phrase consists of an auxiliary verb and a full verb or more, the auxiliary verb always takes its position in front of the full verb or lexical verb. Or, using Howard Jackson's words "the lexical verb is always the last element in the verb phrase."<sup>1</sup>

- (1) She is shaving a lot of visitors.
- (2) The secretary has opened the letters.
- (3) She will have arrived by 10.

In those verb phrases, such as is shaving, has opened, and will have arrived, we can see that all of the full verbs such as shaving, opened, and arrived come after the auxiliary verbs is, has, and will have.

If there is a modal auxiliary in the series of auxiliary verbs, the modal auxiliary is always placed in the beginning of the verb phrase. The other auxiliaries which may follow it, are have or be, or have and be. This order cannot be changed. The following examples will show this fact:

- (1) She will have finished her work well.
- (2) I will be coming back soon.
- (3) He might have been attacked by his enemies.
- (4) \*He might be had attacked by his enemies.
- (5) \*She has will finish her work well.

The phrases in sentences (4) and (5) clearly show that the order of the positions of auxiliary verbs is not interchangeable.

When a verb phrase consists of only full verbs, the rule of the placement of their position

is simpler than that of auxiliary positions. Unlike auxiliary verbs, full verbs combined with the other ones have no fixed order, meaning that the order can be reversed. This only causes differences in meanings, besides the forms of the verbs, in that the full verb which comes after the other one in a verb phrase is usually in the form of to infinitive.

For examples:

(1) He arranged to decide it first.

Fv                  Fv

(2) He decide to arrange it first.

Fv                  Fv

(3) I try to plan again.

Fv                  Fv

(4) I plan to try again.

Fv                  Fv

From the discussion about the position of auxiliary verbs and full verbs in a verb phrase, I can conclude that if the phrase consists of an auxiliary verb and full verb, the first position is always taken by the auxiliary the full verb takes the position after it. If in the verb phrase the auxiliary verb are more than one, and one of them is a modal, the modal is placed in the beginning, followed by other auxiliaries and the full verb. If the phrase consists of only full

verbs, especially the transitive ones, their positions are interchangeable, effecting the meaning of the verb phrase itself.

As a matter of fact, those phrases discussed above are finite ones, that is, they contain a finite form of the verb showing distinction between 'Past' and 'Present' and being associated with particular subjects (first, second, or third person singular or plural)<sup>2</sup>

In non-finite verb phrases, that is, those which contain non-finite forms of the verbs, namely be and have, the auxiliaries may come after the full verb(s). For examples:

- (1) It needs to be written.
- (2) I agree to be coming soon.
- (3) I want to have been here.

The non-finite forms of auxiliary verbs in the above examples (to be and to have) come after the full verbs, in this case, needs, agree and want. However, the auxiliary verbs here are not the last elements in the verb phrases.

So, we can draw a conclusion that all auxiliary verbs can precede full verbs in finite verb phrases, only some of them may come after full verbs in non-finite verb phrase, but none of

the auxiliary verbs come as the last elements either in finite or non-finite verb phrases.

### III.2. The Positions of Auxiliary Verbs and Full Verbs in Sentences

In a sentence, whether it is positive, negative, or interrogative one, an auxiliary verb as well as full verb will take their positions either before the subject, between the subject and the negative word, or after the subject. The following discussion will show which position an auxiliary verb, whether it is a primary or a modal auxiliary verb takes when it is combined with an auxiliary verb or more auxiliary verbs in such different kinds of sentences.

#### III.2.1. In Negative Sentences

In a negative sentence, an auxiliary verb always takes the position between the subject and negative word not. If there are more than one auxiliary verbs in the sentence, it is only the first auxiliary in their series which take such a position. The rest will follow the negative word not. A full verb, on the other hand, will directly follow the negative word not, if there is only one auxiliary verb in the sentence, or will follow the

other auxiliary verbs, if there are more than one auxiliary verbs in the sentence.

For examples:

(1) I was not writing a letter when you  
S AV FV

come.

(2) He must not repeat that mistake.  
S AV FV

(3) We will not have come by 6.  
S AV AV FV

(4) I would not be coming back soon.  
S AV AV FV

Actually, in certain cases full, verbs especially the transitive ones, can be negated into two ways. The first way is as shown in the previous examples, that is, placing them after the negative word not. The second is, putting the negation word not just first after the full verb itself.

For examples:

(1a) I want not to disturb him.  
S FV

(2a) She decided not to go there.  
S FV

If the negation uses the auxiliary do or did, those sentences become:

(1b) I do not want to disturb him.

S AV FV

(2b) She did not decide to go there.

S AV FV

It is the auxiliaries do and did which are placed between the subject and the negative word not.

The chief difference between the two ways of negation of full verbs is on their meanings. sentence (1a) means I have the desire for not disturbing him, while sentence (1b) means I have no desire to disturb him. The same case happens to sentences (2a) and (2b). The former means She made the decision but she does not go there. The latter means that the decision to go there was not made.

### III.2.2. In Positive Sentences

In a positive sentence, an auxiliary verb always comes after the subject, the full verb follows the auxiliary verb. If the auxiliary verb comes with the other auxiliary verbs, the full verb will come after the series of auxiliary verbs.

For examples:

(1) The students have done their homework.

S AV FV

(2) I should have come to your party.

S    AV       AV    FV

(3) They will be coming tomorrow.

S       AV    AV    FV

### III.2.3. In Yes-No Questions

An auxiliary verb is always placed in front of the subject, and the full verb is always placed after the subject in Yes-No question. If there are more than one auxiliary verbs, it is the first auxiliary which is moved in front of the subject, the other auxiliaries will follow the subject, and the full verb will follow those auxiliaries.

For examples:

(1) Are you reading a book?

AV    S       FV

(2) Have the children been sleeping?

AV                S                AV        FV

(3) Will you have been sleeping by 7 p.m.?

AV    S       AV    AV       FV

### III.2.4. In Question-Word Questions

Like in Yes-No Questions, an auxiliary verb always comes before the subject, but after the question-word, in Question-word Questions the full verb always come after the subject, if there is

only one auxiliary verb. If there are more than one auxiliary verbs, the first one will take the position after the question-word and before the subject, the rest will follow the subject, and are followed by the full verb.

For examples:

(1) What are you reading?

QW AV S FV

(2) When have the children been sleeping?

QW AV S AV FV

A full verb can be placed just after a question-word in a question-word question in which the subject is questioned, only when there is no auxiliary verb coming together with this full verb.

For examples:

(1) Who came with you?

QW FV

(2) What makes you cry?

QW FV

### III.2.5. In Sentences Opening with Negative-Adverbials

What are included into negative-adverbials are seldom, hardly, not only, rarely, never, barely, hardly, ever. When a sentence is opened by

one of them, and when there is an auxiliary verb used in the sentence, the auxiliary verb will take the position before the subject. the full verb takes its position after the subject.

For examples:

(1) Seldom can a doctor visit all his  
Neg. Adv AV S FV  
patients.

(2) Hardly is the baby smiling  
Neg. Adv AV S FV

(3) Not only must I try hard but I pray as  
Neg. Adv. AV S FV  
well.

### III.3. In Relation to the Possibility of Being Inserted by Noun, Pronoun, Noun Phrase, or Prepositional Phrase

The combination of auxiliary verbs or that of auxiliary verbs and full verb(s) cannot be inserted by Noun, Pronoun, Noun Phrase, or Prepositional Phrase, especially when they are used in positive or negative statements. The following examples show this fact:

- (1) He should have done his work last night.
- (2) \*He should have his work done last night.
- (3) This book is being read by me.

(4) \*This book is by me being read.

(5) They cannot accept it.

(6) \*They cannot it accept.

Both sentences (1) and (2) are structurally correct, as long as the verb have in those sentences are treated differently. The former must be an auxiliary verb which, together with the auxiliary should, have the idea of having an obligation to do, but he did not do.<sup>3</sup> While the latter, in the pattern of have + noun + past-participle, conveys the meaning of causing a person to do something.<sup>4</sup> Thus, the whole-sentence can be paraphrased as more or less He should make some one to do his work last night. While the former is paraphrased as He was obliged to do his work but he did not do it.

In the case of sentences (3) and (4), it is only the former which is considered grammatically correct. While the latter, in which the phrase of by me is inserted between is and being, is not acceptable. Also, in the case of sentences (5) and (6), only the former is considered correct. The latter is not a grammatical sentence.

Unlike auxiliary verbs, full verbs in combination with other full verb(s) are possibly inserted by Noun, Pronoun, Noun Phrase and Prepositional Phrase.

For examples:

- (1) He wants some one to solve his problem.
- (2) The students asked the headmaster to have a holiday.
- (3) They asked after studying to have a holiday.

The words some one, the headmaster, after studying are Noun, Noun phrase, and Prepositional phrase which are inserted between full verbs.

**References:**

1. Howard Jackson, Analyzing English, p.72.
2. Ibid., p.74.
3. Robert Krohn, English Sentences Structure,  
p.239.
4. Knud Schibsbye, A Modern English Grammar, p.52.

## Chapter IV

### THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN AUXILIARY AND FULL VERBS IN TERMS OF THEIR FUNCTIONS

#### IV.1. The Functions of Auxiliary Verbs and Full Verbs in Verb Phrases Consisting of Auxiliary Verbs and Full Verbs

The functions of auxiliary verbs are always related with their combinations with other verbs in verb phrases, as what Howard Jackson says that auxiliary verbs serve to realize the grammatical categories associated with the verb phrase, especially tense, aspect, and mood.<sup>1</sup>

While Homer C. House and Susan E. Harman say "an auxiliary verb is a verb form which assists in the formations of voice, tense, mood, of other verbs."<sup>2</sup>

Clearly, Jackson, and House and Harman agree that auxiliary verbs convey such grammatical categories as mentioned above to the other verbs in the verb phrases. Using Jackson's term, it can be said that the auxiliary verbs in a verb phrase functions as the modifier(s), while the lexical or full verb functions as the head carrying the

primary reference of the verb phrase, relating to an action, process or event in extra linguistic reality.<sup>3</sup>

So, within the verb phrase we can find two kinds of verbs, namely auxiliary verbs and full verbs or lexical verbs, with two kinds of functions supporting each other.

The problem is now, which auxiliaries function to convey the grammatical categories such as aspect, mood, or voice? The following discussion will deal with it.

#### IV.1.2. The Functions of Primary Auxiliary Be

The auxiliary be, with its various forms, has two functions, namely to convey aspect and (passive) voice<sup>4</sup>, which can be differentiated in terms of the form of its following verbs. When be is used to indicate aspect, the verb to follow it is always in the -ing form or in the present-participle form. When it is followed by the verb taking the -ed form or the past-participle form, be is used to indicate passive voice.<sup>5</sup>

What is then an aspect? It is said by Jackson as relating to the way in which the action or event referred to by the lexical verb is

regarded, particularly in respect of its extension in time.<sup>6</sup> It agrees with what Jack E. Conner says, that aspect conveys information about the relation of sentences and implied propositions to the on-going-ness of time<sup>7</sup>.

So, aspect deal with the time extension not the exact point of time. Examples of the auxiliary be functioning to convey aspect are seen in the following underlined verb phrases.

- (1) He was climbing a mountain when it rained.
- (2) They are planning to come again.
- (3) She is cooking in the kitchen.

When be is used to indicate passive voice, it is always followed by the other verb taking the past-participle form. Voice is defined in A Grammar of Contemporary English as follows:

Voice is a grammatical category which makes it possible to view the action of a sentence in two ways, without change in the facts reported:

- (a) The butler murdered the detective.
- (b) The detective was murdered by the butler.

Sentence (a) is in the active voice,<sup>8</sup> and sentence (b) is in the passive voice.<sup>8</sup>

The form of the passive voice in the statement above being different from the active one, is was + murdered (be + V-ed). The passive voice, in fact, shows that the subject of the

sentence is represented or acted upon or becomes the victim of the action.<sup>9</sup>

The other examples of passive voice are as follow:

- (1) My cat was caught in a nail.
- (2) The students re scolded by the teacher.

The presence of auxiliary be (in its various forms was, is, are) in the above sentences play an important role in forming the passive voice, together with the other verbs (caught, painted, scolded). If the auxiliaries are taken away, the sentence become active voice conveying different ideas from the passive, in that the subjects are said to be acting not acted upon.

#### IV.1.3. The Functions of Primary Auxiliary Have

Have together with another verb taking the past-participle form conveys one function, namely aspect<sup>10</sup>. This kind of aspect is different from the previous one, wich will be discussed later when we discuss about meanings. The examples of such usages are:

- (1) He has visited London twice.
- (2) I have done my best.
- (3) They have lived in Yogyakarta for two years.

These combinations consisting of the auxiliary have (has) and the verbs in past participle form (visited, done, lived).

#### IV.1.4. The Functions of Primary Auxiliary Do

Flor Aarts and Yan Aarts mention that Do, with its various forms, namely Does and Did, have basically two functions, namely as the emphatic auxiliary and as the periphrastic auxiliary<sup>11</sup>.

When it is used emphatically, the verb to follow this auxiliary is always in the base form, or in the infinitive form. It functions to emphasize the following verbs. For examples:

- (1) I am sure, he did come in your wedding.
- (2) We do understand what you said, please don't repeat it.
- (3) He says "I did not take any money", but she says "You did take the money".
- (4) Do come in!

Being the emphasize of the other verbs, Do or its various forms is usually expressed in spoken usages.

The periphrastic function of Do is more commonly used than the previous emphatic one, in that it helps to form negative or interrogative

sentences, the predicates of which consists only of a full verb, or a verb phrase consisting of full verbs only.

For examples:

Positive statement: They go to church in Sundays.

Negative statement: They do not go to church on Sundays.

Interrogative statement: Do they go to church on Sundays?

The presence of Do is needed in the negative and interrogative sentences above because there is no auxiliary combined with the full verb (go). This takes the form of Do based on the subject which is the third person plural.

The function of Do either emphatically or periphrastically is unique in terms of being excluded from any other auxiliary verbs. In other words, it never co-occurs with the other auxiliary verbs.

Furthermore, it can be said that Do is used only when there is no other verb in a negative or interrogative sentence.

#### IV. 1.5. The Functions of Modal Auxiliaries

The name of modal auxiliaries already suggests that they have relation with mood. In general, it is described by some grammarians such as Jack E. Conner, as the attitude of the writer toward the thing he says, or the attitude that he expects the reader to adopt, whether it is a fact, or a doubt, or a command.<sup>12</sup>

While House and Harman describe that mood is the modification of the verb that shows the manner in which the verbal idea is convicted, whether as a fact, a supposition, a desire, or a command, etc.<sup>13</sup>

Both Conner, and House and Harman mention the same idea that mood deals with something which is in the domain of fact or reality, and something which is not, that is desire, doubt, supposition, or the like.

The problem is, do modal auxiliaries deal with all of them (a fact or reality, or something which exists in the mind)?

In Chapter II, it has been discussed that modal auxiliaries are similar to subjunctive (mood) - in terms of being able to represent something as not actually belonging the domain of fact or

reality, but as merely existent in the mind of the speaker as a desire, wish, volition and the like.<sup>14</sup>

So, it can be said that the function of modal auxiliary is to show the attitude of the speaker which deals with something in the mind, not in the domain of a fact or reality, toward the thing he says which is realized by the verb in the verb phrase.

The following examples which consist of some sentences using modal auxiliaries and those which do not, will clarify the function of modal auxiliaries:

- (1) Everybody may smoke here
- (2) Everybody smokes here
- (3) I must help my mother
- (4) I help my mother

Sentences (1) and (2) consist of the verb smoke. However, there are different ideas in those sentences. The former shows there is only permission or possibility of smoking for everybody, while the latter shows the idea that there is a fact or reality of smoking (done by everybody).

Sentence (3) also shows the idea that the action of helping is still in the speaker's mind. While sentence (4) shows that the action of helping is a reality, as it is done habitually.

#### IV.2. The Function of Full Verbs in Verb Phrases Consisting of Full Verbs only.

If a verb phrase consists of full verbs only, the preceding full verb will not function as auxiliary verbs do in the verb phrases consisting of an auxiliary verb and a full verb, that is conveying to the full verb, certain grammatical category.

Although a certain tense may be identified by the first full verb in the verb phrase, it does not mean that it is the full verb which determines it. It can be the "tense markers" which are received by the verb. For examples:

- (1) She tries to work hard
- (2) He plans to go for months
- (3) They decided to go for months
- (4) They determined to go for months

The verbs tries and plans in sentences (1) and (2) show that both are in simple present tense used with the third person singular. In this case, the indicator of tense is neither the verb plan

nor try but the -s/ -ed endings. The same case happens with the full verbs in sentences (3) and (4), namely decided and determined. Both are in simple past tense the marker of which is the suffix -ed.

Consequently, if those full verbs preceding the other in the phrases are replaced by other similar or synonymous verbs, they still make the sentences grammatically correct. This cannot be used with auxiliary verbs.

For examples:

- (1a) I am reading a book
- (2a) He has made a lot of mistakes
- (3a) He is asked to leave it

The auxiliaries am, has, and is cannot be dropped or replaced by other auxiliaries. If it is done, those sentences will be either ungrammatical or will change their grammatical categories. For examples:

- (1b) \*I reading a book.
- (2b) He made a lot of mistakes.
- (3b) He asked to leave it.



Clearly, sentence (1b) is ungrammatical, while sentences (2b) and (3b) are grammatical but they have different ideas from the previous ones,

(2a) and (3a). Also if the auxiliaries are changed:

(2c) He is made a lot of mistakes.

(3c) He has asked to leave it.

These are as grammatically correct sentences as the previous ones, but the ideas are very different because the grammatical categories change.

So, the conclusions can be drawn here, that full verbs cannot in themselves convey grammatical categories such as aspect, mood, voice or tense, etc. They may show tenses only when they have such markers as suffixes. They only convey the lexical meanings, whether they are in verb-phrases consisting of auxiliary verbs, or in those consisting of full verbs only.

As functioning to convey grammatical categories, to the other verbs in a verb phrase, auxiliary verbs cannot be replaced or substituted by the similar or synonymous ones without any changing in term of grammatical categories.

## References

1. Howard Jackson, Analyzing English, p. 72
2. House and Harman, Descriptive English Grammar, p.96.
3. Jackson, loc.cit.
4. Ibid.
5. Ibid.
6. Ibid., p. 75
7. Conner, p. 100
8. Randolph Quirk, et.al., A Grammar of Contemporary English, p. 336
9. Curme, English Grammar, p. 53
10. Jackson, op.cit., p. 72
11. Flor Aarts and Jan Aarts, English Syntactic Structure, p. 35
12. Jack E. Conner, A Grammar of Standard English, p. 158
13. House and Harman, p. 108
14. Curme, op.cit., p. 54

## CHAPTER V

### THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN AUXILIARY VERBS AND FULL VERBS IN TERMS OF THEIR MEANINGS

#### V.1. The Meanings of Primary Auxiliary Verbs

The discussion about the meanings of primary auxiliary verbs in this chapter deals with the discussion about their ideas in connection with their functions having been discussed previously.

However, when we look up in dictionaries, we can see that those included into the class of primary auxiliaries have certain meanings of their own as well, namely when they stand as a single word. These meanings will also be dealt with in the following discussion.

##### V.1.1. The Meanings of Be

Be, or its various forms, according to Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, has several meanings such as to exist and to remain untroubled.<sup>1</sup> Some examples of their usages are:

(1) Whatever is, is right.

(2) Let him be, I tell you.<sup>2</sup>

These more or less mean:

(1) Whatever exists, is right

(2) Let him remain untroubled, I tell you.

These meanings carried by be denotes that in such usages, be is not an auxiliary verb, it is a full verb. As a matter of fact, be in the above examples is not followed by any other verbs taking either present-participle form or past-participle one as when it is used to convey aspect or voice.

Concerning its functions, namely to convey aspect and voice to the other verbs in verb phrases, be has certain meanings as follow:

1. When Be functions to convey Aspect

Jackson says that a verb phrase may be regarded as either progressive or non-progressive; examples: I was walking and I walked.<sup>3</sup> The former consists of the auxiliary be and a verb in present-participle form. In this combination, be is regarded as conveying aspect to the following verb. According to Jackson, the construction of be + V-ing is regarded as a progressive verb phrase; while the construction, as in I walked is a non-progressive verb phrase. Furthermore, he defines the main meaning of the progressive in English as to view the action or event as continuing over time, or being in progress.<sup>4</sup>

So, the verb phrase in I was walking shows that the action is in progress or continuing over time in the past. While the verb walked in I walked shows that the action of walking took place in a certain point of time in the past.

Now, it is clearly seen that the auxiliary be in such a usage has the meaning of progressive or continuous. So, it can be said as conveying progressive aspect.

## 2. When Be functions to convey Passive Voice

In this function, be is followed by a verb taken past-participle form. The problem is, what does it mean in such a function? Let us see the following sentences:

(1) The butler murdered the detective.

(2) The detective was murdered by the butler.<sup>5</sup>

Sentence (1) is in active voice, showing that the subject of the sentence acted or did the action of murder. Sentence (2) is in passive voice showing that the subject (the detective) was acted on and became the victim of the action expressed by the verb murdered.<sup>6</sup>

Obviously, the meanings of the two sentences above are different. The former has the meaning of

doing or acting some action. The latter, that is the passive has the meaning of being acted on and being the victim of some action. This is what be means in such functions.

#### V.1.2. The meanings of Have

The meanings of have, when it is not followed by any other verb taking past-participle form, are, according to Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, as follow<sup>7</sup>

1. To possess or to own, for examples:
  - I have a daughter (=I own a daughter)
2. To experience, for example:
  - I have a bad cold every year  
(= I experience a bad cold every year).
3. To keep or feel in the mind, for examples:
  - Do you have any doubt about his guilt?  
(= Do you keep in your mind any doubt about his guilt?).

Such meanings will not appear when have is used as an auxiliary verb conveying aspect to the other verb in a verb phrase. Thus, such a meaning of have in its function as an auxiliary verb can be seen in the following discussion.

By answering the question: "What is the difference between two sentences below?", will give

us the idea of have functioning to convey aspect:

(1) I have walked

(2) I walked

According to Jackson, the difference is that sentence (2) shows simple past which refers to an action or event (walk) that took place at some point in past time, usually explicitly referred to by a time adverbial or at least implied in the context. Sentence (1) shows the present perfect which refers to an action (walk) beginning in the past and which either lasted up to the present or has relevance for the present.<sup>8</sup>

So, the meaning of aspect conveyed by have is perfective.

### V.1.3. The meanings of Do

Do, or its various forms, according to Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English,<sup>9</sup> may have the following meanings:

1. To perform, or to carry out, for example:

- I do my homework every night (= I carry out my homework every night)

2. To cook, for example:

- They do fish very well in that restaurant (= They cook fish very well in that restaurant)

### 3. To arrange, for example:

- He does my hair every three months  
 (=He arranges my hair every three months)

When do functions as an auxiliary verb, that is when it is used emphatically or periphrastically, it does not denote such meanings as mentioned above. It is impossible to replace the verb do with one of those meanings in the following sentences:

(1) Do come in!

(2) He doesn't try it. Yes, he does try it.

In those sentences, the verb do cannot be replaced by either perform, arrange, or the like, to become:

(1) \* Perform come in!

(2) \* He doesn't try it. Yes, he arranges try it.

There must be certain meaning(s) conveyed by do in the above sentences, when it emphasizes the following verbs (come and try). Do in do come in! makes this imperative or request more persuasive than just come in!<sup>10</sup>

While do as in example (2), that is does followed by try helps to give the idea that this

is used to contrast the preceding statement (he doesn't try it).<sup>11</sup>

## V.2. The meanings of Modal Auxiliary verbs

As mentioned in Chapter IV, modal auxiliaries function to show the attitude of the speaker, especially dealing with something on the mind, toward the thing he says which is realized by the following verb in a verb phrase. What are the meanings conveyed by these modal auxiliaries? In the following discussion we will see that modal auxiliaries may have more than one meaning or the similar meanings may be denoted by different modal auxiliaries with different conditions. Also there are some meanings which may be present only in the present or past form of modal auxiliaries.

### V.2.1. The meanings of may

#### V.2.1.1. May denoting permission

For examples:

- (1) He may smoke here
- (2) He may not smoke here
- (3) May he smoke here?

Those can be paraphrased as more or less:

- (1) He is permitted (allowed) to smoke here
- (2) He is not permitted to smoke here
- (3) Is he permitted to smoke here?

Concerning permission, there must be a certain source of authority which gives the permission. In this case, the permission is given by the speaker when may is used in a positive sentence. In a negative one, the speaker shows his authority not to give the permission. While in an interrogative sentence, it is the listener who has the authority to give the permission. So, it is possible to make the paraphrases of those examples as follow:

- (1) I permit you to smoke here
- (2) I do not permit you to smoke here
- (3) Do you permit him to smoke here?

↓ In the case of the past form of might denoting permission, it can mean that the permission is given in the past, especially when there is a clear context showing the past time. In fact, it is rarely used. Usually, might is used to refer to both the present and the future with a value of politeness.<sup>12</sup>

#### V.2.1.2. May denoting Possibility

For examples:

- (1) You may lose your way if you go alone
- (2) You may not lose your way if you go alone

In this usage, there is no speaker's authority. There is a slight difference in meaning if those sentences use the past form might. With may, the possibility is greater than might. House and Harman differentiate may from might that the former shows strong or fair possibility and the latter shows weak possibility.<sup>13</sup>

The difference between permission and possibility meanings of may is that there is no question form for may which denotes possibility.<sup>14</sup> So, the possibility sense of may in questions is replaced by another modal auxiliary having similar meanings, namely can.<sup>15</sup>

Concerning the possibility of being contracted, it is only the permission sense which allows the contraction of negative may, namely mayn't. When may denotes possibility, its only negative form is may not.

More than that, concerning negation, it can be seen that in the negative may denoting permission, the negation is given to the auxiliary may itself, while in the negative may denoting possibility, the negation is given to the verb which follows the auxiliary may. Let us see the following sentences:

- (1) He may not smoke here (permission)
- (2) You may not lose your way if you go alone (possibility)

which can be paraphrased as more or less:

- (1) He is not permitted to smoke here
- (2) It is possible that you do not lose your way if you go alone.

In spoken usage, the difference between permission and possibility senses of may is clear. The former is not stressed, while the latter is stressed.

#### V.2.1.3. May denoting Wish

For examples:

- (1) May you be happy
- (2) May his evil design perish

The paraphrases are more or less:

- (1) I hope you will be happy
- (2) I hope his evil will design perish.

The use of may, in this case, is different from that used with other meanings, in that it is always placed in front of the subject in a sentence. It also occurs in a positive statement only.

The wish or hope expressed by may can be said as either benediction or malediction.<sup>16</sup> Sentence (1) is a kind of benediction, while sentence (2) is the kind of malediction. According to Leech, there is no past form might which is used to denote such a kind of wish.<sup>17</sup> However, Schibsbye mentions that might is possibly used to express wish, whether it is benediction or malediction.<sup>18</sup>

In my opinion, the use of might is, though it is rarely used, not meant to refer to the past wish, but it is meant to refer the present or future tense. The difference then lies only in the degree of realization. The present form may implies that the degree of realization is greater than the past form might. This is similar to the expression of possibility of may and might which also has such nuances.

## V.2.2. The Meanings of Can

### V.2.2.1. Can denoting Ability

For examples:

- (1) She can speak Spanish well
- (2) She cannot speak Spanish well
- (3) Can she speak Spanish well?

These can be paraphrased as:

- (1) She is able to speak Spanish well
- (2) She is not able to speak Spanish well
- (3) Is she able to speak Spanish well?

The past form could, if it is used in the above sentences will not exactly mean that it refers to the past time. Only when there is a clear context indicating past time, could is meant to refer to the past time, for example:

- (4) They could beat your team when they played in their own town last year

It can be paraphrased as:

- (5) They were able to beat your team when they played in their town last year.

So, when there is no such clear context, could is used to refer to either present or future tense. Also, when it is used in indirect speech, could can exactly be the past form of can used in the direct speech.

#### V.2.2.2. Can denoting Permission

For examples:

- (1) Everybody can enter this room
- (2) Dogs cannot enter this room
- (3) Can everybody enter this room?

These can be paraphrased as:

- (1) Everybody is permitted to enter this room
- (2) Dogs are not permitted to enter this room
- (3) Is everybody permitted to enter this room?

At a glance, this permission sense is similar to that conveyed by may. The difference, as a matter of fact, lies in the source of authority. Permission denoted by may implies the speaker's authority, while permission denoted by can implies that there is no particular source of authority.<sup>19</sup>

There is also another difference in using can and may denoting permission, especially, when they are used in questions. The use of can is considered informal and less polite, while the use of may is, reversely, considered formal and more polite.

Also, the use of the past form could, like most of the other modal auxiliaries, does not refer to the past time unless there is a clear context indicating the past time. This past form is usually used as the more polite expression than the present form can.

### V.2.2.3. Can denoting Possibility

For examples:

- (1) Even expert drivers can make mistakes
- (2) The strong trees cannot fall down in the rainy days
- (3) Can he become a doctor?

The paraphrases are more or less:

- (1) It is possible for expert drivers to make mistakes
- (2) It is not possible for the strong trees to fall down during the rainy days
- (3) Is it possible for him to become a doctor?

The difference between may and can in the sense of possibility is that the former has the sense of factual possibility, and the latter has the sense of theoretical possibility.<sup>20</sup>

It can be noticed that from the three possible meanings of can, only the meaning of possibility allows the use of both animate and inanimate subjects. The other two meanings, namely ability and permission, are commonly used only with animate subjects.<sup>21</sup>

While concerning the negation of can denoting all of its meanings, the negation is

given to the auxiliary itself. Or, it is called as auxiliary negation.

### V.2.3. The Meanings of Will

#### V.2.3.1. Will denoting Willingness

For examples:

- (1) My friend will help you
- (2) They will not lend me a lighter
- (3) Will you join our party?

The paraphrases can be:

- (1) My friend is willing to help you
- (2) They are willing to not lend me a lighter
- (3) Are you willing to join our party?

With this meaning, will can be contracted into 'll and is usually unstressed. While in the negation of will, it is not the willingness which is negated but the following verb. And when will is used in questions, it becomes a request.

The past form of will, namely would, in this kind of usage will not refer to the past time. It only gives the sense of more politeness.

#### V.2.3.2. Will denoting Insistence

For examples:

- (1) He will do it whatever you say

(2) I will not go to the party

(3) Will you stay at home all night long?

The paraphrases are more or less:

(1) He insists on doing whatever you say

(2) I insist on not going to the party

(3) Do you insist on staying at home all night long?

As a matter of fact, it is not easy to judge whether will denotes willingness or insistence, especially in written expressions. A clear context may give the clue, besides the fact that it does not allow any contraction like the previous meaning (willingness) does. In oral expressions this problem can be reduced, in that the use of stress on the word will will indicate that it denotes insistence.

The negation is again, given to the following verb.

#### V.2.3.3. Will denoting Intention

For examples:

(1) I will write a letter as soon as possible

(2) We will not stop your pocket money

(3) Will we meet again?

The paraphrases can be:

- (1) I intend to write a letter as soon as possible
- (2) We intend not to stop your pocket money
- (3) Do we intend to meet again?

Like the willingness meaning, the intention of will allows contraction, either in positive or in negative sentences. However, the important point concerning this meaning is that it is only the first person singular or plural subjects which are possibly used in the sentence using will conveying the meaning of intention.

Furthermore, Geoffrey N. Leech says that the intention sense of will may also imply a promise, a threat, or a corporate decision, not a mere intention.<sup>22</sup>

The use of its past form would is, once again, does not have any relation with past time, except when it is used in a certain context referring to past time, or when it is used in indirect speech. It is, actually, a matter of a degree of politeness. Thus, the use of would is considered more polite.

#### V.2.4. The Meanings of Shall

The meanings conveyed by shall and its past form should are not the same. Shall denotes volition such as willingness, intention, and insistence, while should denotes obligation and logical necessity or conclusion.

##### V.2.4.1. Shall denoting Willingness

For examples:

- (1) You shall go home early
- (2) She shall not live alone
- (3) Shall I put it in this bag?

The paraphrases can be more or less:

- (1) I am willing for you to go home early
- (2) I am willing (to see) that she does not live alone
- (3) Do you want me to put it in this bag?

It is clearly seen that the willingness is not on the part of the subject, but the speaker, when it is in positive or negative statements. In questions, it is not the speaker who has the willingness, but the listener. And, actually, the willingness is, in this case, changed into the sense of want<sup>23</sup>

In addition, it is only the second and the third person subjects which can be used in the

positive and negative statements. In questions, it is not the second person subject which is used, but the first person one.

#### V.2.4.2. Shall denoting Insistence

For examples:

- (1) You shall obey the rules
- (2) Everybody shall not leave the room
- (3) Shall he repair this broken chair?

The paraphrases can be:

- (1) I insist that you obey the rules
- (2) I insist that everybody does not leave the room
- (3) Do you want him to repair this broken window?

The difference between willingness and insistence of shall lies on the absence or presence of stress given to shall. The former does not need stress, but the latter does.

The similarity between them is that, in questions, both of them are changed into the sense of want allowing no second person subject.

#### V.2.4.3. Shall denoting Intention

For examples:

- (1) I shall join you tomorrow

(2) We shall not prepare the meal

(3) Shall you move to another room?

The paraphrases are:

(1) I intend to join you tomorrow.

(2) We intend not to prepare the meal

(3) Do you intend to move to another room?

In the case of shall denoting intention, the subject is always the first person, either singular or plural. So, it is not only a matter of the speaker's intention, but at the same time, the subject's intention. The question form, on the other hand, is always with the second person subject. Consequently, the intention is on the part of the listener.

Concerning the negation of shall, it is actually given to the verb following shall. Thus, it is not auxiliary negation.

#### V.2.5. The Meanings of Should

##### V.2.5.1. Should denoting Obligation

For examples:

(1) You should do what he said

(2) They should not come so late

(3) Should we go earlier?

These can be paraphrased as:

(1) I oblige (but without full confidence or compulsion) you to do what he said

(2) I oblige (without full confidence or compulsion) them not to come so late.

(3) Do you oblige us to go earlier?

The obligation, in this case, lies on the part of the speaker, especially in statements. In questions, the obligation lies on the part of listener. However, if it is compared to must which will be discussed later, the difference sense appears in the confidence of the speaker. In the use of should, the obligation is felt as lacking full confidence or as lacking compulsion. On the contrary, must implies the speaker's full confidence or compulsion.

The negation of should is, in fact, given to the verb following it.

#### V.2.5.2. Should denoting Logical Necessity or Conclusion

For examples:

(1) They should be home by now

(2) She should not be there alone

These can be paraphrased as:

(1) I conclude that perhaps they are home by now

(2) It is unlikely that she is there alone.

As a matter of fact, the conclusion in the positive statement is made without certainty. The speaker, who makes the conclusion, doubts about what he says. So, as long as there is uncertainty in making conclusion, the conclusion can be sensed as possibility or probability. It is because there is no guarantee that what the speaker says or concludes is true. Knud Schibbye also says that should may express possibility.<sup>24</sup> While Leech calls this uncertain conclusion as equated with high probability.<sup>25</sup>

In the negative statement, should conveying logical necessity meaning is said to be representing a weakening of the meaning of cannot (=impossibility).<sup>26</sup> That is why the word unlikely is better used in the paraphrase to show this condition.

It is clearly seen now that the negation is not given to the auxiliary should but to the following verb.

#### V.2.6. The Meanings of Must

##### V.2.6.1. Must denoting Obligation

For examples:

- (1) You must keep silent
- (2) Everybody must not stay outdoor

(3) Must he stop his bad behavior?

They can be paraphrased as:

(1) I oblige you (compulsively) to keep silent

(2) I oblige everybody (compulsively) not to stay outdoor

(3) Do you oblige him (compulsively) to stop his bad behavior?

The obligation in both positive and negative statements is imposed by the speaker. In questions, the obligation lies not on the speaker anymore, but on the listener. The negation is given to the main verb, not to the auxiliary conveying the obligation sense.

#### V.2.6.2. Must denoting Logical Necessity or Conclusion

For examples:

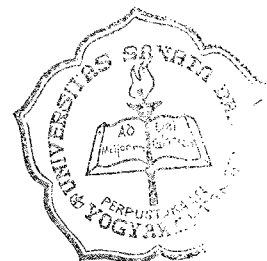
(1) There must be a mistake in your report

(2) (He has lived for ten years in London).  
He must speak English well.

The paraphrases can be:

(1) I conclude (certainly, or confidently) that there is a mistake in your report

(2) I conclude (certainly, or confidently) that he speaks English well.



In this case, the speaker has full confidence or certainty about what he says. However, it is not easy to know whether must denotes obligation or logical necessity if there is no clear context indicating such conditions. So, relevant contexts will help us recognize the meanings conveyed by must.

The examples above are only in positive statements, in that the negative must conveying logical necessity can be replaced by cannot conveying impossibility. The negative must, in this case, does not exist. Also the question form of must like should, does not occur.

#### V.2.7. The Meaning of Ought

##### V.2.7.1. Ought denoting Obligation

For examples:

- (1) He ought to pay for the broken window
- (2) They ought not to disturb him
- (3) Ought she to decide it herself?

The paraphrases can be:

- (1) I oblige him (without compulsion) to pay  
for the broken window
- (2) I oblige them (without compulsion) not  
to disturb him
- (3) Do you oblige him (without compulsion)  
to decide it herself?

These paraphrases will be the same, if ought is replaced by should.

#### V.2.7.2. Ought denoting Logical Necessity

For examples:

- (1) They ought to be home by now
- (2) She ought not to be there alone

The paraphrases are more or less as follow:

- (1) I conclude that perhaps they are home now
- (2) I conclude that she is unlikely there alone.

The conclusion made here has the same sense as that conveyed by should, in that there is no certainty in drawing the conclusion.

Like should, ought also does not have the question form of logical necessity or conclusion.

#### V.2.8. The Meanings of Need

Originally, need is a full verb or lexical verb conveying such meanings as force, constraint, necessity, lack, want, matter requiring action. Even in Old English, it means be necessary, have need, be in need.<sup>27</sup> These meanings are similar to those conveyed by must, especially those of constraint and necessity.

Now, need is used both as a full verb and as a modal auxiliary conveying the meaning of obligation as well as logical necessity. So, it is similar to must or ought in terms of their meanings. The difference lies on their degrees of intensity, as what Leech say that need is halfway between must and ought, meaning that it loses the certainty of must or the doubt of ought.<sup>28</sup> Furthermore, he says that the obligation of need comes from inside (subject), while that of must or ought comes from outside (speaker).<sup>29</sup>

The difference between the full verb and the auxiliary of need is that, besides the difference in general, the former can be used either in positive, negative, or interrogative only.

In terms of meaning, both the full verb and the auxiliary of need scarcely differ in effect on many occasions.<sup>30</sup> However, in certain contexts or situations, they have a clear distinction. Knud Schibbye explains that the full verb of need has the association of requirement attached to the subject, while the auxiliary need has that association attached to the circumstances.<sup>31</sup>

The discussion of their meanings is as follows:

#### V.2.8.1. Need denoting Obligation

For examples:

- (1) You need to get a haircut
- (2) You do not need to get a haircut
- (3) You need not (needn't) get a haircut
- (4) Do you need to get a haircut
- (5) Need you get a haircut?

These can be paraphrased as:

- (1) You oblige yourself to get a hair-cut  
(because of your own reason or requirement, not someone else's or the speaker's)
- (2) You do not oblige yourself to get a hair-cut
- (3) The situation or the circumstances do not oblige you to get a hair-cut
- (4) Do you oblige yourself to get a hair cut?
- (5) Does the situation oblige you to get a hair-cut?

Sentence (1), if it is compared to the use of must or ought, or should, shows the subject's not the speaker's authority to oblige. A slight difference between sentences (2) and (3) or between sentences (4) and (5) might appear, that is, the use of need in sentences (2) and (4) implies the subject's own requirement, while in

sentences (3) and (5) it implies the requirement of the situation or the circumstances.

#### V.2.8.2. Need denoting Logical Necessity

For examples:

- (1) There needs to be someone in the classroom
- (2) It needn't always be my fault
- (3) Need any one be lying?

The paraphrases can be more or less:

- (1) It is concluded that there is someone in the classroom
- (2) It is not necessary for it to be always my fault
- (3) Is it necessary for any one to be lying?

The conclusion, in this sense, is drawn without certainty or doubt as it is done with must or ought. As a matter of fact it can be placed between must and ought.

#### V.2.9. The Meanings of Dare

Originally, dare, which in Old English is dar, means have boldness or courage. This meaning, however, still survives in Modern English. According to Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, it has the primary meaning of to be brave enough, or to be rude enough,<sup>32</sup> either as the full

verb or as the auxiliary verb the use of which is in negative and interrogative sentences, or in statements containing uncertainty.

The examples of the usages of dare are as follow:

- (1) He dares to fight his enemy
- (2) He does not dare to fight his enemy
- (3) Does he dare to fight his enemy?
- (4) He dare not (daren't) fight his enemy.
- (5) Dare he fight his enemy?

The paraphrases would be:

- (1) He is brave enough to fight his enemy
- (2) He is not brave enough to fight his enemy
- (3) Is he brave enough to fight his enemy?
- (4) He is not brave enough to fight his enemy
- (5) Is he brave enough to fight his enemy?

Because dare, either as a full verb or as an auxiliary verb has the same meaning, the sentences using it, and functioning as a full verb or as an auxiliary verb seem to have the same paraphrases.

However, Knud Schibbye says there is a slight difference between them. Dare as a full verb is descriptive, that is, no more than

describing the fact about the bravery of the subject. While dare as an auxiliary verb expresses the subject's attitude towards the action expressed by the infinitive.<sup>33</sup>

#### V.2.10. The Meanings of Used

The verb use with its various forms may convey several meanings depending on its usages. When it is used without another verb following it, namely when it is used as a lexical verb, it has the chief meaning to employ, for example in you use your eyes to see ... <sup>34</sup>

In The Oxford Dictionary of English Etymology, use can mean more than the above meaning. It means: observe; in terms of a custom, rite, etc.; or follow a custom; engage in; employ; deal with; habituate; accustom.<sup>35</sup>

Again, in Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English it is said that when use is used with another verb, it is in the past form only, and has the meaning of to do regularly or habitually referring only to the past time, for examples:

(1) I used to go on Saturdays

(2) I used not to like fish, or

I did not used to like fish, or

I did not used to like fish, or

I did not use to like fish

(3) Used you to go on Saturdays? or

Did you used to go on Saturday? or

Did you use to go on Saturday?

These can be paraphrased as:

(1) I had a habit to go on saturdays (but  
now I do not have such a habit any more)

(2) I did not like fish (but now I do)

(3) Was it your habit to go on Saturdays?

The habits as found in the examples above clearly existed in the past, and have now ceased.

### V.3. The Meanings of Full Verbs

To know the meanings of full verbs, in this discussion I will take some examples of the full verbs, either transitive or intransitive, then I will find their possible meanings as explained in dictionaries, as well as some examples of their usages. Those full verbs which are dealt with here are: want, plan, decide, tell, go, and come. Their meanings are, according to Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English:<sup>36</sup>

#### 1. Want:

- to have a strong desire to have

example:

- He wanted (a chance) to rest

(= He had a strong desire to have a chance to rest)

- to need

example:

- The house wants painting

(= The house needs painting)

- to suffer from the lack of

example:

- Many people still want food and shelter

(= Many people still suffer from the lack of food and shelter) (p.1237)

## 2. Plan

- To make arrangement for carrying out some future activity

example:

- We have been planning the visit for months

- to make drawing, models, or other representations of (something to be built or made)

example:

- He ordered him to plan a new building (p.827)

## 3. Decide:

- to arrive at an answer or way out that ends uncertainty or disagreement about

example:

- He decides where to go tonight
- to come to hold, or declare a stated believe

example:

- She decided to go
- to make choice or judgement

example:

- I've been waiting all day for them to decide

(p.284)

#### 4. Tell

- to make (something) known in words to some one
- example:

- Did you tell Ann Joan the news about Paul?

- to warn, to advise

example:

- I told you David would want a drink

- to show, make known

example:

- This light tells you if this machine is on or off
- etc.

(p.1141)

#### 5. Go

- to leave the place when the speaker is (so as to reach another)

example:

- When does the train go?
- to travel or move  
example:
  - We went by bus
- to reach (as far as stated)  
example:
  - Which road goes to the station?

(p.485)

6. Come:

- to move towards the speaker or a particular place  
example:
  - Why don't you come when you know dinner's ready?
- to arrive where the speaker is or at a particular place  
example:
  - The train slowly came into the station
- to arrive as expected or in the course of time
  - Uncle's birthday is coming so we must remember to get him a present

(p.210)

After discussing both auxiliary verbs and full verbs in terms of their meanings, their

differences more clearly appear between them, especially concerning their meanings.

The meanings of primary auxiliaries are considered unique, meaning that each meaning appears only in certain usages. So, it is impossible to use other auxiliaries to express the same meanings.

The resultative or perfective meaning, for instance, cannot be expressed by the auxiliary do. The same case happens with the persuasive meaning which cannot be expressed by have, or the other one, except do.

The meanings of modal auxiliary verbs appear in certain conditions too. There might be some differences in the present form and the past one of modal auxiliaries, also in their usages with different kinds of subjects, as well as in the different forms of sentences. For example the meaning of may and might, though it denotes the same sense, such as possibility, it still has different degrees of possibility.

The meanings of full verbs can be expressed without any changing, whether the full verbs are used with different kinds of persons or numbers of the subjects, or whether they are used in

different forms of sentences, namely positive, negative, or interrogative ones.

Furthermore, the use of one of their synonymous verbs to replace the full verbs in sentences may cause no different meanings to the sentences. For example, one of the synonymous verbs of have is enjoy, so, the following sentences using both of the verbs have the same meaning:

- He has long holiday
- and
- He enjoys his long holiday

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## Chapter VI

### CONCLUSION AND SOME TEACHING SUGGESTIONS

#### VI.1. Conclusion

The characteristics of English auxiliary verbs can be obviously seen after observing and discussing auxiliary verbs and full verbs in terms of their forms, positions, functions, and meanings. Now, I can draw the conclusion in this chapter.

In terms of forms, auxiliary verbs and full verbs are different, in that the forms of full verbs can change under the influence of persons, numbers, as well as tenses. Or, they can be said as conjugated. While auxiliary verbs which can be subdivided into primary auxiliaries (be, have, do), and modal auxiliaries (may, can, will, shall, must, ought, used, need, and dare) can have different characteristics in terms of their forms. The primary auxiliaries experience such conjugation, while modal auxiliaries do not. Consequently, they are considered to be defective.

All auxiliary verbs have irregular forms only, except for the modal dare. While full verbs

may have both regular and irregular ones. Most of auxiliary verbs have contracted negative forms, while full verbs do not.

In terms of positions, we can see that an auxiliary verb always comes in the beginning of a verb phrase. A full verb, on the other hand, always comes in the final position. If there is a modal auxiliary in the verb phrase, it always takes the first position and the other auxiliaries come afterwards.

In sentences, the position of auxiliary verbs, as well as full verbs have specific positions. The first auxiliary verb, if there are more than one auxiliary in the phrase, always comes after the subject in positive sentences, and between the subject and the negative word not in negative sentences, while in interrogative sentences as well as in sentences opening with negative adverbial, an auxiliary verb always comes before the subject.

A full verb, on the other hand, always comes after the auxiliary verb in positive sentences, and after the negative word not in negative sentences. In interrogative sentences as well as in sentences opening with negative adverbial, it comes after the subject.

A verb phrase consisting of auxiliary verb(s) and full verb(s) cannot be inserted either by noun, pronoun, noun phrase, or prepositional phrase. In the case of a verb phrase consisting of full verbs only, it can be inserted by noun or the like.

In terms of functions, it can be concluded that in a verb phrase consisting of one auxiliary or more and a full verb, the auxiliary functions to convey grammatical categories such as voice, mood, aspect, etc. to the verb which follows the auxiliary verb(s). It is then, called as the modifier(s).

While the full verb in such a verb phrase is called as the head, functioning to carry the primary reference of the verb phrase and relates to an action, process, or event in extra linguistic reality.

In terms of meanings, the conclusion can be drawn here.

Auxiliary verbs have their special meanings according to their functions of conveying grammatical categories. The meanings of primary auxiliaries are considered unique in that they appear in certain uses. The meanings of modal

auxiliaries vary according to certain conditions such as tenses, persons, forms of sentences.

The meanings of full verbs do not experience such changing as those of the primary ones. So, the use of their synonymous verbs is possible in the case of full verbs.

#### VI.2. Teaching Suggestions

As the teaching of primary auxiliaries is, in fact, already dealt with in the teaching of tenses, such as the teaching of present or past continuous tense, present or past perfect tense, passive voice, so, in this chapter, the teaching suggestion is given only to the teaching of modal auxiliaries.

This is made with the reason that, in fact, the difficulties of learning and teaching modal auxiliaries are especially caused by the complexity of their meanings. So, the suggestion gives the idea of how to teach modal auxiliaries as simply as possible but as completely as possible, though it might be far from being perfect.

#### VI.2.1. The Approach of Teaching Modal Auxiliaries

As the cause of difficulties of learning or teaching modal auxiliaries comes from their complexity of meanings, the teaching of them would be viewed especially from their meanings.

Some English teachers suggest the use of deductive techniques in dealing with modal meanings. It means that the teaching starts from the explanation of all modal meanings, then followed by some examples.

The other teachers suggest that the teaching of modal auxiliaries should be done by grouping them according to their similarities of characteristics.

In my opinion, the deductive way will make the students burdened with so many ideas. This, consequently, will make them difficult to learn the modals. While, the second one, namely grouping the similar modals together, is almost the same as the deductive one, in that in this way, the teacher will show each characteristics of modal auxiliaries which are under the same group, and then find their differences. This will make the students learn the similarities and differences of those modals at the same time.

So, to avoid such shortcomings, I would like to give the alternative of teaching modal auxiliaries. It will be done by explaining one by one the meanings of each modal directly followed by examples and practice. The purpose is, to make the students really understand each meaning and to make them familiar with each uses. The explanation about the similarities and differences of modals can be done afterwards, together with some practice or exercises.

#### VI.2.2. Suggested Procedure of Teaching Modal Auxiliaries

Step 1: Introducing what are included into modal auxiliaries and explaining their functions.

In this step, the teacher mentions all modal auxiliaries, namely may, might, can, could, will, would, shall, should, must, ought (to), used (to), dare, need. While the function of modal auxiliaries is especially to represent something in the speakers' mind or feeling.

This step is done with the reason that by knowing what will be learned before going further to the deep discussion, the students will

be more prepared to learn the modal auxiliaries in this case.

## Step 2: Explaining the Structures of Modal Auxiliaries.

In this step the teacher explains the common structures of modal auxiliaries. These are shown in positive and negative statements, and in interrogative sentences.

in positive statements:

Subject + modal + bare infinitive

in negative statements:

Subject + modal + not + bare infinitive

in interrogative sentences:

Modal + subject + bare infinitive.

It is also necessary to explain that the verb following modals is always in bare infinitive, except for the case of ought and used. Also, the teacher should explain that there is no change of forms of modals with different kinds of persons and numbers.

Examples are also needed to clarify the idea:

(1) It may rain heavily

- (2) He must try hard to achieve his best result
- (3) You cannot play tennis here.
- etc.

Step 3: Explaining one by one the meanings of modal auxiliaries.

The teacher had better choose one modal auxiliary which is considered familiar and the most frequently used. In this case, he can choose the modal can. The meanings of can are given one by one followed directly by examples and practice.

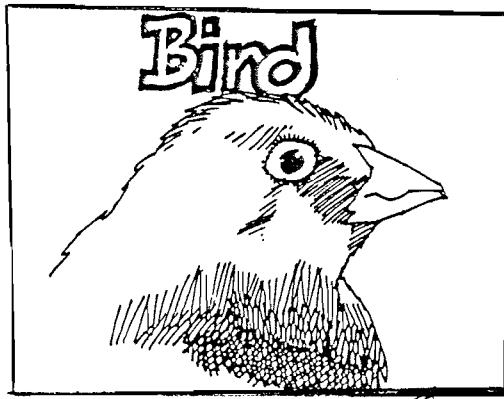
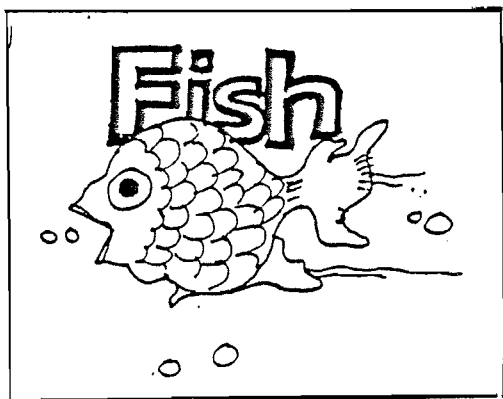
### 3.1. Can expressing Ability

Examples:

- (1) A horse can run fast
- (2) A doctor can heal the ill people
- (3) An Englishman can speak English well
- (4) A newly born baby cannot speak
- (5) Can you type quickly?

Practice:

The teacher gives pictures, and the students are asked to compare the two pictures, and tell the differences between them, in terms of ability, for examples:



The students are expected to produce the following sentences:

- (1) Fish can swim, but birds cannot
- (2) Birds can fly, but fish cannot.

In order to make the students use the modal can in the ability meaning, the teacher can give as many practices using different pictures as possible.

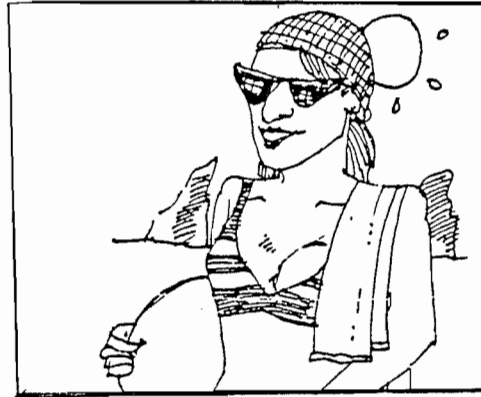
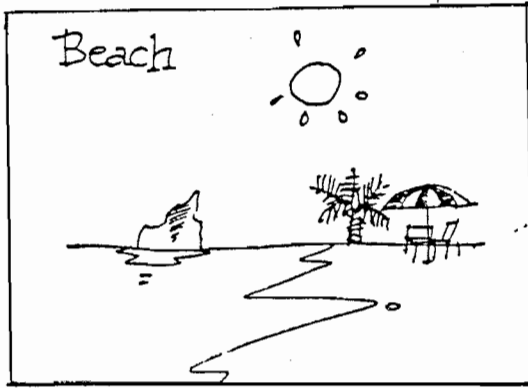
### 3.2. Can expressing Possibility

Examples:

- (1) A good driver can make mistakes
- (2) The weak trees can fall down in the rain
- (3) A brilliant, diligent student cannot fail in the exams.
- (4) Can this blanket make you warm?

Practice:

The teacher shows some pictures with enough information on them. Then, the students are asked to make sentences based on the pictures. For examples:



The expected sentences are:

- (1) The woman can swim on the beach.
- (2) The woman can bathe on the beach.

There may be more than two sentences made by the students based on the above pictures. They may produce other sentences based on the situation given by the pictures.

### 3.3. Can expressing Permission

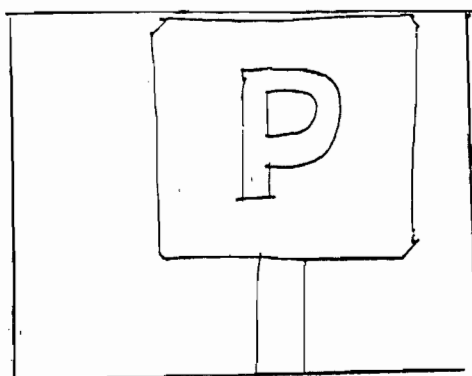
#### Examples:

- (1) You can stay here if you like, there are enough rooms
- (2) Dogs cannot enter that building, there is a warning saying that
- (3) Can I smoke here?

#### Practice:

The teacher gives some pictures which can be some warning signs or traffic signs. Then the students are asked what those signs mean. For examples:





What does this sign mean?

The expected answer is:

It means you can park here



What does this sign mean?

The expected answer is:

It means you can wait here



What does this sign mean?

The expected answer is:

It means you cannot go in

The purpose of discussing the meanings one by one in the above step is to make the students understand the idea of each meaning without being confused with the other ones.

While the reason of giving the practice directly using the pictures is to help the students use the modal correctly based on the situation. Certainly, the teacher's role is very important to make the students understand what the pictures mean. He can improve or add some information about the pictures orally.

#### Step 4: Explaining the meaning of may

The same way can be taken in explaining the meanings of may, as we explain those of can, namely by giving the examples and practice directly.

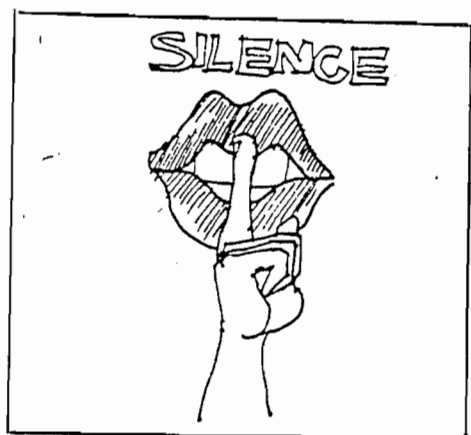
##### 4.1. May expressing Permission

###### Examples:

- (1) You may come if you want. This is my party
- (2) Dogs may not enter my room
- (3) May I sit here?

###### Practice:

The teacher gives some pictures and asks the students to produce sentences using the modal may based on the situation given by the pictures. To help the students, the teacher makes the question about the pictures first. Then, the students will answer. For examples:



What does this sign mean?

The expected answer is:

It means you may not make noise



What does this sign mean?

The expected answer is:

It means you may wait here

#### 4.2. May expressing Possibility

Examples:

(1) He may come tomorrow, not now

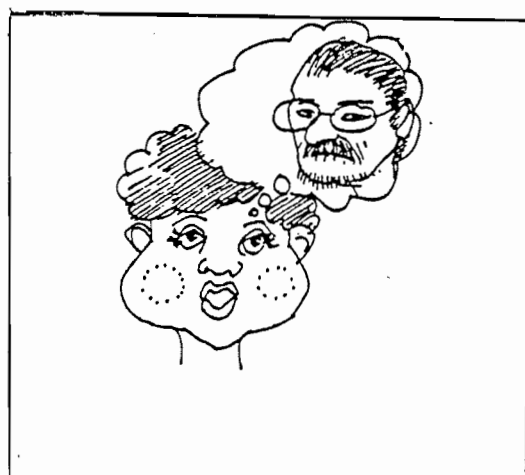
(2) She may not know that you are here

(3) I may be late

Practice:

The teacher provides some pictures, and asks the students to make sentences using the modal may by answering some questions asked by the teacher based on the pictures.

For examples:



What happens to the girl?

The expected answers can be:

(1) The girl may be in love with some boy

(2) The girl may remember her boyfriend



What happens with this boy?

The expected answers can be:

- (1) He may be ill
- (2) He may have a headache
- (3) He may be angry

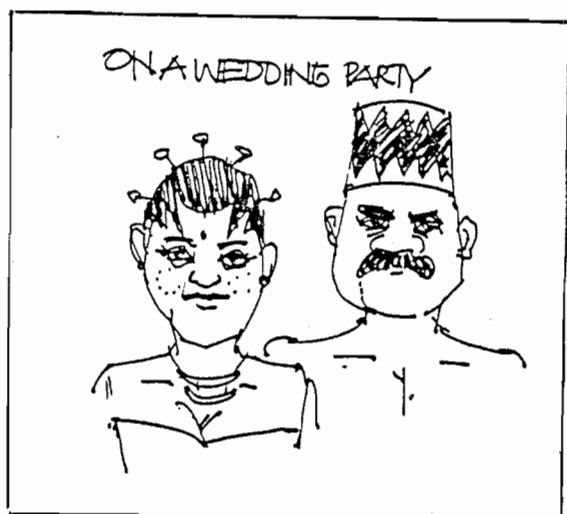
#### 4.3. May expressing Wish or Hope

##### Examples:

- (1) May God be with you
- (2) May you have a nice holiday
- (3) May our friendship last forever

##### Practice:

The teacher provides some pictures and asks some questions based on them. The students are asked to use may in answering or in making sentences. For exlamples:



What do you usually say, besides 'congratulations', to your friends on their wedding?

The expected answers are:

- (1) May God bless you
- (2) May you be happy

Step 5: Explaining the similarities and differences between may and can

Because may and can have similar meanings, namely permission and possibility, a question may arise: what is the difference between the possibility expressed by can and that expressed by may? And, what is the difference between the permission expressed by can and that expressed by may?

To answer such questions, the teacher had better explain the differences between them in order that the students understand more deeply the use of may and can. He can do it in the following way.

5.1. The teacher explains the differences between can and may expressing permission:

- Can expressing permission is considered informal and less polite, while may is considered formal and more polite.

Examples:

- (1) The bellboy says to the director "May I put your suitcase here, Sir?"
- (2) Mother asks me "Can I come into your room?"

- Can expressing permission implies that it is the circumstances that permit the action to be done. While may implies that it is the speaker that permits it.

Example:

- A : "The sign says 'EXIT', we can't go in that way"
- B : "Don't worry, you may go in that way. I am the director here, I can do whatever I like"

## 5.2. Practice:

The teacher gives practice on the difference between can and may expressing permission directly after the explanation to make it less complicated.

Example:

- The students are required to fill in the blanks with can or may based on the contexts provided.

- (1) It's very windy outside, you ..... not take the baby out
- (2) "Sir, ..... I sit here?"
- (3) You are old enough, you ..... see that film
- (4) I will give you assignments. You ..... do all of them and you ..... not

(5) Of course, you ..... use my towel, dear

5.3. The teacher explains the difference between can and may expressing possibility:

- Can implies that the possibility is based on the circumstances, while may implies pure possibility.

Examples:

- (1) It is raining heavily, you can't go to school without an umbrella or raincoat
- (2) I don't see him. He may be outside, but he may also be in his room

#### 5.4. Practice:

- The students are required to fill in the blanks with may or can according to the contexts provided.

- (1) When it is very sunny, wet clothes ....  
/dry very quickly
- (2) He isn't home yet, he ..... lose his way
- (3) The school bell will ring in three minutes. Susan hasn't come, she ..... be late
- (4) Even a bright student ..... fail in exams if he doesn't study

Step 6: The other modals are introduced and practiced in the same way as can and may which belong to one group in terms of their similarities in meanings.

The other modals are presented in these groupings: must, ought (to), should, need belong to one group, will, shall belong to another group. While dare and used (to) are dealt with separately.

Notes:

To make it less complicated, the practice on the difference between must, ought (to), should, and need can be given in pairs, for examples must and ought (to) in one exercise, another exercise deals with must and need only, or must and should only.

Step 7: After all modal auxiliaries are dealt with and practiced, the teacher gives exercises about all modals, or, at least, exercises contrasting a modal from one group to modals in other groups.

This is meant to make the students trained to use modals just like they do in real life. This also makes the unique meanings of each modal stand out more obviously.

Step 8: Past forms of modals are given as simply as possible, for example by using the tables.

<u>Present</u>	<u>Past</u>
may	might
can	could
will	would
shall	should
must	-
ought (to)	-
-	used (to)
dare	dared
need	-

**Examples:**

I can swim now. He could swim when he was still five.

**Notes:**

Shall actually has no past form conveying the same meanings. It changes into should only in indirect speech. So, we cannot say: for example:

I shall go now, and he should go yesterday.

Should in this case is not able to be used as the past form of shall.

The explanation on the difference between the present and the past forms of modals used in-

present or future tenses is also important, though it is only a slight difference.

1. The difference between may and might:

Concerning the possibility meaning, may is considered greater than might. Concerning the permission meaning, the use of might is considered more polite than may.

2. The difference between can and could:

The use of could is considered more polite than that of can in all senses.

3. The difference between will and would:

Like can and could, will and would differ only in the degree of politeness. Would is considered more polite than will.

Step 9: If necessary, the teacher gives the tables of meanings of all modals. This will be the summarization of the discussion about the modals and their meanings. Also, it will reinforce the students' understanding, and will make it easier for them to memorize the meanings.

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