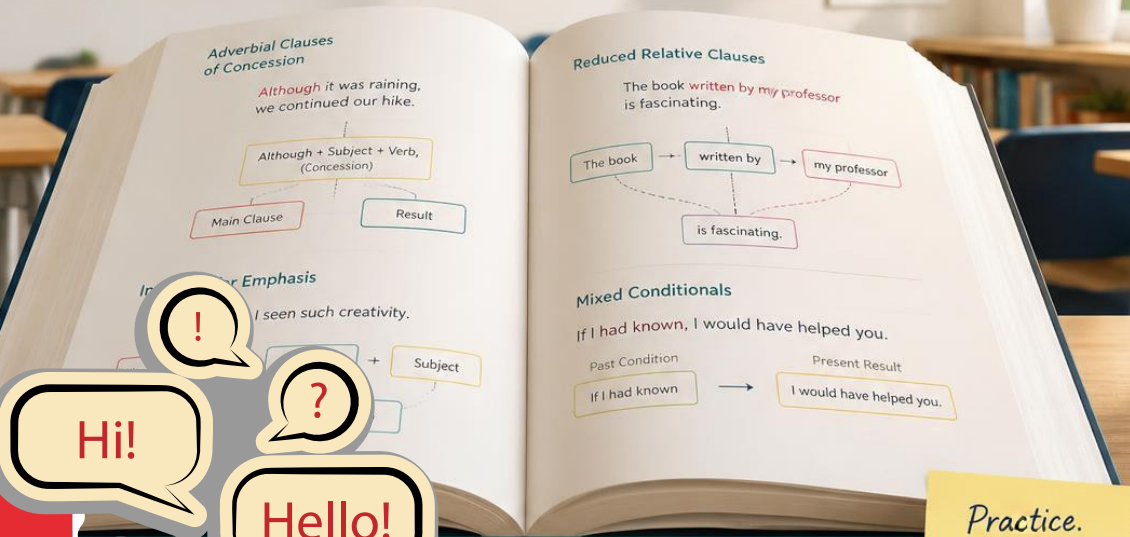


MASTERING COMPLEX ENGLISH STRUCTURES: POST INTERMEDIATE LEVEL



*Practice.
Apply.
Master.*

TIM PENULIS :

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PREFACE

Praise and gratitude we offer to the presence of God Almighty, who has given His grace and gifts so that the book entitled *Mastering Complex English Structures: Post Intermediate Level* can be completed. The contents of this book include discussions on inversion, verbs as complements and causative verbs, adjective clauses and adjective phrases, noun clause, reported speech, and subjunctive, and adverbial clauses. Finally, we hope that this book can be a useful reference and an inspiration for all readers.

Padang, July 2026

Author

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CHAPTER 1

INVERSION

By Bertaria Sohnata Hutaaruk

Inversion is a change in the word order in a sentence by swapping the positions of the subject and verb for a specific purpose. Inversion is the reversal of the position of the subject and verb or auxiliary verb in a sentence. This structure is used to emphasize emotion (more dramatically), make a sentence more formal, or when asking a question. Inversion is a way for writers or speakers to emphasize, make a sentence sound more formal, or follow a specific pattern in English. Inversion is a sentence structure in which the subject and verb are reversed from their normal order. Typically, English sentences follow the subject + verb pattern, but in inversion, the auxiliary verb appears before the subject. This change in order is used for specific purposes, such as providing emphasis, forming formal sentences, or following specific grammar patterns. English sentence structure generally follows a normal order, but in certain patterns, this order is altered. Here are the main patterns of inversion that are frequently used:

1. **Inversion in Interrogative Sentences:** This is the most basic form of inversion that we use every day.
Pattern: Auxiliary Verb + Subject + Main Verb
Example:
Standard: You are coming to the party.
Inversion: Are you coming to the party?

2. Inversion with Negative Adverbs: Usually used in formal language or advanced writing.

Pattern: Negative Adverb + Auxiliary Verb + Subject + Main Verb

Example:

Standard: *I have **never** seen such a beautiful place.*

Inversion: **Never have I** seen such a beautiful place

3. Inversion in Conditional Sentences: This form is used in conditional sentences (especially types 1, 2, and 3) to omit the word "if".

Type 1 Pattern: Should + Subject + Verb.

Example:

Should you need further assistance, please contact us.

Type 2 Pattern: Were + Subject + (to Verb / Noun)

Example:

Were I you, I would accept the job

Type 3 Pattern: Had + Subject + Past Participle.

Example:

Had she studied hard, she would have passed the exam.

4. Inversion with "So" and "Such": Used to emphasize the degree or intensity of a state or trait

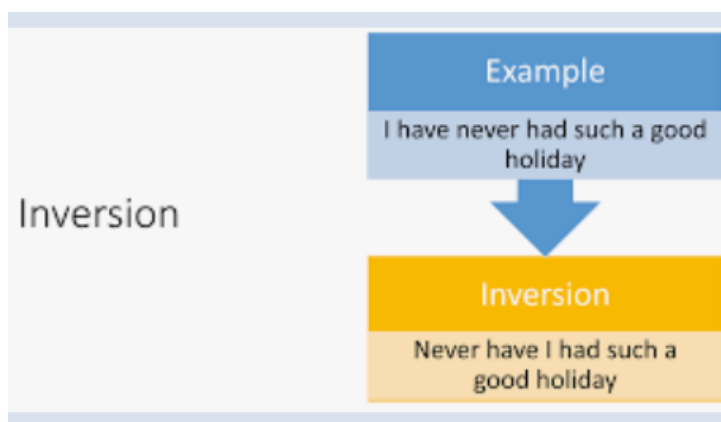
Pattern: So + Adjective/Adverb + Auxiliary Verb + Subject + Verb

Example:

So beautiful was the sunset that we couldn't stop taking pictures.

English is a language with a general S-V-O syntactic structure. In fact, in addition to this general S-V-O pattern, under certain conditions and with specific requirements, the

S-V-O structure can be reversed to V-S-O. This inversion of the subject-verb order in English grammar is called inversion. Many English learners, both school and university students, and even ourselves, are very familiar with English sentences with the S-V-O structure, and less familiar with sentences with the reversed subject-verb structure. We always assume that in English, whatever comes before the verb is the subject, but this is not necessarily the case. Thomson and Martinet (1986) also touched on inversion when discussing conditional sentences in their book **A Practical English Grammar**. Meanwhile, Michael Swan (1996) also described two types of inversion in his book **Practical English Usage**. Deborah Philip (1996) discussed five frequently inverted sentences that appear on TOEFL tests in her book **Longman Preparation Course**. In the book, she stated that “inversion is one of the most common problems on the TOEFL test”.



1.1 Inversion

INVERSION is used for emphasis, dramatic purpose or formality. You start the sentence with an adverbial phrase like the ones listed "Not only" and then you invert the subject and the auxiliary so they change places. "Not only am

I tired, I'm also hungry." A quick way to check is ask yourself if it looks like an interrogative structure "...am I tired" (?) and if it does, you're inverting well. This is the list of the most common inversions. The ones most commonly used are NOT ONLY ... , BY NO MEANS, NEVER AGAIN, UNDER NO CIRCUMSTANCES, NO SOONER English is generally a language with an S-V-O structure, but in English, the inversion of these elements is also possible. This reversal is known as inversion. Linguistically, "inversion" comes from the word "inverse," which means "reversed in position" (Oxford, 1995:222). According to Kridalaksana, "inversion is a change in the order of sentence parts" (Kridalaksana, 1984:77). In English sentence structure, inversion is a change in the order of the S-V structure to V-S. This change in structure occurs under certain conditions and with specific requirements.

INVERSION

Not only am I tired, I'm also hungry.
Never again will I go to that restaurant.
Never before have I read such a good book.
Never/Not once was I rude to her.
At no time did you ask me if you could borrow it.
On no account must you try this at home.
Under no circumstances can you smoke in here.
In no way do I agree with what you're doing.
By no means is it easy to use inversion correctly.
No sooner had we left **than** it started raining.
Hardly/Barely had we left **when** it started raining.
Rarely/Seldom do you find an honest politician.
Little did I know that I would end up living here.
Not since I was a child have I felt so happy.
Not until I pass the exam will I feel relieved.
Only when he explained it did I understand inversion.
Only by working hard will you reach your goals.

This means that we cannot simply reverse the S-V structure unless the conditions require or allow for inversion.

1. Inversion dengan Negative Adverbs of Frequency:

Inversion is a structure that must be used when a sentence begins with negative adverbs of frequency, such as "barely," "hardly," "never," "rarely," "scarcely," "seldom," and "little." These words are negative and automatically trigger inversion, which is the exchange of positions between the auxiliary verb and the subject. If there is no auxiliary verb in the original sentence, then an additional auxiliary such as "do," "does," or "did" must be used.

Sentence pattern: **Negative Adverbs + auxiliary verb + subject + verb**

Example:

- a. Rarely do people see such honesty nowadays.
- b. Little did she realize the impact of her decision.

2. Inversion in Conditional Sentences:

In certain conditional sentences, the word "if" can be omitted and replaced with an inversion. This form often appears in formal and academic English.

Conditional Type	Inversion Sentence Patterns
Type 1	Should + subject + verb, subject + will/should/may + verb
Type 2	Were + subject + to verb / were, subject + would/could/might + verb
Type 3	Had + subject + past participle, subject + would/should/might have + past participle

Example:

- a. Should you need further assistance, please contact our support team.
- b. Were I in his position, I might react differently.
- c. Had she listened to the advice, she might have avoided the problem.

3. Inversion with “No sooner” and “Hardly”: This structure is used to indicate two events that occurred almost simultaneously. In this type, inversion is a formal form that is always used and usually uses the past perfect.

Sentence pattern:

- No sooner + auxiliary verb + subject + verb + than + subject + verb
- Hardly + auxiliary verb + subject + verb + when + subject + verb

Example:

- a. No sooner had the train left than it started raining heavily.
- b. Hardly had she sat down when the meeting began.

4. **Inversion with Negative Phrases Containing “No”:** Some negative phrases containing the word “no” will trigger inversion if placed at the beginning of the sentence. This structure is often used for strong emphasis or express prohibition.

Sentence pattern:

- a. Under no circumstances should employees share their passwords.
- b. In no way does this policy benefit small businesses.

5. **Inversion with “So” and “Such”:** This structure is used to emphasize the degree or intensity of a trait or condition. The pattern with “so” inverts, while “such” emphasizes the noun.

Sentence structure:

- Such + adjective + noun + that + clause
- So + adjective/adverb + auxiliary verb + subject + that + clause

Example:

- a. Such a challenging exam that many students felt exhausted.
- b. So fast was the internet connection that the file downloaded instantly.

Normal Sentence	Inverted Sentence
She rarely speaks in public.	Rarely does she speak in public.
He is not only smart, but he is also very humble.	Not only is he smart, but he is also very humble.
If she had known the truth, she would have acted differently.	Had she known the truth, she would have acted differently.
If I were you, I would take the opportunity.	Were I you, I would take the opportunity.
We hardly finished the task when the boss arrived.	Hardly had we finished the task when the boss arrived.
I have never seen such a beautiful place.	Never have I seen such a beautiful place.
He finished the report and then the system crashed.	No sooner had he finished the report than the system crashed.
	So clear was the explanation that everyone understood it.

1.2 Functions

Inversion occurs in English for emphasis, dramatic purposes, or formality. To invert a sentence, move the adverb to the beginning of the sentence and reverse the subject and auxiliary verb: 'I had never met someone so interesting.' becomes 'Never had I met someone so interesting.' How do you use inversion in writing? In most English verb forms, when we want to use inversion, we simply move the verb to come before the subject. If there is

more than one verb, for example, because a verb form has an auxiliary verb, we move the first verb.

The inversion structure in English has certain functions, namely: (1) **Strengthening Meaning:** A sentence with an inverted structure has a stronger emotional stress than a sentence with a normal structure. This function occurs in inversions, which occur in sentences beginning with negative expressions and inversions that occur after the word "only" in number eight above. For example, the sentence "Never do I steal your money" has a stronger meaning than the sentence "I never steal your money." The sentence "Never do I steal your money" implies that I have never actually stolen your money. (2) **Giving a More Formal Impression:** Inversion structures often appear in formal written language, therefore, they can create a more formal impression. Inversions that function to create a formal impression are found in comparative degrees and conditional sentences. The sentence "I run faster than does John" is more formal than the sentence "I run faster than John does" or the sentence "I run faster than John." Similarly, the sentence "Were our neighbors more friendly, it would be easier to get to know them" has a more formal impression than the sentence "If our neighbors were more friendly, it would be easier to get to know them." (3) **Beautifying sentences (giving a literary impression)** What the author means by "beautifying sentences" here is that inversion structures often appear in literary styles, while we know that literary language is considered more beautiful and refined than formal or everyday language. In this case, the sentence "Among them appeared a tall, lanky Illinois attorney, Abraham Lincoln" is considered more beautiful than if the sentence were normalized as "A tall, lanky Illinois attorney, Abraham Lincoln, appeared among them." This function occurs in inversions that occur in sentences beginning with expressions of place, in nominal sentences with subjective complements in the form of adjectives, in

sentences with adverbial clauses of result so adjective that, and in direct quotations.

(4) Placing heavy and long structures at the end of sentences. "English tends to place heavy and long structures at the end of sentences; Practical English Usage states that longer and heavier structures usually come last in a sentence" (Swan, 1995:289). This means that if the subject of a sentence consists of a long phrase, the subject tends to be placed after the verb. If we examine some of the examples from the references above, we will often find that the subjects of inverted sentences tend to be long phrases. (5) Forming an interrogative sentence structure. Adjective. In four, in the noun sentence that occurs in kalimaron, appeared.

It is a rule in English that interrogative sentences are formed by inverting or reversing the S-V order to V-S, namely by placing the auxiliary verb before the subject. (6) Expressing existence. This function is specific to the inversion of "there." As mentioned above, to express existence in English, the expletive "there" is used at the beginning of the sentence, followed by the verb "be," and then the subject. (7) Expressing hope. Inversion structures can also be used to express hope. This function only applies to inversions in sentences preceded by "may," for example, "may god bless you."

In addition to the functions above, there are inversion structures that have no specific function; meaning the sentence is inverted simply to comply with the rules of sentence structure in English. This is, of course, related to the arbitrary nature of language. Inversions in this category include inversions in elliptical structures and in two sentences joined by "not only....but also.....," "neither.....nor.....," and two sentences connected by the conjunction "nor."

Inversion is a grammatical structure where the standard word order is reversed, placing the verb (or auxiliary) before the subject. (1) Main Function: It is used to add strong emphasis, create dramatic effect, and elevate the tone to be highly formal or literary. (2) Key Structure: It transforms a statement to look like a question structure (Auxiliary Verb + Subject + Main Verb), but it remains a statement ending with a period. (3) It occurs when a sentence begins with: Negative/Restrictive Adverbs: Never, Seldom, Rarely, Hardly, Scarcely, Little. "Not" & "Only" Expressions: Not only, Under no circumstances, Only after. Advanced Conditionals: Omitting "if" using Should, Were, or Had. So / Such: Used for emphasis (So beautiful was... / Such was...). Place Adverbs: Changing positions for dramatic descriptions (On the hill stood a castle).

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CHAPTER 2

VERBS AS COMPLEMENTS AND CAUSATIVE VERBS

By Citra Prasiska Puspita Tohamba

In the previous chapter, we examined how clauses and phrases are built around a main verb. Now we turn to a topic that often frustrates post-intermediate learners: what happens when another immediately follows one verb. English uses a small set of fixed patterns – gerunds, full infinitives, bare infinitives – and choosing the wrong one can change the meaning entirely or produce an ungrammatical sentence. Closely related are causative verbs, which allow us to express the idea that one person causes another to act or that we arrange for a service to be done. Mastering these two areas will sharpen your accuracy and add natural fluency to your spoken and written English.

2.1 Verbs as Complements

2.1.1 Definition

In traditional sentence analysis, a **complement** is any word, phrase, or clause that is required to complete the meaning of a head word. When that head word is a verb, the complement provides information that the verb cannot do without – typically answering the question “what?” or “who?” after the action (Quirk et al.,

1985). For example, in *She enjoyed **swimming***, the gerund *swimming* is not an optional extra; it is the indispensable completion of *enjoyed*. Without it, the sentence *She enjoyed* feels semantically and grammatically incomplete.

Verb complements can be **finite** (a *that*-clause, as in *I think **that she is right***) or **non-finite** (an infinitive, gerund, or bare infinitive). The focus of this chapter is on non-finite verb complements, the patterns in which one verb directly selects the form of another. As Biber et al. (1999) note, “the choice between a *to*-infinitive and an *-ing* complement is largely determined by the controlling verb”. This means that the main verb projects a specific complementation pattern, and learners must store these patterns lexically. There is no single semantic rule that covers all cases, although certain tendencies exist: many verbs taking a gerund express factive or retrospective meanings (e.g., *admit, deny, regret*), whereas many taking a full infinitive point toward a potential, future, or unrealised action (e.g., *hope, decide, want*) (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002).

Within non-finite complements, grammarians distinguish three formal types:

- Gerund complement (-ing form): avoid speaking
- To-infinitive complement: agree to leave
- Bare infinitive complement (base form without to), which occurs after modal auxiliaries and, importantly, after certain verbs of perception and causative verbs (Swan, 2016).

Thus, from a structural perspective, the second verb acts as the **complement of the first verb**, filling a slot in the valency pattern of the main predicate. The term “complement” is used here in its precise syntactic sense: a constituent that is licensed by a head and required for grammaticality (Greenbaum & Quirk, 1990). This is not the same as a simple direct object, although gerund and infinitive complements can sometimes be replaced by pronoun objects (*I like it / I like swimming*). The crucial point for learners is that the form of the complement is dictated by the main verb, not by the meaning the speaker wishes to convey.

2.1.2 Structures and Characteristics

a) Verb + Gerund

Common verbs followed by a gerund include: admit, avoid, consider, deny, enjoy, finish, imagine, mind, miss, postpone, practise, recommend, regret, risk, suggest, etc.

Structure: main verb + -ing ...

She enjoys cooking for large groups.

He avoided answering the question.

These verbs often express an attitude toward an activity, or an action that is already in progress or has been completed.

b) Verb + Full Infinitive

Verbs such as agree, decide, expect, hope, learn, manage, offer, plan, pretend, promise, refuse, seem, want, and would like require a to-infinitive.

Structure: main verb + to + base form ...

Example:

They decided to postpone the meeting.

I hope to see you soon.

The infinitive usually points forward to a future or hypothetical action relative to the main verb.

- c) Verbs that take either Gerund or Infinitive (with a change in meaning)

A gerund or an infinitive can follow a small but important group of verbs, but the meaning shifts. The most common are:

Verb	+ Gerund	+ Infinitive
remember	recall a past action: <i>I remember locking the door.</i>	not forget to do something: <i>Remember to lock the door.</i>
forget	lose the memory of a past action: <i>I'll never forget meeting her.</i>	fail to do something: <i>Don't forget to call me.</i>
stop	quit an activity: <i>He stopped smoking.</i>	pause in order to do something: <i>He stopped to smoke a cigarette.</i>
try	experiment with a method: <i>Try restarting the computer.</i>	make an effort: <i>I tried to lift the box but it was too heavy.</i>
regret	feel sorry about something already done: <i>I regret telling him the secret.</i>	announce bad news (formal): <i>We regret to inform you that...</i>

d) Verbs of perception (special complement patterns)

Verbs like see, hear, watch, notice, feel can take an object followed by either a bare infinitive (for a completed action) or a gerund (for an action in progress).

I saw him cross the street. (the whole action, from one side to the other)

I saw him crossing the street. (in the middle of the action)

This pattern is a bridge to causative structures, where bare infinitives also appear.

2.2 Causative Verbs

2.2.1 Definition

Causative verbs are a set of verbs that convey the idea that a person or thing brings about an action or state in another entity. They answer the underlying question “Who causes it to happen?” In linguistic terms, they add a layer of **causation** to the predicate: rather than performing the action themselves, the subject causes someone or something else to act or to undergo a process (Swan, 2016). For example, in *I had the mechanic repair the car*, the subject *I* does not repair the car; instead, *I* causes the mechanic to perform the repair.

The principal active causatives in English are **make**, **have**, **get**, **let** and **help**. Each selects a different complementation pattern for the second verb that follows the object – the choice of bare infinitive, full infinitive, or optional *to* being a direct consequence of the causative verb itself. This distribution is a classic

example of grammatical **reanalysis**: some of these verbs (notably *make* and *let*) developed their complement patterns from a time when English allowed bare infinitives after a wider range of verbs, while *get* followed the more analytic pattern with *to* (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002).

In addition, English possesses a **passive causative** structure with *have* or *get* followed by an object and a past participle. This construction indicates that the subject arranges for an action to be performed on something or someone, typically by an unspecified agent. Biber et al. (1999) characterise this as a “conversational pattern that is extremely common in spoken English”, particularly when referring to services (e.g., *have your hair cut*) or adverse experiences (*get your wallet stolen*).

2.2.2 Core Active Causative Structures

a) Make

Make + object + bare infinitive expresses forcing or compelling someone to do something.

The teacher made the students rewrite the essay.

They made me wait for an hour.

In the passive, make unexpectedly takes a to-infinitive:

I was made to wait for an hour.

b) Have

Have + object + bare infinitive means giving someone the responsibility to do something, or

arranging for them to do it (often because you have authority).

I had the plumber fix the leak.

The manager had her assistant book the flights.

c) Get

Get + object + to-infinitive conveys the idea of persuading, convincing or managing to make someone do something.

She got her brother to help with the move.

We finally got them to agree to the terms.

Get is more informal and implies more effort than have.

d) Let

Let + object + bare infinitive means to allow or give permission.

My parents let me stay out late.

Let the dough rise for an hour.

Note that let is never used with to in the active voice.

e) Help

Help is flexible: it can take either a bare infinitive or a to-infinitive after the object, with no change in meaning.

She helped me (to) carry the bags.

Music helps children (to) develop language skills.

2.2.3 The Passive Causative: Have/Get Something Done

When we cause an action to be performed on an object but we do not say (or care) who performs it, English uses a passive causative structure:

have/get + object + past participle

- I had my hair cut yesterday. (I didn't cut it; a hairdresser did it.)
- We need to get the roof repaired before winter.
- She had her passport stolen while travelling. (The causative here expresses an unfortunate experience; no agent is mentioned.)

Have is neutral or formal; get is slightly more colloquial and can imply a degree of difficulty or effort.

2.3 Summary of Core Patterns

Main verb	Structure with object	Meaning
make	make + obj + bare inf	force
have	have + obj + bare inf	arrange / give responsibility
get	get + obj + to-inf	persuade / manage
let	let + obj + bare inf	allow

help	help + obj + (to) inf	assist
have/get (passive)	have/get + obj + past part	arrange for a service / experience

Task 2: Verbs as Complements and Causative Verbs

A. Complete the sentences with the correct form (gerund or full infinitive) of the verb in brackets.

1. The suspect denied _____ (be) at the scene of the crime.
2. I can't imagine _____ (live) in such a noisy area.
3. She agreed _____ (take) on the extra responsibility.
4. Do you remember _____ (visit) this museum as a child?
5. He stopped _____ (check) the map before continuing his journey.

B. Choose the correct option to complete each sentence.

1. I saw the cat (to jump/ jump/ jumping) onto the fence and disappear.
2. Please don't forget (to post/ posting) the letter on your way home.
3. We regret (to inform/ informing) you that the course is fully booked.

4. Try (to reset/ resetting) the router if the internet is down.

C. Rewrite the sentences using the causative structure given in brackets.

1. A professional painter will paint our house next month. (use have)

Our house

2. The dentist extracted her wisdom tooth yesterday. (use get)

She

3. My father insisted that I rewrite my application letter. (use make)

My father

D. Fill in the blanks with the appropriate causative verb (make, have, get, let, help). Use each once.

1. The trainer _____ the athletes run five extra laps as punishment.
2. Could you _____ someone take a look at the air conditioner? It's not cooling properly.
3. I finally _____ my landlord to fix the broken heater.
4. Her boss never _____ her leave before six o'clock.
5. A cup of green tea can _____ you (to) relax after a stressful day.

- E. Correct the errors in these sentences. Each sentence contains one mistake.

The teacher got the children to memorise the poem by heart.

(No mistake perhaps? I'll intentionally place an error: e.g. "The teacher made the children to memorise ..." – I'll design errors.)

Let's craft:

1. The teacher made the children to memorise the poem by heart.
2. I had my car repairing at the garage around the corner.
3. We were let to leave the classroom early.

Key Answer to Task 2

A.

1. being
2. living
3. to take
4. visiting
5. to check

B.

1. jump (or jumping if you want to emphasise the continuous action; in "disappear" context, completed action is more natural: jump)

2. to post
3. to inform
4. Resetting

C.

1. We will have our house painted next month.
2. She got her wisdom tooth extracted yesterday.
3. My father made me rewrite my application letter.

D.

1. made
2. have
3. got
4. lets
5. help (or helps – subject “A cup of green tea” is singular, so helps; the infinitive can be “relax” or “to relax”).

E.

1. The teacher made the children memorise the poem by heart. (Remove to.)
2. I had my car repaired at the garage around the corner. (Use past participle.)
3. We were allowed to leave the classroom early. (Or “We were let leave” is rare; normally passive of let is awkward; better to rephrase with “allowed to”. Accept: “We were allowed to leave.” Let is not used in the passive

with a to-infinitive; the correct form “We were let go” is possible in fixed phrases but not “let to leave”.
Correction: “We were allowed to leave.”)

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CHAPTER 3

ADJECTIVE CLAUSES DAN ADJECTIVE PHRASES

By Neneng Yuniarty

In the study of English grammar, the ability to expand and modify noun phrases is a key indicator of advanced language proficiency. Among the most important structures that enable such expansion are **adjective clauses** (also known as relative clauses) and **adjective phrases**. These structures allow speakers and writers to add precision, nuance, and complexity to their expressions, moving beyond simple sentences toward more sophisticated and information-rich discourse.

From a functional perspective, adjective clauses and adjective phrases serve the same core purpose: they modify nouns. However, they differ significantly in terms of structure, level of explicitness, and communicative effect. Adjective clauses contain a full subject-verb construction and are typically introduced by relative pronouns such as *who*, *which*, or *that*. In contrast, adjective phrases are more condensed forms that omit the subject and auxiliary elements, often resulting from the reduction of adjective clauses. This process of reduction is not merely stylistic but reflects an important aspect of linguistic economy and fluency in advanced English use.

At the post-intermediate level, learners are expected to do more than simply identify these structures. They should be able to:

- a. distinguish between defining and non-defining information,
- b. manipulate clause-to-phrase transformations accurately,
- c. and use these forms appropriately in both formal and informal contexts.

Moreover, mastery of adjective clauses and phrases contributes significantly to academic writing. These structures are frequently used in scholarly texts to define concepts, specify references, and integrate multiple pieces of information into a single sentence. For example, instead of producing several short sentences, a proficient writer can embed information efficiently using relative clauses or reduced phrases, thereby improving coherence and cohesion.

From a pedagogical standpoint, these structures also present common challenges. Learners often struggle with the correct choice of relative pronouns, punctuation in non-defining clauses, and the avoidance of errors such as dangling modifiers. Therefore, a detailed and systematic understanding is essential not only for grammatical accuracy but also for effective communication.

This chapter aims to provide a comprehensive exploration of adjective clauses and adjective phrases, focusing on their forms, functions, and usage in real contexts. Through clear explanations and carefully selected examples, learners will develop the ability to use these structures with greater confidence and sophistication.

3.1 Adjective Clause

Adjective clauses, or **relative clauses**, are subordinate clauses that function to modify a noun phrase by embedding additional propositional information within a larger sentence structure. From a syntactic standpoint, they illustrate **clausal embedding**, a process in which one clause is structurally dependent on another. This feature is a key marker of advanced grammatical competence because it reflects the ability to construct hierarchically organized sentences rather than relying on simple linear structures (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002).

From a discourse-functional perspective, adjective clauses contribute to **referential precision**, allowing speakers and writers to identify, classify, and elaborate on entities. In academic discourse, this enables dense information packaging, where multiple ideas are integrated into a single clause complex rather than distributed across several simple sentences (Biber et al., 2002).

Example:

- The researcher *who conducted the experiment* published the results.

Here, the clause adds identifying information while maintaining syntactic cohesion.

3.1.1 Structural Components of Adjective Clauses

An adjective clause consists of three main components, each of which plays a critical role in interpretation:

1. **Antecedent (Head noun):** the noun being modified.
2. **Relative marker:** a pronoun or adverb introducing the clause.

3. Clause body: a finite clause containing a subject–predicate structure.

The relationship between these components is not merely formal but semantic. The antecedent provides the referential anchor, while the relative clause narrows or elaborates its meaning. The choice of relative marker signals grammatical function within the clause (Swan, 2016).

Example:

- The book (*that she recommended*) is insightful.

In this example, "that" functions as the object of the verb "recommended," illustrating how relative markers serve dual roles: as connectors and as clause-internal elements.

3.2.2 Relative Pronouns and Their Functions

Relative pronouns are multifunctional elements that encode both **syntactic roles** and **semantic relationships**. Their selection depends on animacy, grammatical function, and level of formality.

1. Subject Function

When the relative pronoun acts as the subject of the clause, it cannot be omitted:

- The woman *who teaches linguistics* is my lecturer.

Here, "who" functions as the subject of "teaches," making it obligatory.

2. Object Function

When functioning as an object, the relative pronoun may be omitted:

- The article *(that) I read yesterday* was informative.

This omission, known as **zero relativization**, reflects a tendency toward structural economy, especially in spoken English (Biber et al., 2002).

3. Possessive Function

Possessive relative pronouns indicate ownership or association:

- The student *whose thesis won the award* is very talented.

This structure encodes a genitive relationship, which cannot be reduced without loss of meaning.

4. Object of Preposition

Relative pronouns may function as objects of prepositions:

- The company *for which she works* is multinational.

In formal registers, **preposition fronting** is preferred, whereas in informal usage, **preposition stranding** is more common:

- The company *(which) she works for*

This variation reflects stylistic differences across registers (Eastwood, 2011).

5. The Use of “Whom” in Contemporary English

The relative pronoun “**whom**” functions as the **object form** of “who” and is traditionally used when referring to people in object position within an adjective clause.

Examples:

- The student *whom I met yesterday* is very intelligent.
- The professor *to whom I spoke* was very helpful.

In the first example, “whom” functions as the object of the verb “met,” while in the second, it serves as the object of the preposition “to.”

However, in contemporary English usage, particularly in spoken and informal written contexts, “whom” is often replaced by “**who**,” “**that**,” or omitted entirely:

- The student *who I met yesterday* (informal but widely accepted)
- The student *that I met yesterday* (neutral)
- The student *I met yesterday* (zero relative pronoun)

Despite this shift, “whom” remains important in **formal and academic registers**, especially after prepositions and in non-defining clauses:

- The participants, many of *whom* were experts, contributed valuable insights.

According to Swan (2016) and Biber et al. (2002), the use of “whom” has significantly declined in everyday communication but is still maintained in formal writing as a marker of stylistic precision.

3.2.3 Relative Adverbs

Relative adverbs (*where*, *when*, *why*) introduce clauses that modify nouns of place, time, and reason. These forms represent a more abstract relationship compared to relative pronouns, as they encode circumstantial meanings rather than participant roles.

Examples:

- The place *where we met* is now a café.
- The day *when she arrived* was memorable.

Structurally, these can often be paraphrased using prepositional phrases (e.g., *in which*, *on which*), highlighting their underlying syntactic equivalence. However, relative adverbs are generally preferred in less formal contexts due to their simplicity (Swan, 2016).

3.2.4 Defining vs Non-Defining Clauses

1. Defining (Restrictive) Clauses

Defining clauses are essential for identifying the referent of the noun. Without them, the sentence would lack sufficient specificity.

Example:

- Students *who submit their assignments late* will receive penalties.

These clauses are tightly integrated into the noun phrase and do not require punctuation. They are crucial in academic writing when distinguishing between categories or subsets.

2. Non-Defining (Non-Restrictive) Clauses

Non-defining clauses provide supplementary information that is not essential to identifying the referent.

Example:

- My supervisor, *who specializes in syntax*, is very supportive.

These clauses are prosodically and orthographically marked by pauses or commas. Pragmatically, they assume that the referent is already identifiable to the listener or reader (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002).

3.2.5 Zero Relative Pronoun (Ellipsis)

Zero relativization occurs when the relative pronoun is omitted, typically in object position:

Example:

- The paper (*that*) *she presented* received positive feedback.

This process reflects a broader linguistic tendency toward **economy and efficiency**, particularly in spoken discourse. However, overuse or incorrect omission can lead to ambiguity, especially in complex sentences (Biber et al., 2002).

3.2.6 Reduction of Adjective Clauses

Clause reduction is a process by which a full relative clause is transformed into a non-finite structure, resulting in an adjective phrase. This involves the حذف of the relative pronoun and auxiliary verb.

1. Active Reduction

- The researcher *who is conducting the study* → The researcher *conducting the study*

2. Passive Reduction

- The data *that were collected* → The data *collected*

This transformation increases **information density**, a defining feature of academic prose. However, it requires

careful control to avoid ambiguity or dangling modifiers (Azar, 2017).

3.2.7 Adjective Clauses in Academic Writing

In academic contexts, adjective clauses are indispensable for:

- defining key concepts
- specifying categories
- integrating multiple propositions

Example:

- Linguistic competence refers to the knowledge *that speakers have about their language*.

Such constructions contribute to **cohesion**, **precision**, and **lexical density**, enabling writers to present complex ideas efficiently. Corpus-based studies have shown that relative clauses are particularly frequent in academic registers compared to conversation (Biber et al., 2002).

3.2.8 Common Challenges in Acquisition

Learners often face persistent challenges when acquiring adjective clauses:

1. **Misuse of relative pronouns** due to interference from first language structures
2. **Difficulty distinguishing clause types**, especially in punctuation
3. **Overgeneralization of “that”**, particularly in formal writing
4. **Errors in reduction**, leading to dangling or misplaced modifiers

Addressing these issues requires both explicit grammatical instruction and exposure to authentic language use in context (Swan, 2016).

3.3 Adjective Phrase

Adjective phrases are groups of words that function to modify a noun but do not contain a full subject-verb (finite) structure. Unlike adjective clauses, which are finite and explicit, adjective phrases are **non-finite constructions** that represent a more compressed form of modification. This structural reduction reflects a broader tendency in English toward **syntactic economy**, particularly in written and academic registers (Biber et al., 2002).

From a functional perspective, adjective phrases contribute to **descriptive elaboration** and **information density**, allowing speakers and writers to encode additional meaning without increasing the number of clauses. As such, they are essential for producing concise yet sophisticated sentences at the post-intermediate and advanced levels.

Example:

- The girl *wearing a red dress* is my cousin.

Here, the phrase "wearing a red dress" provides descriptive information without forming a complete clause.

3.3.1 Structural Characteristics of Adjective Phrases

Adjective phrases are typically **non-finite** and lack tense marking. They do not include an explicit subject; instead, their understood subject is usually the noun they modify. This implicit relationship requires careful interpretation to avoid ambiguity.

Structurally, adjective phrases may consist of:

- a participle (present or past)
- optional complements or modifiers

Example:

- The man *standing near the door* is my uncle.

In this case, "standing" functions as the head of the phrase, while "near the door" acts as a complement.

According to Huddleston and Pullum (2002), such constructions are classified as **supplementary modifiers**, which expand noun phrases without forming independent clauses.

3.3.2 Types of Adjective Phrases

1. Present Participle Phrases (-ing Forms)

Present participle phrases are derived from the -ing form of verbs and typically express **active or ongoing meanings**. They often correspond to reduced relative clauses in the progressive aspect.

Examples:

- The boy *playing football* is my neighbour.
- The woman *working at the bank* is very friendly.

These constructions imply an underlying clause:

- The boy *who is playing football*

From a discourse perspective, present participle phrases foreground **dynamic actions**, making them particularly useful in narrative and descriptive writing (Biber et al., 2002).

2. Past Participle Phrases (V3 / -ed Forms)

Past participle phrases typically express **passive or completed meanings**. They correspond to reduced passive relative clauses.

Examples:

- The cake *baked by my mother* is delicious.
- The car *damaged in the accident* was repaired.

Underlying forms:

- The cake *that was baked by my mother*

These phrases emphasize the result of an action rather than the agent, aligning with the preference for **impersonal and objective tone** in academic writing (Swan, 2016).

3. Prepositional Phrases as Adjectival Modifiers

Prepositional phrases can also function adjectivally by providing information about location, time, or other relationships.

Examples:

- The book *on the table* is mine.
- The man *in the black suit* is the manager.

Although structurally simpler, these phrases play a crucial role in **spatial and contextual specification**, which is essential for clarity in both spoken and written discourse (Eastwood, 2011).

4. Infinitive Phrases

Infinitive phrases can function as adjective modifiers, often expressing purpose, obligation, or potential.

Examples:

- The students *to be interviewed* are waiting outside.
- The best way *to solve the problem* is through collaboration.

These constructions are particularly common in formal and academic contexts, where they contribute to concise expression of abstract relationships.

3.3.3 Position of Adjective Phrases

Adjective phrases most commonly occur **post-nominally** (after the noun), unlike single-word adjectives which often precede the noun.

Example:

- The students *in the classroom* are taking an exam.

Post-nominal placement allows for greater structural complexity, as the phrase can include complements and modifiers. In some cases, especially in formal or literary styles, adjective phrases may appear in **initial or detached positions**, functioning as sentence-level modifiers.

Example:

- *Exhausted from the journey*, the travelers rested immediately.

Such constructions require careful control to avoid ambiguity, particularly in relation to the implied subject.

3.3.4 Reduction from Adjective Clauses

A significant feature of adjective phrases is their relationship to adjective clauses through **reduction processes**. This transformation involves:

- a. omission of the relative pronoun
- b. omission of the auxiliary verb

Examples:

- The man *who is sitting by the window* → The man *sitting by the window*
- The documents *that were submitted* → The documents *submitted*

This process enhances **lexical density** and is widely used in academic writing to produce more compact sentences. However, it requires that the subject of the phrase be clearly identifiable to prevent misinterpretation (Azar, 2017).

3.3.5 Adjective Phrases in Academic Writing

In academic discourse, adjective phrases are particularly valuable for:

- a. compressing complex information
- b. avoiding repetitive clause structures
- c. increasing textual cohesion

Example:

The data *collected from various sources* were analysed statistically.

Compared to full clauses, such phrases reduce redundancy while maintaining clarity. Corpus-based research indicates that non-finite constructions are significantly more frequent in academic writing than in

conversation, reflecting their role in formal registers (Biber et al., 2002).

3.3.6 Common Challenges in Acquisition

Despite their usefulness, adjective phrases pose several challenges for learners:

1. Dangling modifiers

Walking down the street, the trees looked beautiful.
(Incorrect because the implied subject is unclear)

2. Ambiguity in reduction

Reduced forms may obscure the intended meaning if not carefully constructed

3. Confusion between active and passive meanings

e.g., *the broken window* vs *the breaking window*

4. Overuse or underuse

Learners may rely too heavily on either clauses or phrases instead of balancing both forms

Effective mastery requires awareness of both grammatical form and discourse function, supported by exposure to authentic usage (Swan, 2016).

3.4 Differences Between Adjective Clauses and Adjective Phrases

Although adjective clauses and adjective phrases perform the same general function—modifying nouns—their differences lie primarily in **structural complexity, explicitness, and discourse function**. Adjective clauses are **finite constructions** containing a subject and a verb, while adjective phrases are **non-finite constructions** that omit

these elements. This distinction reflects two different strategies in English grammar: **expansion** (through clauses) and **compression** (through phrases) (Biber et al., 2002).

From a functional perspective, adjective clauses tend to provide more **explicit and detailed information**, whereas adjective phrases offer a more **concise and economical form of expression**.

3.4.1 Structural Differences

The most fundamental difference lies in grammatical structure.

1. **Adjective Clause (finite):** contains subject + verb

The man *who is talking to the manager* looks nervous.

2. **Adjective Phrase (non-finite):** no subject-verb combination

The man *talking to the manager* looks nervous.

In the first sentence, the clause explicitly marks tense and agreement, while in the second, the phrase removes these features, resulting in a more compact structure. According to Huddleston and Pullum (2002), this distinction is central to understanding clause hierarchy in English syntax.

3.4.2 Level of Explicitness and Clarity

Adjective clauses are generally more **explicit**, as they clearly indicate tense, aspect, and subject reference. This makes them particularly useful when clarity is essential.

Example:

- The students *who are studying in the library* will take the test tomorrow.

In contrast, adjective phrases rely on **implicit interpretation**, which may sometimes lead to ambiguity if the context is unclear:

- The students *studying in the library* will take the test tomorrow.

While both sentences are correct, the clause version is clearer in contexts where multiple interpretations are possible (Swan, 2016).

3.4.3 Information Density and Economy

Adjective phrases contribute to **information density**, a key feature of academic and formal writing. By reducing clauses into phrases, writers can present the same information in fewer words.

Comparison:

- The data *that were collected from various sources* were analysed.
- The data *collected from various sources* were analysed.

The second sentence is more concise without losing essential meaning. Corpus studies show that such reductions are more frequent in academic prose, where efficiency and compactness are valued (Biber et al., 2002).

3.4.4 Register and Style Variation

The choice between adjective clauses and phrases often depends on **register (formal vs informal)** and **communicative purpose**.

- **Adjective clauses** are more common in spoken language and narrative contexts, where clarity and step-by-step information are important.
- **Adjective phrases** are more frequent in academic and formal writing, where brevity and density are prioritized.

Example (spoken style):

- The guy *who is sitting next to me* is my friend.

Example (written/academic style):

- The student *sitting next to me* is my research partner.

This variation reflects broader stylistic patterns in English usage (Eastwood, 2011).

3.4.5 Transformational Relationship

Adjective phrases are often derived from adjective clauses through **reduction processes**, making the two structures closely related rather than entirely separate.

Examples:

- The woman *who is wearing a blue dress* → The woman *wearing a blue dress*
- The report *that was published last year* → The report *published last year*

This relationship highlights how speakers can choose between more explicit and more economical forms depending on context (Azar, 2017).

3.4.6 Potential for Ambiguity and Error

While adjective phrases offer efficiency, they also increase the risk of **ambiguity and grammatical errors**, particularly in the case of dangling modifiers.

Incorrect:

- Walking through the park, the flowers looked beautiful.

Correct:

- Walking through the park, *I saw* beautiful flowers.

Adjective clauses, by contrast, reduce ambiguity because they include an explicit subject:

- The flowers *that were in the park* looked beautiful.

Thus, learners must balance clarity and conciseness when choosing between the two forms (Swan, 2016).

3.4.7 Summary of Key Differences

Aspect	Adjective Clause	Adjective Phrase
Structure	Finite (subject + verb)	Non-finite (no subject-verb)
Explicitness	High	Lower
Length	Longer	Shorter
Clarity	More explicit	Potentially ambiguous
Usage	Spoken & general writing	Academic & formal writing

Understanding these differences enables learners to make informed grammatical choices, enhancing both **accuracy** and **stylistic sophistication** in English communication.

3.5 Exercises

A. Identification and Analysis

Identify whether the underlined structure is an **adjective clause** or an **adjective phrase**, and explain its grammatical function (subject, object, or modifier type).

1. The article *that was published in 2020* has been widely cited.
2. The students *working on the project* presented their findings.
3. The professor *who teaches syntax* received an award.
4. The data *collected from multiple sources* were analysed statistically.
5. The book *that I bought yesterday* is very useful.
6. The man *wearing a black jacket* is my lecturer.
7. The theory *which explains language acquisition* is widely accepted.
8. The students *chosen for the program* will study abroad.
9. The researcher *whom I interviewed* provided useful insights.
10. The professor *to whom I spoke* was very helpful.

B. Clause–Phrase Transformation

Rewrite the sentences by reducing the adjective clauses into adjective phrases where possible.

1. The researcher who is conducting the experiment will publish the results.

2. The report that was submitted yesterday needs revision.
3. The students who are participating in the program must register early.
4. The man who is talking to the manager looks nervous.
5. The data that were collected from various sources were analysed.
6. The woman who is wearing a red dress is my neighbour.
7. The documents that were reviewed by the committee were approved.
8. The boy who is playing in the yard is my cousin.
9. The article that was written by the researcher is influential.
10. The students who are studying in the library will take the test.

C. Phrase-Clause Expansion

Expand the adjective phrases into full adjective clauses.

1. The man sitting by the window is my uncle.
2. The documents submitted last week have been approved.
3. The girl wearing a blue jacket is my classmate.
4. The students participating in the seminar are from various universities.
5. The car parked outside belongs to my neighbour.
6. The book placed on the table is mine.

7. The people waiting in line are getting impatient.
8. The research conducted by the team was successful.
9. The house built in 1990 is still in good condition.
10. The students studying in the classroom are preparing for the exam.

D. Error Analysis and Correction

Each sentence contains an error related to adjective clauses or phrases. Identify and correct it.

1. The book who I borrowed was very interesting.
2. Walking through the campus, the buildings looked modern.
3. The students which submitted their work early were praised.
4. My supervisor who is very supportive always helps me. (intended non-defining clause)
5. The man which is talking to the manager looks nervous.
6. The article wrote by the researcher is influential.
7. The girl which wearing a blue dress is my sister.
8. The students studying in the library is taking the test.
9. The report that submitted yesterday needs revision.
10. The student who I met yesterday was very helpful. (formal context)

E. Academic Sentence Construction

Combine each pair of sentences into **one sentence** using either an adjective clause or an adjective phrase. Choose the most appropriate form.

1. The theory is widely accepted. It explains language acquisition.
2. The researcher is well known. She published several articles on syntax.
3. The data were incomplete. They were collected during the survey.
4. The book is very popular. It was written by the professor.
5. The students are talented. They won the competition.
6. The article is interesting. It discusses linguistic theory.
7. The man is my neighbour. He is talking to the manager.
8. The report is important. It was submitted yesterday.
9. The woman is my lecturer. She teaches grammar.
10. The house is very old. It was built in 1900.

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CHAPTER 4

NOUN CLAUSE, REPORTED SPEECH, AND SUBJUNCTIVE

By Andi Haerati Alimuddin

Grammar plays an important role in English language learning because it enables learners to communicate ideas accurately and effectively in both spoken and written contexts. A good understanding of grammar helps learners construct meaningful sentences and express ideas clearly in various communication situations. Grammar also supports the development of communicative competence, which is essential for academic, professional, and everyday communication (Larsen-Freeman & Celce-Murcia, 2015).

Among the many grammatical structures in English, noun clauses, reported speech, and subjunctive are important because they help learners produce more complex and sophisticated language. Noun clauses enable learners to expand ideas within sentences, reported speech allows them to report information from other sources, and subjunctive helps them express suggestions, recommendations, wishes, and hypothetical situations appropriately (Parrott, 2021).

These three grammar structures are closely related because they contribute to the development of advanced grammatical competence and support learners in producing both spoken and written discourse effectively. Their use is frequently found in academic texts, formal communication,

and authentic language use, making them essential components of English proficiency (Biber, Conrad, & Leech, 2002).

This chapter discusses the definitions, functions, patterns, and practical applications of noun clauses, reported speech, and subjunctive. The explanations are presented in simple academic English to help learners understand the concepts and apply them appropriately in different communication contexts.

4.1 Noun Clause

4.1.1 Definition of Noun Clause

A noun clause is a dependent clause that functions as a noun within a sentence. Like a noun, it can serve as a subject, object, complement, or object of a preposition. Because it is a dependent clause, it cannot stand alone as a complete sentence and requires a main clause to express a complete meaning (Larsen-Freeman & Celce-Murcia, 2015; Parrott, 2021).

Noun clauses are commonly introduced by question words such as *what*, *who*, *whom*, *whose*, *where*, *when*, *why*, and *how*, as well as conjunctions such as *that*, *if*, and *whether* (Parrott, 2021).

Examples:

1. ***What she said*** surprised everyone.
2. I know ***that he is honest***.
3. She asked ***whether we were ready***.

In the examples above, the italicized expressions function as noun clauses because they perform the same grammatical roles as nouns within the sentences.

4.1.2 Functions of Noun Clause

Noun clauses have several functions in sentences.

1. As Subject

A noun clause can function as the subject of a sentence. Examples:

- a. ***What he explained*** was very interesting.
- b. ***Whether she will come*** is still uncertain.

2. Object

A noun clause can function as the object after a verb. Examples:

- a. The teacher explained ***why the test was postponed***.
- b. I believe ***that English is important***.

3. As Subject Complement

A noun clause can also function as a complement. Examples:

- a. The problem is ***that students rarely practice speaking***.
- b. The question is ***whether they understand the lesson***.

4. As Object of Preposition

A noun clause can appear after a preposition. Examples:

- a. We are worried about ***what will happen next***.
- b. She is interested in ***how online learning works***.

4.2.3 Patterns of Noun Clause

Noun clauses appear in various forms and structures. Although they function as nouns, their patterns depend on the type of introductory word used, such as question words, conjunctions, or infinitive constructions. Familiarity with these patterns enables learners to construct more complex and grammatically accurate sentences. Table 4.1 presents the most common patterns of noun clauses along with their examples.

Table 4. 1 Common Patterns of Noun Clause

Pattern	Example
Question Word + Subject + Verb	I don't know <i>who lives there.</i>
That + Subject + Verb	I think <i>that he is a good actor.</i>
Whether/If + Subject + Verb	I wonder <i>whether he needs help.</i>
Wh-word + Infinitive	Jim told us <i>where to find it.</i>

Sumber: Azar (2002)

Table 4.1 presents the most common patterns of noun clauses in English. The table shows that noun clauses can be introduced by question words (*wh-words*), the conjunction *that*, *whether/if*, or a combination of a *wh-word* and an infinitive. Although the structures vary, all noun clauses function as nouns within a sentence and may serve as subjects, objects, complements, or objects of prepositions. Understanding these patterns helps learners construct more complex and grammatically accurate sentences.

4.2 Reported Speech

4.2.1 Definition of Reported Speech

Reported speech, also called indirect speech, is used to report what someone said without quoting the exact words. In reported speech, the speaker conveys the meaning or idea of the original message rather than repeating the speaker's exact words. Unlike direct speech, reported speech does not use quotation marks, and changes in pronouns, verb forms, and time expressions may occur depending on the context of the reported statement (Azar, 2003).

Example:

1. Direct Speech : "I am tired," she said.
Reported Speech : She said that she was tired.
2. Direct Speech : "We are studying English," the students said.
Reported Speech : The students said that they were studying English.
3. Direct Speech : "I will finish the assignment tomorrow," John said.
Reported Speech : John said that he would finish the assignment the next day.
4. Direct Speech : "I can speak Japanese," Maria said.
Reported Speech : Maria said that she could speak Japanese.
5. Direct Speech : "We have completed the project," the team leader said.
Reported Speech : The team leader said that they had completed the project.

4.3.2 Types of Reported Speech

Reported speech can be used to report different types of utterances, including statements, questions, commands, and requests. Each type follows specific grammatical patterns depending on the purpose and meaning of the original speech. Understanding these types helps learners report information accurately and appropriately in various communication contexts

1. Statements

Reported speech can be used to report statements.
Examples:

- Direct: "They study English every day," the teacher said.
- Reported: The teacher said that they studied English every day.

2. Questions

Reported speech can also report questions.
Examples:

- Direct: "Where do you live?" she asked.
- Reported: She asked where I lived.

3. Commands and Requests

Reported speech is used for commands or requests.
Examples:

- Direct: "Please open the window," he said.
- Reported: He asked me to open the window.

4.3.3 Tense in Reported Speech

When direct speech is changed into reported speech, the verb tense often shifts to indicate that the statement is being reported at a later time. This process is commonly known as tense backshifting. However, the changes depend on the tense used in the original statement and the reporting context. The most common tense changes in reported speech are presented in Table 2.2

Table 4. 2 Tense Changes in Reported Speech

Direct Speech	Reported Speech
Simple Present	Simple Past
Present Continuous	Past Continuous
Present Perfect	Past Perfect
Simple Past	Past Perfect
Will	Would
Can	Could
May	Might

4.3.4 Changes of Time and Place Expressions

Besides changes in verb tense, reported speech may also require changes in expressions of time and place. These changes help maintain the correct meaning and relationship between the original statement and the reported message. Some common changes of time and place expressions are presented in Table 4.3.

Direct Speech	Reported Speech
now	then
today	that day
tomorrow	the next day
yesterday	the previous day
here	there
this	that
now	then

4.3.5 Steps to Change Direct Speech into Reported Speech

Converting direct speech into reported speech requires several grammatical adjustments to ensure that the original meaning is accurately conveyed. These adjustments may involve changes in pronouns, verb tenses, and time expressions depending on the context of the reported message. The following steps provide a general guide for transforming direct speech into reported speech correctly.

1. Identify the reporting verb.
2. Change the pronoun if necessary.
3. Change the tense.
4. Adjust time and place expressions.
5. Remove quotation marks.

Example:

- Direct Speech: "We will finish the assignment tomorrow," they said.

- Reported Speech: They said that they would finish the assignment the next day.

4.3.6 Common Mistakes in Reported Speech

When using reported speech, learners may make several common grammatical errors. These errors often involve tense changes, pronoun usage, sentence structure, and time expressions. Being aware of these mistakes can help learners avoid errors and improve their accuracy in reporting information.

1. Not changing the tense.
2. Using incorrect pronouns.
3. Using question structure in indirect questions.
4. Forgetting to change time expressions.

Example:

- Incorrect: She asked where did I go.
- Correct: She asked where I went.

4.4 Subjunctive

4.4.1 Definition of Subjunctive

Subjunctive is a grammar form used to express suggestions, wishes, recommendations, or unreal situations. It is also used to express demands, requests, and hypothetical conditions that may influence future actions. Although the subjunctive is used in limited situations, it remains an important feature of English grammar because it enables speakers and writers to express attitudes, expectations, desires, and situations that are contrary to reality or not yet realized (Swick, 2019).

Examples:

1. I suggest that he study harder.
2. If I were a teacher, I would motivate my students.
3. The lecturer recommended that every student attend the workshop.
4. She wishes she were able to speak English fluently.
5. It is important that all participants arrive on time.

4.4.2 Types of Subjunctive

1. Present Subjunctive

One of the most common forms of the subjunctive is the present subjunctive. This form is frequently used in formal English to express suggestions, recommendations, demands, requests, and necessities. In this structure, the base form of the verb is used regardless of the subject.

Pattern:

- **Subject + Verb + that + Subject + Verb 1**

Examples:

- a. The lecturer recommends that students submit the assignment on time.
- b. It is essential that every participant attend the seminar.
- c. The teacher suggested that the students practice speaking every day.
- d. The manager requested that all employees arrive before 8 a.m.
- e. The committee insisted that the proposal be revised before submission.

2. Past Subjunctive

The past subjunctive is used to express situations that are unreal, imaginary, or contrary to fact. It commonly appears in conditional sentences and expressions of wishes to describe circumstances that do not reflect reality.

Pattern:

1. **If + Subject + were + Complement, Subject + would/could/might + Verb 1**

Examples:

- a. If I were you, I would continue the research.
2. If she were taller, she could play basketball professionally.
 - b. If they were here, they would join the discussion.

3. **Subject + wish(es) + Subject + were + Complement**

Examples:

- a. I wish I were more confident.
- b. She wishes she were at home now.
- c. We wish the weather were better.

4.4.3 Subjunctive in Formal English

Although the subjunctive is less common in everyday conversation, it continues to play an important role in formal English. It is frequently used in academic writing, official documents, professional communication, and formal recommendations where precision and formality are required. Examples:

1. The committee suggested that the proposal be revised.
2. It is important that every researcher follow ethical guidelines.
3. The principal recommended that all teachers attend the training program.
4. The organization requested that the report be submitted by Friday.
5. It is essential that every participant complete the registration process.

4.4.4 Common Verbs and Expressions in Subjunctive

Certain verbs and expressions are commonly followed by the subjunctive form. These words usually convey suggestions, recommendations, requests, demands, or importance. Familiarity with these verbs and expressions can help learners recognize and apply the subjunctive more effectively.

Table 4. 3 Verbs and Expressions in Subjunctive

Verbs	Expressions
suggest	it is important
recommend	it is necessary
insist	it is essential
demand	it is advisable
request	it is crucial

The verbs *suggest*, *recommend*, *insist*, *demand*, and *request* are typically used to express recommendations, requests, or demands. Similarly, expressions such as *it is important*, *it is necessary*, *it is essential*, *it is advisable*, and *it is crucial* emphasize necessity, importance, or obligation. When these verbs and expressions are followed by a *that-clause*, the base form of the verb is used regardless of the subject. Understanding these patterns can help learners identify and use the subjunctive correctly in formal and academic communication.

4.4.5 Common Mistakes in Using Subjunctive

Despite its importance in formal English, the subjunctive can be challenging for learners because its structures differ from ordinary verb patterns. As a result, students often make grammatical errors when using the subjunctive. Understanding these common mistakes can help learners improve their accuracy and confidence in using this structure.

1. Using verbs with -s.
 - Incorrect: The teacher suggested that he studies harder.
 - Correct: The teacher suggested that he study harder.
2. Using “was” instead of “were” in unreal situations.
 - Incorrect: If I was you, I would apply for the scholarship.
 - Correct: If I were you, I would apply for the scholarship.

4.5 Integration of Noun Clauses, Reported Speech, and Subjunctive in English Learning

Noun clauses, reported speech, and subjunctive are closely related grammar structures that contribute to learners' ability to communicate effectively in English. Noun clauses help learners construct more complex and meaningful sentences, reported speech enables them to convey information from other sources accurately, and subjunctive allows them to express suggestions, recommendations, wishes, and hypothetical situations appropriately. Mastering these structures can improve both grammatical accuracy and communicative competence.

In contemporary English language teaching, grammar instruction should not be limited to the explanation of rules and sentence patterns. Instead, it should be integrated with meaningful communication activities that encourage learners to use grammar in authentic contexts. Teachers can facilitate grammar learning through discussion-based activities, role plays, academic writing tasks, project-based learning, and collaborative learning activities.

In addition, technology integration has become an important component of English language teaching. Digital technologies provide opportunities for learners to access learning materials, participate in interactive activities, and practice language skills beyond the classroom. Research by Alimuddin (2025) found that students had positive perceptions of blended learning because it offered flexibility, enhanced interaction, and supported English learning during and after the COVID-19 pandemic. Similarly, Alimuddin, Jabu, and Basri (2025) reported that smart classroom-based blended learning created positive learning experiences and increased student engagement in English learning.

Teachers can integrate grammar instruction with technology-assisted learning in various ways. For example, students can report interview results using reported speech through online presentations, write reflective essays containing noun clauses using collaborative writing platforms, and provide recommendations or suggestions using subjunctive structures in online discussions. Interactive quizzes, learning management systems, smart classroom technologies, and digital collaboration tools can also be used to reinforce grammar learning in meaningful contexts.

By integrating grammar instruction with communication activities and technology-enhanced learning environments, students are more likely to develop a deeper understanding of noun clauses, reported speech, and subjunctive. Such an approach not only improves grammatical knowledge but also helps learners apply these structures effectively in real-life communication and academic settings.

Noun clauses, reported speech, and subjunctive are important grammar topics in learning English. These grammar structures help students create more complex sentences, report information accurately, and express suggestions, recommendations, wishes, and hypothetical situations effectively. As a result, mastering these structures can improve students' writing, speaking, and overall communication skills.

To facilitate meaningful grammar learning, teachers should provide interactive and contextualized learning activities that encourage students to use grammar in authentic communication. In addition, the integration of technology can support grammar instruction by providing opportunities for practice, collaboration, and active engagement. Through continuous practice and meaningful application, students can develop a better understanding of

these grammar structures and use them more confidently in various communication contexts.

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CHAPTER 5

ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

By Muflihatun Haqiqiyah

1. Definition and Function

According to Quirk (1985), he stated that adverbial clause is the modification of the verb phrase or the entire clause. Teachers can explain to the students from theories, the simple patterns and sentences to make them more understand.

George Yule in English grammar (1998) explained that adverbial clauses involves the addition of circumstantial information in the using subordinate clauses. In the other words, an adverbial clause is a group of words that contains a subject and a verb, and it serves the same purpose as an adverb. It modifies the main clause by providing additional information about when, where, why, how, or under what conditions from the action happened. Unlike independent clauses, adverbial clauses cannot stand alone as complete sentences; they depend on the main clause for context.

2. Teaching Grammar

In learning structure, teacher must often give tasks to students. Tasks are usually “bigger” in their ultimate ends than techniques. No small effort is demanded in designing effective tasks, as Johnson (2003) and Nunan (2004) ably demonstrate. It makes an important distinction between target tasks, which students must

accomplish beyond the classroom, and pedagogical tasks which form the nucleus of the classroom activity.

3. Adverbial Clauses

a. Adverbial Clauses

Adverb Clause answers the questions about when, where, why, how far and how often to be an action happened. It usually begins with because, if, when, since, while and although etc.

For example:

- I will sleep in my room when you arrive home.” (explains when I sleep)
- She studied hard because she wanted to pass the exam.” (Explains why He studies hard)

4. The patterns of Adverbial Clause

Generally, adverb clause is started with subordinating conjunction. The function of subordinating conjunction is to connect adverb clause and main clause because at the end they will make complex sentences. Complex sentences will make a sentence becomes more complete and clearer.

The formula of adverbial clauses:

Subordinate Conjunction + S + V +/- ...

The using of Adverbial clause in a sentence:

Adverb clause will be placed at the begin, in the middle or at the end of sentences. The explanation of the use of them at the below:

5.1 Adverb Clause at the Beginning of Sentences

Adverbial clauses in front-position is to emphasize circumstances, contrasts and conditions (Michael Swan, 2005). In the beginning of sentences. Adverb clause gives some preliminary information before main ideas are conveyed in main clauses. Generally, there is a comma to separate adverb clause from the main clause.

For example:

- a. Because she was cooking, we decided to go to your house.
- b. If She goes to the school, you can go out now.
- c. If the weather is good, we go to beach together

5.2 Adverb Clause in the Middle of Sentences

Adverbial clauses may occur in medial position when the writer wants to interrupt the main clause for emphasis or stylistic effect (Greenbaum & Nelson, 2002). In this case, it should be between subject and predicate from the main clause. The purpose is that the additional information from the adverb clause does not disturb main clause.

Besides that, the position of comma is in before and after and verb clause to separate from the main clause.

For example:

- a. The teachers, who had taught in the class, taken the parcel in the office
- b. My daughter, although she was tired, gone to the school on foot.

5.3 Adverb Clause in the End of Sentences

Azar (1999) told that an adverb clause often comes at the end of a sentence to modify the action in the dependent of clause. The function is to give an additional information after main clause. The pattern of sentences is used to show the reason, times, requirements, purposes, or manners from the action in main clause.

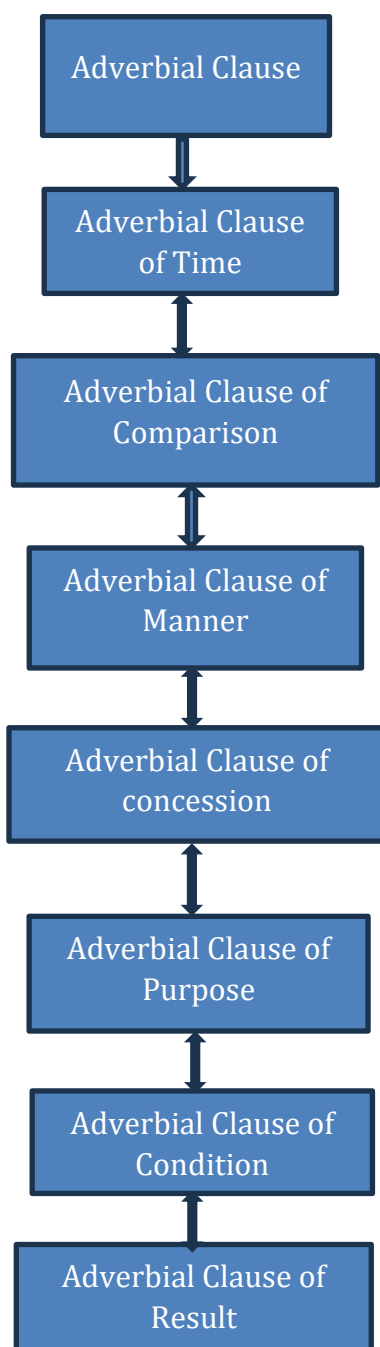
Remember that we do not need to put comma before adverb clause except that to show another additional clarification.

For example:

- a. She goes to the market because the weather is good
- b. She stayed home since she was feeling unwell.
- c. I do not come to the office because I am sick

5.4 The types of Adverb Clauses

Frank (1972) mentioned that there are 7 kinds of Adverb clauses, namely Adverb Clause of Time, Adverb Clause of Place, Adverb Clause of Reason, Adverb Clause of Purpose, Adverb Clause of Condition, Adverb Clause of Manner, dan Adverb Clause of Contrast.



a. Adverb Clause of Time

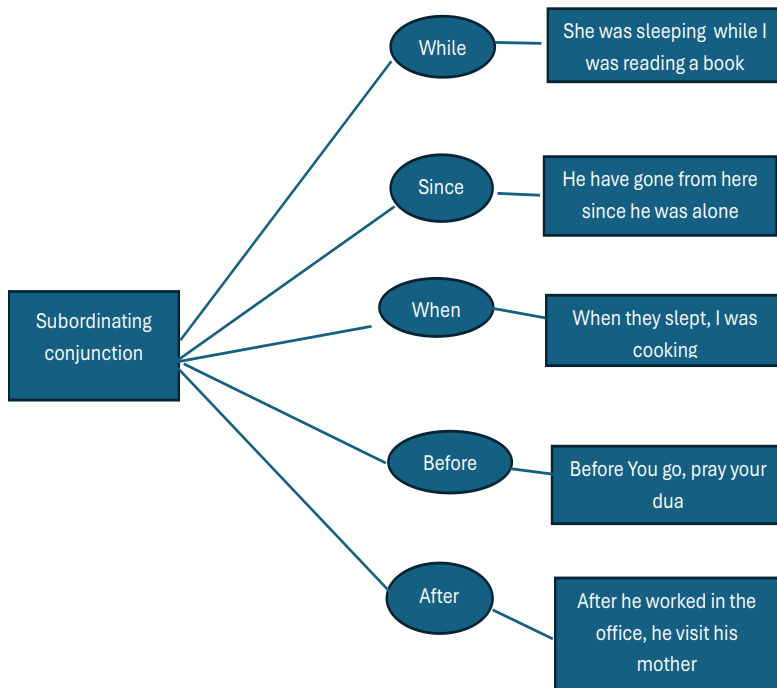
Adverb clause of time gives some information about when the action is happened. Basically, the conjunction used are “when, “while, “after, before”, and as

For example:

- a. When I cooked in the kitchen, my son had already slept.
- b. After we finish my homework, we will have dinner in the restaurant.

The Formula is :

1. Main Clause + Adverbial Clause
2. Adverbial Clause + Main Clause



Exercises

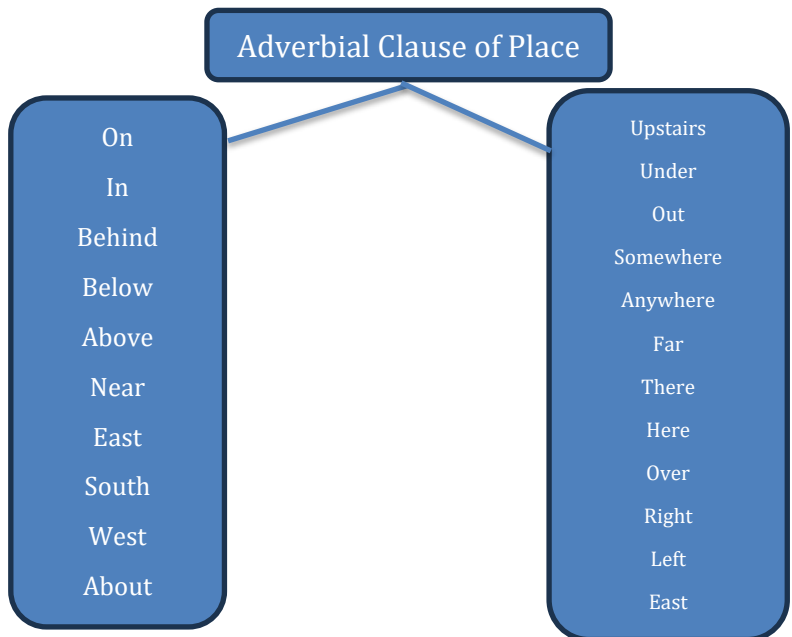
1. My mother canceled her travelling she was sick
2. Tini and Tina stayed in my house the weather was good

b. Adverb Clause of Place

If we want to give an explanation about where something happened, we can use adverb clause of place. The conjunction like where and “wherever” (di mana pun) can be used in this adverb.

For example:

- We will draw something wherever we find a beautiful spot.
- Where there is a will, there is a way
- I will buy cakes wherever I look a baker

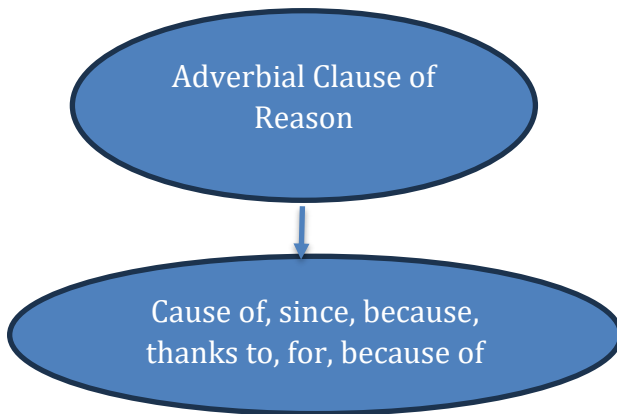


c. Adverb Clause of Reason / Result

To tell the reasons or causes from the action, we can use adverb clause of reason. The suitable conjunction to adverb clause of reason are because, since, as, and due to the real action .

For example:

- Because the sun shines, we go out together.
- He didn't study mathematic as he didn't like it at all.
- They live in this village since 1992

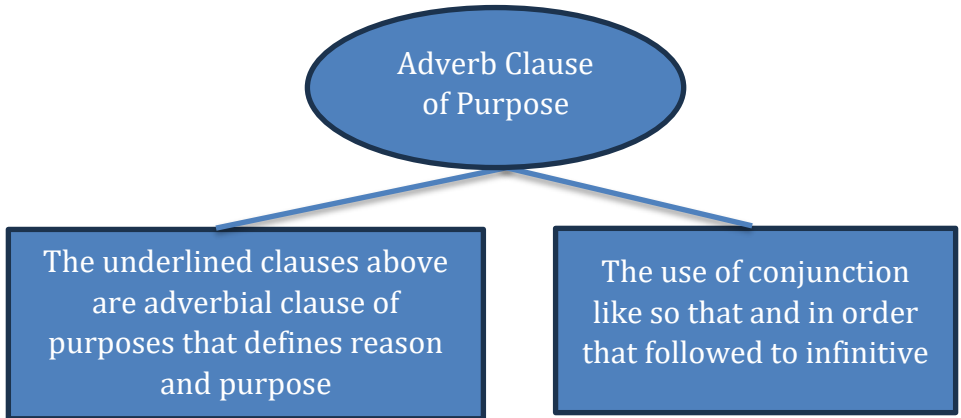


d. Adverb Clause of Purpose

The role of Adverb clause of purpose is to deliver the messages about the aims from some activities and we can use the general conjunction such as, so that, "in order that", "to), and in case" (to predict).

For example:

- We studied hard **so that** we could get the high score.
- I brought my umbrella **in case** it rains.
- I sat here **in order that** I could listen your story



e. Adverb of Condition

These clause is to express some informations needed about the condition that should be fulfilled so that the actions could be happened.

The conjunction that often used are if, "unless", "provided that), dan "in case:

- If you are rich, you will buy a new mobile
- We will held the meeting unless it rains.
- If we have much money, we will go abroad
- If I am smart, I will teach you seriously

Adverb clause of condition
(If Only, in case, unless, Even If)

f. Adverb Clause of Manner

Adverb clause of manner is aimed to convey how the moments is done.

The conjunction are, as if, “as though”, “the way”, “just as, dan “like.

For example:

- He goes to abroad as if he were a rich man.
- She danced like nobody was watching.

Adverb of Manner

Politely
Kindly
Honestly
Well
Anxiously

Blindly
Obviously
Neatly
Easily
Fast

Exercises

- a. He runs than You do
- b. She always speaks
- c. I can finish this homework

g. Adverbial Clause of Comparison

These clauses combine two statements which contrast with the other or make it seem surprising. The common subordinating conjunctions like although, though, even though, despite, in spite of, whereas, while, even if and however”.

Adverbial Clauses of Comparison

1. He is happy because se gets high score
2. We can swim as though the swimming pool is deep
3. Arman can sit here whereas his mother sits before

5.5 Reduced Adverbial Clauses

Quirk (1985) and Azar (1999) assumed that the adverbial clauses can be reduced with condensing the versions of adverb clauses. An adverb clause can be reduced successfully use the same subject of the dependent (the adverb clause) and independent clause

To reduce adverb clauses of time, follow these steps:

1. The subject of the “full” form of the sentence should refer to the same entity as the main-clause subject, and it must be removed.
2. Remove the form of BE—either as the main verb or as part of a progressive verb.
3. We can change a simple present or simple past like retain the-ing part of a progressive verb to the -ing form.

4. For passive voice, change the verb in the adverb clause to the past participle form (-ed form)

For example, consider the following sentence:

"When Sandra graduated from university, she applied for a job."

For teachers who have never taught before, It is very useful to always write the lesson plan about this material. Teachers can stimulate students to make a sentence relates with adverb clause. There are many theories like conjunction. In this case, students can be asked to identify, complete and combine the sentences based on the explanation above.

Sometimes, students can make mistakes about this because they lack of vocabularies so they encounter some difficulties to understand it. Teachers also can make worksheet to make students easy in understanding the explanation. It is as usual problem faced for teachers to explain to the students more understand.

In linguistics, adverbial clauses are more than just "sentence add-ons." The analysis of structural hierarchy, their movement (mobility), and how they link meaning between ideas include in different grammatical theories.

Here are the core theories regarding adverbial clauses:

1. X-Bar Theory: The "Adjunct" Perspective

According to Chomsky's X-bar theory (1972), adverbial clauses are primarily viewed as adjuncts in formal Generative Grammar. The combination of sentences should be attended. The using of conjunction always becomes a part of unseparated for teachers' explanation. There are so many conjunctions in grammar and almost all the conjunctions must be known by the students.

The Theory: Unlike "complements" (which are required by a verb, like the object in I know [that he left]), adverbial clauses are optional. Not all the theories about adverbial clauses can be taught to the students. Because there is no pressure about this, so teacher can choose the material as simple as possible to the students when they learn about structure.

Structural Representation: They are "attached" to the phrase they modify (usually the Verb Phrase or the entire Tense Phrase) at a higher level. This explains why you can stack them: "He left [because he was tired] [after the party ended]." It means that teaching English at senior high school or university is more capable than in low level like secondary school or elementary school.

According to Brown (2007), students at high level have so many vocabularies when they learn English as a second language. Teaching teens are an age of transition, confusion, self-consciousness, growth and changing bodies and minds. Perhaps, teaching in this level must be have simple method in implementing the theory.

2. Cinque's Hierarchy (Cartographic Theory)

Guglielmo Cinque (1999) proposed that adverbs and adverbial clauses aren't placed randomly but follow a rigid, universal hierarchy across all languages. When students are asked to learn English, teacher must have suitable method to explore their material in order that students feel easy to comprehend teachers' explanation in the class. Not all students have same knowledge in structure because they come from different background.

The Theory: Every type of adverbial (Time, Manner, Mood, etc.) has a specific "slot" or functional projection in the mental architecture of a sentence.

The explanation of this theory should be detailed because not all students have already understood about this. The difference of social background becomes the first reason to the students in learning foreign language. Factors surrounding ego, self image and self esteem are being sensitive problems.

- The Order: Even if a language allows some flexibility, there is an underlying sequence:
- Speech Act > Evaluative > Evidential > Epistemic > Tense > Frequency > Manner

Example: You naturally say "He [evidently] [usually] [quickly] eats," but you would rarely say "He [quickly] [usually] [evidently] eats" without sounding awkward.

One of the first things we notice that teacher should assess students' speech not only from their spoken but also from the written like grammar. Because when they interact with another people, they must also respond something that they do not understand what they talked. This information becomes common thing but it is so useful for the listeners. The most important thing when we share our knowledge is students have to know their cultural and situational knowledge.

3. Role and Reference Grammar (RRG): The Nexus Theory

RRG(1984) looks at how clauses "bond" together. It identifies three types of relationship (Nexus):

- Coordination: Two independent clauses (I cooked and he cleaned).
- Subordination: One clause is inside another (I know [that he is here]).
- Adjunction (Co-subordination): This is where most adverbial clauses live. They are "peripheral." They don't fill a hole in the main verb's meaning; instead,

they share the same "operators" (like tense or mood) as the main clause while remaining structurally distinct.

4. Semantic Framing & Mobility Theory

This theory focuses on positioning and why we move adverbial clauses.

Initial Position (The Frame): When a clause comes first ([Because it rained], the game was canceled), it acts as a cognitive frame. It sets the scene or provides the "common ground" before the new information is delivered.

According to (Slade, 1990), speech is dynamic, therefore it is much more difficult for the speakers to predict the exact direction the interaction will take. Spoken and written texts are produced give rise to a further linguistic difference. The immediate context as written context are not tied, the result still can be drafted and redrafted until the writer produces a final and polished versions. In contrast, the production of spoken texts as the speaker proceeds, and as a result that hesitations, repetitions, overlaps and incomplete clauses are as the result of speech.

Intellectual capacity adds abstract operational thought around the age of 12. Therefore, some sophisticated intellectual processing is increasingly possible. Complex problems can be solved with logical thinking. This means that having some impacts in linguistic metalanguage theoretically. A factor of the attention a learner places on the task in linguistic metalanguage.

Final Position (The Add-on): When it comes last (The game was canceled [because it rained]), it acts as an assertion or an explanation for a statement already made.

Mobility: Theories of mobility suggest that while adverbial clauses are "mobile," their movement changes the thematic focus of the sentence, even if the literal meaning stays the same.

Halliday (1989) suggests that the characteristics of written language is its lexical density while spoken language has a greater degree of grammatical intricacy. The form of communication is dominant used in some social contexts spoken language. For example in educational contexts, we use both spoken and written in other contexts. Although in this context written language is given more status.

Type of Adverb Clause	Common Subordinating Conjunctions	What does it do/What question does it answer?	Example (clause in italics)
Location	<i>where, wherever, anywhere</i>	Shows place, answering "where?"	"The rabbit can go <i>anywhere he wants.</i> "
Time	<i>after, until, before, by the time, since, when, while, as long as, as soon as</i>	Shows time, answering "when?"	You can't have ice cream <i>until you eat your dinner.</i> "
Reason	<i>Since, because, as</i>	Answers "why?"	The dad won't eat cotton candy <i>because he doesn't like it.</i>
Condition	Usually begins with <i>if</i> or <i>unless</i>	Answers conditions that need to exist for something to happen	<i>If the boy has a burger,</i> he won't want to eat carrots.
Degree/Comparison	<i>As _____ as, more than/less than, than</i>	Answers "to what extent?" or compares two things	Ants love candy <i>as much as humans do.</i>
Concession	<i>While, though, although, even though, even if</i>	Gives contrasting statements	<i>While I used to love candy,</i> I don't like it anymore.
Manner	<i>As, like</i>	Answers "how?"	The rabbit is eating those carrots <i>like he's never been fed.</i>

Worksheet: Adverbial Clause

A. Choose the appropriate conjunction!

(because, although, when, if, before, after, while)

1. I slept at home _____ I was alone.
2. _____ you are rich, you will buy a new car.
3. She was studying _____ she passed the test.
4. _____ he was sad, he continued working in the office.
5. We cleaned our house _____ we went to school in the morning.
6. _____ the movie ended, everyone clapped.
7. I was cleaning my kitchen _____ my mother was teaching in the school.

B. Combine these sentences using adverbial clause

For example:

I was tired. I finished my homework.

→ Although I was tired, I finished my homework.

1. It rains. She goes to the school.
2. My father was not healthy. He played football yesterday
3. He didn't go to school. He was sick.
4. You heat ice. It melts.
5. I will spend my time. My mother is at home.

C. Choose the correct adverbial clause

(Choose: time, reason, condition, contrast)

Because it rained, she did not go out. → _____

When the sun shined, we went outside. → _____

If you exercise regularly, you will stay healthy

→ _____

Although he is smart, he is not arrogant → _____

After I had breakfast, I visited my mother in the hospital

→ _____

D. Complete these sentences

I will stay here until _____.

Because _____, I was late.

Although _____, she smiled happily.

If _____, we will continue our trip.

While _____, my father listened to music.

Key answers

A.

1. because
2. if
3. when
4. although
5. before
6. after
7. while

B.

1. Although It rains. She goes to the school
2. My father was not healthy. He played football yesterday
3. He didn't go to school because He was sick

4. If you heat ice, it melts
5. I will spend my time after My mother is at home

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