



اللغة الإنجليزية

# ENGLISH STRUCTURE II

رقم المقرر : 5354



Course: Structure (2) /No. (5354)

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## PREFACE

### COURSE DESCRIPTION

Course Title : **STRUCTURE (II)**  
Course Number : 5354  
Credit Hours : 3  
Course Prerequisite : **STRUCTURE (I)** 5252

*Structure (II)* is a three-credit hour compulsory course in the B.A. Programme in Education/English Language. It is the second of two courses that deal with English structure, and hence has a prerequisite, namely *Structure (I)*. However, unlike *Structure (I)*, which is a second-year course dealing with the simple sentence, *Structure (II)* is an advanced third-year course that deals primarily with complex, compound and complex-compound sentences.

The two courses, *Structure (I)* and *Structure (II)*, complement each other and attach equal significance to both theory and practice. They should thus be treated as one organic whole in terms of content; method of teaching; mode of presentation, and evaluation.

### COURSE OBJECTIVES

Upon completing this course you should be able to:

1. recognize complex and compound sentences and use them appropriately and correctly,
2. recognize and use relative clauses, correctly and appropriately,
3. recognize and use nominal clauses correctly and appropriately,
4. recognize and use adverbial clauses correctly and appropriately,
5. be aware of clause coordinators and subordinators and use them correctly,
6. be aware of sentence connectors and use them correctly,
7. be aware of clausal ellipsis and use ellipted clauses correctly, and
8. analyse complex, compound and complex-compound sentences into their constituents showing the grammatical functions of such constituents.



### COURSE CONTENTS

This course consists of SIX UNITS as shown below. The time allotted to each unit is shown opposite the title of the unit.

UNIT NO.	TITLE	HOURS
1	COMPLEX AND COMPOUND SENTENCES	6
2	NOMINAL CLAUSES	10
3	ADVERBIAL CLAUSES	8
4	ADJECTIVAL AND APPOSITIVE CLAUSES	9
5	SENTENTIAL, PARENTHETICAL AND REPORTING CLAUSES	7
6	CLAUSE COORDINATORS AND SENTENCE CONNECTORS	7



## ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

Adjective	Adj
Adjective Phrase	Adj-P
Adverb	Adv
Adverbial	ADV
Adverb Phrase	Adv-P
Appositive	APPOS
Auxiliary	Aux
Clause	Cl
Complement	COMP
Complex Transitive	V-comp-trans
Conjunction	Conj
Demonstrative	Demon
Determiner	Det
Direct Object	Od
Ditransitive Verb	V-ditrans
Embedded Sentence	S <sub>1</sub> , S <sub>2</sub> ...
Finite	F
Head Noun	HN
Head Word	HW
Indirect Object	Oi
Infinitive	INF
Intransitive verb	V-intrans
Linking verb	V-link
Main Verb	MV
Matrix Sentence	So
Modal	M
Modifier	Mod
Negative	Neg
Nominal	Nom
Non-Finite	NF
Nonrestrictive Clause	NRC
Noun	N
Noun Phrase	NP
Object	O
Object Complement	Co
Passive	PASS
Past Form	V-ed
Past participle	v-en, EN
Perfective	PERF
Phrase Marker	P.M.
Postdeterminer	Postdet
Postmodifier	Postmod



Predicate	Pred
Premodifier	Premod
Preposition	Prep
Prepositional Phrase	Prep-P
Present Participle	V-ing; ING
Progressive	PROG
Pronoun	Pro
Restrictive Clause	RC
Singular	Sing
Subject	S
Subject Complement	Cs
Subordinator	Sub
Tense	TNS
Transitive Verb	V-trans
Verb	V
Verbless	V-less
Verb Phrase	VP

### **Special Symbols**

- \* A preceding asterisk indicates an unacceptable structure.
  - ? A preceding question mark indicates doubtful acceptability.
  - ⇒ Means is transformed into.
  - ( ) Parentheses indicate optional elements.
  - [ ] Square brackets focus on the item/point under discussion.
  - Δ The symbol Δ stands for a deleted element.
  - +/-S The clause has or does not have an overt subject.
- \*\*\*\*\*



## INTRODUCTION

This book was written in accordance with the requirements of a three-credit hour survey of English literature course offered by Al-Quds Open University. It aims at giving students a taste of English literature from the earliest times to the present.

The book consists of six units :

- Unit One looks briefly at the historical background from the Anglo-Saxon period to the end of the reign of Queen Elizabeth I. This period includes the literature of the Anglo-Saxons, the Medieval period, the early Tudor period and the Renaissance. It presents the major writers of each era and gives samples of their works.
- Unit Two deals with the seventeenth century which is roughly divided into two periods : the reign of the early Stuarts followed by the Civil War and the rule of Parliament for roughly the next twenty years after which the monarchy was restored. The writers included represent all the political sympathies of the period.
- Unit Three gives a general view of the eighteenth century background. With the rise of the moneyed middle-class who wanted to read about the common man, the novel, a new literary genre, became popular during this period.
- Unit Four includes the Romantic Movement and the Victorian period. England was a great power in the world but there were domestic problems which were reflected in the writings of some of the writers.
- Unit Five looks at World War I poets and post-World War I literature which reflects the feelings of loss and futility caused by the war. The unit also deals with the new movement in literature toward precision in images and expression.
- Unit Six deals with twentieth century American literature. It might seem unusual to include literature written in the United States in a survey of English literature : the reason for this is that in the twentieth century writers on both sides of the Atlantic had mutual influence on each other.



### **COURSE DESCRIPTION**

English 5355 is a 3-credit hour survey course of British and American literature. Because of its scope, only prominent stations in this vast historical panorama will be presented.

The course will acquaint the student with the development and evolution of English literature through the ages and American literature over the twentieth century. This will be achieved through a brief study of representative texts. 'Literary Appreciation', the prerequisite for this course, should facilitate the study of such texts.

The course contains five units on British literature and one unit on American literature. In the presentation of these units, the course will employ techniques of distance education.

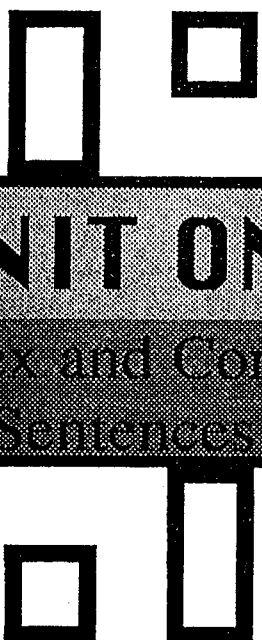
The major aim of Eng 5355 is to make the student see the progress of literature and to introduce her/him to some of the major writers who have charted the course of literary progress and can thus be said to have shaped the life, culture, and even history of their relevant periods.

### **GENERAL OBJECTIVES**

Upon completing this course, students are expected to :

- 1- be familiar with major writers and thinkers in the history of English literature (British and American);
- 2- be acquainted, either through reading or mere presentation with literary works that show development and evolution of English literature through the ages;
- 3- enjoy reading; they should also appreciate and explicate literary texts that represent their respective literary era;
- 4- detect as far as possible interrelations between societal change and evolution of the forms, techniques, styles, subject matter and vision(s) of English literature;
- 5- make conclusions on the nature of the development of English and American literature : make analogies, comparisons/contrasts, or just outlinings of affinities between the literature studied and her/his own literature.



A decorative graphic consisting of a central crosshair. The vertical bar of the crosshair is a rectangle with a smaller square at its top and bottom. The horizontal bar is a rectangle with a smaller square at its left and right. The central intersection of the crosshair is a square.

# UNIT ONE

## Complex and Compound Sentences



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## **1. INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1 Preview**

This is the first unit in this three-credit hour course: **Structure 2**. As you already know, this course consists of six units.

In grammar courses it is probably true to say that the first unit is the most important since it deals with basic elements of structure (Syntax). This is not to say that other units are not important, but a new unit builds upon previous units.

If you look again at the titles of this unit sections, you will realize that it is a very important unit, for it will revise the basic elements and key terms in studying and describing English sentences and structures, in particular those that are essential for the understanding of forthcoming units. Most of the issues contained in the first three sections have been discussed in **Structure 1** (e.g. word classes, phrases, clauses, sentence types and classes). Since these sections are revision sections, they do not contain a lot of exercises. They, nonetheless, contain numerous Self-Assessment Questions (SAQs). Make sure that you do all the SAQs in these sections before you move to Section 5 and Section 6, which will introduce you to the main topics in this course.

### **1.2 Unit Objectives**

Upon completing this unit, you should be able to:

1. **identify** functions of sentence constituents,
2. **recognize** word-classes, phrases and clauses,
3. **recognize** sentence types and classes and use them appropriately,
4. **recognize** major sentence transformations and use them correctly,
5. **recognize and identify** subordinate and coordinate clauses, and
6. **distinguish** between finite, non-finite and verbless clauses.

### **1.3 Unit Sections**

In addition to this introduction and to the overview at the end, this unit consists of five main sections:

<b><u>Section No.</u></b>	<b><u>Content</u></b>
2	Word Classes, Phrases and Clauses
3	Sentence Types
4	Sentence Patterns
5	Subordination and Coordination
6	Types of Clauses

This unit also contains (12) exercises and (9) SAQs.



#### 1.4 Supplementary Reading

For further details on the topic of this unit, you are advised to consult the following references (see bibliographical details at the end of the book).

1. Close R.A., pp. 1-39
2. Kaplan, J.P., pp. 103-155
3. Leech, G. et.al., pp. 23-56
4. Quirk, R. and Sidney Greenbaum, pp. 10-25
5. Shepherd, J. et.al., pp. 294-302



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5. Shepherd, J. et.al., pp. 294-302



## **2. WORD CLASSES, PHRASES AND CLAUSES**

As you already know, sentences are made up of clauses, clauses are made up of phrases, and phrases are made up of words. Thus in order to make generalizations about the structure of phrases and sentences, it is necessary to describe words and find out the type/class of words that occur in a particular phrase/clause.

### **2.1 Open and Closed Classes**

Word classes are often referred to as **parts of speech**. Most grammarians distinguish between **major** and **minor** word classes. The former are also called **open classes** or **lexical/content** words. The following is a list of the two classes:

(1) a. **Major Word Classes/Open Classes**

1. Nouns (N): John, boy, tree, idea, London,
2. Verbs (V): write, drive, remember, eat,
3. Adjectives (Adj): nice, lazy, tall, lucky,
4. Adverbs (Adv): wisely, then, soon, frequently,

b. **Minor Word Classes/Closed Classes**

1. Determiners (Det): the, a, an, this, that,
2. Pronouns (Pro): he, we, they, him, yours,
3. Prepositions (Prep): of, at, by, according to,
4. Conjunctions (Conj): and, because, but, so that,
5. Interjections (Inter): ah, oh, aha, ouch.

#### **POINTER**

Can you think of one major difference between open classes and closed classes?

Open word classes are defined as 'major' because they carry most of the content or meaning of the sentence. This is why some grammarians refer to them as **Content Words**. On the other hand, they are defined as 'open' because it is to these classes that new words can be added.

Closed word classes are defined as 'minor' because their structural role is more important than their meaning, and this explains why some grammarians refer to them as **Structure Words** or **Function Words**. On the other hand, they are defined as 'closed' because the total membership of the class could be listed (i.e. limited in number).

It should be pointed out, however, that many English words belong to more than one class. For example, the word **book** can be a noun and a verb, the word **fast** can be an adjective as well as an adverb, etc.



**SAQ (1)**

The word **round** can be a member of five different parts of speech as follows:

1. N .....
2. V .....
3. Adj .....
4. Adv .....
5. Prep .....

Use your dictionary to find the different uses and meanings of **round**. Find an example for each use and write it down.

**EXERCISE (1)**

Assign the underlined words to classes on the basis of their morphological and syntactic properties. Consult your dictionary if you are not certain about the class membership of a word.

1. Home is where your friends and family are.
2. Someone who is deaf is unable to hear.
3. A linguist is someone who studies languages.
4. Cold food is not intended to be eaten hot.
5. They can can food in a can.
6. They are cooking apples.
7. The plane will be arriving soon.
8. His brother grew happier.
9. His brother grew a beard.
10. The fire burnt furiously.
11. This castle was built during the twelfth century.
12. Many people enjoy walking in the rain.
13. It doesn't rain frequently in the summer.
14. I'm going to see Roy on Tuesday.
15. Sometimes I am neat, sometimes I am messy.
16. I saw Jim and Suzy.
17. She is really nice, but she can be nasty occasionally.
18. Who takes care of the baby?
19. They pulled the rope tight.
20. The following examples are explanatory.



## 2.2 Phrases

In English we distinguish five types of phrases that correlate with five word classes (parts of speech). A phrase is named after the class of the most important word it contains (i.e. head word, or governing word). The table below is self-explanatory:

Phrase	Head Word	Example
1. Noun Phrase (NP)	N	the tall <b>boy</b>
2. Verb Phrase (VP)	V	has been <b>eating</b>
3. Adjective Phrase (Adj-p)	Adj	so very <b>important</b>
4. Adverbial Phrase (Adv-p)	Adj	very <b>carefully</b>
5. Prepositional Phrase (Prep-p)	Prep	in the <b>garden</b> .

Table I

The structure and functions of the five types of phrases in the above table were discussed in detail in Structure 1. Remember that the head word (or governing word) is an obligatory element in phrase structure.



### EXERCISE (2)

Identify the underlined phrases in the following sentences:

1. The eggplants were purple.
2. Jimmy has lost his ticket on the train.
3. Mother telephoned the neighbours.
4. It grew darker and darker.
5. Our cat has eaten our sandwiches!
6. She is teaching her dog many tricks.
7. Bill chopped the firewood very quickly.
8. Robots are very helpful.
9. People find robots quite fascinating.
10. The show was a great success.
11. That bench in the garden looks comfortable.
12. Janet sent me a letter from London.
13. I call this stupidity.
14. He spoke very clearly indeed.
15. She behaved rather foolishly.



### **2.3 Clauses**

A clause can be defined as a group of words/phrases or a linguistic unit that can be analysed into the elements: S, V, O, C. ADV.

Clauses will be discussed in detail in ensuing sections in this unit. Suffice it at this point to remember the following principles:-

- (i) Sentences consist of clauses (at least one clause).
- (ii) Clauses consist of phrases (at least one phrase but normally two or more).
- (iii) Phrases consist of words (at least one word).
- (iv) Words consist of morphemes (at least one).
- (v) Morphemes consist of phonemes (normally more than one).

### **3. SENTENCE TYPES AND CLASSES**

As you know, sentences are divided according to three parameters, namely (i) complexity, (ii) grammatical form and (iii) communicative function. In what follows we shall revise with you types of English sentences according to the first parameter, namely complexity.

#### **3.1 Sentence Complexity**

According to complexity, sentences are divided into four classes; (i) the simple sentence, (ii) the complex sentence, (iii) the compound sentence, and (iv) the compound-complex sentence. Before we proceed to define and explain each type, consider the following representative examples:

##### **(i) Simple Sentences**

- (1) a. Mary lives in London.
- b. John and Mary study at the University of Wales.
- c. Susan is an efficient nurse.
- d. My father answered the phone.
- e. Professor Sharp explained the situation to me.

##### **(ii) Complex Sentences**

- (2) a. I know [that Bill likes Mary].
- b. Bill told me [that he was sick].
- c. He will give her the money [when she signs the contract].
- d. They will retire [when their children are older].

##### **(iii) Compound Sentences**

- (3) a. You can wait here, and [I will get the key].
- b. Take this medicine one time and [you'll be fine].
- c. Sit still or [I'll hit you].
- d. John left school, but [Mary continued her studies].

##### **(iv) Compound-Complex Sentences**

- (4) a. The students line up at 7:45 a.m. and [their teacher monitor them [while they go to their classrooms]].
- b. He gave her everything, and [she left him [as soon as she found a new job]].



## SAQ (2)

1. What do the simple sentences in (i) above have in common?
2. How do they differ from the sentences in (2) and (3)?
3. What do the sentences in (4) above have in common?

### 3.2 The Simple Sentence

A simple sentence consists of one and only one independent clause. It normally has one finite verb. Before we elaborate on this definition, let us explain the terms used in this definition, namely the terms (i) finite and (ii) clause.

#### 3.2.1 Finite and Non-Finite Verbs

Most verbs in English have five forms as in the following table:

(5)

Form	Symbol	Examples
1. base	V	I <b>walk</b> to work.
2. -s form	V-s	Bill <b>walks</b> to work.
3. past	V-ed	Bill <b>walked</b> to work.
4. present participle	V-ing	Bill is <b>walking</b> to work.
5. past participle	V-en	Bill has <b>walked</b> to work.

Table (II)

Verb forms are customarily divided into two classes: (i) finite (F) and (ii) non-finite (NF). A finite form has the following properties:

- (i) It must show tense (i.e. present or past). A finite verb is by definition tensed. All the underlined verbs in the following examples are finite.

- (6) a. I take a shower everyday. (present tense).  
 b. Bill speaks English fluently. (present tense).  
 c. We ainted the house last week. (past tense).

- (ii) It has person and number concord with the subject. This is particularly obvious with the verb be.

- (7) a. I speak English. (first person singular).  
 b. He speaks English. (third person singular).

- (8) a. I am a professor.  
 b. He/She is a professor.  
 c. We/They/You are professor.  
 d. I was in London last week.  
 e. You were in London last week.  
 f. They were in London last week.

- (iii) It can occur alone as the verb element in a simple sentence. Consider the acceptability of the first three examples and the unacceptability of the last three:



- (9) a. I take coffee. (F/present)  
 b. He takes coffee. (F/present)  
 c. I/He took coffee. (F/past)  
 d. \* I/He taking coffee. (NF -ing Participle)  
 e. \* I/He taken coffee. (NF -en Participle)  
 f. \* I/He to take coffee. (NF to-infinitive)



### EXERCISE (3)

Circle the letter that stands for the most appropriate VP. Indicate whether the verb form(s) in each VP is/are F or NF.

1. I will see him when he .....  
 A. will return    B. returns    C. returned    D. may return
2. Everyday the child ..... by his mother and sent to school.  
 A. dresses    B. is dressed    C. dressed    D. has dressed
3. Whenever he ..... what to do, he gets angry.  
 A. has told    B. was told    C. is told    D. has been told
4. Germany ..... united again in 1992.  
 A. has become    B. has been    C. became    D. may become
5. While walking around the farm yesterday, he ..... by the farmer.  
 A. was seen    B. had seen    C. seen    D. seeing
6. What I want to say is that education in our country ..... reached a high level because you will find schools in every village.  
 A. reached    B. is reached    C. has reached    D. would reach
7. Many strange lights ..... in the valley north of Cardiff for the last two months.  
 A. have seen    B. were seen    C. have been seen    D. seen
8. The television ..... just ..... repaired, and it is working well.  
 A. is...being    B. had...been    C. has...been    D. was...being
9. Until then, he ..... never ..... a car.  
 A. has...driven    B. is...driving    C. had...driven    D. was...driving
10. Nobody was rescued! The ship ..... when the lifeboat arrived.  
 A. already sank    B. has already sunk    C. had already sunk    D. was sinking
11. Two new bridges ..... by a Japanese company, and they will be finished soon.  
 A. have been built    B. are being built    C. were built    D. have been built
12. They ..... the road for two months now. They are expected to finish within three weeks.  
 A. have widened    B. are widening  
 C. have been widening    D. will be widening
13. He ..... medicine for five years when he decided to give up and become a journalist.  
 A. studied    B. had been studying  
 C. has studied    D. would have studied
14. I ..... have been on time but I had a puncture.  
 A. would    B. must    C. will    D. can
15. .... you be able to fix the leak in the roof?  
 A. May    B. Might    C. Will    D. Could
16. I ..... understand your point of view but I don't agree with it.  
 A. would    B. could    C. can    D. will



17. When he was at school, Bill ..... run faster than anyone in the village.  
 A. can                      B. could                      C. would                      D. might
18. Bill and Susan ..... married for ten years when they had their first son.  
 A. have been                      B. were                      C. had been                      D. had

?

### SAQ (3)

Rewrite the five simple sentences in (1) above and show whether the verb forms in each of them are F or NF.

- a. Mary .....  
 b. John .....  
 c. Susan .....  
 d. My father .....  
 e. Professor .....

### REMINDER

All the sentences you have just written are simple sentences. Each sentence contains a finite verb whose tense is either present or past.

After having explained what is meant by finite and non-finite verb forms, we shall proceed to explain what is meant by the term clause (Cl).

### REMINDER

Remember that we are still dealing with types of sentences and that our discussion of the terms F/NF and clause is meant to facilitate your understanding of types of sentences.

### 3.2.2 The Clause

A clause can be defined as a group of words or phrases (i.e. a unit) that can be analysed into the elements: S, V, O, C, ADV. Sentences, as pointed out in Section 2 above, consist of clauses. A sentence that consists of just one clause is a **simple sentence**. Thus all the examples in (1) above, which we repeat here for convenience are simple sentences. That is to say, each sentence consists of just one clause.



- (10) a. Mary lives in London.  
 b. John and Mary study at the University of Wales.  
 c. Susan is an efficient nurse.  
 d. My father answered the phone.  
 e. Professor Sharp explained the situation to me.

As we shall see below, there are sentences that consist of two or more clauses. Suffice it at the moment to reiterate that a **simple sentence consists of just one clause and that it has a finite verb**. We are assuming, of course, that a clause must have a subject and a verb.

### REMINDER

Some imperative sentence do not contain an expressed (overt) subject. The subject is suppressed, but is understood to be the pronoun **you**.



### 3.3 The Complex Sentence

A **complex sentence** is a sentence that contains more than one clause, an **independent (main)** clause and a **dependent (subordinate)** clause. Consider the following complex sentence. Notice that the dependent clause is in italics.

- (11)a. **He will give her the money** *when she signs the contract*.

The sentence above contains two clauses: a **main clause** and a **subordinate clause**. Each clause can be analyzed into these (functions) elements: S, V, O, C, ADV. Obviously, some of these elements (functions) are obligatory and some are optional. Thus the main clause in (11.a) can be analyzed as: S + V + Oi + Od: cf.

- |           |           |     |           |
|-----------|-----------|-----|-----------|
| S         | V         | Oi  | Od        |
| (11)b. He | will give | her | the money |

Similarly, the subordinate clause in the same sentence can be analyzed as: S + V + Od:

- |             |     |                    |
|-------------|-----|--------------------|
| S           | V   | Od                 |
| (11)c. When | she | signs the contract |

The function of the dependent clause in (11.a) above is obviously **adverbial**. It signifies the time of the action expressed by the verb in the main clause, so it is a **time adverbial (ADV/T)**. The complex sentence can thus be analyzed in this way:

- |           |           |     |           |      |       |                    |
|-----------|-----------|-----|-----------|------|-------|--------------------|
| S         | V         | Oi  | Od        |      | ADV/T |                    |
| (11)d. He | will give | her | the money | when | she   | signs the contract |
|           |           |     |           |      | S     | V Od               |



This analysis demonstrates that one of the functions in this sentence, namely ADV/T is realized by a clause. It further demonstrates that this complex sentence contains two structures: the structure of the sentence as a whole (**Overall Structure**), which is **S + V + Oi + Od + ADV/T**, and the structure of the subordinate clause, which is **S + V + Od**.

We shall return to elaborate on this phenomenon in Section 6 below. It is sufficient at this point to remind you that a complex sentence contains a **main clause** and at least one dependent (subordinate) clause, where the dependent clause has a function in the overall structure of the sentence in which it is contained (**embedded**). The containing sentence is often referred to as the **matrix sentence** and the subordinate clause as the **embedded sentence**.



#### **EXERCISE (4)**

Underline the dependent (subordinate) clauses in the following complex sentences.

1. I'll see you when I come back.
2. Since you can't use your car, I'll take you home.
3. If you work hard, you will pass.
4. Although he is five years old, Bill speaks five languages.
5. He can't go to work today because he is sick.

### **3.4 The Compound Sentence**

A **compound sentence** consists of **two or more coordinated independent clauses**. In other words, a compound sentence does not contain any dependent or subordinate clauses. Consider example (3.a) in Section 3.1 above, which we repeat for convenience as (12.a):

(12)a. You can wait here, and I will get the key.

Cl<sub>1</sub>

Cl<sub>2</sub>

This sentence contains two independent clauses coordinated by means of the **coordinator and**: cf.

(12)b. You can wait here. (Cl<sub>1</sub>)

c. I will get the key. (Cl<sub>2</sub>)

Each of these two clauses can be analyzed into the functions: S, V, O, C, ADV: cf.

(12)d. You | can wait | here

S

V

ADV

(12)e. I | will get | the key |

S

V

Od

#### **TIP**

The main coordinators that join two (or more) independent clauses together are **and**, **or**, **but**.





### 3.5 The Compound-Complex Sentence

A compound-complex sentence is both **compound** (i.e. containing at least two **coordinated independent clauses**) and **complex** (i.e. containing at least one **subordinate clause**). Consider the following example which contains two coordinated sentences: a simple sentence and a complex one:

(13)a. [The students line up at 7:45], and [their teachers monitor them while [they go to their classes]].

The two coordinated sentences are:

(13)b. The students line up at 7:45.

and

(13)c. Their teachers monitor them when they go to their classes.

The first is a simple sentence (containing one independent clause) which can be analyzed in terms of: S, V, O, C, ADV, as follows:

S	V	ADV/T
(13)d. The students	line up	at 7:45.

The second sentence (i.e. c) is a complex sentence containing an independent clause and a dependent (subordinate) clause, both of which can be analyzed in terms of: S, V, O, C, ADV, as follows:

S	V	Od	ADV/T
(13)e. Their teachers	monitor	them	when they go to their classes
			S V ADV/P

Notice that the function ADV in the complex sentence is realized by a clause (i.e. They go to their classes).

?

#### SAQ (4)

Which of the following sentences is (a) simple, (b) complex, (c) compound, (d) compound-complex? Check your answers in the above three sub-sections.

1. Professor Jones explained the situation to me.
2. My sister answered the phone.
3. If you do this, I'll tell the police.
4. Although my father is seventy years old, he still works hard on his farm.
5. Mary left school, but John continued his studies.
6. Bill does the cooking at night, and Mary does the washing up while she watches the news in the kitchen.
7. She will give you the money as soon as you sign the agreement.
8. Bill washed the car but he didn't polish it.



## 4. SENTENCE CLAUSE STRUCTURE AND SENTENCE PATTERNS

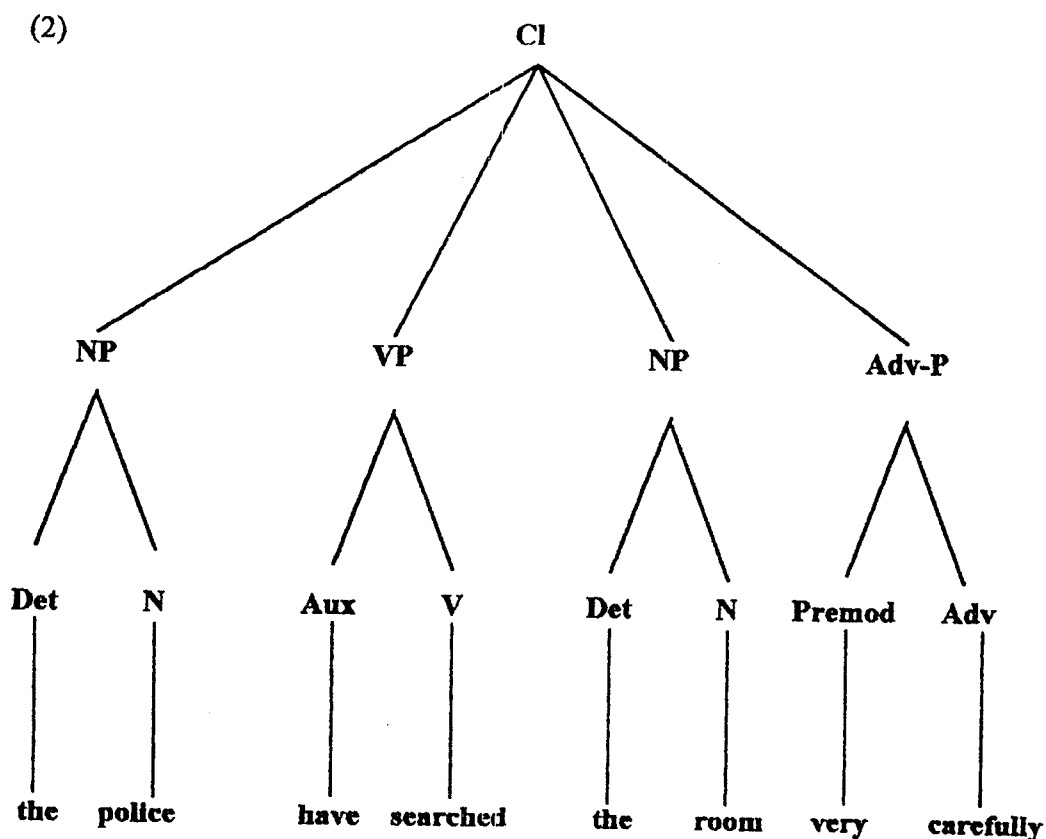
### 4.1 Categorial/Functional Description

As you know, the structure of a sentence can be described in two different ways:

- (i) according to the categories (classes) to which the constituents of the sentence belong: i.e. NP, VP, Adv-P, Adj-P, Prep-P, etc. This type of description is called a **categorial description**.
- (ii) according to the functions which the constituents of the sentence have (in that particular sentence): i.e. S, V, Od, Oi, Cs, Co, ADV. This type of description is called a **functional description**.

In the categorial description of sentences we make use of **phrases** not **words**. This follows from the fact that a **simple sentence** like:

(1) The police have searched the room very carefully.  
consists of one finite main clause. This is why we call this sentence **simple**. The clause in this sentence is made up of four phrases: cf.





Each of the four phrases is made up of two words. Thus it is necessary to describe a simple sentence with reference to the phrases (not words) it contains.

Let us return now to sentence (1) above, and see how its structure can be described (represented) in two ways (i.e. categorial and functional).

(i) categorial description (CD)

NP <sub>1</sub>	VP	NP <sub>2</sub>	Adv-P
(1) c. The police	have searched	the room	very carefully

(ii) functional description (FD)

S	V	Od	ADV
(1) d. The police	have searched	the room	very carefully

(iii) Categorial-functional description

It is always possible to apply the two types of description to the same sentence. Thus the descriptions in (1.c) and (1.d) above can be combined together as in (1.e): cf.

S	V	Od	ADV
(1) e. The police	have searched	the room	very carefully
NP <sub>1</sub>	VP	NP <sub>2</sub>	Adv-P

**REMINDER**

Remember that the number of the constituents in a sentence is the same regardless of the description we apply to the sentence. In the above example the sentence is made up of four constituents.



**EXERCISE (5)**

Describe the structure of the following sentences functionally and categorially as in (1.e) above. Notice that the constituents of the sentence are separated from each other by means of vertical lines to help you in your analysis.

1. | The boys | will cook | the dinner | in the tent |
2. | Mr. Smith | has bought | his daughter | a new car |



- |  |
|--|
| 3.  His reports   have been  very poor                 |
| 4.  John and Mary  are flying  to Damascus   next week |

Some grammarians believe that the best way to describe sentence structure is to combine both functional and categorial descriptions as we did in sentence (1.e) above. This two-way description is both **explicit** and **revealing**. Now let us consider the following cases and examples:

- (i) Two sentences that have an identical categorial representation may have different functional representations: cf.

FD:	S	V	Od
(3)	The student	didn't understand	the lesson.
CD:	NP <sub>1</sub>	VP	NP <sub>2</sub>

FD:	S	V	Cs
(4)	That man	is	my supervisor.
CD:	NP <sub>1</sub>	VP	NP <sub>2</sub>

The two sentences above have an identical categorial representation (i.e. NP<sub>1</sub> + VP + NP<sub>2</sub>), but they have two distinct functional representations. The functional representation of the first sentence is S + V + OD, whereas that of the second sentence is S + V + Cs.

- (ii) Two sentences that have an identical functional representation may have two different categorial representations. The following two examples are self-explanatory:

FD:	S	V	Od	ADV
(5)	My father	rented	a new office	in London.
CD:	NP <sub>1</sub>	VP	NP <sub>2</sub>	Prep-P

FD:	S	V	Od	ADV
(6)	My father	rented	a new office	last week.
CD:	NP <sub>1</sub>	VP	NP <sub>2</sub>	NP <sub>3</sub>

The two sentences above have an identical functional description, namely, S + V + Od + ADV, but they have two distinct categorial descriptions. The categorial description of the first sentence is: NP<sub>1</sub> + VP + NP<sub>2</sub> + Prep-P, whereas that of the second one is: NP<sub>1</sub> + VP + NP<sub>2</sub> + NP<sub>3</sub>.

In spite of the desirability of combining both categorial and functional descriptions, some grammarians rely exclusively on functional description.



## 4.2 Sentence Patterns

Following Quirk, et.al. in *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* (1985) we distinguish seven simple sentence patterns in English.

### REMINDER

The patterns below do not include optional elements.



#### Pattern 1: S + V-intrans

S	V-intrans
(7) a. The sun	is shining.
b. The child	was laughing.
c. My head	aches.
d. The car	won't start.

### REMINDER

An intransitive verb cannot take an object. The following verbs are always intransitive: **come, disappear, go, die, etc.**

#### Pattern 2: S + V-trans + Od

S	V	Od
(8) a. That lecture	bored	me.
b. Somebody	caught	the ball.
c. I	have seen	a horrible accident.
d. The workmen	dug	a deep hole.
e. We	know	that he is honest.

### NOTES:

- (i) Some verbs are always transitive; they require a direct object. Amongst the verbs that are always transitive are: **like, love, respect, mention, say, describe, prove, suggest, want, cut, clean, lose, produce, etc.**
- (ii) Some transitive verbs can be used intransitively, that is, they do not require an object. Amongst these verbs are: **eat, smoke, drink, ring, break, open, move, fly, burn, etc.** Consider the following pairs of sentences:
  - (9) a. I rang the bell. (trans)  
b. The phone rang. (intrans)
  - (10) a. He broke the window. (trans)  
b. The window broke. (intrans)



- (11) a. Bill **drinks** a glass of milk every morning. (trans)  
       b. Bill doesn't **drink**. (i.e alcoholic drinks). (intrans)  
 (iii) Some transitive verbs take a noun clause as an object (see example (8.e) above)

**Pattern 3: S + V-link + ADV**

S	V-link	ADV
(12) a. My office	is	in the next building.
b. Bill and Mary	are	with me.
c. He	got in	through the window.
d. I	stole	into the manager's office.
e. They	are living	in a small village.
f. Nick	is staying	at a nearby hotel.
g. The play	lasts	for three hours.

**Pattern 4: S + V-link + Cs**

S	V-link	Cs
(13) a. Your dinner	seems	ready.
b. Mary	is	kind.
c. He	is getting	angry.
d. His father	is	a lawyer.

**NOTE:**

The subject in this pattern may be a noun clause as in the following examples:

S	V	Cs
(14) a. That Bill is an outstanding student	is	obvious.
b. That Bill lost the game	is	a pity.

**Pattern 5: S + V-trans + Od + ADV**

S	V	Od	ADV
(15) a. You	can put	the dish	on the table.
b. He	got	himself	into trouble.
c. You	should have	your hands	on the wheel.
d. They	kept	the child	indoors.

**NOTE:**

The use of the ADV is obligatory in all the above examples. The sentence will be incomplete (unacceptable) if the ADV is omitted: cf.

- (17) a. \*You can put the dish.  
       b. \*He got himself.



**Pattern 6: S + V-trans + Od + Co**

S	V	Od	Co
(18) a. Most students	have found	her	helpful.
b. We	have proved	him	wrong.
c. They	appointed	him	chairman.
d. They	called	him	a fool.
e. The company	made	Bill	redundant.
f. Loud music	drives	me	crazy.

**POINTER**

What part of speech are the words in the object complement position?

**Pattern 7: S + V-ditrans + Oi + Od**

S	V	Oi	Od
(19) a. He	showed	me	the photo.
b. She	gives	him	expensive presents.
c. I	must send	my parents	an anniversary card.
d. I	will read	you	the letter.
e. We	wished	him	a safe journey.
f. He	told	us	the news.

**SAQ (5)**

?

What patterns do these sentences belong to? You can find the answers in this section. Write the structure above the sentence. Use symbols only,

- I put the plate on the table.  
.....
- My office is near the station.  
.....
- He is getting angry.  
.....
- The secretary showed me into the manager's office.  
.....
- We know that he is honest.  
.....
- The car won't start.  
.....



- |                                 |       |
|---------------------------------|-------|
| 7. Your dinner seems ready.     | ..... |
| 8. They called him a fool.      | ..... |
| 9. Loud music drives me crazy.  | ..... |
| 10. I will read you the letter. | ..... |

### 4.3 Optional Adverbials

As pointed out above, the seven patterns listed in the preceding subsection contain obligatory elements only: they do not contain optional elements. But all of these patterns can be expanded by the addition of various optional adverbials. Consider the following examples from the patterns listed above:

#### NOTE

Optional adverbials are placed between brackets.

- |   |             |
|---|-------------|
| (20)a. The sun is shining (this moment).                                      | [pattern 1] |
| b. The lecture bored me (last night).   | [pattern 2] |
| c. Mary is here (this morning).   | [pattern 3] |
| d. His father is a lawyer (in Damascus).                                      | [pattern 4] |
| e. (As soon as I arrived), the secretary showed me into the manager's office. | [pattern 5] |
| f. They (always) called him a fool (when he worked for the company).          |             |
| g. He (reluctantly) showed me the photo (a week ago).                         | [pattern 6] |

### 4.4 Categories and Functions

The functions that have been used to represent (describe) sentence patterns are: (i) S, (ii) V, (iii) Od, (iv) Oi, (v) Cs, (vi) Co, and (vii) ADV. On the other hand, we have distinguished so far five categories (classes) of phrases: (i) noun phrase [NP], (ii) verb phrase [VP], (iii) adjective phrase [Adj-P], (iv) adverb phrase [Adv-P], and (v) prepositional phrase [Prep-P]. On the level of the word we have distinguished nine classes: N, V, Adj, Adv, Det, Pro, Prep, Conj, and Inter.

Before we proceed any further; it is convenient to remind you of some of the assumptions that we made earlier:

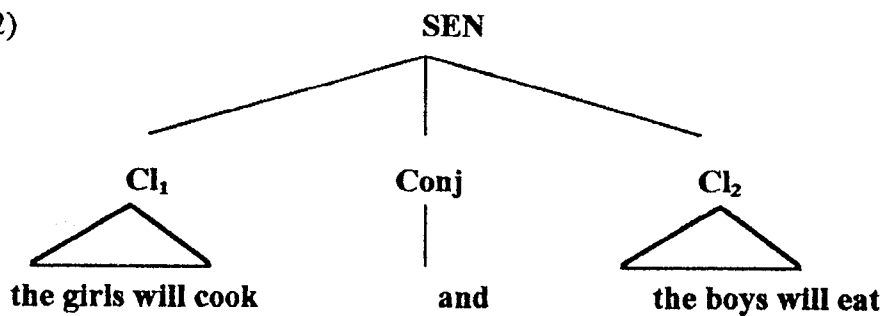
- (i) Sentences consist of clauses.
- (ii) Clauses consist of phrases.
- (iii) Phrases consist of words.



For instance, the following sentence consists of two clauses: cf.

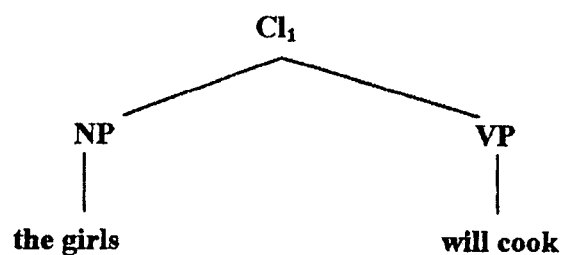
(21) The girls will cook and the boys will eat.

(22)



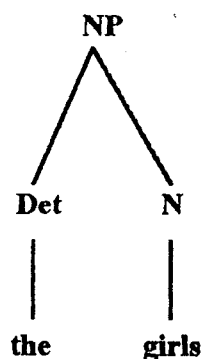
The two clauses (the girls will cook and the boys will eat) are immediate constituents of the sentence (21). The first clause (**Cl<sub>1</sub>**) consists of two phrases: cf.

(23)

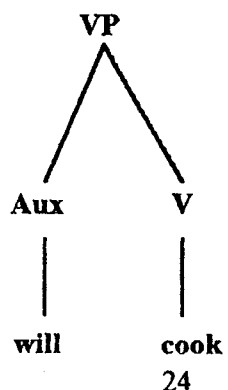


Thus the two phrases **the girls** and **will cook** are immediate constituents of the clause: **The girls will cook**. On the phrase level, we notice that each of the two phrases in (23) consists of two words: cf.

(24)

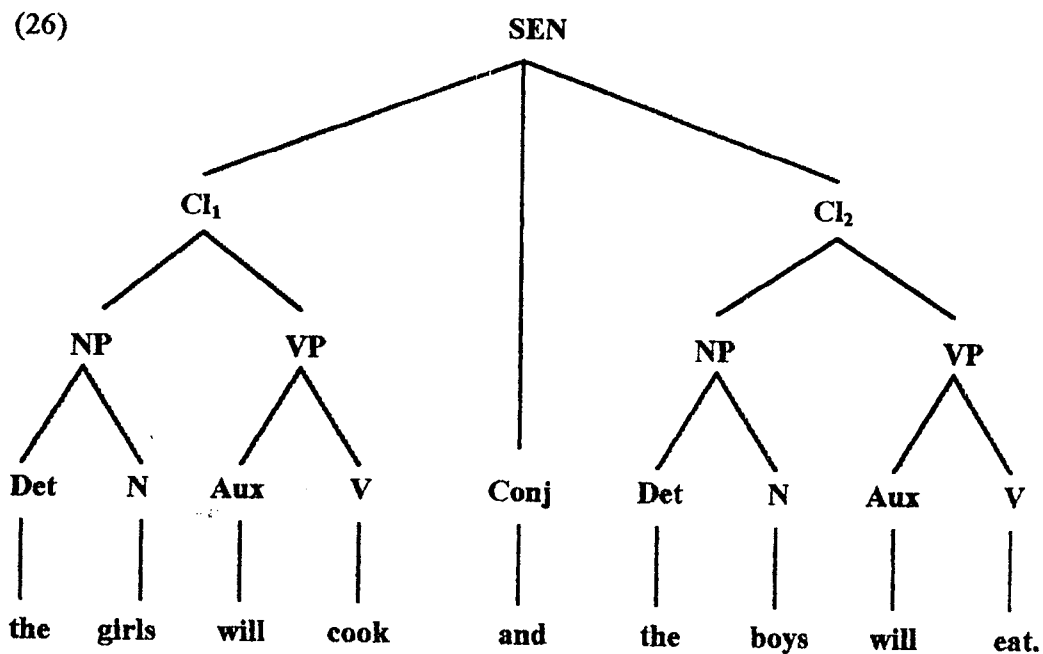


(25)





This **hierarchic** relationships in sentence (21) can be represented by means of a tree-diagram as follows:

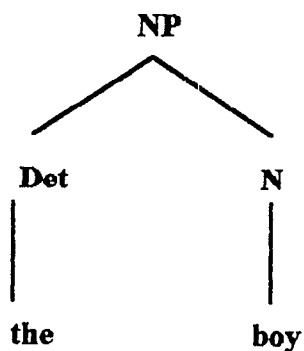


A detailed account of phrases was presented in *Structure 1*. Suffice it at this point to remind you that a phrase consists of at least one word or a group of words. For instance, all the following are NPs:

(27) a.

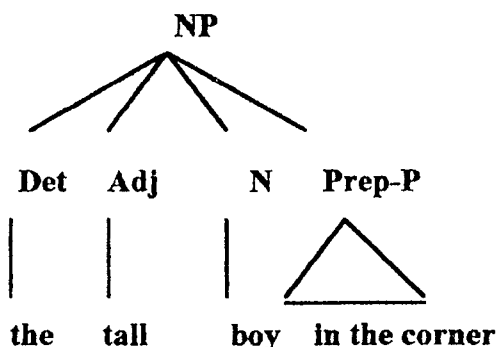


b.





c.

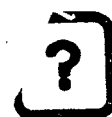


- (28) a. John  
 b. The boy  
 c. The tall boy in the corner

is my brother.

Other assumptions that we made or alluded to earlier are:

- (i) The structure of a sentence can be represented in terms of functions (S, V, O, C, ADV) or in terms of categories (classes) (NP, VP, Adj-P, Adv-P, Prep-P).
- (ii) There is no one-to-one correspondence between functional and categorial representations of sentences.



#### SAQ (6)

Give examples of NP realizing the following functions. If you cannot think of an example, look for one in this section:

1. S : .....
2. Od : .....
3. Oi : .....
4. Cs : .....
5. Co : .....
6. Adv: .....

#### 4.5 Multiple Class Membership

Before closing this section, it is convenient to reiterate that there is no one-to-one correspondence between form (category) and function. This observation is true of sentences, phrases and words. Even within the same class a certain item may have different uses in different linguistic contexts. For instance, how do we categorize the verb **make**? Is it mono-transitive, as in the following sentence:

(52) You | have made | a mistake. (mono-trans),  
 or is it di-transitive as in:

(53) I | will make | you | a cup of tea. (di-trans),



or is it complex-transitive as in:

S	V	Od	Co
(54) Mary	made	her husband	miserable. (comp-trans)

The situation gets more complicated when we realize that the verb **make** can also be used as a linking verb that requires a subject complement: cf.

S	V	Cs
(55) She	will make	a good wife. (V-link)

The examples with the verb **make** show that it is probably better to talk about different or multiple uses of this verb, although some grammarians prefer to talk about multiple class membership because this difference in use entails, as we have seen above, a difference in the structure of the sentence in which the verb is used.

By way of further exemplification, consider the following sets of examples:

S	V
(56) a. Their influence	is growing. (intrans.)

S	V	Od
b. He	grew	a moustache. (mono-trans.)

S	V	Cs
c. Some students	were growing	impatient. (V-link)

S	V	Cs
(57) a. He	got	angry. (V-link)

S	V	Od
b. He	got	a prize. (mono-trans.)

S	V	Oi	Od
c. He	got	me	an Italian tie. (di-trans.)

S	V	Od	Co
d. He	got	his pyjamas	wet. (comp-trans.)



(58)a. The old man *is dying*. (intrans.)

S | V | Cs  
b. He *died* a bachelor. (V-link)

S | V | Cs  
(59) a. The dinner *smells* good. (V-link)

S | V | Od  
b. The dog *is smelling* the bone. (mono-trans.)

(60)a. They *have gone*. (intrans.)

S | V | Cs  
b. The meat *has gone* bad. (V-link)

(61)a. The glass *broke*. (intrans.)

S | V | Od  
b. He *broke* the window. (mono-trans.)

S | V | Cs  
c. One of the lions *broke* loose. (V-link)

Multiple class membership can lead to ambiguity. Consider the following sentences:

(62)a. I found her an entertaining partner.

This sentence is two-ways ambiguous. That is to say it can be interpreted as having two different structures and thus two different meanings. Under one interpretation (62.a) has the following structure:

S | V | Oi | Od  
(62) b. I found her an entertaining partner,

where the verb *found* is di-transitive and takes two objects. In this sense, this sentence can be paraphrased by:

(62) c. I found an entertaining partner for her.



Under the second interpretation the structure of (62.a) will be as follows:

	S	V	Od	Co
(62) d.	I	found	her	an entertaining partner,

where the verb is complex-transitive requiring an object and an object complement. Under this interpretation the sentence can be paraphrased by:

(62) e. I found that she was an entertaining partner,  
or by:

(62) f. I found her to be an entertaining partner.

Now let us consider briefly other examples of ambiguity that arise from the fact that a word or a phrase may belong to two different classes (i.e. multiple class membership).

	S	V-link	Cs
(63) a.	They	are	cooking apples.

	S	V-trans	Od
b.	They	are cooking	apples.

	V/di-trans	Oi	Od
(64) a.	Call	me	anything.

	V/comp-trans	Od	Co
b.	Call	me	anything.



### EXERCISE (6)

Each of the following two sentences is two-ways ambiguous. Resolve the ambiguity by assigning two different structural descriptions to each sentence as in (63) and (64) above.

1. They can fish.
2. Terry finally decided on the boat.



## 5. SUBORDINATION AND COORDINATION

### 5.1 Subordination

We have seen in *STRUCTURE 1* how the function **ADVERBIAL** can be realized by a clause (i.e. an embedded sentence). This process is called **subordination**, and hence the term **subordinate (independent) clause**.

To illustrate this process, let us assume that we want to embed (1) into (2):

- (1) She signs the contract.
- (2) He will give her the money.

Depending on the meaning that we want to convey, we can convert the embedded sentence into a clause that will be linked to the second sentence by means of a **conjunction** or a **subordinator** such as **when, if, as soon as**, etc.: cf.

- (3) He will give her the money **if/when** she signs the contract.

Notice that adverbial clauses are often mobile. The adverbial clause can be placed at the beginning of the sentence, in which case it is normally followed by a comma: cf.

- (4) **When** she sign the contract, he will give her the money.

Other types of subordinate clauses in English perform obligatory functions in sentence structure, that is to say the clause becomes an essential and integral constituent of matrix sentence in which it is embedded. Consider the following data where (Δ) stands for the position (function) where the sentence will be embedded:

- (5) a. I know Δ }
- b. Bill is honest.}→
- c. I know **that bill is honest**.
- (6) a. Δ is surprising. }
- b. Bill lost the race. }→
- c. **That Bill lost the race** is surprising.
- (7) a. The fact is Δ }
- b. Bill hates Mary. }→
- c. The fact is **that Bill hates Mary**.

The embedded sentences in the (c) examples above are called **noun (nominal) clauses**, because they can be replaced by a noun, and because they occupy positions that are characteristically filled by nouns or noun phrases (Od, S, Cs respectively). The phenomenon of subordination will be discussed in depth in ensuing units.

### 5.2 Subordinators

Most subordinate clauses, whether **nominal** or **adverbial**, are linked to the main clause by means of a **subordinator** (or a subordinating conjunction).

Subordinators are either **simple** (i.e. one word) or **compound** (i.e. consisting of more than one word). Below is a representative list of each type:



(i) **Simple Subordinators:**

after, although, as, because, before, if, once, since, that, though, unless, until, when, where, while, whether, etc.

(ii) **Compound Subordinators**

so that, in order that, in order to, now that, as soon as, as long as, as far as, so as, as if, as though, rather than, etc.

?

**SAQ (7)**

Underline the subordinate clauses in the following sentences placing the subordinator in brackets. All the sentences occur in Section 6 below.

1. She asked whether I took sugar in my coffee.
2. Why he fired his secretary is still unknown.
3. That the proposal will pass seems very likely.
4. The idea is that we should meet the dean.
5. If it rains tomorrow, I won't go to the party.
6. She left college because she could not pay the fees.
7. He went to Washington in order to visit his mother.
8. He was a heavy smoker, so he had a heart attack.

**REMINDER**

In most of their occurrences, non-finite clauses are not introduced by a subordinator. See the examples in Section 6 below.

**5.3 Coordination**

You have already seen examples of coordination in section 3 above when we discussed compound sentences. Coordination is the process of joining two grammatical constructions by means of a coordinator such as **and**, **but**, or **or**. You have seen that two simple sentences can be coordinated to form a compound sentence. The following example is self-explanatory:

- (38)a. You can wait here}   
b. I will get the key }→   
c. You can wait here **and** I will get the key.

Like sentences, phrases can also be coordinated: cf.

- (39)a. The doctor examined the old man [NP<sub>1</sub>] }   
b. The doctor examined the young girl [NP<sub>2</sub>]}→   
c. The doctor examined *the old man* [NP<sub>1</sub>] **and** *the young girl*. [NP<sub>2</sub>]

Notice that if the two coordinated sentences have an identical subject, the subject of the second sentence is often deleted to avoid repetition. This transformation is called **S-Deletion**: cf.



- (40) a. John played the guitar. }
- b. John sang Christmas songs. }→
- c. John played the guitar and Δ sang Christmas songs.

### REMINDER

The phenomenon of coordination will be discussed in detail in Unit 5 below.



### EXERCISE (7)

Embed the second sentence in the marked position in the first sentence (i.e. matrix sentence). Use one of these subordinators: **that, as soon as, if, until, because**. You can use the same subordinator more than once.

1. a. Many people still believe Δ }
- b. The earth is flat. }→
- c. ....
2. a. The rumour is Δ }
- b. The Prime Minister will resign. }→
- c. ....
3. a. You will succeed Δ }
- b. You work hard. }→
- c. ....
4. a. Bill was trying to buy his own house Δ }
- b. He wanted to feel independent. }→
- c. ....
5. a. I won't do this for you Δ }
- b. You clean the place up. }→
- c. ....
6. a. Shop assistants have to wait Δ }
- b. The last customer has left. }→
- c. ....
7. a. Δ the lights went off. }
- b. They entered the house. }→
- c. ....
8. a. Δ I would have come to your party. }
- b. You had invited me. }→
- c. ....





### EXERCISE (8)

Underline the dependent (subordinate) clauses in the following complex sentences and mention their functions.

1. I'll see you when I come back.
2. Since you can't use your car, I'll take you home.
3. If you work hard, you will pass.
4. Although he is five years old, Bill speaks five languages.
5. He can't go to work today because he is sick.



### EXERCISE (9)

Join each of the following pairs of simple sentences to make a complex sentence, by converting the second sentence into a subordinate clause having an adverbial function as in the first example:

1. a. I met Bill. }
- b. He was working in the library. }→
- c. I met Bill **while he was working in the library.**
2. a. Bill went to bed. }
- b. He felt ill. }→
- c. .... because .....
3. a. Susan became ill-tempered. }
- b. She got married. }→
- c. After ....., .....
4. a. You should inform the police. }
- b. Your family is in trouble. }→
- c. .... whenever .....
5. a. I'll type this letter for you. }
- b. Your secretary is not here. }→
- c. Since ....., .....

## 6. TYPES OF SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

Subordinate Clauses are often classified according to the following three parameters:

- (i) Syntactic Function.
- (ii) Verb Form.
- (iii) Subject (of the Clause).

In what follows we shall discuss all types/classes of subordinate clauses according to these criteria/parameters:

### 6.1 Function

As pointed out above, a subordinate clause may realize one of the syntactic functions in a main clause (i.e. matrix sentence). The syntactic functions that are typically realized by subordinate clauses are of two major types: (i) Nominal, and (ii) Adverbial. Below is a brief discussion of the two types.



### 6.1.1. Nominal

A subordinate clause is referred to as a nominal clause if it realizes a syntactic function which is typically/characteristically realized by a noun or a noun phrase. The most typical nominal functions that may be realized by a subordinate nominal clause are (i) S, (ii) Od, and (iii) Cs. Below are some representative examples of subordinate nominal clauses realizing these functions.

#### (i) **Subject**

- (1)
  - a. **That he wants to blackmail you** is obvious.
  - b. **That the proposal will pass** seems very likely.
  - c. **That I had had to wait for such a long time** bored me.
  - d. **Who will be the new manager next year** doesn't bother me the least.
  - e. **Why he fired his secretary** is still unknown.
- (2)
  - a. **Bill's losing the race** surprised us.
  - b. **His being the director's son** should make no difference.
- (3) **For you to learn another language** would be an advantage.

#### (ii) **Direct Object**

- (4)
  - a. I know **that she will try again**.
  - b. Do you remember **where she lives**?
  - c. Nobody knows **how he escaped**.
  - d. He mentioned **that he had seen the accident**.
- (5)
  - a. she can't bear **seeing children treated badly**.
  - b. I enjoy **talking to foreigners**.
- (6) He expects to finish **his novel next year**.

#### (iii) **Subject complement**

- (7)
  - a. The fact is **that Bill doesn't like Mary**.
  - b. The idea is **that we should meet the dean**.
  - c. The problem is **that he keeps interrupting others**.
  - d. The question is **whether he will accept the offer**.

#### NOTE

The functions Oi and Co which can be realized by a noun, pronoun or a noun phrase are not generally realized by a subordinate clause. This is due to the fact that these two functions commonly take nouns that refer to human beings. Nominal clauses generally refer to abstractions.



### 6.1.2 Adverbial

A subordinate clause is described as adverbial if it realizes the syntactic function ADV, which is characteristically realized by an adverb or an adverbial phrase. Notice in the following examples how the function ADV is realized by an adverb in the (a) examples and by a subordinate clause in the (b) examples:

- (8) a. I'll see them soon.  
b. I'll see them **when I finish my work**.
- (9) a. **Frankly**, I don't trust her.  
b. **To be frank**, I don't trust her.

Adverbial clauses express a variety of meanings in complex sentences. Below are some of the semantic distinctions expressed by adverbial clauses which are not commonly expressed by adverbs and adverbial prepositional phrases. Notice that adverbial clauses will be discussed in detail in Unit Three below.

#### (i) **Condition**

- (10)a. **If it rains tomorrow**, I won't go to the party.  
b. **If you asked me**, I would tell you.

#### (ii) **Concession**

- (11) a. **Although he is six-years old**, Bill speaks four languages fluently.  
b. She looks pretty **whatever she wears**.

#### (iii) **Reason**

- (12) a. She left college **because she could not pay the fees**.  
b. **Being behind the door**, he overheard everything we said.

#### (iv) **Purpose**

- (13) She went to Washington **in order to visit her mother**.

#### (v) **Result**

- (14) He was a heavy smoker **so he had a hear attack**.



### **EXERCISE (10)**

Identify the syntactic functions of the underlined clauses in the following sentences. Use one of these functions: S, Od, Cs, ADV.

1. Walking by the seaside, I met an old friend of mine.
2. Walking in the rain is fun.
3. I want to go home.
4. I do not anticipate deriving much instruction from his lectures.
5. Her ambition is to become a pilot.
6. I can't bear seeing children treated badly.
7. His being the director's son should make no difference.
8. If she had asked me, I would have told her.
9. I don't know why you insist on talking to her.
10. She would have married him even if he had been penniless.



## 6.2 Verb Form

Subordinate clauses are also classified according to the main verb in the clause. Three main classes of subordinate clauses are identified on the basis of the main verb: (i) finite clauses, (ii) non-finite clauses, and (iii) verbless clauses. Below is a brief discussion of the three types.

### 6.2.1 Finite Clauses

A finite clause is one whose main verb is **finite** (i.e. the verb necessarily shows tense). Finite clauses realize a variety of syntactic functions: S, Od, Cs, ADV, APPOS. The following are some representative examples:

- (15) a. I believe **that Bill doesn't like Mary**. (Od)  
b. **That Bill doesn't like Mary** is obvious. (S)  
c. The fact is **that Bill doesn't like Mary**. (Cs)  
d. **Although Bill doesn't like Mary**, he thinks highly of her. (ADV)  
e. The company collapsed **because Bill doesn't like Mary**. (ADV)  
f. **If Bill doesn't like Mary**, why should he marry her? (ADV)

All the above examples contain the finite clause **Bill doesn't like Mary**.

#### QUESTION

What word (subordinator) begins each of the subordinate clauses in the above examples? Is the subordinator an optional or obligatory element?

### 6.2.2 Non-Finite Clauses

A non-finite clause is a clause whose main verb is non-finite. There are three types of non-finite clauses:

- (i) **ING** participle clauses (or present participle)
- (ii) **EN** participle clauses (or past participle)
- (iii) Infinitive clauses.

#### (i) ING participle clauses

An **ING** participle clause (henceforth **ING** clause) is a clause whose main verb is the non-finite form **V+ing**. The **ING** participle clause can perform a variety of syntactic functions. The most typical functions are: S, Od, Cs, ADV, APPOS. Below are some illustrative examples. Notice that the clause is enclosed in brackets and the verb is underlined.



### Subject

- (16) a. [Bill's losing the race] annoyed his parents.  
b. [His being the director's son] is irrelevant.  
c. [Your wanting a meal at this time of night] is odd.  
d. [Looking after five children] is tiring.  
e. [Crossing this river] is difficult.

### Direct Object

- (17) a. She enjoys [talking to foreigners].  
b. Bill denied [giving Dick any money].  
c. She regretted [having discussed the matter with him].  
d. I shall remember [your asking me this question].  
e. Let's practice [playing that duet again].

### Subject Complement

- (18) a. Her hobby is [collecting stamps].  
b. The problem is [your being obstinate].

### Adverbial

- (19) He wrote his first novel [while working in a small factory].  
(20) a. [Being behind the door], he overheard all that we said.  
b. [Being the eldest], Bill took care of his younger brothers and sisters.

### (ii) EN participle clauses

The EN (past) participle clause is one whose main verb is the past participle form of the verb (V+EN form). In most of their occurrences, EN participle clauses result from the contraction of PASSIVE FINITE CLAUSES through the deletion of the auxiliary be. Notice the relationship between the first and the second examples in the following pairs:

- (21) a. [After the letters were posted], he got into his car and drove off. ⇒  
b. [The letters posted], he got into his car and drove off.  
(22) a. [As his leg was caught in the trap], he could not escape. ⇒  
b. [His leg caught in the trap], he could not escape.

EN clauses do not normally function as nominal clauses. Their most typical function is adverbial as in (21) and (22) above or occasionally Co as in the following example:

- (23) She got the watch [repaired immediately].

### (iii) Infinitive clauses

Infinitive clauses are clauses whose main verbs are non-finite infinitive forms, which are of two types: (i) to-infinitive and (ii) bare infinitive. Below are some illustrative examples of the to-infinitive and the bare infinitive clauses performing different syntactic functions.



### to-infinitive

- (24) a. [To spoil your dress] would be a pity. (S)  
b. I prefer [to stay home]. (Od)  
c. Her ambition is [to become a pilot]. (Cs)  
d. He went to London [to visit his mother]. (ADV)  
e. To be fair, his work is quite good. (ADV)

### bare infinitive

- (25) a. All she does is [wash up the dishes]. (S)  
b. [Wash up the dishes] was all I did. (S)  
c. They made her [leave the university]. (Co)  
d. I heard someone [slam the door]. (Co)

### 6.2.3 Verbless Clauses

A verbless clause is one whose main verb has been deleted. Consider the relationship between the first and the second sentence in the following pairs and notice how the second is derived from the first.

- (26) a. [As he was an orphan at the age of four], Bill was brought up by a distant relative.  $\Rightarrow$   
b. [An orphan at the age of four], Bill was brought up by a distant relative.  
(27) a. [His hands were deep in his pocket] - the man stood watching the fight.  $\Rightarrow$   
b. [His hands deep in his pocket], the man stood watching the fight.  
(28) a. [When they are ripe], these apples will be delicious.  $\Rightarrow$   
b. [When ripe], these apples will be delicious.

Notice that in addition to deleting the verb in the subordinate clause, it is common to delete the subject of a subordinate clause. For example, the subordinate clause in (28.a) has the following structure:

Subordinator	Clause		
	S	V	Cs
(29) When	they	are	ripe

Changing this finite clause into a verbless clause as in (28.b) involves two steps/transformations:

#### (i) Subject Deletion (S-Deletion)

The subject of the subordinate clause (i.e. **they**) is deleted because it is identical to the subject of the main (matrix) clause (i.e. **these apples**).

#### (ii) Verb Deletion (V-Deletion)

The main verb in the subordinate clause (i.e. **are**) is also deleted.



#### 6.2.4 Finite and Non-Finite VPs

As you already know, there is formal correspondence between finite and non-finite VPs. Before we discuss the relationship between the two types of VP, it is convenient to remind you that a finite VP can belong to one of the following categories:

- (i) a. Simple VP: write, writes, wrote
- (ii) a. Perfective VP: has written, have written, had written
- (iii) a. Progressive VP: is/are/am writing; was/were writing
- (iv) a. Perfective and Progressive VP: has/have/had been writing

It is also convenient to remind you that an active VP that incorporates a transitive verb often has a corresponding passive VP. Thus the four active VPs in (i-iv) above have the following corresponding passive VPs respectively:

- (i) b. is/are/ written
- (ii) b. has/have/had been written
- (iii) b. is/are/was/were being written
- (iv) b. ? has/have/had been being written

In principle any finite VP has a corresponding non-finite VP, in particular an infinitive VP and an ING VP. However, there are restrictions on the occurrence of complex NF verb phrases. The following non-finite VPs are, nonetheless, used in English:

##### **Infinitive VPs**

- (i) Simple: to write
- (ii) Perfective: to have written
- (iii) Progressive: to be writing

Below are some representative examples incorporating these three types of infinitive phrases:

- (30) a. [To err is ] human. (simple VP)
- b. [To have failed the exam] annoyed Bill. (PERF VP)
- c. It is odd [for you to be eating at this time of night]. (PROG VP)

##### **ING VPs**

Only two types of ING VPs are frequently used in English, namely, the simple VP and the perfective VP. Below are some illustrative examples:

- (31) a. [Not knowing the answer], Bill left the classroom. (simple VP)
- b. [Having done his homework], Bill went for a walk. (PERF VP)



**EXERCISE (11)**

Change the following finite VPs into (i) infinitive phrases, and (ii) ING phrases. Put a question mark if the VP is unlikely to be used.

	F/VP	INF/VP	ING/VP
1.	walk		
2.	knows		
3.	has locked		
4.	had done		
5.	is writing		
6.	was painting		
7.	have decorated		
8.	assumes		
9.	recognize		
10.	are eating		

**REMINDER**

(i) To change a finite VP into an INF/VP, change the first element of the F/VP into the base form: cf.

- has eaten → to have eaten (PERF)
- speaks → to speak (Simple)
- is painting → to be painting (PROG)

(ii) To change a F/VP into a NF/ING phrase, convert the first element of the F/VP into the ING form :

- wrote → writing (Simple)
- had written → having written (PERF)

**PRIMARY VERB PARADIGM**

Since this course draws heavily on what you studied in *STRUCTURE 1*, particularly with respect to the verbal system, it is convenient to remind you of the Primary Verb Paradigm, in particular the correspondence between F/VPs and NF ones. Study this table carefully and make sure that you understand it very well before moving to Unit Two.



## PRIMARY VERB PARADIGM

	VP	TENSE	PHASE	ASPECT	VOICE
1.	write/writes	-PAST	-PERF	-PROG	-PASS
2.	is/are/written	-PAST	-PERF	-PROG	+PASS
3.	wrote	+PAST	-PERF	-PROG	-PASS
4.	was/were written	+PAST	-PERF	-PROG	+PASS
5.	has/have written	-PAST	+PERF	-PROG	-PASS
6.	has/have been written	-PAST	+PERF	-PROG	+PASS
7.	had written	+PAST	+PERF	-PROG	-PASS
8.	had been written	+PAST	+PERF	-PROG	+PASS
9.	is/are/am writing	-PAST	-PERF	+PROG	-PASS
10.	is/are/am being written	-PAST	-PERF	+PROG	+PASS
11.	was/were writing	+PAST	-PERF	+PROG	-PASS
12.	was/were being written	+PAST	-PERF	+PROG	+PASS
13.	has/have been writing	-PAST	+PERF	+PROG	-PASS
14.	has/have been being written	-PAST	+PERF	+PROG	+PASS
15.	had been writing	+PAST	+PERF	+PROG	-PASS
16.	had been being written	+PAST	+PERF	+PROG	+PASS

### NOTE:

Variations in **number** and **person** are not counted. For instance, has written and have written are considered as belonging to the same category of VP. Both of them are (i) present, (ii) perfect, (iii) non-progressive, and (iv) non-passive (i.e. active).

?

### SAQ (8)

Study the above table carefully and answer the following questions:

1. **TENSE:** How many VPs are **PAST** and how many are **NONPAST** (i.e. present)?
2. **PHASE:** How many VPs are **PERFECT** and how many are **NONPERFECT**?
3. **ASPECT:** How many VPs are **PROGRESSIVE** and how many are **NONPROGRESSIVE**?
4. **VOICE:** How many VPs are **PASSIVE** and how many are **NONPASSIVE** (i.e. Active)?

## 6.3 Subject

Subordinate clauses are also classified into two types according to whether the clause has an expressed (overt) subject or a suppressed (implicit) one (i.e. the subject is deleted). Finite clauses generally have an expressed subject. The following are some representative examples. The subject in the clause is underlined.



- (32) a. I know [that you are a secret agent].  
 b. The assumption is [that things will improve].  
 c. [That he is the director's son] is irrelevant.  
 d. The news is [that the boss has resigned].  
 e. [If he calls], tell him [that I am not here].  
 f. [Whether she believes you or not] is none of my business.  
 g. I'll meet them [when they are ready].

Non-finite and verbless clauses, on the other hand, may be used **with** or **without** a subject. The following are examples of non-finite and verbless clauses having expressed subjects. Notice that the subject of the clause is underlined.

(i) **ING clauses**

- (33) a. [Bill's losing the race] annoyed his parents.  
 b. Everybody greatly appreciated [Lulu's defeating Abdul].

(ii) **EN clauses**

- (34) a. [The letters posted], he got into his car and drove off.  
 b. [His leg caught in the trap], he couldn't escape.

(iii) **Infinitive clauses**

- (35) a. [For you to spoil your dress] would be a pity.  
 b. I'd prefer [you to go home now].

(iv) **Verbless clauses**

- (36) [His hands deep in his pocket], the man stood watching the fight.

Non-finite clauses that occur without a subject are of two types:

- (i) Those where the subject of the clause has been deleted because it is identical to another noun (S or O) in the main (matrix) clause. The subject of the clause is thus deleted to avoid repetition. Study the transformational relationship between the (a) and (b) sentences in the following pairs. Notice that the deleted/suppressed subject is replaced by the symbol  $\Delta$  :

- (37) a. Bill remembered [Bill locked the door]  $\Rightarrow$



- b. Bill remembered  $\Delta$  locking the door.

- (38) a. [Bill had been kept waiting] annoyed Bill  $\Rightarrow$



- b. [  $\Delta$  to have been kept waiting] annoyed Bill.

**QUESTION**

What else happens when we convert (a) into (b)?  
 Look specifically at the form of the verb.



(ii) Those where the subject of the clause has been deleted because it is generic (not specific or indefinite) in the sense that it refers to any one or sometimes to the speakers/hearers: cf.

- (39) a. [One learns Arabic] is difficult.  
 b.  $\Delta$  learning Arabic is difficult.  $\Rightarrow$   
 c. Learning Arabic is difficult.
- (40) a. [One forgets] is normal.  $\Rightarrow$   
 b.  $\Delta$  to forget is normal.  
 c. To forget is normal.
- (41) a. [We/You report this to the police] is necessary.  
 b.  $\Delta$  to report this to the police is necessary.  $\Rightarrow$   
 c. To report this to the police is necessary.

In verbless clauses the deletion of the subject of the clause is usually accompanied by the deletion of the verb. Consider the following data:

- (42) a. [When they are ripe, these apples will be delicious.  $\Rightarrow$   
 b. [When  $\Delta$   $\Delta$  ripe], these apples will be delicious.



### SAQ (9)

Identify the class/type of the underlined clauses in terms of (i) function, (ii) verb form, and (iii) subject. The first one is done for you. Notice that all the examples occur in this section. Fill in all the information in the table that follows:

1. His ambition is to become a pilot.
2. That the proposal will pass seems very unlikely.
3. I know that she will try again.
4. She enjoys talking to foreigners.
5. Bill's losing the race surprised us.
6. To forget is normal.
7. Bill remembered locking the door.
8. I'd prefer you to go home.
9. The letters posted, he got into his car and drove off.
10. His hands deep in his pocket, the man stood watching the match.
11. He went to London to visit his mother.
12. His leg caught in the trap, he could not escape.
13. The company collapsed because Bill doesn't like Mary.
14. Walking in the rain is fun.

### Symbols used

- F Finite clause  
 NF Non-finite clause  
 V-less Verbless clause  
 +S With subject (expressed S)  
 -S Without subject (suppressed S)



## SUBORDINATE CLAUSES: SUMMARY SHEET

	I: FUNCTION					II: VERB FORM					III: SUBJECT	
No.	S	Od	Cs	Co	ADV	F	NF			V-less	+S	-S
							ING	EN	INF			
1.			X						X			X
2.												
3.												
4.												
5.												
6.												
7.												
8.												
9.												
10.												
11.												
12.												
13.												
14.												
15.												
16.												



### EXERCISE (12)

Supply the deleted elements (i.e. S and/or V) in the following NF and V-less clauses. The deleted element is represented by Δ.

1. [Δ realizing that he was a failure], Bill returned to his town.
2. I'd prefer [Δ to do this on my own].
3. [Δ to learn a foreign language] would be an advantage for you.
4. I am honoured [Δ to have been invited].
5. She enjoys [Δ walking in the rain].
6. I hate [Δ lying].
7. [Δ to err] is human.
8. [ΔΔ Tortured and humiliated], the prisoner committed suicide.
9. [ΔΔ looked at from this angle], the situation seems different.
10. We eat [Δ to live].
11. [If ΔΔ in danger], ring me at once.
12. [ΔΔ uncertain what to do], she began [Δ to cry].



## 7. OVERVIEW

This unit has revised the major syntactic issues which you covered in *STRUCTURE 1* and which are relevant to the issues to be covered in this course. In addition, you have been introduced to two of the major themes to be covered in this course, namely, **subordination** and **coordination**. Another important issue covered in this unit is "Types of Subordinate Clauses". Make sure that you understand the main issues covered in this unit before you move to Unit Two. In fact, the issues covered in this unit are essential for the understanding of all subsequent units in this course.

## 8. PREVIEW OF UNIT TWO

Unit Two deals exclusively with nominal clauses, both finite and non-finite. One important aspect of grammar that you should pay special attention to in this unit is "Finite and Non-Finite Clauses as Objects". Like other units in this course, Unit Two combines both theoretical description and practice, for theory without practice is rigid and practice without theory is blind.

## 9. ANSWER KEY

### EXERCISE (1)

- |              |                  |                |
|--------------|------------------|----------------|
| 1. N ; Conj  | 2. Adj ; Adj     | 3. N ; N       |
| 4. Adj ; Adj | 5. V ; V ; N     | 6. V or Adj    |
| 7. Adv       | 8. V ; Adj       | 9. V ; N       |
| 10. Adv      | 11. N ; Prep ; N | 12. Prep ; N   |
| 13. V ; N    | 14. N            | 15. Adv ; Adj  |
| 16. Conj     | 17. Conj ; Adv   | 18. Pro ; Prep |
| 19. Adj      | 20. N ; Adj      |                |

### EXERCISE (2)

- |             |              |                 |
|-------------|--------------|-----------------|
| 1. NP       | 2. VP/Prep-P | 3. NP           |
| 4. Adj-P    | 5. NP        | 6. NP           |
| 7. NP/Adv-P | 8. Adj-P     | 9. Adj-P        |
| 10. NP      | 11. NP       | 12. NP ; Prep-P |
| 13. NP      | 14. Adv-P    | 15. Adv-P       |

### EXERCISE (3)

1. B/returns: F
2. B/is: F ; dressed: NF
3. C/is: F ; told: NF
4. C/became: F
5. A/was: F ; seen: NF
6. C/has: F ; reached: NF
7. C/have: F ; been: NF ; seen: NF
8. C/has: F ; been: NF
9. C/had: F ; driven: NF
10. C/had: F ; sunk: NF



11. B/are: F ; being: NF ; built: NF
12. C/have: F ; been: NF ; widening: NF
13. B/had: F ; been: NF ; studying: NF
14. A/would: F ; have: NF ; been: NF
15. C/will: F ; be: NF
16. C/can: F ; understand: NF
17. B/could: F ; run: NF
18. C/had: F ; been: NF

#### EXERCISE (4)

1. .... when I come back.
2. Since you can't use your car .....
3. If you work hard .....
4. Although he is five years old, .....
5. .... because he is sick.

#### EXERCISE (5)

S	V	Od	ADV
1. The boys	will cook	the dinner	in the tent.
NP <sub>1</sub>	VP	NP <sub>2</sub>	Prep-P

S	V	Oi	Od
2. Mr. Smith	has brought	his daughter	a new car
NP <sub>1</sub>	VP	NP <sub>2</sub>	NP <sub>3</sub>

S	V	Cs
3. His reports	have been	very poor.
NP	VP	Adj-P

S	V	ADV/P	ADV/T
4. John and Mary	are flying	to Damascus	next week.
NP <sub>1</sub>	VP	Prep-P	NP <sub>2</sub>

#### EXERCISE (6)

S	V-intrans
1. a. They	can fish.
(Aux)	(V)
(i.e. they are able to fish)	

S	V-trans	Od
b. They	can	fish.
(i.e. they put fish in cans)		



- |       |       |         |            |          |
|-------|-------|---------|------------|----------|
|       | S     | Adv     | V-intrans  | ADV      |
| 2. a. | Terry | finally | decided on | the boat |
- (i.e. He took his decision while he was on the boat)

- |    |       |         |            |          |
|----|-------|---------|------------|----------|
|    | S     | Adv     | V-trans    | Od       |
| b. | Terry | finally | decided on | the boat |
- (= chose)  
(i.e. He chose the boat)

### EXERCISE (7)

- Many people still believe that the earth is flat.
- The rumour is that the Prime Minister will resign.
- You will succeed if you work hard.
- Bill was trying to buy his own house because he wanted to feel independent.
- I won't do this for you until you clean the place up.
- Shop assistants have to wait until the last customer has left.
- As soon as they entered the room, the lights went off.
- If you had invited me, I would have come to your party.

### EXERCISE (8)

- ..... when I come back.
- Since you can't use your car .....
- If you work hard .....
- Although he is five years old, .....
- ..... because he is sick.

### EXERCISE (9)

- Bill went to bed because he felt ill.
- After she got married, Susan became ill-tempered.
- You should inform the police whenever your family is in trouble.
- Since your secretary is not here, I'll type this letter for you.

### EXERCISE (10)

- |        |        |         |
|--------|--------|---------|
| 1. ADV | 2. S   | 3. Od   |
| 4. Od  | 5.     | Cs6. Od |
| 7. S   | 8. ADV | 9. Od   |
10. ADV

### EXERCISE (11)

- |                      |                  |
|----------------------|------------------|
| 1. to walk           | walking          |
| 2. to know           | knowing          |
| 3. to have locked    | having locked    |
| 4. to have done      | having done      |
| 5. to be writing     | ? being writing  |
| 6. to be painting    | ? being painting |
| 7. to have decorated | having decorated |
| 8. to assume         | assuming         |
| 9. to recognize      | recognizing      |
| 10. to be eating     | ? being eating   |



### **EXERCISE (12)**

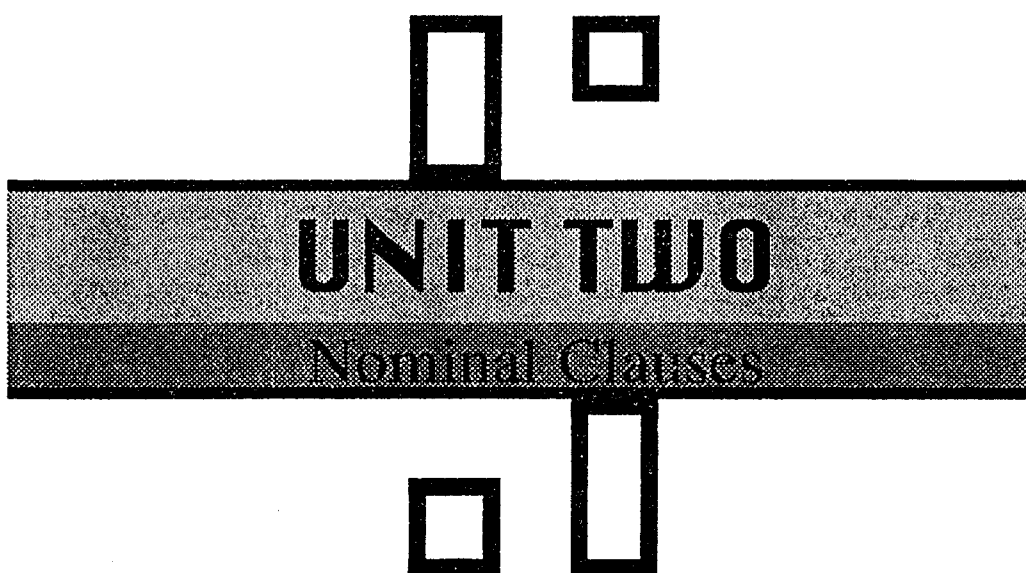
- |              |                   |                           |
|--------------|-------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. S/Bill    | 2. S/I            | 3. S/you                  |
| 4. S/I       | 5. S/she          | 6. S/I or someone         |
| 7. S/someone | 8. S/he ; Aux/was | 9. S/it ; Aux/is          |
| 10. S/we     | 11. S/you: V/are  | 12. S/she ; V/was ; S/she |

### **10. REFERENCES**

- |   |
|---|
| 1. Aarts and Arts (1982): Chapters 4 and 8. |
| 2. Hudson, R.A. (1971): Chapters 3 and 4.   |
| 3. Jackson, Howard (1982): PP. 83-96.       |
| 4. Kaplan, J.P. (1989): PP. 267-300.        |
| 5. Quirk and Greenbaum (1973): Chapter 11.  |

\*\*\*\*\*



A decorative graphic consisting of a central horizontal bar with a textured, greyish background. The bar is divided into two sections by a thin white line. The top section contains the text "UNIT TWO" in a bold, sans-serif font. The bottom section contains the text "Nominal Clauses" in a smaller, sans-serif font. Four squares are arranged around the bar: two above and two below. The top-left square is a simple outline. The top-right square is a solid black square. The bottom-left square is a simple outline. The bottom-right square is a solid black square.

# UNIT TWO

## Nominal Clauses



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## **1. INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1 Preview**

This unit incorporates a detailed description of nominal clauses: types, distribution and the transformations that operate on them. Of particular importance is the type of transitive verb that may be followed by finite/non-finite clauses. As a teacher of English, you should be able to use clauses, particularly as direct objects, correctly and efficiently. It is also important to know the meaning of the verb, hence you should make ample use of your English-English dictionary while dealing with this unit. As pointed out in Unit One, it is no use just knowing the theoretical descriptive analysis of complex sentences; it is equally important to practise producing and using such sentences with ease, accuracy and confidence.

### **1.2 Unit Objectives**

Upon completing this unit, you should be able to:

1. **recognize** all types of nominal clauses and **identify** their form and function,
2. **recognize** the structure of nominal clauses (including deleted elements),
3. **transform** finite into non-finite clauses and vice versa,
4. **recognize** and **use** correctly verbs that are followed by gerundive clauses, verbs that are followed by infinitival clauses, and verbs that can be followed by both types of clause,
5. **be aware** of the major types of transformations that operate on nominal clauses, and
6. **use** nominal clauses appropriately and correctly in speech and writing.

### **1.3 Unit Sections**

In addition to this introduction and to the overview at the end, Unit Two contains four main sections as follows:

<b><u>Section No.</u></b>	<b><u>Content</u></b>
2	Syntactic Functions of Nominal Clauses S, Od, Co, Cs, COMP-NOM, COMP-ADJ, COMP-PREP
3	Finite Nominal Clauses that-clauses; Wh-clauses; if-clauses; Yes/No clauses; nominal relative clauses
4	Non-finite Nominal Clauses -ING participle clauses (with expressed and suppressed subjects); infinitive clauses (with expressed and suppressed subjects); syntactic functions; classes of transitive verbs followed by clauses



**Syntactic Transformations**

subject deletion; modal-deletion; subject raising; object raising; extraposition; preposition deletion; replacement of finite nominal clauses by non-finite ones and vice versa.

This unit also contains (9) Exercises and (9) SAQs.

**1.4 Supplementary Reading**

For further details on the topic of this unit, you are advised to consult the following references (See bibliographical details at the end of the book).

1. Aarts and Aarts (1982), pp. 82-88.
2. Alexander, L. (1988), pp. 299-321.
3. Frank, M. (1986), pp. 57-140.
4. Kaplan, J. (1989), pp. 270-300.
5. Quirk and Greenbaum (1973), pp. 309-346.
6. Soames and Perlmutter (1979), pp. 79-118.





## **2. SYNTACTIC FUNCTIONS**

An embedded sentence may realize one of the major functions in the clause/sentence structure. Nominal clauses are embedded sentences that occur in positions that are typical of nouns, pronouns and NPs. In such cases the nominal clause realizes one of the following functions; S, O, C (see section 2.1 below). On the other hand, a nominal clause may become part of a phrase. The phrases that may contain a nominal clause are: NP, Adj-P and Prep-P (see Section 2.2 below).

### **2.1 Sentence Constituent**

As pointed out above, nominal clauses occur in positions that are typical of nouns and pronouns. The most typical functions which nominal clauses have as constituents of the sentence are: (i) S, (ii) Od, and (iii) Cs. Below are representative examples:

#### **(i) Subject**

- (1) a. **That Bill come late** surprised us.  
b. **Why he wants to resign** is still unknown.  
c. **Who will be the Prime Minister next year** is none of my business.  
d. **Bill's losing the race** annoyed his parents.  
e. **Her having stolen the money** is immaterial.  
f. **Driving a fast car** can be exhilarating.  
g. **Climbing this mountain** is tiring.  
h. **Having had to wait for such a long time** bored me.  
i. **To have to leave so soon** is annoying.  
j. **To be accused of dishonesty** distressed Jane.  
k. **For you to spoil your dress** would be a pity.  
l. **For them to be punished** is unfair.

#### **POINTER**

Notice that the ING clauses in (f-h) and the infinitive clauses in (i) and (j) do not have a subject. What is the deleted subject in each case?



#### **(ii) Direct Object**

- (2) a. I reckon **that Bill is bluffing**.  
b. We don't know **why he wants to resign**.  
c. He promised **that he would come**.  
d. I hope **that they would leave tomorrow**.  
e. I wouldn't mind **living here**.  
f. We expect John **to arrive here on time**.  
g. I want **to open the door**.  
h. I'll show you **how to make it**.



(iii) **Subject Complement**

- (3) a. The fact is **that Bill doesn't like Mary**.  
b. The rumour is **that Bill and Mary are getting married**.  
c. The problem is **who will take care of my cat when I am away**.  
d. The question is **whether to sack him or not**.  
e. Her hobby is **collecting foreign stamps**.  
f. Her ambition was **to become an actress**.  
g. The most surprising thing was **John's being elected chairman**.

The other two functions in sentence/clause structure that are realized by a N, Pro or NP are the **indirect object (Oi)** and the **object complement (Co)**. These two functions are commonly realized by nouns and occupations that refer to human beings respectively: e.g.

- (4) a. Bill gave **Mary (Oi)** an apple.  
b. Mary taught **Bill (Oi)** a song.  
c. Jack sent **Gill (Oi)** a Christmas card.
- (5) a. They elected Bill **chairman (Co)**.  
b. Mary made Bill **a servant (Co)**.  
c. They appointed Zaki **manager (Co)**.

Nominal clauses typically refer to actions and abstract ideas and facts. This explains why the two functions Oi and Co are not commonly realized by a clause. There are limited circumstances, however, where these two functions are realized by a clause. Consider the following examples:

(iv) **Indirect Object**

- (6) The hostess gave [**whoever came to her party**] a copy of her new novel.

(v) **Object Complement**

- (7) a. Paint this door **whatever colour you want**.  
b. I found Bill **driving my car**.  
c. They made Bill **clean the room**.

## 2.2 Phrase Constituent

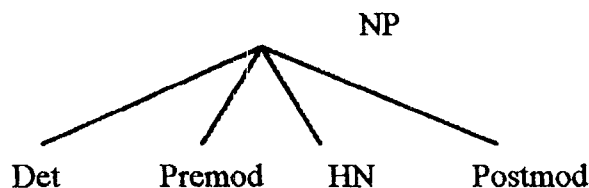
As pointed out above, a nominal clause may become a constituent of a phrase. The three phrases that may contain a clause are: (i) Noun Phrase, (ii) Adjective Phrase and (iii) Prepositional Phrase. Below is a brief discussion of each type.



### 2.2.1 Noun Phrase

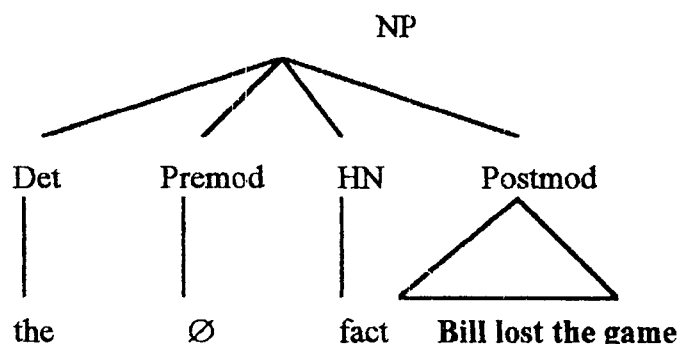
An NP, as you recollect, has the following structure:

(8) a.



The function POSTMOD may be realized by an embedded sentence (i.e. clause) as in the following Phrase Marker (PM):

(8) b.



The embedded sentence may appear in the surface structure as a subordinate clause linked to the HN by means of the subordinating conjunction *that*: cf.

(8) c. The fact *that Bill lost the game*.

The resulting NP in (8.c) can occur in all positions typical of basic (non-expanded) NPs: e.g.

- (9) a. S / [The fact *that Bill lost the game*] is annoying.
- b. Od / [I regret [the fact *that Bill lost the game*].
- c. Cs / What is annoying is [the fact *that Bill lost the game*].
- d. C-Prep / We are aware of [the fact *that Bill lost the game*].

Although the clause *that Bill lost the game* functions as POSTMOD to the HN *fact*, most grammarians refer to this function as either (i) NOMINAL Complement (COMP/NOM), or (ii) APPOSITIVE. We shall use the former term (i.e. COMP/NOM) for purposes of consistency, for, as we shall notice below, a noun clause may function (on the phrase level) as a Prepositional Complement (COMP/PREP) in a Prep-P or as an Adjectival Complement (COMP/ADJ) in an Adj-P (see sections 2.2.2 and 2.2.3. below).

However, before we cite illustrative examples of nominal clauses functioning as COMP/NOM, it is expedient to explain why some grammarians (e.g. Quirk, et.al, 1985) refer to this function of nominal clauses as APPOSITIVE. To this end, we



shall briefly explain the phenomenon of APPPOSITION in English and cite relevant examples.

An appositive is a statement (or restatement) of the content of a word or a phrase. The **appositive** usually comes next to the word or phrase that it is in **apposition** to. Consider the following example:

(10) Your friend John has just telephoned.

In this example the noun John is the appositive to the NP your friend. The relationship between the appositive and the word/phrase which it is in apposition to is commonly that of  $X: = Y$  and  $Y = X$ : cf.

- (11)a. Your friend is John.  
b. John is your friend.

There are two types of apposition in English: (i) restrictive, and (ii) nonrestrictive. Below is a brief discussion of the two types.

(i) **Restrictive Apposition**

A restrictive appositive as in (10) above tells the reader/speaker that the word or phrase is limited in meaning by its appositive; i.e. it restricts the meaning of the noun (phrase) by providing a definite answer to the question: Which friend? Notice that the restrictive appositive is not separated from the head by commas (in writing) as is the case in nonrestrictive apposition (see example (12) below).

(ii) **Nonrestrictive Apposition**

Nonrestrictive apposition can be illustrated by the following example:

(12) My eldest brother, Bill, left yesterday,  
where the appositive Bill merely adds information about the NP my eldest brother; it is a kind of parenthetical information. This explains why the appositive Bill is placed between commas in writing. Notice further that, unlike the restrictive appositive, which does not break the intonation of the sentence (e.g. 10 above), a non-restrictive appositive (e.g. 12) breaks up the intonation of the sentence in which it occurs.

Below are some illustrative examples of nominal clauses functioning as COMP/NOM (i.e. APPOSITIVE). Notice that the head NP is placed between brackets:

(i) **COMP/NOM (APPOS)**

- (13)a. [The fact] that Bill failed the exam is odd.  
b. [The rumour] that Bill and Mary are getting married is not true.  
c. [The idea] of spending his life in prison horrified him.  
d. [This business] of teaching English grammar is not easy.  
e. [The plan] to rebuild the castle did not materialize.

Appositive clauses will be discussed in detail in ensuing units. Suffice it at this point to note that:



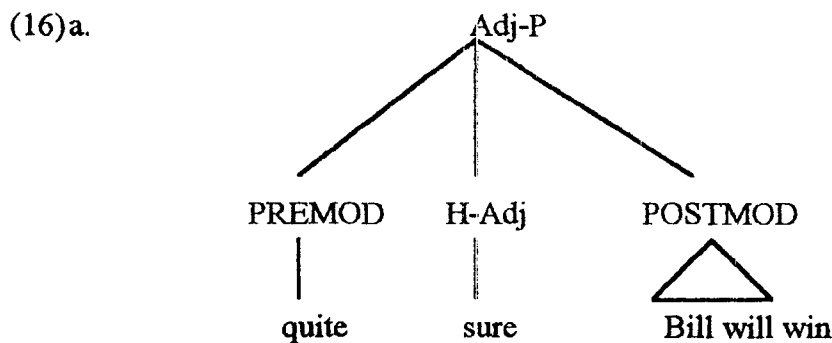
- (i) The function COMP/NOM (= APPOS) is a typical function (on the phrase level) of both finite and non-finite nominal clauses.
- (ii) Nominal clauses having the function COMP/NOM should be distinguished from other types of postnominal modifiers, particularly relative clauses, which will be discussed in detail in Unit Four below. Notice the difference between the following two sentences:

(14) The fact that Bill came late surprised us.  
       HN       COMP-NOM

(15) The fact that Bill mentioned is insignificant.  
       HN       POSTMOD (REL CL)

### 2.2.2. Adjectival Phrase

As you already know, the Adjective Phrase has the following structure:



#### REMINDER

The most important constituent in the Adj-P is the H-Adj.



The function POSTMOD may be realized by a variety of linguistic elements (e.g. Prep-P).

What is important to know here is that the POSTMOD position in (16.a) above may be realized by a clause. Thus from (16.a) we get the following Adj-P:

(16)b. Quite sure that Bill will win.

The relationship between the H-Adj (sure) and the POSTMOD that Bill will win is that of COMPLEMENTATION, that is to say that the finite clause (that Bill will win) complements the H-Adj sure, and hence the function COMP/ADJ. The function COMP/ADJ may be realized by both finite and non-finite clauses. The following are some representative examples:



(i) **Complementation by finite clauses:**

- (17) a. I am [afraid that I cannot help you].  
b. They are [sure that he will win].  
c. She is [convinced that you are innocent].  
d. I am [proud that I have been chosen].  
e. I was [unsure what I should say].

(ii) **Complementation by non-finite clauses:**

- (18) a. I am [honoured to have been invited].  
b. I am [sorry to hear this].  
c. I am [pleased to meet you].  
d. You are [wise to accept this offer].  
e. John is [hard to convince].  
f. John is [determined to resign].  
g. The food is [ready to eat].  
h. It is [essential to see the dentist every year].  
i. I'm [busy writing my Ph.D. thesis].

### 2.2.3 Prepositional Phrase

A prepositional phrase consists of a preposition which takes an obligatory complement. You will remember that a phrase is named after the class of the most important word it contains (i.e. head word). You will remember also that we have examined above two types of phrases where the head can be followed by a clausal complement:

(19)

Phrase Type	Head	COMP
1. NP	N (fact)	that Bill lost the game
2. Adj-P	Adj (sure)	that Bill will win

You will remember also that a general characteristic of a head word is that it can replace the whole phrase. Thus the NP the fact that Bill lost the game can be replaced by the head word fact. What this means is that elements that accompany the head of a phrase are generally optional from a syntactic (but not a semantic) point of view. But this is not the case with prepositional phrases. First, a Prepositional Complement (COMP-PREP) is always obligatory. Secondly, the preposition cannot replace the prepositional phrase: cf.



(20)a. Give this book [to Mary].

b. \*Give this book to.

However, the preposition does **GOVERN** (or control) the form of the noun that follows it; it imposes the **objective case** on its complement: cf.

(21)a. I am not interested [in her/ \*she].

b. I'll send this [to him/\*he] at once.

c. [Between you and me/\*I], there's no truth in what he says.

To sum up, a prepositional phrase consists of two obligatory constituents (i) a governing preposition, and (ii) a complement which can be a noun, a pronoun, a noun phrase, a finite clause or an **-ING** (participle) non-finite clause.

Below are some representative examples of nominal clauses realizing the phrasal function **COMP-PREP**.

(i) **Finite clause**

(22)a. We are not interested [*in what he said*].

b. She is satisfied [*with where she lives*].

(ii) **Non-finite clause**

(23)a. I am keen [*on joining the university this year*].

b. She is not accustomed [*to talking to strangers*].

c. You irritate me [*by talking to me like that*].

?

**SAQ (1)**

Give examples of finite nominal clauses realizing the following functions on the clause/sentence level.

1. S .....
2. Od .....
3. Cs .....

?

**SAQ (2)**

Give examples of non-finite nominal clauses realizing the following functions on the phrase level.

1. COMP-NON: .....
2. COMP-ADJ: .....
3. COMP-PREP: .....





### EXERCISE (1)

Identify the syntactic functions of the underlined nominal clauses in the following examples.

Use one of the following symbols: S, Od, Oi, Cs, Co, COMP/NON, COMP/ADJ, COMP/PREP.

1. We are not aware of the fact that he was a secret agent.
2. The idea is that we should leave early.
3. He told me that Susan was a nurse.
4. I am afraid that I can't help you.
5. That Bill is the director's son is irrelevant.
6. They appreciate your offering to help.
7. Its being Sunday today should make no difference.
8. I am quite used to waiting in queues.
9. You must be tired of being treated like a child.
10. Being asked to leave the classroom embarrassed Jane.
11. Looking after five children is exhausting.
12. The idea of spending his life in prison horrified him.
13. The reason is your being arrogant.
14. We found him smoking in the library.
15. I am honoured to have been invited.
16. He was always happy scaling almost perpendicular cliffs.
17. For you to have come late annoyed the boss.
18. The police hope to solve the crime soon.
19. We asked Sami to visit his mother.
20. The plan to rebuild the castle never materialized.

### REMINDER

Nominal clauses are of two types (according to verb form): (i) finite and (ii) non-finite. Finite clauses are discussed in section 3, whereas non-finite clauses are discussed in section 4.



### 3. FINITE NOMINAL CLAUSES

Finite nominal clauses are those whose main verb is finite; i.e. the tense of the main verb in the clause is necessarily present or past. These fall into four main types:

- (1) **That-clauses**
- (2) **Wh-clauses**
- (3) **If/Whether-clauses**
- (4) **Nominal relative clauses**



### 3.1 That-clauses

A **that**-nominal clause is one that begins with the subordinator **that**. By and a large, this is the most frequent finite nominal clause. In addition, changing an embedded sentence into a **that**-clause requires no subsequent transformations (except for the insertion of the subordinator **that** at the beginning of the embedded sentence). This means that the embedded sentence is kept intact; that is to say there will be no subsequent deletions or reordering of elements in the sentence.

Like other nominal clauses, a **that**-clause may realize some of the functions of the clause/sentence: e.g. S, Od, Cs. It may also realize some of the functions of certain phrases: e.g.

<u>Phrase</u>	<u>Function</u>
(i) NP	COMP-NOM (APPOS)
(ii) Adj-P	COMP-ADJ

#### 3.1.1 Sentence/clause Constituent

As a constituent of the clause/sentence, a **that**-clause may realize any of the following functions: S, Od, Cs.

##### (i) **Subject**

As a subject, the **that**-clause may occur in the following patterns.

##### PATTERN (1)

(1)		<u>S/That-clause</u>	
	V-trans      Od		
a.	That Bill came late	surprised	us.
b.	That all her friends had deserted her	depressed	Mary.
c.	That Bill failed his exams	annoyed	his parents.
d.	That Leeds United lost	infuriated	the coach.
e.	That I had had to wait for such a long time	bored	me.

Notice that not every transitive verb accepts a **that**-clause in the subject position. A nominal **that**-clause often designates an event or an abstract state, condition or fact. The type of verbs that accept a **that**-clause in the subject position (e.g. annoy, depress, surprise) are called **COMMENT VERBS** because they comment on something that was done, still being done or will be done in the future. Below is a representative list of such verbs (Table I).



### COMMENT VERBS

alarm, amaze, amuse, anger, annoy, appall, astonish, astound, bore, charm, cheer, comfort, delight, depress, disappoint, displease, distress, embarrass, enrage, fascinate, frighten, frustrate, horrify, impress, infuriate, inspire, please, puzzle, relieve, shock, surprise, thrill, upset, worry, etc.

Table (I)

### PATTERN (2)

(2) S/That-clause	BE	Cs/Adj
a. That Bill came late	is	odd.
b. That he wants to blackmail you	is	obvious.
c. That the proposal will pass	is	very likely.
d. That Bill hates Mary	is	clear.
e. That she writes with a bias	is	natural.

Notice here that it is the **predicative adjective** (i.e the one in the Cs position) that determines whether a **that-clause** is possible in the subject position or not. Such adjectives are typically abstract ones that comment on an event, state or action. The following is a representative list of such adjectives.

### COMMENT ADJECTIVES

absurd, certain, clear, crucial, dreadful, evident, fair, fortunate, good, helpful, ideal, irrelevant, likely, natural, obvious, odd, strange, unwise, urgent, wise, etc.

Table (II)

### PATTERN (3)

(3) S/That-clause	BE	Cs/-ING Adj
a. That Bill has failed the exam	is	surprising.
b. That you should continue to criticize the administration	is	embarrassing (for me)

Notice that the predicative adjectives in this pattern are derived from **COMMENT VERBS** in **PATTERN (1)** above, and thus they will be referred to as **COMMENT - ING ADJECTIVES**. Below is a representative list of such adjectives.



### COMMENT -ING ADJECTIVES

alarming, annoying, astonishing, boring, depressing, disappointing, distressing, embarrassing, fascinating, frustrating, horrifying, shocking, surprising, upsetting, worrying, etc.

Table (III)

### EXTRAPOSITION

A subject **that**-clause may come at the end of the matrix sentence in which it occurs. Thus instead of the examples in PATTERNS (1), (2) and (3) above, we may use the following alternative patterns, particularly in the spoken language:

#### ALTERNATIVE PATTERN (1)

	IT	Pred	That-clause
(4) a.	It	surprised us	that Bill came late.
b.	It	depressed her	that all her friends had deserted her.

#### ALTERNATIVE PATTERN (2)

	IT	Pred	That-clause
(5) a.	It	is odd	that Bill came late.
b.	It	is obvious	that he wants to blackmail you.

#### ALTERNATIVE PATTERN (3)

	IT	Pred	That-clause
(6) a.	It	is surprising	that Bill has failed the exam.
b.	It	is embarrassing	that you should continue to criticize the administration.

The process (transformation) that transforms the examples in (1), (2) and (3) into the alternative patterns above is called **EXTRAPOSITION**. This is a transformation which shifts (postpones) elements from an initial position to a final position in a sentence, and replaces the postponed element by the pronoun **it**. Consider the following examples:

- (7) a. To drive in Cairo | is difficult |  $\Rightarrow$   
b. It | is difficult | to drive in Cairo.
- (8) a. To spoil your dress | would be a pity |  $\Rightarrow$   
b. It | would be a pity | to spoil your dress.



- |                                |               |                          |
|--------------------------------|---------------|--------------------------|
| (9) a. That Bill lost the race | is surprising | ⇒                        |
| b. It                          | is surprising | that Bill lost the race. |

In the three examples above Extraposition involved two steps:

- (i) Postponement of the subject (i.e. moving it to a final position), and
- (ii) Replacement of the subject by the pronoun it.

The transformational relationship between the (b) and (a) sentences in the three examples above can be represented by the following simple formula:

- (10) a. S + Pred. ⇒  
 b. it + Pred. + S.



### EXERCISE (2)

Apply Extraposition to these sentences and underline the extraposed clause.

1. To meet you would please me. ⇒  
 .....
2. To cross this river would be dangerous. ⇒  
 .....
3. For you to leave early will be quite all right. ⇒  
 .....
4. That you couldn't come was a pity. ⇒  
 .....
5. That he should have said so is strange. ⇒  
 .....
6. Complaining to them won't be much good ⇒  
 .....
7. To see you in good health again is such a relief ⇒  
 .....
8. Who will be the boss next year is none of my business. ⇒  
 .....

### (ii) Direct Object

### PATTERN (4)

- |         |            |                                       |
|---------|------------|---------------------------------------|
| (11) S  | V-trans    | Od/ That-clause                       |
| a. I    | know       | that Bill is honest.                  |
| b. Sue  | thinks     | that you are bluffing.                |
| c. They | guaranteed | that they would meet all our demands. |

Below is a representative list of transitive verbs that may be followed by an object that-clause (Table IV). The verbs are arranged in alphabetical order.



**V-trans + Od/That-clause**

accept, acknowledge, add, admit, affirm, agree, announce, anticipate, argue, assert, assume, believe, bet, boast, calculate, certify, claim, comment, complain, conclude, confess, confirm, consider, contend, decide, declare, deduce, deny, demonstrate, **determine**, disclose, discover, doubt, dream, ensure, establish, estimate, expect, explain, fancy, fear, feel, find, forget, gather, guarantee, guess, hear, hint, hope, imagine, imply, indicate, insist, insure, know, learn, maintain, mean, mention, note, notice, object, observe, predict, presume, presuppose, pretend, promise, protest, prove, realize, recall, recognize, remark, remember, repeat, reply, report, reveal, say, see, show, state, suppose, suggest, suspect, swear, think, understand, vow, warn, write.

Table (IV)

**PATTERN (5)**

(12) S	V-trans +	Od/Subjunctive That-clause
a. We	demand	1. that he <b>should leave</b> at once. 2. that he <b>leave</b> at once.
b. Sue	moved	1. that the meeting <b>should be</b> adjourned. 2. that the meeting <b>be</b> adjourned.
c. I	propose	1. that we <b>should start</b> early. 2. that we <b>start</b> early.

The difference between this pattern and PATTERN (4) is that the verbs in this pattern (e.g. **demand, move, propose**) are normally followed by a subjunctive **that-clause**; i.e. the main verb is preceded by **should** or is in the base form (e.g. **leave, be, start**). Table (V) below contains a representative list of transitive verbs that are followed by a subjunctive **that-clause**.

**V-trans + Od/Subjunctive That-clause**

agree, ask, beg, command, decide, demand, desire, determine, ensure, insist, instruct, move, order, pray, prefer, propose, recommend, request, require, resolve, rule, suggest, urge, etc.

Table (V)

**Note:** Some of the verbs in Table (V) appear also in Table (IV): e.g. agree, decide, determine, ensure, insist, suggest. This means that such verbs can be used in the two patterns. Consider the following examples:



- (13)a. I agree that he was wrong. (PATTERN 4)  
 b. I agree that he (should) be given a warning. (PATTERN 5)

?

### SAQ (3)

Use these verbs with a subjunctive **that**-clause. Consult your dictionary if necessary.

1. insist .....
2. recommend .....
3. require .....
4. suggest .....
5. urge .....

### PATTERN (6)

(13)S	V-ditrans	Oi	Od/ That-clause
a. He	told	me	that Susan was a nurse.
b. Jack	convinced	Sue	that he was right.
c. I	promise	you	that I shall pay the money on time.

Table (VI) below contains some representative ditransitive verbs that occur in this pattern.

#### V-ditrans + Oi + Od/ That-clause

advise, assure, convince, inform, notify, persuade, promise, remind, show, teach, tell, warn, etc.

Table (VI)

### (iii) Subject Complement

### PATTERN (7)

(14)	S	BE	Cs/That-clause
a.	The idea	is	that we should leave early.
b.	The fact	is	that Bill doesn't like Mary.
c.	The problem	is	that he keeps interrupting others.
d.	The rumour	is	that Bill is going to resign.

As you can see, it is the HN in the subject NP that determines whether a **that**-clause is possible in the Cs position or not. Typically such HNs are abstract nouns that refer to ideas, suggestions, facts, etc. Table (VII) below contains some representative nouns.



S + BE + That-clause

idea, assumption, belief, news, hypothesis, rumour, theory,  
problem, fact, trouble, suggestion, etc.

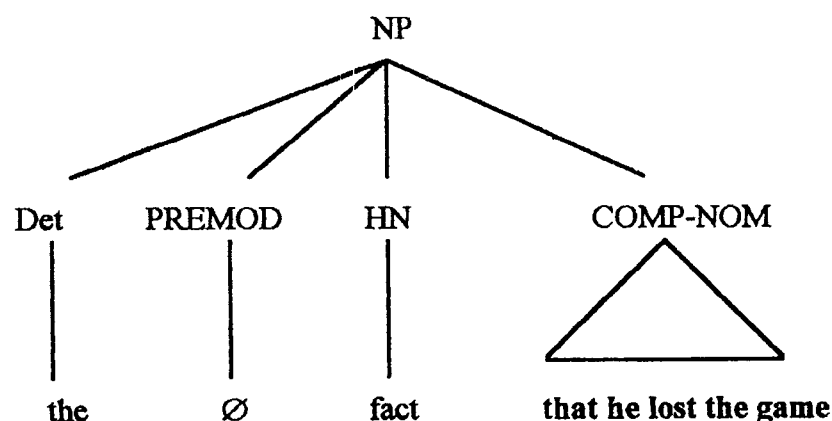
Table (VII)

### 3.1.2 Phrase Constituent

As pointed out above, a *that*-clause may function as a constituent of the following phrases: NP, Adj-P, Prep-P. In all these phrases the *that*-clause follows the head word in the phrase and has a complementing function.

#### (i) Nominal Complement (COMP-NOM)

#### PATTERN (8)



#### Examples:

- (15)a. [The *fact* that Bill lost the race] is annoying.  
b. I regret [ the *fact* that Bill lost the race].  
c. I am aware of [the *fact* that Bill lost the race].
- (16)a. [The *rumour* that Bill and Mary are getting married] is not true.  
b. [The *idea* that we should meet the dean] is not practical.  
c. [The *assumption* that men are better cooks than women] is not valid.  
d. We had [no *evidence* that Robin was the killer].

Notice that not every HN may be followed by a complement *that*-clause. For instance, concrete nouns such as man, room, pen cannot be followed by a nominal



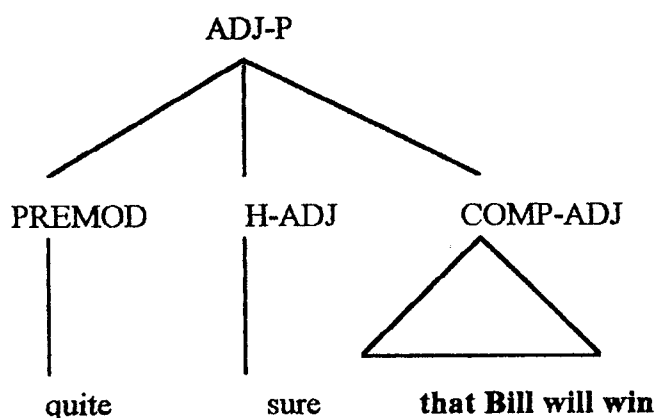
**that-clause.** Only abstract nouns such as the ones in Table (VIII) are susceptible for postmodification by a **that-clause**.

<u>HN + That-clause</u>
assumption, belief, idea, fact, news, rumour, supposition, impression, hypothesis, principle, view, tradition, possibility, opinion, evidence, etc.

Table (VIII)

(ii) Adjectival Complement (COMP-ADJ)

PATTERN (9)



**Examples:**

- (17)a. I am [*afraid that I can't help you*].
- b. She is [*convinced that he is honest*].
- c. I am [*proud that I have been chosen*].
- d. I am [*worried that she'd say no*].
- e. Everybody was [*sad that she had to return to London*].

Below is a representative list of adjectives that may be followed by a **that-clause**:

<u>H-Adj + That-clause</u>
afraid, angry, anxious, confident, glad, happy, pleased, proud, sorry, surprised, upset, worried, aware, certain, conscious, convinced, positive, sure, unaware, etc.

Table (IX)



### 3.1.3. Transformations

#### (i) **Subordinator Deletion**

The subordinator **that** is optionally deleted, particularly when the **that**-clause is brief and uncomplicated: cf.

(20) I know (that) Bill is honest.

It is not possible, however, to delete the subordinator in subject **that**-clauses: cf.

(21) \*Bill came late surprised us.

Notice further that the subordinator **that** has no grammatical function in the subordinate clause; it is a mere conjunction: cf.

S	V		Od	
			S	V Cs
(22)I	know	that	Bill is honest	

#### (ii) **Passivization**

As pointed out above, many transitive verbs can be followed by an object **that**-clause. With clauses as objects, the Passive transformation (or Passivization) is restricted in use. Notice the inadmissibility of the passive sentence in (23.b):

(23)a. Bill thought **that she was attractive**.

b. \***That she was attractive** was thought (by Bill).

However, it is possible to make (23.b) acceptable if the subject **that**-clause is extraposed and replaced by the introductory **it**: cf.

(23)c. It was thought **that she was attractive**.

Thus, one may wish to argue that although Extraposition is generally an optional transformation, there are contexts where it is obligatory as in (23) above. Other contexts where Extraposition is obligatory are defined below.

#### (iv) **Obligatory Extraposition**

As you have seen, Extraposition is generally optional, that is to say, it is a matter of style to choose between (24.a) and (24.b), both of which are quite acceptable:

(24)a. That Bill came late surprised us.

b. It surprised us that Bill came late.

We shall call (24.a) the **underlying sentence** or the sentence underlying (24.b), and we shall call (24.b) the **derived sentence**. We can thus argue that (24.b) is a transform of (24.a) through the optional application of the Extraposition Transformation.



We have, however, seen that in certain contexts, Extraposition is **obligatory**, that is to say, we have to apply it in order to get an acceptable sentence. This is the case in (23.b) above.

There is still another context where Extraposition is obligatory. This is when the **that**-clause originates as a subject to some **intransitive** verbs like **seem**, **appear**, **happen** and **change**. Notice the following data:

S	V-intrans
(25)a. Bill is sick	seems.
b. <b>*That Bill is sick</b>	seems.

S	V-intrans
(26)a. She was there	happened.
b. <b>*That she was there</b>	happened.

Notice that if we want to get an acceptable sentence from the **underlying structure** in (25) and (26), we have to apply Extraposition because both (25.b) and (26.b) are ungrammatical. Thus through the obligatory application of Extraposition to (25.b), we get the acceptable sentence:

(25)c. It seems that Bill is sick.

The same applies to (26.b): cf.

(26)c. It happened that she was there.

#### (v) Preposition Deletion

We have already seen that the preposition that normally occurs with certain adjectives and verbs is obligatorily deleted before a **that**-clause. Notice the unacceptability of the (a) examples and the acceptability of the (b) ones in the following data:

- (27)a. **\*He was surprised *at* [that she had resigned].** ⇒  
 b. He was surprised **that she had resigned**.  
 (28)a. **\*She informed me *of* [that she was going back to U.S.A].** ⇒  
 b. She informed me **that she was going back to U.S.A**.

Notice that the deletion of the preposition is also obligatory in the case of infinitive nominal clauses: cf.

- (29)a. **\*He was surprised *at* [to see her].** ⇒  
 b. He was surprised **to see her**.

Preposition Deletion is, however, **optional** in the case of **Wh**-clauses. Consider the following data:

- (30)a. They weren't clear ***about*** [what they had to do]. ⇒  
 b. They weren't clear **what they had to do**.



### 3.2 Wh-Clauses

**Wh-clauses** are called so because they begin with a **wh-word**: i.e. **who, where, why, which, what, how**, etc. They occur in the whole range of functions in which a nominal **that-clause** occurs. Below is a list of these functions together with illustrative examples and comments.

#### 3.2.1. Sentence Level

On the sentence/clause level, a **wh-clause** realizes the following functions: S, Od, Cs.

##### (i) **Subject**

- (31)a. **Who will be the director next year** is none of my business.  
b. **How the prisoner escaped** is still unknown.  
c. **When we leave** doesn't matter.  
d. **Why he quit so suddenly** is a mystery.  
e. **What he thinks of me** doesn't matter.

Extraposition is possible with all subject **wh-clauses**. From the examples in (31 a-b), it is possible to derive the following sentences:

- (32)a. **It** is none of my business **who will be the director next year**.  
b. **It** is still unknown **how the prisoner escaped**.

##### (ii) **Direct Object**

- (33)a. They have revealed **who damaged the documents**.  
b. We shall discuss **when the next meeting is to take place**.  
c. I don't remember **where we first met**.  
d. We can't imagine **what made him do it**.  
e. They didn't confirm **how much the ticket costs**.

Below is a representative list of transitive verbs which can be followed by a **Wh-clause**.

#### V-trans + Od (Wh-clause)

argue, arrange, ascertain, ask, check, confirm, decide, depend, disclose, discover, discuss, doubt, enquire, explain, find out, forget, guess, indicate, judge, know, notice, observe, predict, prove, realize, remember, say, see, show, tell, think, etc.

Table (X)



### SAQ (5)

Use the following transitive verbs with an object **Wh**-clause. Consult your dictionary if you need to.

1. confirm: .....
2. find out: .....
3. indicate: .....
4. realize: .....
5. judge: .....

### (iii) Subject Complement

- (34)a. The problem is **who** will look after the children.
- b. That was **when** he was well off.
- c. This is **why** we can't take any decision.

### 3.2.2 Phrase Level

On the phrase level, a **Wh**-clause may function as a head complement in the following phrases: NP, Adj-P, Prep-P.

#### (i) Nominal Complement

- (35)a. [The *reason why* he committed suicide] has never been revealed.
- b. [The *question who* should represent us] has not been raised yet.

#### (ii) Adjectival Complement

- (36)a. I am not [*sure who* did this].
- b. They weren't [*clear what* they had to do].

**Note:** Most of the adjectives that accept a **wh**-clause as a complement are constructed with prepositions. The preposition, is sometimes deleted before the **wh**-clause. Thus both (36.b) above and (36.c) below are possible and are viewed as stylistic variants:

- (36)c. They weren't [*clear about what* they had to do].

#### (iii) Prepositional Complement

- (37)a. John is careful [*about what* he does with his money].
- b. We were not consulted [*on whose* name should appear on the invitation].
- c. We are satisfied [*with where* we live].



### 3.2.3. Notes on Wh-Words

(I) The **wh**-element is placed first in the **wh**-clause, as in all the examples above. However, if the **wh**-element is a Prep-P, two alternatives are possible. Consider the following example cited by Quirk, et. al. (1986: 1051):

- (38)a. I asked them [**what they based their predictions on**].  
 b. I asked them [**on what they based their predictions**]. [formal]

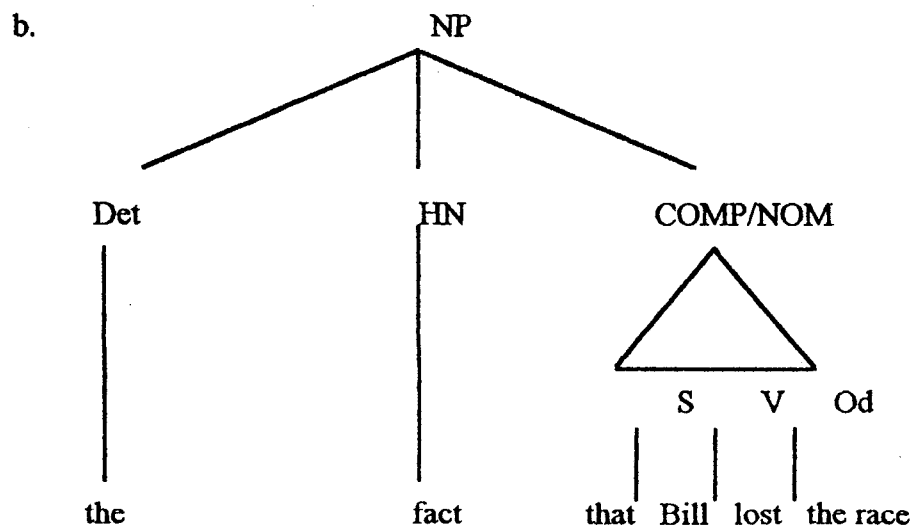
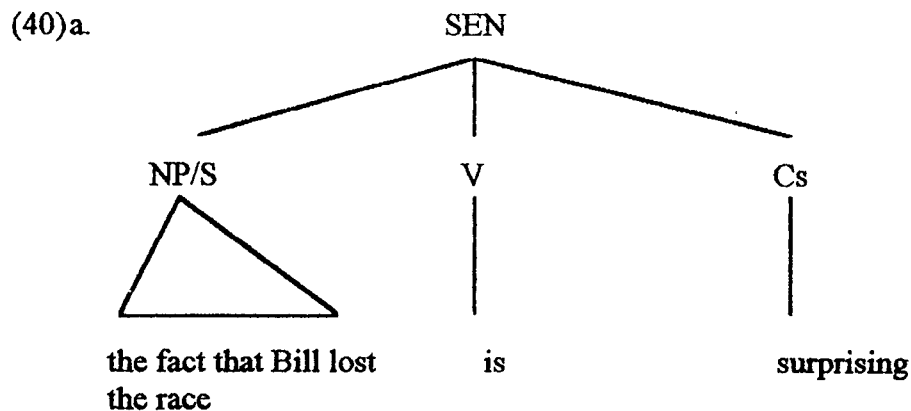
(ii) Unlike the subordinator **that** in a **that**-clause, the **wh**-element always has a grammatical function in the **wh**-clause. Consider the following descriptions:

S	V	Od
		S V Cs
(39)a. I	know	<b>that</b> Bill is honest.

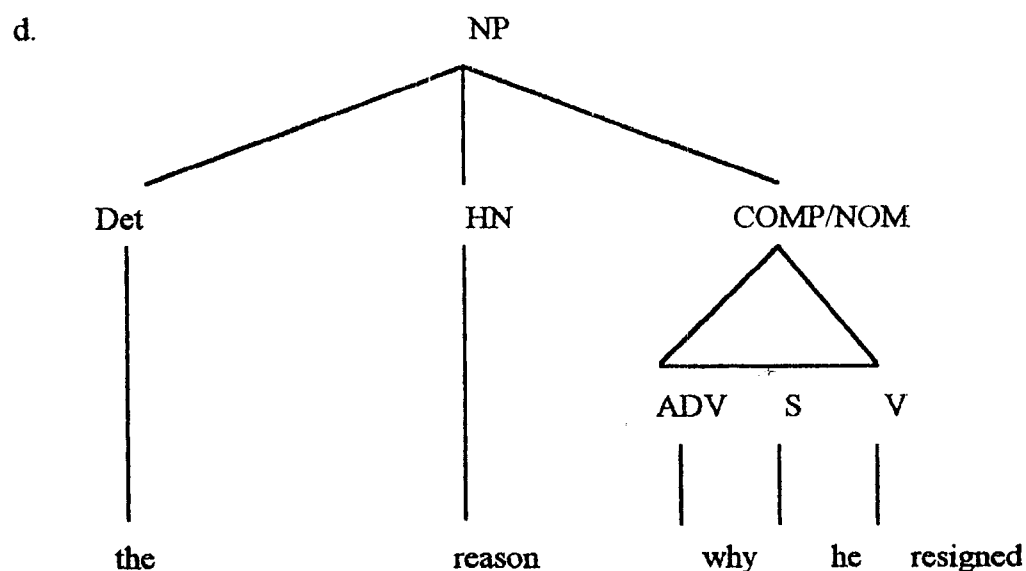
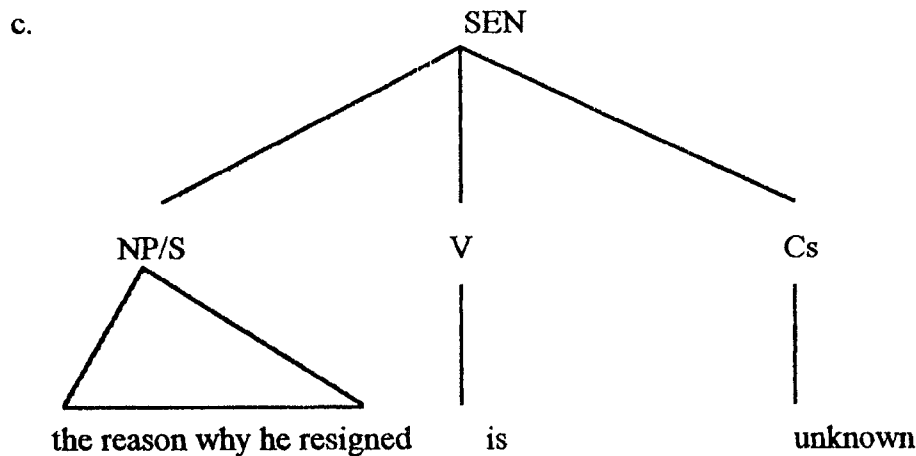
  

S	V	Od
		S V Od
b. I	know	<b>who</b> stole the records.

This is true of clauses that function as constituents of phrases. Consider the following four Phrase Markers:







As can be seen from the above phrase markers, the **wh**-element is not a subordinator; it is an element in clause structure. However, since **wh**-clauses are not introduced by other subordinators, a **wh**-element may be considered as an **initial marker** of subordination in **wh**-clauses as well as in Nominal Relative Clauses (cf. Section 3.4 below).

### 3.3. Yes - No - Interrogative Clauses (If-Clauses)

Certain nominal clauses are introduced by the subordinator **if**: cf.

(41) I asked them **if they wanted tea**.

Notice first that the **if**-clause is obligatory; it functions as a direct object. Notice further that, like the subordinator **that**, the subordinator **if** has no grammatical function within the nominal clause it initiates.



Compared to **that**-clauses and **wh**-clauses the distribution of **if**-clauses is restricted. For instance, an **if**-clause cannot occur as subject unless the clause is **extraposed**: cf.

- (41)a. **\*If Mary likes Bill** is not clear  $\Rightarrow$   
 b. It is not clear **if Mary likes Bill**.

Secondly, an **if**-clause cannot function as a Cs or as a complement to a preceding headword.

The most typical function of the **if**-clause is Od as in (41) above. In this position **if** alternates with **whether**: cf.

- (42)a. Do you know **if/whether** the banks are open?

However, there are contexts where **whether**-clauses only are possible, for instance in the subject position. Compare (41.a) with:

- (41)c. **Whether Mary likes Bill or not** is not clear.

A nominal clause introduced by **if** should be distinguished from an adverbial clause introduced by **if**: cf.

- (43)a. Do you know **if the banks are open**? (NOM)  
 b. I'll cash this cheque **if the banks are open**. (ADV)

### QUESTION

Which of the two clauses can be deleted?

### 3.4 Nominal Relative Clauses

Nominal relative clauses combine features of both nominal clauses and relative clauses. They are nominal because they realize nominal functions: e.g. S, Od, Cs, COMP-PREP. On the other hand, they bear affinities to relative clauses in that they can be expanded into the sequence **HN + RELATIVE CLAUSE**. In other words, the deleted head of this clause may be uniquely recovered. Consider the following examples and the phrase markers that follow them.

- (44)a. 

S	V
I	will accept

Od
whatever they offer me.

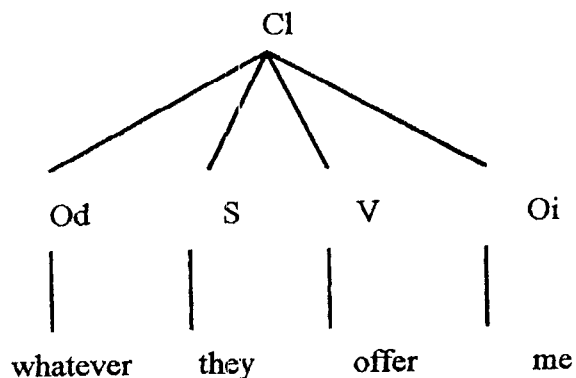
- b. 

S	V
I	will accept

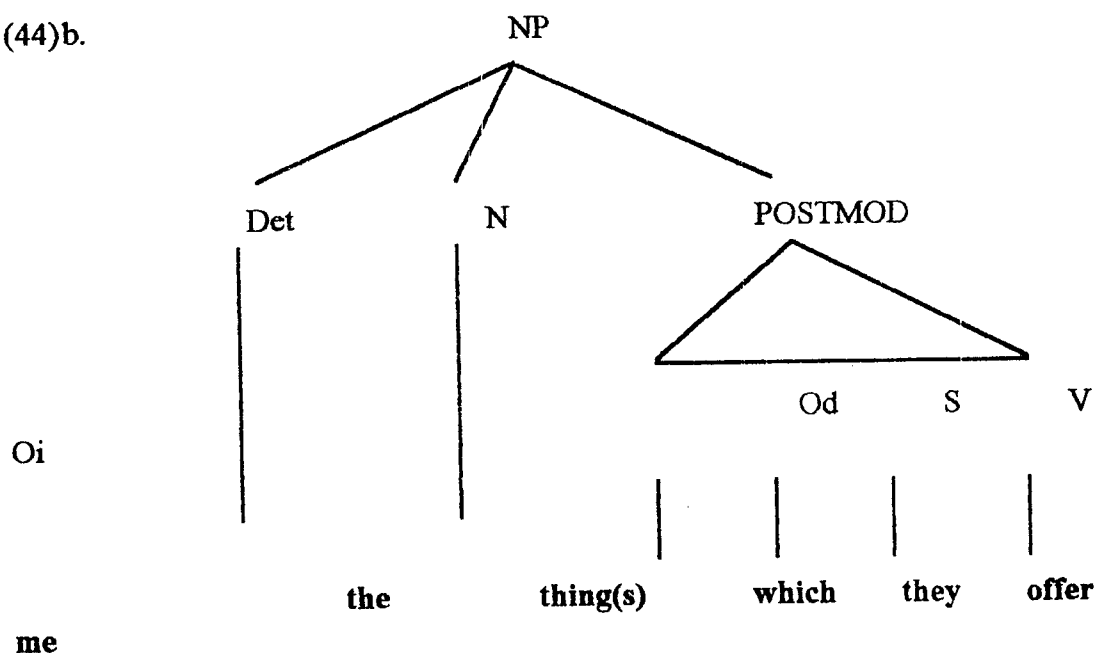
Od
the thing(s) which they offer me.



(44)a.



(44)b.



Other examples of nominal relative clauses are:

(i) **Subject**

(45) **Whoever defeats the enemy shall marry Princess Alexandra.**

(ii) **Indirect Object**

(46) **I'll give whoever solves this problem a generous grant.**

(iii) **Subject Complement**

(47) **Home is where your friends and family are.**

(iv) **Object Complement**

(48) **Call me whatever (names) you like.**



(v) **COMP-PREP**

(49) Sue is quite happy *with* what she is.

**QUESTION**

Unlike other nominal clauses, nominal relative clauses may function as Co and Oi. Why is that? See examples (46) and (48) above.

**NOTE:**

Nominal relative clauses will be discussed further in Unit Four.



**EXERCISE (3)**

Identify the type and function of nominal clauses in the following examples:

1. I don't care if it doesn't rain.
2. Health is what counts most.
3. Do you know who is getting married?
4. I knew he was mistaken.
5. I'm sure that he will help you.
6. I thought that his argument was absurd.
7. I know who stole the records.
8. She is careful about what she says in public.
9. The reason why he quit is still unknown.
10. The problem is who will pay our salaries.
11. How he managed to bluff us is unbelievable.
12. She is proud that she has been invited.
13. The idea that we should leave now is crazy.
14. The principle is that we work one for one.
15. She promised that she would report to us immediately.
16. I move that the meeting be adjourned.
17. That you couldn't make it displeased us.
18. That his wife had deserted him depressed him.
19. That you should say this is odd.
20. I can't imagine what made him do this.





### SAQ (6)

Give examples of the following transformations showing (a) the underlying structure/sentence and (b) the derived one.

1. Optional Extraposition

a. ....

b. ....

2. Obligatory Extraposition

a. ....

b. ....

3. Optional Preposition Deletion

a. ....

b. ....

4. Obligatory Preposition Deletion

a. ....

b. ....

5. Subordinator Deletion

a. ....

b. ....

## 4. NON-FINITE NOMINAL CLAUSES

Only two types of non-finite clauses have nominal functions, namely (i) -ING clauses and (ii) infinitive clauses. Nominal -ING clauses are often referred to as GERUNDIVE or GERUNDIAL clauses. We shall use the term GERUNDIVE or GERUNDIAL, or simply GERUND.

### 4.1 Gerundial Clauses

A gerundive clause is a nominal clause whose main verb is in the -ING form (e.g. **walking, writing**, etc.).

#### 4.1.1 Types/Forms

A gerund clause is a deformed sentence whose subject is either **expressed** or **suppressed**, and whose main verb is immediately followed by the suffix **ING**. The subject, if expressed, characteristically takes the genitive marker **'s**.

Theoretically, every sentence in language may be converted into a gerund clause e.g.

- |                                |   |
|--------------------------------|---|
| (1) a. John lost the race.     | → John's <b>losing</b> the race.        |
| b. They want to stay here.     | → Their <b>wanting</b> to stay here.    |
| c. He speaks English fluently. | → His <b>speaking</b> English fluently. |

#### (i) Gerunds with expressed subject

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| (2) a. I regret [that Bill lost the race]. | ⇒ |
| b. I regret Bill's <b>losing</b> the race. |   |



- (3) a. [That Bill lost the race] is surprising. ⇒  
 b. **Bill's losing the race** is surprising.

(ii) **Gerunds with suppressed subjects**

(i) **suppressed specific (definite) subject**

- (4) a. [That Bill lost the race annoyed him/Bill]. ⇒  
 b. **Losing the race** annoyed Bill.

- (5) a. I regret [that I lost the race]. ⇒  
 b. I regret **losing the race**.

(ii) **suppressed generic (indefinite) subject**

- (6) a. [Δ drives in Amman] is dangerous. ⇒  
 b. **Driving in Amman** is dangerous.

- (7) a. [Δ looks after five children] is tiring. ⇒  
 b. **Looking after five children** is tiring.

According to aspect and phase (i.e. progressive and perfective), the VP in a gerundive clause may be **simple** (i.e. **writing**) or **perfective** (i.e. **having written**). Progressive VPs are quite rare (e.g. ?? **being writing**). Below are some examples of gerundive clauses whose VP is perfective:

- (8) a. I remembered [that I had locked the door]. ⇒  
 b. I remembered [Δ Δ **having locked the door**].
- (9) a. Bill regretted [that she had deserted him].  
 b. Bill regretted [Δ her **having deserted him**].

**WARNING**

We have been assuming that a gerundive clause has a corresponding finite clause (see examples 2, 3, 4, 8 and 9 above). This is not always the case. For instance, the gerundive clause in the following example has no corresponding finite clause; cf.

- (i) a. I enjoy **talking to children**.  
 b. \*I enjoy **that I talk to children**.

**4.1.2 Syntactic Functions**

A gerundive clause occurs in most positions that are characteristic of an NP, both on the clause/sentence level and the phrase level. On the sentence level, a gerundive clause may function as S, Od, Cs and Co. On the phrase level, it may function as a head complement in the following phrases: NP, Prep-P, Adj-P.



**(A) Sentence Level**

**PATTERN (1): S/Gerundive + V + V-Comp**

**(i) Subject**

**Expressed Subject**

- (10)a. Its being Sunday today should make no difference.
- b. His being the director's son is irrelevant.
- c. Their wanting a meal at this time of night is odd.
- d. Jane's passing the exam thrilled her parents.
- e. John's losing the race is a disaster.

**Suppressed Specific (Definite) Subject**

- (11)a. Being asked by the professor to leave the room was embarrassing for me.
- b. Having had to wait for such a long time bored me.
- c. Running in the Olympics for a gold medal is our daughter's ambition.

**Suppressed Indefinite Subject**

- (12)a. Learning Arabic is very difficult.
- b. Playing with explosives is dangerous.
- c. Driving in Cairo is tiring.
- d. Looking after five children is exhausting.

**(ii) Direct Object**

**PATTERN (2): S + V-trans + Od/Gerundive**

**Expressed Subject**

- (13)a. They appreciate your offering to help.
- b. He disliked my working late.
- c. I don't remember my mother's complaining about prices.
- d. I don't understand his leaving his wife.
- e. Would you mind my moving your car?
- f. I shall remember your asking me this question.

**Suppressed Subject**

- (14)a. He suggested reading the instructions first.
- b. They reported seeing the car parked by the bank.
- c. He proposed travelling by helicopter.



- d. Try to avoid **making him angry**.
- e. He didn't even acknowledge **receiving the invitation**.
- f. No one enjoys **deceiving his own family**.

**QUESTION**

What are the suppressed subjects in the gerundive clauses in (11), (12) and (14) above?

Not every transitive verb can be followed by an object gerundive clause. For instance, the verb **believe**, which accepts an object **that**-clause, may not be followed by a gerundive clause: cf.

- (15)a. We believe **that Bill is honest**.
- b. \*We believe **Bill's being honest**.

On the other hand, some verbs that take an object gerundive clause cannot be followed by an object **that**-clause: cf.

- (16)a. She enjoys **playing the piano**.
- b. \*She enjoys **that she plays the piano**.

The same observation applies to nominal infinitive clauses. For instance, the verb **want** may be followed by an infinitive clause but not by a gerundive or a **that**-clause. Consider the following data:

- (17)a. She wants **to clean the place up**.
- b. \*She wants **cleaning the place up**.
- c. \*She wants **that she cleans the place up**.

The verb **miss**, on the other hand, takes a gerundive clause as an object, but not a **that**-clause or an infinitive clause: cf.

- (18)a. We missed **seeing the Italian film**.
- b. \*We missed **that we see the Italian film**.
- c. \*We missed **to see the Italian film**.

Other verbs, for example, **try**, may be followed by both the gerundive and the infinitive clause, but not the **that**-clause: cf.

- (19)a. We tried **to lock the door**.
- b. We tried **locking the door**.
- c. \*We tried **that we lock the door**.



The idea behind citing the examples in (15-19) above is to show that a transitive verb selects the type of clause that follows it. The most important point to remember in this connection is that not every transitive verb may be followed by an object nominal clause. More details about object nominal clauses will be provided in section 4.2 below.

Table (XI) below lists most of the transitive verbs that accept an object gerundive clause.

**Note:** The underlined verbs accept subjectless gerundive clauses only; that is to say, they do not admit gerundive clauses with a subject.

<u>V-trans + Od/Gerundive Clause</u>
(can't) bear, detest, dislike, dread, <u>enjoy</u> , <u>cease</u> , <u>commence</u> , <u>continue</u> , <u>quite</u> , <u>resume</u> , <u>start</u> , stop, fancy, hate, like, loathe, love, mind, miss, regret, resent, (can't) stand, admit, <u>avoid</u> , <u>confess</u> , <u>consider</u> , <u>deny</u> , <u>deserve</u> , <u>escape</u> , forget, can't help, imagine, involve, justify, need permit, <u>propose</u> , recall, recommend, remember, <u>repent</u> , <u>require</u> , risk, <u>try</u> , etc.

Table (XI)

The above table shows that most verbs may be followed with both types of gerundive clause: (i) with a subject, and (ii) without a subject. Amongst these verbs are (can't) bear, mind, regret, remember, etc.: cf.

- (20)a. /+S/ I regret [*Bill's* losing the race].  
 b. /-S/ I regret [*causing* you any inconvenience].

- (21)a. /+S/ I wouldn't mind [*your* moving the car].  
 b. /-S/ I wouldn't mind [*moving* the car].

Verbs like start, deny, escape, etc. cannot take a gerundive clause with a subject; subjectless gerunds only are possible. Consider the following two pairs of examples:

- (22)a. He denied [*seeing* the accident].  
 b. \*He denied [*your* seeing the accident].
- (23)a. She started [*painting* the house].  
 b. \*She started [*his* painting the house].



## NOTES

- A. With certain verbs such as **deserve, need, risk** a gerundive clause expresses a passive sense: cf.

(24) That door needs **[painting]** (= to be painted)

- B. With verbs like **admit, confess, forget, recall, remember**, etc., the main verb in the gerundive clause may be "perfective": cf.

(25) He admitted **[having seen the camera]**.

- C. The suppressed S in a subjectless object gerundive clause is commonly identical (coreferential) with the subject of the main (matrix) clause. The examples in (25), (23.a), (22.b), (21.b), (20.b) are self-explanatory. However, with some verbs such as **recommend**, the deleted S is not necessarily coreferential with the subject of the main clause:

(26) The doctor may recommend **[Δ limiting the amount of fat in your diet]**.

- D. A gerundive clause may function as Od after some transitive prepositional verbs such as: **count on, decide on, resort to, see about, delight in, shrink from**, etc. and some transitive phrasal verbs such as: **give up, put off, take off**, etc. The following are some representative examples:

(27)a. We *counted on* **[getting support from local MPs]**.

b. I had to *put off* **[going to the dentist]**.

### (iii) Subject Complement

(28)a. His favourite pastime is **playing practical jokes**.

b. Her hobby is **collecting stamps**.

c. The reason is **your being arrogant**.

### (iv) Object Complement

With some transitive verbs, particularly verbs of **perception and encounter**, the gerundive clause functions as an object complement. Consider the following examples and observe the analysis provided:

	S	V	Od	Co/gerundive
(29)a.	We	saw	them	<b>feeding the animals.</b>
b.	She	caught	him	<b>smoking in the library.</b>
c.	We	watched	her	<b>painting the picture.</b>

Below is a list of the complex transitive verbs that occur in this pattern:



V-Comp-trans + Od + Co/Gerundive

feel, hear, notice, observe, overhear, see, smell, watch, catch,  
discover, find, leave, etc.

Table (XII)

Notice that the pattern in (29) above differs from pattern (2) (i.e. S + V + Od/Gerundive) in that the NP following the main verb cannot take the genitive form:  
cf.

S	V	Od/Gerundive
(30)a. I	dislike	him driving my car.
b. I	dislike	his driving my car

**PATTERN (2)**

S	V	Od	Co/gerundive
(31)a. I	saw	him	feeding the animals.
b. *I	saw	his	feeding the animals.

**PATTERN (4)**

A second difference between pattern (2) and pattern (4) resides in the fact that the -ING construction in (4) can normally be omitted without "radically altering the meaning" (Quirk, et. al., 1985: 1206). Thus instead of (31.a), we may have:

(31)c. I saw him.

Indeed, (31.a) entails (31.c). This is not so in the case of pattern (2). The example in (30.a) does not entail (30.c):

(30)c. I dislike him.

**(B) Phrase Level**

As pointed out above, a gerundive clause may function as a constituent in the NP, Prep-P and Adj-P. The function it realizes in these phrases is COMP to the headword in the phrase (N, Prep and Adj respectively). Below are illustrative examples of the three functions.

**(i) Nominal Complement (COMP-NOM)**

- (32)a. *The fact of its being Sunday today* should make no difference.
- b. *The idea of spending his life in prison* horrified him.
- c. *This business of marking the register* is a waste of time.



### NOTE

The gerundive clause is linked to the antecedent HN by means of the morpheme *of*.



#### (ii) Adjectival Complement (COMP-ADJ)

- (33)a. The children were *busy building sandcastles*.  
 b. He was always *happy scaling almost perpendicular cliffs*.

#### (iii) Prepositional Complement (COMP-PREP)

- (34)a. They were aware *of his being a secret agent*.  
 b. I am quite used *to waiting in queues*.  
 c. I am looking forward *to seeing you*.  
 d. He is keen *on joining the university*.  
 e. I am sorry *for being so late*.  
 f. You must be tired *of being treated like a child*.

#### 4.1.3 Other -ING CONSTRUCTIONS

Gerundive clauses should be distinguished from other -ING constructions, particularly from -ING Action Nominals. They should be also distinguished from -ING clauses having different syntactic functions. Below is a brief contrast between gerundive clauses and other -ING constructions and clauses.

##### (i) Gerundive Clauses Vs. Action Nominals

Let us begin by comparing the gerundive clause in (35) below with the similar ING construction in (36):

- (35) His painting the picture surprised us.  
 (36) His painting of the picture surprised us.

The underlined -ING construction in (35) is a nominal clause. In other words, it has the structure of a clause as can be seen from the paraphrase in (35.b):

S			V	Od
(35)a.	His	painting	surprised	us.
b.	That he	painted	the picture.	

There are other syntactic arguments that clearly demonstrate that the -ING construction in (35) is a deformed sentence (i.e. a clause). First, it can be expanded through the addition of a Manner Adverbial: cf.



(35)c. [His painting the picture skillfully] surprised us.

Secondly, the verb in this construction (i.e. **painting**) can occur in the perfective form: cf.

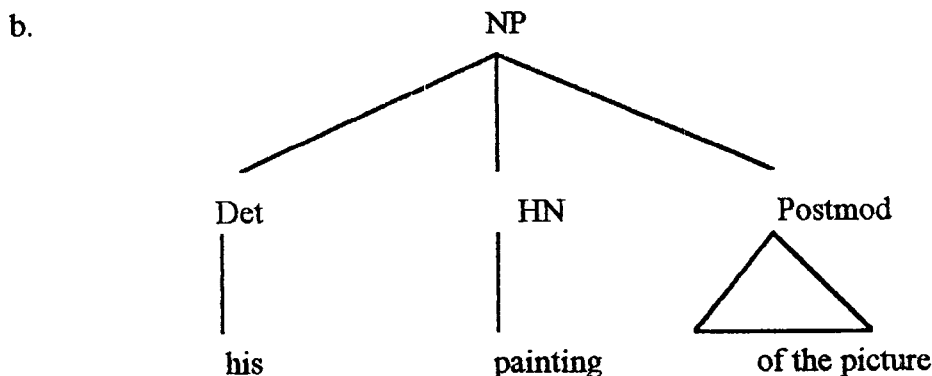
(35)d. [His **having painted** the picture] surprised us.

Thirdly, the gerundive clause in (35) can be negated:

(35)e. [His **not painting** the picture] surprised us.

On the other hand, the -ING construction in (36), which we repeat here for convenience, is not a clause. It is a noun phrase that can be represented by the following phrase marker:

(36)a. His painting of the picture surprised us.



In other words, the -ING form in (36.b) is a noun. This explains why it can be preceded by an adjective: cf.

(36)a. [His skillful painting of the picture] surprised us,  
and why it cannot be converted into the perfective form. Compare (35.d) with:

(36)b. \*[His having painting of the picture] surprised us.

Notice further that the pronoun his in (35) is a **Determiner**, and thus it can be replaced by another determiner: cf.

(36)c. [The painting of the picture] surprised us.

This is not the case in (35), where his is the subject of the clause:

(35)f. \*[The painting the picture] surprised us.



Notice finally that the -ING form in (36) but not in (35) can be replaced by another noun (not in the -ING form):

(36)d. His **acquisition** of the picture surprised us.

(35)g. \*His **acquisition** the picture surprised us.

## (ii) Gerundive Clauses Vs. ING Adverbial Clauses

An ING clause, in addition to functioning as a nominal clause (i.e. gerundive), may function as an adverbial clause. Compare the ING clauses in the following two examples:

(37) **Walking by the seaside** is fun.

(38) **Walking by the seaside**, I met an old friend of mine.

### QUESTIONS

1. Which of the two clauses in (37) and (38) above is optional?
2. What is the deleted S in each of the two clauses in (37) and (38) ?

The ING clause in (37) is a nominal (gerundive) clause; it is the subject of the sentence.

S	V	Cs
(37) a. <b>Walking by the seaside</b>	is	fun.

Since it is the subject of the sentence, it cannot be deleted: cf.

(37)b. \*is fun,  
and since **is** has a nominal function; it can be replaced by an NP:

(37)c. **This action** is fun.

The ING clause in (38), on the other hand, has an adverbial function, and hence it is optional: cf.

(38)a. I met an old friend of mine.

Furthermore, it can be replaced by an adverb (phrase) but not by a noun (phrase): cf.

(38)b. **Later**, I met an old friend of mine.  
c. \***This action**, I met an old friend of mine.



### (iii) Gerundive Clauses Vs. -ING Adjectival Clauses

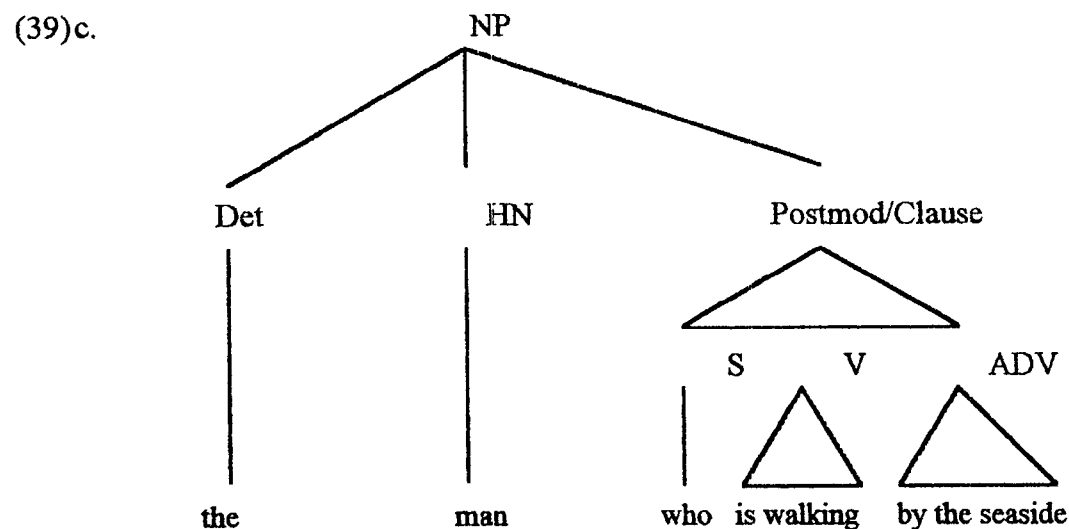
Consider the ING construction in the following example:

(39)a. [*The man walking by the seaside*] is a friend of mine.

The ING clause in (39.a) above is a reduced/contracted relative clause modifying the headnoun man: cf.

(39)b. [*The man who is walking by the seaside*] is a friend of mine.

The NP the man who is walking by the seaside may be represented diagrammatically as follows:



Notice that the postmodifier in (39.c) is a clause because it has the structure of a clause (S - V - ADV).

Relative Clauses and other postnominal modifiers including ING Adjectival Clauses will be discussed in detail in Unit Four below. Suffice it at this point to note that ING clauses may perform different syntactic functions as constituents of the sentence/clause or as constituents of the noun phrase. The construction walking by the seaside can be (i) nominal (gerundive), (ii) adverbial, and (iii) adjectival (reduced relative clause). The above examples which exemplify the three different functions of the ING clause are repeated here for convenience:

#### (i) Nominal/Gerundive

(37) *Walking by the seaside* is fun.

#### (ii) Adverbial

(38) *Walking by the seaside*, I met an old friend of mine.



(iii) Adjectival (Reduced Relative clause)

(39) The man walking by the seaside is a friend of mine.

(i) FORM AND FUNCTION

The examples in (37-39) above demonstrate that the same form/category (i.e. ING clause) may realize different syntactic functions (S, ADV, POSTMOD).

(ii) FUNCTION AND FORM

Can you think of a certain function (e.g. S) that can be realized by different syntactic units: e.g. phrase, clause?



**EXERCISE (4)**

Identify the underlined ING constructions in the following examples in terms of (i) unit (phrase vs. clause) and (ii) function (NOM, ADV, ADJ).

1. Standing here all day tires me out.
2. Standing here all day, I see some strange people.
3. A man resembling Mike Jackson was seen on campus yesterday.
4. I enjoy listening to classical music.
5. I'll never forget his imitating the geography teacher.
6. Bill regretted having given Sue any money.
7. Wearing glasses is normal.
8. Losing all her friends, she immigrated to Canada.
9. Losing all her friends depressed her.
10. Having a puncture when one is in a hurry is irritating.
11. She resented his typing the letter.
12. He didn't mind telling Sue his secret.
13. His running away when the police arrived indicates that he was the one who attacked the girl.
14. The army began bombarding the city.
15. Mary was good at playing tennis.
16. I can't excuse his having been rude to me.
17. His having been the mayor won't help much.
18. I also had a deadly liking for solitude.
19. Judge Jeffreys watches the hanging of those he has condemned.
20. The killing of men in war is regarded as the noblest profession.
21. The feeding of the animals is a tremendous task.
22. A woman wearing a red dress rushed into the street.
23. The train coming through the tunnel is our express.
24. The dog barking outside is an Alsatian.
25. The trees growing in the park are diseased.



#### 4.1.4 Gerundive Clauses Vs. Finite Clauses

As pointed out above, subordinate clauses are sentences embedded into other sentences to realize a certain syntactic function (e.g. S, O, C, ADV) or into certain phrases (e.g. NP, Prep-P, Adj-P). This assumption entails that both finite and non-finite clauses have the same origin. This origin *determines* the logical/basic relationship between the embedded sentence and the matrix sentences within which it is embedded.

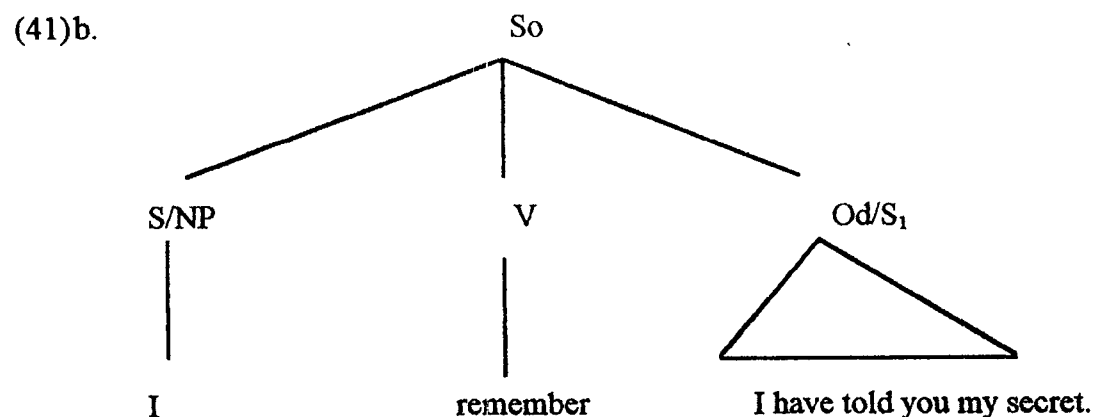
Supposing we want to express the meaning represented in the following structure:

(40) I + remember + some information.

The information we want to incorporate in (40) is I have told you my secret. cf:

(41)a. I + remember + [I have told you my secret].

Let us assume that (41.a) is the deep structure, i.e. where meaning is determined. This structure, which grammarians refer to as the underlying structure may be diagrammatically represented in the following way:



From the embedded sentence (i.e.  $S_1$ ) in the above Phrase Marker we can get two surface structure clauses: (i) a finite *that*-clause and (ii) a non-finite gerundive clause. The finite clause is derived through the addition/placement of the subordinator *that*:

(41)c. I remember that I have told you my secret.

If we want to derive a gerundive clause from the embedded sentence ( $S_1$ ), we do two things; i.e. apply two transformations:



(i) **Subject-Deletion**

The subject of the embedded sentence is deleted because it is coreferential to the subject of the main/matrix sentence (So).

(ii) **Suffix Placement (or V-Participialization)**

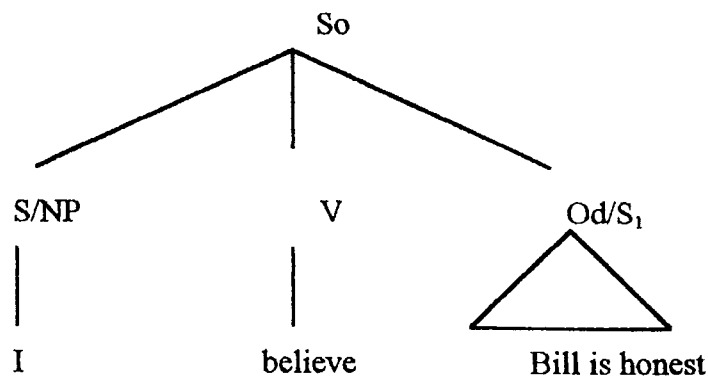
The suffix **ING** is placed after the first element in the VP (i.e. **have + ing** → **having**). The resulting sentence will be:

(42) I remember **having** told you my secret.

You should remember, however, that what determines whether the resulting form will be a **that**-clause or a gerundive clause is the main verb in the matrix sentence. With the verb **remember** in the above PM both types of clause are possible.

Now let us consider the deep structure represented by the following PM:

(43)a.



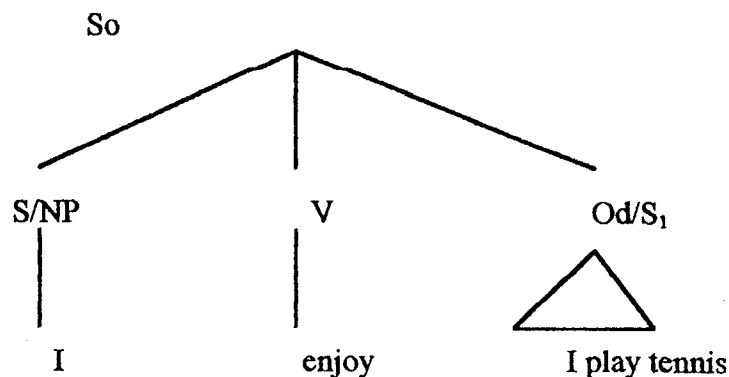
The embedded sentence ( $S_1$ ) in the above phrase marker may be transformed into a **that**-clause, but not a gerundive clause: cf.

(43)b. I believe **that** Bill is honest.

c. \*I believe **Bill's being** honest.

On the other hand, the embedded sentence in the following phrase marker may be transformed into a gerundive clause (through Subject Deletion and Affix Placement) but not into a **that**-clause because the verb **enjoy** does not accept an object **that**-clause: cf.

(44)a.

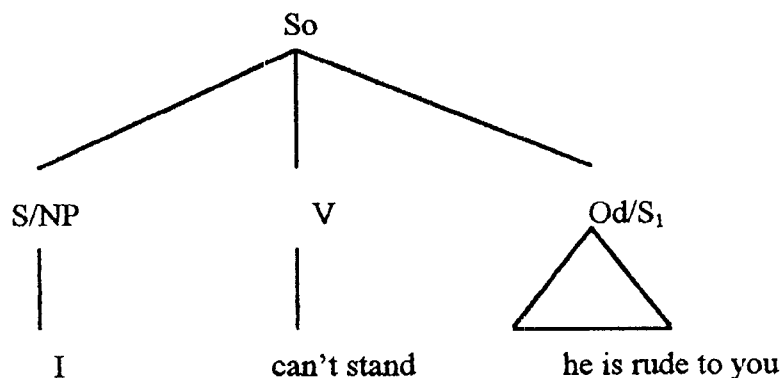




- (44)b. I enjoy's playing tennis.  
 c. \*I enjoy that I play tennis.

Now consider the following PM where the subject of the embedded sentence is not coreferential with the subject of the matrix sentence.

(45)a.



From this PM we can get a gerundive clause but not a *that*-clause. Transforming the embedded sentence into a gerundive clause involves two steps:

(i) **Case Marking**

The genitive marker (suffix) 's or s, is added to the subject NP (he + genitive → **his**). Notice here that for many native speakers both the genitive and the objective case are possible. See the two alternatives in (45.b) below.

(ii) **Suffix Placement (V-Participialization)**

The verb be becomes being. The following is the resulting sentence:

- (45)b. I can't stand **his/him being** rude to you.

In spite of the facts mentioned above, it is customary in grammar books/workbooks to provide learners with exercises in which they are asked to replace finite clauses by non-finite ones and vice versa. This is obviously an oversimplification because non-finite clauses are not derived from finite ones. Nonetheless, this type of exercise is revealing because it alerts the learners to the structural differences between the two types of clause. Furthermore, it makes them aware of the types of restrictions imposed on the two types of clause.

Consider the following data and do the exercise that follows:

(i) **F → NF**

- (46)a. I recollect [that I have seen this before]. ⇒

b.                   Δ Δ **having seen this before.**

**Steps:** *that*-deletion; subject deletion, suffix placement/V-Participialization



- (47)a. [That Bill failed the exam] is annoying ⇒  
 b. Δ Bill's failing the exam is annoying.

**Steps:** that-deletion; subject genitivization; suffix placement/i.e. V-Participialization.

- (48)a. I know [that you are a liar].

**Steps:** Not possible because the verb know cannot be followed by a gerundive clause.

(ii) NF → F

- (49)a. I remembered [meeting him before]. ⇒  
 b. I remembered [that I met him before].

**Steps:** Recovering the deleted subject; recovering finite V; adding that.

Notice here that when recovering the finite verb form, it is necessary to choose the appropriate tense (i.e. past or present). The linguistic context, in particular the tense of the main verb and the presence of time adverbials often provide reasonable clues.

- (50)a. She regrets his having lost the race. ⇒  
 b. She regrets that he has lost the race.

**Steps:** case reassignment (his → he); recovering finite V (having lost → has lost); adding that.

- (51)a. He started painting the house.

**Steps:** Not possible because the verb start cannot be followed by a **that**-clause.

### QUESTION

Can you think of two differences between finite and non-finite clauses? Study the examples in (46-50) above carefully and try to discover these differences.

A careful examination of the examples cited above shows that there are some major differences between finite and non-finite clauses. Amongst these differences are:

- (i) A finite clause always has an expressed subject, whereas a non-finite clause may occur with or without a subject.



- (ii) The verb in the finite clause is always tensed (i.e. present or past), whereas the verb in a non-finite clause is neutral with respect to tense.



### EXERCISE (5)

Replace the **that**-clause in each of the following sentences by a gerundive clause and vice versa. Write **not possible** if the verb does not admit the alternative clause.

1. I don't recall **that he has said this**.
2. The witness reported **that he had seen the cameras**.
3. He won't deny **that he was there**.
4. Jim admitted **that he collaborated with the gang**.
5. I admit **that I saw it**.
6. She avoids **talking in public**.
7. He continued **bothering the young girl**.
8. The best way to learn a foreign language is to practise **speaking it as often as possible**.
9. He eventually escaped **being sent to prison**.
10. I can't stand **being treated as if I were a child**.

## 4.2 Nominal Infinitive Clauses

Like gerundial clauses, infinitive nominal clauses - or infinitivals - are deformed sentences realizing a nominal function. They, however, differ from gerundials in two ways. First, the main verb in the infinitival is characteristically preceded by the infinitive marker **to**; there are few contexts, however, where the verb is not preceded by **to**. Secondly, the subject of the infinitival, if overtly expressed, is preceded by the morpheme **for** (in certain contexts).

Every sentence in the language, except those incorporating a modal auxiliary, may be transformed into an infinitival clause: cf.

- |                                       |                                       |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| (51)a. John lost/loses the race.      | → for John to lose the race.          |
| b. They are/were engineers.           | → for them to be engineers.           |
| c. We are/were willing to co-operate. | → for us to be willing to co operate. |

### 4.2.1 Types/Forms

Like gerundials, infinitivals may occur with or without a subject (i.e. subjectless):

#### (i) With Subject

- (52)a. [For *you* to spoil your dress] would be a pity.  
b. They don't like [*the house* to be empty].



## (ii) Subjectless

As is the case with the suppressed subject of a gerundial, the suppressed subject of an infinitival may be either **definite** or **indefinite**: cf.

### A. Definite Subject

A suppressed definite/specific subject can be uniquely (unmistakably) recovered from the occurrence of a coreferential/identical noun in the matrix sentence: cf.

(53)a.  $\Delta$  To have failed the exam upset Sue.

b. Bill prefers [ $\Delta$  to stay here].

The suppressed S in (53.a) is coreferential with the direct object in the matrix sentence (i.e. Sue), whereas in (53.b) it is coreferential with the subject of the matrix sentence (i.e. Bill).

### B. Indefinite/Generic Subject

The suppressed S in the following infinitival clauses is indefinite; it refers to anyone: cf.

(54)a.  $\Delta$  To play with explosives is dangerous. [for anyone].

b.  $\Delta$  To learn Chinese is difficult. [for anyone].

Notice that this indefinite interpretation is possible with infinitivals in the subject position. A suppressed subject in an object infinitival is commonly definite: cf.

(55)a. Bill wants [ $\Delta$  to write a new book].

[The suppressed S is **Bill**].

b. Mary prefers [ $\Delta$  to study music].

[The deleted S is **Mary**].

Infinitivals may be also distinguished according to the structure of the VP they contain. The VP in the infinitival clause may be (i) simple, (ii) perfective, or (iii) progressive.

#### (i) Simple VP

A simple VP is one that contains no auxiliaries; it is made up of one lexical verb. The VP in the examples in (55), which we repeat here for convenience, are simple:

(55)a. Bill wants [*to write* a new book].

b. Mary prefers [*to study* music].



## (ii) Perfective VP

The VP is marked for the perfective (phase) by means of the auxiliary have. The following are some illustrative examples of perfective infinitivals.

- (56)a. [For him to **have been** the mayor] is immaterial.
- b. It is odd [for Max to **have resigned** yesterday].
- c. She claims [to **have been** the victim of threats].
- d. [For her to **have deserted** him] amazes me.

## (iii) Progressive VP

The marking of a progressive VP is - as you already know - the auxiliary be. Unlike a gerundial, an infinitival may contain a progressive VP. Consider the following examples:

- (57)a. [For you to **be eating** at this time of night] is odd.  
[That you **are eating** at this time of night] is odd.
- b. I don't want [him to **be sitting** here all day].

Admittedly, progressive VPs are rare in infinitival clauses, but they do occur.

Finally notice that although the VP in an infinitival clause is characteristically active, passive VPs are also possible. Consider the following infinitivals which contain passive VPs:

- (58)a. Women like [to **be admired**].
- b. He is determined [to **be obeyed**].
- c. She wants [to **be transferred** to a bigger department].

### 4.2.2 Syntactic Functions

Like gerundials, infinitivals occur in most positions that are available to an NP, both on the clause/sentence level and the phrase level. On the sentence level, an infinitival may function as S, Od, Cs and Co. On the phrase level, it may function as a complement to a preceding HN or H-Adj.

#### (A) Sentence Level

##### (i) Subject

#### PATTERN (1): S/INF + Predicate

Note: As with that-clauses, Extraposition is more usual for subject infinitivals.



### EXAMPLES (S is expressed)

- (59)a. **For Susan to learn another language** would be an advantage. ⇒  
It would be an advantage **for Susan to learn another language**.
- b. **For me to have come late** annoyed Bill. ⇒  
It annoyed Bill **for me to have come late**.
- c. **For you to hesitate** would be fatal. ⇒  
It would be fatal **for you to hesitate**.

If the subject of the infinitival is expressed, it normally requires the presence of a preceding **for**. This is obligatory if the infinitival is the subject of the matrix sentence. Notice further that when the subject of the infinitival is a pronoun, it is in the objective case as in (59.b) above.

### EXAMPLES: (Suppressed S is Definite)

- (60)a. **To have failed the exam** upset Sue. ⇒  
It upset Sue **to have failed the exam**.  
[Suppressed S is Sue].
- b. **To be kept waiting like that** bored Sue. ⇒  
It bored Sue **to be kept waiting like that**.  
[Suppressed S is Sue].

### EXAMPLES: (Suppressed S is Indefinite)

- (61)a. **To err** is human. ⇒  
It is human **to err**.
- b. **To cross this river** is difficult. ⇒  
It is difficult **to cross the river**.

Below is a representative sample of predicative adjectives and nominals that accept a subject infinitival clause.

#### **A. ADJECTIVES TAKING S INF**

expedient, fair, nice, easy, difficult, convenient, ideal, necessary, usual, normal, helpful, useful, better, best, imperative, etc.

#### **B. Ns TAKING S INF**

pleasure, honour, pity, relief, surprise, etc.

Table (XIII-a)



Table (XIII-b) below contains a representative list of verbs that accept a subject infinitival.

<u>V-trans TAKING S INF</u>
annoy, upset, bore, worry, please, shock, depress, astonish, delight, horrify, frighten, etc.

Table (XIII-b)

(ii) Direct Object

**PATTERN (2-a):** S + V-monotrans + Od/INF

**EXAMPLES:**

S	V	Od/INF
(62)a. He	likes	to go abroad.
b. Martin	longed	to go home.
c. She	condescended	to take the job.
(63)a. We	want	him to resign.
b. They	don't like	the house to be painted now.
c. I	would prefer	for her to stay home.

As you can see from the examples above, a mono-transitive verb may be followed by an infinitival with or without a subject. Most verbs, however, accept an infinitival without a subject. Few verbs accept both types of infinitival. The two tables below contain the most common verbs that take an object infinitival.

<u>GROUP (1): V-monotrans + Od/INF WITHOUT S</u>
begin, cease, commence, continue, start, forget, remember, regret, hope, need, plan, propose, ask, beg, decline, demand, offer, promise, refuse, swear, undertake, vow, claim, profess, afford, attempt, contrive, endeavour, fail, learn, manage, neglect, try, venture, etc.

Table (XIV-a)



The verbs in the above table accept infinitivals with a suppressed subject only; that is to say they do not accept infinitivals having a subject. Notice the acceptability of the (a) examples and the unacceptability of the (b) ones:

- (64)a. Sue began [to wash the dishes].  
 b. \*Sue began [Bill to wash the dishes].
- (65)a. Bill refused [to give me the money].  
 b. \*Bill refused [Mary to give me the money].

Notice that the suppressed subject is necessarily identical to the subject of the matrix sentence (Sue in 64.a and Bill in 65.a).

The mono-transitive verbs in the Table (XIV-b) below, on the other hand, accept both types of infinitivals (i.e. with and without a subject):

<p style="text-align: center;"><b><u>GROUP (2): V-monotrans + Od/INF WITH AND WITHOUT S</u></b></p> <p>hate, like, loathe, love, prefer, intend, mean, want, wish, expect, etc.</p>
---

Table (XIV-b)

The following examples are self-explanatory:

- (66)a. I want [Δ to go home].  
 b. I want [him to go home].
- (67)a. We don't like [Δ to paint the house].  
 b. We don't like [them to paint the house].
- (68)a. I didn't mean [Δ to bother you].  
 b. I mean [for you to be happy].

**Notes:**

- (i) Object infinitivals having an expressed subject, unlike subject infinitivals, do not begin with for except in American English. See the (b) examples in (66-68) above.
- (ii) Some verbs in Table (XIV-a) above (e.g. **promise**) may occur in two different patterns: cf.



S	V +	Od/INF (-S)
(69) She	asked	to leave.

S	V-ditrans	Oi	Od/INF (-S)
(70) She	asked	him	to leave.

The pattern in (70) will be discussed below.

In addition to the two groups of verbs listed in the above two tables, there is a third group of verbs represented by the verb believe which can be followed by both a that-clause and an infinitival clause with an expressed subject. In other words, these verbs cannot take an infinitival that lacks a subject. Consider the following examples:

S	V-monotrans	Od
(71)a. She	believed	that John was a spy.
b. She	believed	John to be a spy.
c. She	believed	*to be a spy.
(72)a. We	knew	that he was a liar.
b. We	knew	him to be a liar.
c. We	knew	*to be a liar.

Table (XIV-c) below contains a representative list of monotransitive verbs that occur in this pattern.

<u>V-monotrans + Od/INF WITH S</u>
announce, declare, disclose, proclaim, report, repute, rumour (P only, say (P only), assume, believe, consider, feel, find, imagine, know, presume, reckon, see (P only), think, understand,
<u>Note:</u> P = Passive

Table (XIV-c)

Notice that the subject of the infinitival clause in the above pattern behaves syntactically as the direct object of the matrix sentence. Consider the following data:

- (73)a. The police reported that the situation was quiet. ⇒  
b. The police reported the situation to be quiet.



Evidence that the subject NP of the **that**-clause in (73.a) - i.e. **the situation** - becomes the direct object of the main verb in (73.b) comes from passivization. This NP becomes the subject in the passive sentence corresponding to (73.b): cf.

(74) **The situation** was reported to be quiet (by the police).

This process through which the S of an embedded sentence becomes the Od of the matrix sentence is called **Subject Raising**. This (i.e. **S- Raising**) seems to be obligatory if an embedded sentence is to be converted into an infinitival clause in the context of the transitive verbs listed in Table (XIV-c) above.



### EXERCISE (6)

Replace the **that**-clause in each of the following sentences by an infinitival, then apply passivization. The first sentence is done for you.

1. a. She believed **that John was a spy.** ⇒  
b. She believed **John to be a spy.** ⇒  
c. **John was believed to be a spy.**
2. a. We knew **that he was a liar.** ⇒  
b.  
c.
3. a. The witness disclosed **that his evidence had been perjured.** ⇒  
b.  
c.
4. a. She assumed **that he was an expert.** ⇒  
b.  
c.
5. a. Scientists found **that the theory was correct.** ⇒  
b.  
c.

### NOTE



Certain verbs in Table (XIV-c) above admit infinitivals only in passive sentences: cf.

- (i) a. He *was rumoured* [to be in Dublin].  
b. \*They rumoured him [to be in Dublin].

Other verbs that behave like the verb **rumour** are **say** and **see**: cf.

- (ii) a. He *is said* [to have resigned].  
b. \*They say him [to have resigned].



**PATTERN (2-B): S + V-Prep + Od/INF**

Some prepositional verbs such as **bother about** may be followed by an object NP or an object gerundive clause as in the following two examples:

S	V	Prep	Od
(75)a. She	didn't bother	about	the baby
b. She	didn't bother	about	feeding the baby.

The preposition (i.e. about) is deleted if the object is an infinitival clause: cf.

(75)c. She	didn't bother	to feed the baby.
------------	---------------	-------------------

Table (XIV-d) below contains a representative list of such prepositional verbs.

<u>V-Prep + Od/INF WITHOUT S</u>
long (for), <u>ache (for)</u> , aim (for), <u>aspire (to)</u> ; <u>care (for)</u> , agree (to), <u>consent (to)</u> , <u>pretend (to)</u> , <u>strive (for)</u> , bother (about), <u>condescend (to)</u> , <u>hesitate (about)</u> , arrange (for), <u>decide (on)</u> , <u>resolve (on)</u> , <u>prepare (for)</u> , etc.
<b>Note:</b> The underlined verbs occur with an infinitival without S, other verbs occur with both types of infinitival (i.e. with and without S).

**Table (XIV-d)**

Below are some representative examples of both types of infinitival (i.e. with and without a subject).

**(i) Without S only**

- (76)a. Sue condescend [to take the job].  
b. He pretended [to be sick].  
c. Max has decided [to move to a new house].

**(ii) With/Without S**

- (77)a. We arranged [to meet the following day]. (-S)  
b. We arranged [for Carl to arrive on the following day]. (+S)



**PATTERN (2-C): S + V-ditrans + Oi + Od/INF**

In this pattern the infinitival is the direct object following the indirect object, which is typically a noun/pronoun referring to a human being. The following are some illustrative examples:

S	V-ditrans	Oi	Od/INF
(78)a. We	advised	Sue	to see a doctor.
b. She	persuaded	Sami	to visit his mother.
c. We	shall tell	her	to prepare a draft.
d. They	forced	the prisoner	to make a full confession.
e. The doctor	encouraged	Sue	to go on a diet.

**Notes:**

1. The infinitival clause that occurs in the above pattern is necessarily one without a subject. The suppressed S is always coreferential with Oi. Compare the following pair of sentences:

S	V	Oi	Od
(79)a. We	told	Max	that he should resign.
b. We	told	Max	Δ to resign.

2. The deleted S in the infinitival is necessarily coreferential with the Oi in the matrix clause, thus it gets deleted.

Below is a representative list of ditransitive verbs that occur in Pattern (2-C) above.

<b><u>V-ditrans + Oi + Od/INF/-S</u></b>
advise, ask, beg, challenge, command, direct, entreat, forbid, implore, incite, instruct, invite, order, persuade remind, request, teach, tell, urge, etc.

**Table (XIV-e)**

**SUMMARY**

Below is a summary of the different contexts which admit an object infinitival clause:



<u>PATTERN</u>	<u>V</u>	<u>Type of INF</u>	<u>Example</u>
2-a (i)	refuse	-S only	- He refused to talk to us.
(ii)	prefer	{ -S +S	- I prefer to stay home. - I prefer him to stay home.
(iii)	believe	+S only	- We believe him to be honest.
(iv)	advised	-S only	- We advised him to resign.
2-b (i)	long	-S only	- I long to go back home.
(ii)	arrange	{ -S +S	- We arranged to meet at night. - We arranged for him to come by train.
2-c	advise	-S only	- We advise Sue to see a doctor.

?

### SAQ (7)

Use the following transitive verbs with an object infinitival. Underline the infinitival and identify its subject. If the subject is deleted, recover it. Notice that that with certain verbs it is possible to have two types of infinitival, with and without a subject. All the verbs are listed in Tables (XIV a-d) above.

1. remember .....
2. claim .....
3. afford .....
4. intend .....
5. declare .....
6. presume .....
7. aspire .....
8. resolve .....
9. implore .....
10. incite .....

**Note:** Use your dictionary if you are uncertain about the meaning of the verb. Make sure that your examples convey appropriate meaning. You can copy some examples from your dictionary.

### (iii) Subject Complement

#### PATTERN (3):

S	BE	Cs/INF
(80)a. The idea	is	for the students to meet the dean.
b. The basic aim	was	to increase wages.
c. Her ambition	is	to become a pilot.
d. The best excuse	would be	to pretend that you are sick.



(iv) Object Complement

**PATTERN (4):**

S	V	Od	Co/BARE INF
(81)a. We	didn't notice	anyone	leave the house.
b. I	heard	her	shout at her husband.
c. We	saw	them	feed the animals.

This pattern occurs with a relatively small number of verbs, mainly verbs of **seeing** and **hearing** such as feel, hear, notice, observe, overhear, watch, etc. Notice that the infinitive marker to is not possible with this type of infinitival clause.

**REMINDER**

Verbs of seeing and hearing may be also followed by a gerundial: cf.

(i) We saw them **feeding the animals**.

Is there a difference in meaning between this sentence and the one in (81.c) above?

We shall return to discuss this issue in section 4.3 below.

**(B) Phrase Level**

On the phrase level, an infinitival clause may function as a complement to a preceding HN or H-Adj.

(i) **HN Complement (COMP-NOM)**

**EXAMPLES:**

- (82)a. *The plan for the students to meet the dean* was not feasible.
- b. *Their proposal to rebuild the castle* never materialized.
- c. *The opportunity for the new candidate to win* is very slim indeed.
- d. He expressed *his willingness to decorate the room*.
- e. We don't approve of *your attempt to criticize the administration*.



(ii) H-Adj Complement (COMP-ADJ)

EXAMPLES:

- (83) a. The workers are *willing* to negotiate with the manager.  
b. He is *afraid* to state his views openly.  
c. They are *ready* to leave at any moment.  
d. I am *pleased* to have met you: compare.  
It pleased me to have met you.  
e. We are *proud* to have known him.  
f. I was *lucky* to escape.



EXERCISE (7)

Identify the functions of the underlined infinitivals in the following examples.

1. He is reluctant to discuss the matter with us.
2. She can't afford to buy a new car.
3. For you to criticize him publicly is embarrassing for me.
4. Sue prefers to stay home.
5. I mean for you to be happy.
6. Your plan to liquidate the company is not practical.
7. Max claims to have been a victim.
8. I want him to go home.
9. She didn't bother to close the door.
10. They forced Bill to resign.
11. I reminded her to type the proposal.
12. We arranged for Sue to stay at the Hilton.
13. Their aim was to embarrass you.
14. I saw him put the parcel in his car.
15. I am honoured to have been invited.



SAQ (8)

Give examples of a subjectless INF having the following functions. Write NOT POSSIBLE if the INF cannot realize the function:

1. S .....
2. Od .....
3. Oi .....
4. Cs .....
5. Co .....
6. COMP-NOM .....
7. COMP-ADJ .....
8. COMP-PREP .....



### SAQ (9)

Give examples of infinitivals with an expressed subject realizing the functions listed in SAQ (8) above.

1. ....
2. ....
3. ....
4. ....
5. ....
6. ....
7. ....
8. ....

### 4.2.3 Nominal Infinitivals Vs. Other INF Constructions

Nominal infinitivals should be distinguished from other types of infinitival clauses and constructions that have adverbial and adjectival functions. Notice how the infinitival construction *to go there* realizes three distinct functions in the following examples:

- (84)a. *To go there* would be embarrassing for you.
- b. I want *to go there*.
- c. They advised him *to go there*.
- d. They saw him *go there*.
- e. His plan is *to go there*.
- f. He is ready *to go there*.
- g. They don't approve of your plan *to go there*.

(85) *To go there*, you need to catch a very early train.

(86) The best time *to go there* would be July.

The infinitivals in (84) have a nominal function, the one in (85) has an adverbial function, whereas the one in (86) has an adjectival function. Infinitival clauses realizing adverbial and adjectival functions are discussed in detail in Unit Three and Unit four respectively. Suffice it here to remember that the same linguistic unit may realize different functions depending on the linguistic context in which it occurs.

### 4.3 Gerunds and Infinitives as Objects

As pointed out above there are three classes of transitive verbs with regard to the type of non-finite clause which they take as direct object (immediately after the verb):

**GROUP (1):** Verbs that admit infinitivals only (e.g. *want*)

**GROUP (2):** Verbs that admit gerundials only (e.g. *enjoy*)

**GROUP (3):** Verbs that admit both gerundials and infinitivals (e.g. *try*).



The three tables below contain the three groups of verbs.

**GROUP (1): V-trans + INF ONLY**

hope, ask, beg, decline, demand, offer, promise, refuse, swear, undertake, vow, agree, aim, claim, endeavour, fail, learn, manage, neglect, omit, aspire, care, condescend, agree, consent, pretend, strive, seek.

**Table (XV)**

**GROUP (2): V-trans + GERUND ONLY**

admit, avoid, confess, celebrate, consider (think about), contemplate, deny, deserve, envisage, escape, involve, justify, delay, detest, enjoy, entail, excuse, mind, miss, practise, postpone, recall, propose, repent, resent, resume, resist, risk, stop, (can't) stand, (can't) help, etc., suggest,

**Table (XVI)**

**GROUP (3): V-trans + INF AND GERUND**

dread, hate, like, love, prefer, start, begin, continue, remember, regret, try,

**Table (XVII)**

What we are concerned with here is GROUP (3), namely verbs that admit both gerundials and infinitivals in the object position: cf.

- (87)a. Bill tried to bribe the manager.
- b. Bill tried bribing the manager.

The question that immediately arises is whether there is a difference in meaning between (87.a) and (87.b) or whether the infinitival and the gerundial are in free variation.



Quirk et. al. (1985 : 1192) classify transitive verbs that admit both gerundials and infinitivals into three subgroups:

(i) **Emotive Verbs:** This group includes the following verbs: **like, love, hate, dread, loathe and prefer.**

The choice of the infinitive in preference to the gerund or the gerund in preference to the infinitive is determined by the meaning the speaker intends to impart. The gerundial is generally favoured where the speaker is referring to something **actual**; i.e. to the fulfillment of something that happens or has happened. The gerund is thus more appropriate in the following context:

- (88)a. Bill *loathed* living in the country.  
b. ? Bill *loathed* to live in the country.

However, the infinitival will be acceptable with **would loathe** since, unlike the gerundial, an infinitival is more appropriate in “hypothetical situations”:

- (88)c. Bill *would loathe* to live in the country.

The type of contrast in meaning/use referred to above, is obvious in the following pair:

- (89)a. I *didn't* like staying with them.  
b. I *wouldn't* like to stay with them.

The use of the gerundial in (89.a) implies:

- (90) I stayed with them,

whereas the infinitival in (89.b) does not.

Now consider the difference in meaning between the first and second sentence in the following pair:

- (91)a. I hate to lie.  
b. I hate lying.

The suppressed S of the infinitival in (91.a) is the pronoun I (i.e. I hate + I lie), whereas the subject of the gerund in (91.b) is ambiguous, for it is open to two different interpretations: (I hate + I lie; or I hate + people lie).

To sum up, it is not easy to state with any degree of precision the difference in meaning between gerundials and infinitivals that occur in the same context. The interpretation provided by Quirk, et. al (1985) seems reasonable. This explains why the infinitive is common with matrix verbs preceded by **would** or **should**: cf.

- (92)a. Let's invite him. I'm sure he *would love* to come.  
b. Come over here! I'd *like* you to see this.



## (ii) Aspectual Verbs

Aspectual verbs of beginning, continuing and ending often admit both gerundials and infinitivals: cf.

- (93)a. She began to cry.  
b. She began crying.

Often the factor that influences the choice of one rather than the other is "aspect" (i.e. progressive vs. non-progressive interpretation). The gerund is often associated with durative/on-going activities, whereas the infinitive is associated with non-durative and intermittent ones. However, to some native speakers there is no significant difference in meaning between (93.a) and (93.b).

Amongst the aspectual verbs that admit both constructions are: **begin, continue, cease, start**. Other aspectual verbs allow only the gerund: e.g. **finish, go on, keep (on)**.

The transitive verb **stop** may be followed by a gerundive clause only: cf.

- (94)He stopped receiving visitors at night.

The infinitival clause in the following example is not a nominal clause; it is an **adverbial clause of purpose**:

- (95)He stopped to have a drink.

Notice further that the verb **stop** in (94) is transitive requiring an object, whereas the one in (95) is intransitive and is followed by an optional adverbial. Thus the structure of (94) may be represented as follows:

S	V-trans	Od/Gerund
(94)He	stopped	receiving visitors at night.

The structure of (95), on the other hand, may be represented as follows:

S	V-intrans	(ADV/INF)
(95)He	stopped	to have a drink.

The aspectual contrast between (93.a) and (93.b) above (i.e. between **V + gerund** and **V + inf**) is similar to the contrast between **gerundive clauses** and **(bare) infinitive clauses** that occur in the same context. Consider the following two examples from Quirk, et. al. (1973 : 362):

- (96)a. I heard the door **slamming** all night long.  
b. I heard the door **slam** just after midnight.

The gerund in (96.a) tends to express the progressive aspect (i.e. duration, repetition of the activity over a period of time), whereas the infinitive in (96.b) implies that the event (i.e. slamming the door) occurred only once. Amongst the verbs that allow both



types of clause (i.e. gerundive and bare infinitive) are: **feel, hear, notice, observe, see.**

### (iii) Restrospective Verbs

This group includes the verbs **remember, forget and regret**, which denote “mental states”, admit both gerundial and infinitival clauses. Consider the following pairs of the examples and notice the type of paraphrase and explanation suggested for each example:

- (97)a. I regret **telling** you that you were mistaken.

(I regret that I told you that you were mistaken).

**ACTION**

**MENTAL STATE**

First (i.e. telling)

Second (i.e. regretting)

- b. I regret **to tell** you that you are mistaken.

(I regret that I am about to tell that you are mistaken).

**MENTAL STATE**

**ACTION**

First (i.e. regretting)

Second (i.e. telling)

- (98)a. He remembered **giving** her the message.

(He remembered that he gave/had given her the message).

**ACTION**

**MENTAL STATE**

First (i.e. giving)

Second (i.e. remembering)

- b. He remembered **to give** her the message.

(He remembered that he had to give her the message).

**MENTAL STATE**

**ACTION**

First (i.e. remembering)

Second (i.e. giving)

The illustration above shows that the infinitival indicates that the action takes place after the mental process denoted by the verb in the matrix sentence (i.e. MENTAL STATE → ACTION). The gerundial, on the other hand, indicates the reverse; the action takes place before the mental state denoted by the verb in the matrix sentence (ACTION → MENTAL STATE).

### (iv) Other Verbs

The verb **try** may be followed by both a gerundive and an infinitival clause. Consider the following pair of sentences (cf. Graver, 1971 : 167) and notice the paraphrase and explanation provided:

- (99)a. Try **looking** at it my way.

(i.e. Look at it my way, and see whether that makes any difference)

- b. Try **to look** at it my way.

(i.e. See if you can look at it from my own point of view).

The gerundive clause refers to the results or experience of doing something, whereas the infinitival indicates the possibility/impossibility to do something. This explains



why the infinitival but not the gerundial may be followed by the phrase **but couldn't**:  
cf.

- (100) a. I tried to work in Tokyo, but couldn't.  
b. \*I tried working in Tokyo, but couldn't.



### **EXERCISE (8)**

Use the infinitive form or the gerund form of the verbs in brackets. Indicate whether the bare infinitive or the **to**-infinitive should be used. Some of the examples below are taken from this unit (sections 2, 3, 4).

1. He suggested (read) ..... the instructions again.
2. Try to avoid (meet) ..... foreign workers.
3. He didn't acknowledge (receive) ..... the invitation.
4. I never enjoyed (watch) ..... American films.
5. She denied (be) ..... there at the time of the robbery.
6. He admitted (have seen) ..... the camera before.
7. No one can stand (be treated) ..... in this manner.
8. Sue condescended (take) ..... the job.
9. Bill pretended (be) ..... sick.
10. They long (go) ..... back home.
11. She refused (talk) ..... to us.
12. We arranged (meet) ..... at Victoria Station.
13. I hope (pass) ..... the driving test.
14. She managed (support) ..... her young children.
15. Bill tried (bribe) ..... the manager, but couldn't.
16. Let's invite him. I'm sure he would love (come) .....
17. Come over here! I'd like you (see) ..... this.
18. I vaguely remember him (say) ..... something like that.
19. Someone in the office had made a mistake, and the firm regretted (cause) ..... the customer inconvenience.
20. I heard the door (slam) ..... just after midnight.

### **5. TRANSFORMATIONS**

In this section we shall revise the major transformations underlying gerundial and infinitival clauses. We shall also introduce you to other transformations that have not been discussed so far. The transformations that you already know are:

- (i) S-Deletion
- (ii) Extraposition
- (iii) POSS-ING Placement
- (iv) Prep-Deletion
- (v) S-Raising
- (vi) For-to Placement



Other transformations that operate on structures underlying infinitival and/or gerundial clauses are:

- (vii) O-Raising
- (viii) to-deletion

Below is a brief discussion with examples of the aforementioned transformations. These transformations will be divided into three groups:

- (i) Those that generate gerundive clauses,
- (ii) Those that generate infinitival clauses, and
- (iii) Those that generate both gerundive and infinitival clauses.

### 5.1 Infinitival Clauses

#### (i) for-to Placement

This transformation applies to embedded sentences underlying infinitival clauses. It places the morpheme for in front of the S and the morpheme to in front of the V (V-Infinitivalization): cf.

#### Underlying Structure

S		V		Od	
(1) [He had lost the game]		annoyed		his	parents.

#### Derived Structure

(2) For him to have lost the game annoyed his parents.

Notice that once the morpheme for is placed before the S, the case of the HN is the objective.

Notice further that the morpheme for is not added if the infinitival clause is:

- (i) created in the object position (except rarely, particularly in American English): cf.

- (3) a. ? I want [for him to leave the country].  $\Rightarrow$   
       b. I want **him** to leave the country.

- (ii) does not have an expressed subject: cf.

- (4) a. \*I refused [for to give him the money].  $\Rightarrow$   
       b. I refused [to give him the money].



## (ii) Extraposition

You already know that Extraposition applies to sentences embedded in the S position and shifts the sentence in the S position to the end of the matrix sentence replacing the extraposed sentence by the introductory pronoun it: cf.

- (5) a. **For you to spoil your dress** would be a pity.  $\Rightarrow$   
b. **It** would be a pity **for you to spoil your dress**.

Notice that Extraposition is preferred with all types of subject infinitivals and that-clauses. With gerundial clauses, it is not so common. However, it is possible in certain linguistic contexts, particularly with constructions such as no good, no use, etc.: cf.

- (6) a. **Your trying to deceive me** is no use.  $\Rightarrow$   
b. **It** is no use **your trying to deceive me**.
- (7) a. **My trying for a scholarship** will be no good.  $\Rightarrow$   
b. **It** will be no good **my trying for a scholarship**.

Other examples of extraposed subject gerundials are:

- (8) a. **It** doesn't matter **her disturbing me**.  
b. **It** was difficult **getting lifts in Leeds**.  
c. **It** has been splendid **meeting you here**.  
d. **It** has been a relief **your coming to stay with us**.

## (iii) Prep-Deletion

This transformation deletes the preposition associated with the matrix verb if it is followed by an infinitival clause. Consider the derivation of the following sentence:

- (9) She didn't bother to feed the baby.

## Underlying Structures

- (10) She didn't *bother about* [she feeds the baby].

## STEPS

### (i) **for-to Placement**

- (11) \*She didn't bother *about* [for she to feed the baby].



(iii) **S-Deletion**

(12) \*She didn't bother *about* [to feed the baby].

**Note:** The morpheme *for* is automatically deleted when the subject is deleted.

(iv) **Prep-Deletion**

This yields (9) above.

(iv) **S-Raising**

This transformation operates on object infinitivals to raise the S of the embedded sentence to become a constituent of the matrix sentence (i.e. S or O). Consider the following data:

- (13)a. We believed [he was intelligent]  $\Rightarrow$   
b. \*We believed [he to be intelligent]  $\Rightarrow$   
c. We believed him [to be intelligent].

Notice that the pronoun him in (13.c) is in the **objective** case since it is the surface object of the verb believe.

Sometimes the subject of an infinitival clause (in the subject position) may become the subject of the matrix/main sentence. Consider the following data:

- (14)a. \*[Bill has passed the exam] seems  $\Rightarrow$   
b. \*[Bill to have passed the exam] seems  $\Rightarrow$   
c. **Bill seems to have passed the exam.**

Notice that when the S of the infinitival is raised to become the S of the matrix sentence, the rest of the infinitival clause (i.e. the predicate) is extraposed to the end of the sentence.

(v) **O-Raising**

This is a transformation that moves the object of the infinitival clause to the subject position in the matrix sentence. It is restricted to a few contexts, particularly to subject infinitivals co-occurring with some **predicative adjectivals** such as **easy**, **difficult**, **tough**. Consider the following examples:

- |    |  |   |    |
|----|--|---|----|
| S  |  | V | Cs |
| V  |  |   |    |
| Od |  |   |    |
- (15)a. To cross this river | is difficult.  $\Rightarrow$   
b. This river is difficult to cross.



#### (vi) to-Deletion

This transformation deletes the infinitive marker to in certain contexts. This transformation is obligatory in the context of certain matrix verbs such *see*, *watch*, *observe*, *feel*, *notice*, etc.: cf.

- (16)a. \*We saw him [to feed the animals]. ⇒  
b. We saw him **feed the animals**.

Other verbs that take the bare infinitival (i.e. infinitive without to) are make, let and have: cf.

- (17)a. We made him **clean the place up**.  
b. We let her **teach Bob**.

Notice that in the passive, the bare infinitive after make is replaced by the *to* infinitive: cf.

- (18)a. She was made **to clean the place up**.  
b. She was let **to teach Bob**.

## 5.2 Gerundial Clauses

### (i) POSS-ING Placement

This transformation attaches the possessive/genitive marker to the S and the suffix *-ING* (i.e. *V-Participialization*) to the verb in the structure underlying a gerundial clause: cf.

- (19)a. \*I regret [Bill lost the race]. ⇒  
b. I regret **Bill's losing the race**.

Notice that the placement of POSS does not take place if the subject of the gerundial is suppressed:

- (20)a. \*I regret [I lost the race]. ⇒  
b. I regret **losing the race**.

Secondly, the possessive/genitive case is unsuitable when the subject of the gerundial is an inanimate or abstract NP which would not normally take the genitive case: cf.

- (21)a. \*[this is possible] pleased Mary. ⇒  
b. [This being possible] pleased Mary.
- (22)a. \*I don't approve of [the two come]. ⇒  
b. I don't approve of [the two coming].



- (23)a. \*He still remembers [a car rushed into his garden].  $\Rightarrow$   
 b. He still remembers [a car rushing into his garden].

### 5.3 Both Gerundials and Infinitivals

#### (i) S-Deletion

The deletion of the subject of the gerundial or an infinitival clause is obligatory if it is coreferential with another noun in the matrix sentence. The following examples are self-explanatory:

- (24)a. \*I want [I go home].  $\Rightarrow$   
 b. I want  $\Delta$  to go home.
- (25)a. \*We advised him [he visits his mother].  $\Rightarrow$   
 b. We advised him [ $\Delta$  to visit his mother].
- (26)a. \*She enjoys [she watches classical films].  $\Rightarrow$   
 b. She enjoys  $\Delta$  watching classical films.
- (27)a. \*Bill is keen on [Bill attends the meeting].  $\Rightarrow$   
 b. Bill is keen on  $\Delta$  attending the meeting.

Notice further that the subject of the gerundial and the infinitival is suppressed/deleted if it is indefinite and has a generic reference: cf.

- (28)a. \*[Someone to cross this river] would be easy.  $\Rightarrow$   
 b.  $\Delta$  To cross this river would be easy.
- (29)a. \*[X playing with explosives] is dangerous.  $\Rightarrow$   
 b.  $\Delta$  Playing with explosives is dangerous.

#### (ii) Modal Deletion

One of the major differences between finite and non-finite clauses is that non-finite clauses cannot incorporate a modal auxiliary (e.g. **can**, **could**, **may**, etc.). Thus when changing a finite clause that contains a modal auxiliary into a non-finite clause, the modal is deleted as long as the meaning of the sentence does not change. The following are some representative examples:

- (30)a. His lawyer advised him [that he should drop the case].  $\Rightarrow$   
 b. His lawyer advised him to drop the case.
- (31)a. I recommend [that you should consult an expert].  
 b. I recommend your consulting an expert.



### **EXERCISE (9)**

Apply the transformation mentioned beneath each of the following underlying structures:

1. I advised Fatima [that she should consult her doctor].

**MODAL DELETION + S -Deletion**

.....

2. She regrets [she told you the bad news].

**POSS-ING PLACEMENT + S - Deletion**

.....

3. I distinctly remember [you asked this question before] ⇒

**POSS-ING Placement**

.....

4. [you learn a foreign language] would be an advantage ⇒

**FOR-TO Placement**

.....

5. [to have been kept waiting like that] annoyed Max ⇒

**EXTRA POSITION**

.....

6. [to convince her] is easy ⇒

**O-RAISING**

.....

7. [Bill to win the race] is likely ⇒

**S-RAISING**

.....

8. We expected [that he would arrive on time] ⇒

**S-RAISING + MODAL DELETION**

.....



## 6. OVERVIEW

Unit Two has dealt with nominal clauses, in a rather comprehensive manner; their types and functions on the sentence level and the phrase level. In addition, it has defined the linguistic environments in which each type of clause occurs. Most important of these contexts is the direct object position and the type of nominal clause that may realize this function. Transitive verbs have been classified according to the type of clause they accept. This is a very important area of English grammar which all students of English at university level should master, and above all, use correctly. Practice is the best way. Memorizing lists of verbs is no good. Thus practise using these verbs. Dictionaries addressed to EFL learners are very useful in this connection. The following two dictionaries are quite good for this task:

- *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*
- *Collins COBUILD English Language Dictionary*

Finally notice that Unit Two has dealt with the major transformation that apply to structures underlying nominal clauses, in particular **that**-clauses, gerundials and infinitivals.

## 7. PREVIEW OF UNIT THREE

Unit Three deals with all aspects of adverbial clauses: types, forms, status, position. Major transformations and relationship between finite and non-finite adverbial clauses are also highlighted.

## 8. ANSWER KEY

### EXERCISE (1)

- |              |        |              |              |
|--------------|--------|--------------|--------------|
| 1. COMP/NOM  | 2. Cs  | 3. Od        | 4. COMP/ADJ  |
| 5. S         | 6. Od  | 7. S         | 8. COMP/PREP |
| 9. COMP/PREP | 10. S  | 11. S        | 12. COMP/NOM |
| 13. Cs       | 14. Co | 15. COMP/ADJ | 16. COMP/ADJ |
| 17. S        | 18. Od | 19. Od       | 20. COMP/NOM |

### EXERCISE (2)

1. It would please me to meet you.
2. It would be dangerous to cross the river.
3. It will be quite all right for you to leave early.
4. It is a pity that you couldn't come.
5. It is strange that he should have said so.
6. It won't be much good complaining to them.
7. It is such a relief to see you in good health.
8. It is none of my business who will be the boss next year.



### EXERCISE (3)

- |                          |                          |
|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. If-clause/Od          | 2. Nom Rel/Cs            |
| 3. wh-clause/Od          | 4. that-clause/Od        |
| 5. that-clause/COMP/ADJ  | 6. that-clause/Od        |
| 7. Nom Rel/Od            | 8. wh-clause/COMP-PREP   |
| 9. wh-clause/COMP-NOM    | 10. wh-clause/Cs         |
| 11. wh-clause/S          | 12. that-clause/COMP-ADJ |
| 13. that-clause/COMP-NOM | 14. that-clause/Cs       |
| 15. that-clause/Od       | 16. that-clause/Od       |
| 17. that-clause/S        | 18. that-clause/S        |
| 19. that-clause/S        | 20. wh-clause/Od         |

### EXERCISE (4)

- |               |               |                      |
|---------------|---------------|----------------------|
| 1. CL/NOM/S   | 2. CL/ADV     | 3. CL/ADJ            |
| 4. CL/NOM/Od  | 5. CL/NOM/Od  | 6. CL/NOM/Od         |
| 7. CL/NOM/S   | 8. CL/ADV     | 9. CL/NOM/S          |
| 10. CL/NOM/S  | 11. CL/NOM/Od | 12. CL/NOM/Od        |
| 13. CL/NOM/Od | 14. CL/NOM/Od | 15. CL/NOM/COMP-PREP |
| 16. CL/NOM/Od | 17. CL/NOM/S  | 18. NP/Od            |
| 19. NP/Od     | 20. NP/S      | 21. NP/S             |
| 22. CL/ADJ    | 23. CL/ADJ    | 24. CL/ADJ           |
| 25. CL/ADJ    |               |                      |

### EXERCISE (5)

- |   |                                |
|---|--------------------------------|
| 1. having said this   | 2. having seen the cameras     |
| 3. being there  | 4. collaborating with the gang |
| 5. seeing it  |                                |
| 6. - 10. not possible; none of the verbs preceding the gerundive clause admits a that-clause. |                                |

### EXERCISE (6)

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| 2. b. We knew him to be a liar.  |  |
| c. He was know to be a liar.   |  |
| 3. b. The witness disclosed <u>his evidence to have been perjured.</u> |  |
| c. His evidence was disclosed to have been perjured.                   |  |
| 4. b. She assumed <u>him to be an expert.</u>                          |  |
| c. He was assumed to be an expert.                                     |  |
| 5. b. Scientists found the theory to be correct.                       |  |
| c. The theory was found to be correct.                                 |  |

### EXERCISE (7)

- |             |             |              |        |
|-------------|-------------|--------------|--------|
| 1. COMP/ADJ | 2. Od       | 3. S         | 4. Od  |
| 5. Od       | 6. COMP/NOM | 7. Od        | 8. Od  |
| 9. Od       | 10. Od      | 11. Od       | 12. Od |
| 13. Cs      | 14. Co      | 15. COMP/ADJ |        |



### **EXERCISE (8)**

1 - 7 gerund; 8 - 17 to-infinitive; 18 & 19 gerund; 20 bare infinitive.

### **EXERCISE (9)**

1. I advised Fatima to consult her doctor.
2. She regrets telling you the bad news.
3. I distinctly remember your asking this question before.
4. For you to learn a foreign language would be an advantage.
5. It annoyed Max to have been kept waiting like that.
6. She is easy to convince.
7. Bill is likely to win the race.
8. We expected him to arrive on time.

### **9. REFERENCES**

- |   |
|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"><li>1. Aarts and Aarts (1982), pp. 82-88.</li><li>2. Alexander, L. (1988), pp. 299-321.</li><li>3. Frank, M. (1986) pp. 57-140.</li><li>4. Graver, B. D. (1971), pp. 145-183.</li><li>5. Kaplan, J. (1989), pp. 270-300.</li><li>6. Quirk and Greenbaum (1973), pp. 309-346.</li><li>7. Quirk, et. al. (1985), chapters 14 &amp; 16.</li><li>8. Soames and Perlmutter (1979), pp. 79-118.</li></ol> |
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A decorative graphic consisting of a crosshair. It has a central horizontal bar and a vertical bar. At each of the four ends of these bars, there is a small square. The central horizontal bar is shaded with a fine dot pattern.

# UNIT THREE

Adverbial Clauses



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## **1. INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1 Preview**

This unit deals with adverbial clauses. It is a continuation of Unit Two, which deals with nominal clauses. You should remember that both nominal clauses and adverbial clauses are embedded sentences that are inserted in a matrix sentence as a realization of one of the syntactic functions in the sentence. Nominal clauses realize one of the following sentential/ clausal functions: S, O, C. Adverbial clauses, on the other hand, realize one function only, namely ADV.

Again what is important is to practise using all types of adverbial clauses. Realizing adverbial clauses and having the ability to analyze them is simply not enough. The ultimate goal of studying grammar in the context of E.F.L. is upgrading the learner's proficiency in English. As an adult learner and as a university student, you need to express complex ideas and hence it is essential that you master complex sentences. By using subordinate (nominal and adverbial) clauses you can:

1. express complex ideas in one sentence,
2. make your ideas clear to your listeners/readers; clauses give you that flexibility that is needed to produce sentences that make your purpose clear.
3. achieve variety; good speakers/writers use complex, compound, and compound-complex sentences in addition to simple ones,
4. avoid repetition through the use of ellipted non-finite and verbless clauses, which is often taken as a sign of linguistic maturity.

### **1.2 Unit Objectives**

Upon completing this unit you should be able to:

1. **recognize** all types of adverbial clauses and identify their form and function,
2. **recognize** the structure of adverbial clauses (including deleted elements),
3. **transform** finite into non-finite clauses and vice versa,
4. **be aware** of the semantic roles of adverbial clauses and the subordinators that introduce them,
5. **be aware** of the variation in the position of adverbial clauses,
6. **be aware** of the major types of transformations that operate on adverbial clauses, and
7. **use** adverbial clauses appropriately and correctly in both speech and writing.



### 1.3 Unit Sections

In addition to this introduction and to the overview, this unit consists of four major sections as follows:

<u>Section No.</u>	<u>Content</u>
2	Adverbial and Adverbs
3	Types and Functions of Adverbial Clauses
4	Semantic Roles
5	Nominal and Adverbial Clauses

132

This unit also contains (10) exercises, (11) SAQs and (10) quizzes.

### 1.4 Supplementary Reading

For further details on the topic of this unit, you are advised to consult the following references (See bibliographical details at the end of the book).

1. Allsop, J. (1983), pp. 226-250.
2. Close, R. (1975). pp. 279-297.
3. Frank, M. (1986), pp. 19-44.
4. Jackson, H. (1982), pp. 97-102.
5. Kaplan, J. (1989), pp. 267-300.
6. Quirk and Greenbaum (1973), pp. 322-341.





## 2. ADVERBIAL AND ADVERBS

### 2.1 Definitions

As you already know, the function ADVERBIAL is one of the five syntactic functions that are used to describe the structure of the clause in English. These functions are: S, V, O, C, ADV. Remember that the term **clause** is identical with the term **simple sentence**.

#### REMINDER

A **simple sentence** consists of one and **only one independent** clause. The independent clause is usually referred to as the **main clause** or the **matrix sentence**.

A **complex sentence** is a sentence that contains more than one clause, an **independent (main)** clause and at least one **dependent (subordinate)** clause. In other words, a complex sentence is one in which one (or more) of its functions (i.e. S, O, C) is realized by a clause (finite, non-finite or verbless).

A complex sentence may thus contain a nominal, an adverbial clause or both as in the following three examples respectively:

- (i) I know that you are intelligent. (NOM)
- (ii) I'll see you when you come back. (ADV)
- (iii) Although I find Bill helpful (ADV), many people think that he is a lousy crook (NOM).

### 2.2 The Status of ADV

As you already know, the function ADVERBIAL can be both optional and obligatory. The underlined adverbials in (1) below are optional, whereas the ones in (2) are obligatory:

- (1) a. The lecture bored me last night.  
b. Mary is having tea in the garden.  
c. He reluctantly showed me the photo a week ago.  
d. They always called Sam a fool when he worked for the company.
- (2) a. Bill is in London.  
b. The man was in the corner.  
c. She was in a hurry.



Apart from the adverbials in (2), which follow the verb BE, there are contexts where some intransitive verbs require an adverbial. Notice the oddity of the (a) examples in the following data:

- (3) a. ? He was born.  
b. He was born in 1943.  
c. He was born in Swansea.  
d. He was born to become a great leader.  
e. He was born on the same day his father died.
- (4) a. ? She lived.  
b. She lived in Scotland.  
c. She lived happily.  
d. She lived to be ninety.  
e. She lived to become a great actress.

As we shall see below, adverbial clauses are characteristically optional elements in clause structure. However, there are contexts where they are obligatory. Notice the oddity of the (a) examples:

- (5) a. ? The food will last.  
b. The food will last until you come back.
- (6) a. ? He looks.  
b. He looks as if he is sick.

### 2.3 Units Realizing ADVERBIAL

As you already know, the function ADV is realized by a variety of linguistic units. In this unit, we are, however, concerned with adverbial clauses only. Below is a list of units that realize the function ADV:

- (i) Adverb
  - (7) They will come soon.
- (ii) Adverb Phrase
  - (8) They will come pretty soon.
- (iii) Prepositional Phrase
  - (9) We stayed at a small hotel.
- (iv) Noun Phrase
  - (10) He might arrive any moment.
- (v) Finite Clause
  - (11) a. If you work hard, you will pass.  
b. He wants to resign because he is sick.



(vi) Non-finite Clause

- (12) a. He wrote his first novel while working as a train driver.  
b. She went to Washington to visit her mother.  
c. Tortured and humiliated, the prisoner killed himself.

(vii) Verbless clause

- (13) a. When in difficulty, phone the police.  
b. If in doubt, ring Mrs. Clinton.

## 2.4 Positions of Adverbials

Adverbials are often described as mobile elements in the sentence. This is true to a certain extent. However, let us examine the following data:

- (14) a. Sometimes I smoke a cigar.  
b. I sometimes smoke a cigar.  
c. I smoke sometimes.  
d. I smoke a cigar sometimes.

As can be seen from the above examples, the adverb sometimes can occur in three different positions:

- (i) Initial Position: before the subject as in (a).  
(ii) Medial Position: before the verb as in (b).  
(iii) Final Position: after the intransitive verb as in (c) or after the object as in (d).

Adverbial mobility is highest among adverbs as in the above examples. Prepositional phrases and clauses that function as adverbials normally occur in the final position, but some occur in the initial position. Medial positions are not common for prepositional phrases and clauses. Consider the following examples:

- (15) a. I do most of my research in the kitchen.  
b. In the kitchen I do most of my research.  
c. ? I in the kitchen do most of my research.
- (16) a. John doesn't talk much because he stutters.  
b. Because he stutters, John doesn't talk much.  
c. John, because he stutters, doesn't talk much.

Notice that an adverbial clause in the medial position as in (16.c) above is perceived as parenthetical.

Adverbial mobility is also conditioned by the function of the adverbial (i.e. adjunct, conjunct, disjunct). For instance, the normal position for most conjuncts is the initial position (in the second sentence): cf.

- (17) Bill always comes late to work. Besides, he wastes a lot of time doing crossword puzzles.



Similarly, the normal position for most **disjuncts** is the initial position. There are, however, some disjuncts that normally occur in the medial position: cf.

- (18) a. Fortunately, he had paid the money before he was sent to jail.  
b. He has possibly resigned.

The position of adjuncts, on the other hand, depends mainly on the semantic role of the adjunct. For instance, **place adjuncts** favour end position irrespective of their function or role:

- (19)a. We shall meet downstairs.  
b. They went to London.  
c. I'll put the kettle on the stove.  
d. He jumped over the fence.

Similarly, **manner adjuncts** favour end position. However, one-word adverbs of manner may comfortably occur in the medial position. Note the position of the adverbs in the following two pairs: cf.

- (20) a. Bill slammed the door behind him angrily.  
b. Bill angrily slammed the door behind him.
- (21) a. We shall meet here.  
b. ? We here shall meet.

#### **REMINDER**

The term ADVERBIAL should be clearly distinguished from Adverb; the first is a FUNCTION like S, O, C; whereas the latter is a word-class like N, Adj, Prep, Det, etc. . The term Adv-P is comparable to other phrases: eg. NP, VP, Adj-P and Prep-P. The function ADV may be realized by one word, a phrase or a clause. The ensuing sections deal with finite, non-finite and verbless clauses that realize the function ADV.



#### **SAQ (1)**

List with examples the various linguistic units that realize the function ADV.



### 3. TYPES AND FUNCTIONS OF ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

#### 3.1 Types

Adverbial clauses are divided (according to the verb in the clause) into three major classes:

- (i) Finite Adverbial Clauses
- (ii) Non-Finite Adverbial Clauses
- (iii) Verbless Adverbial Clauses

In the ensuing three subsections we shall discuss each of these types and provide illustrative examples.

##### 3.1.1 Finite Clauses

Finite adverbial clauses are introduced by such subordinators: after, before, since, until, when, where, wherever, if, unless, provided (that), as long as, so long as, on condition that, if only, though, although, while, whereas, even if, whether....or, whatever, whoever, as, because, so, so that, in order that, etc.

#### REMINDER

Finite adverbial clauses generally have an expressed subject.

Below are some representative examples of finite adverbial clauses. Notice the position of the adverbial clause in each sentence:

- (1) a. When she stopped, no one said anything.
- b. If he gets the job, he'll be going abroad.
- c. Unless you change your mind, I won't be able to help you.
- d. You didn't look well when you got up this morning.
- e. They don't sell cigars because there is little demand for them.
- f. However brilliant you may be, you can't know everything.
- g. We'll support him till he graduates from university.

##### 3.1.2 Non-Finite Clauses

Non-finite clauses that realize the function adverbial fall into three classes:

- 1. The ING Participle Clause (or Present Participle Clause).
- 2. The Infinitive Clause
- 3. The EN Participle Clause (or Past Participle Clause).



(i) The ING Participial Clause

ING participial clauses that realize the function ADV are mainly subjectless and they commonly have corresponding finite clauses. Compare the first and the second sentence in the following pair:

- (2) a. Bill injured his leg while he was working in the garden. ⇒  
b. Bill injured his leg while working in the garden.

**QUESTIONS**

1. What is the subordinator in these two examples?
2. How is the participial clause in (b) derived from the finite clause in (a)?
3. Why do we consider the adverbial clause in (2.a) finite?

As you can see, the non-finite ING clause in (1.b) is derived from the finite clause in (1.a) through the deletion of the subject of the clause (i.e. he) and the auxiliary be. This transformation is called S-AUX Deletion.

**REMINDER**

The S of the adverbial clause is deleted because it is coreferential with S of the matrix sentence.



**SAQ (2)**

Replace the finite clauses by non-finite ones. Apply S-AUX Deletion. All examples and similar ones occur in this unit and Unit two.

- (1) As I was walking by the seaside, I met an old friend of mine.

.....

- (2) He met his wife while he was studying at Oxford.

.....

- (3) Since I phoned you last night, I have changed my mind.

.....



Now consider the relationship between the finite adverbial clause in (3.a) and the ING clause in (3.b) below:

- (3) a. As he was behind the door, he overheard everything we said. ⇒  
b. Being behind the door, he overheard everything we said.

**NOTE**

The tense of the main verb in the adverbial clause in (3.a) is past (simple past). Why cannot we use this verb (i.e. be) in the progressive as aspect?  
- Obviously because the verb be is stative.

The ING clause in (3.b) above is derived from the finite clause in (3.a) through the application of the following transformations:

- (i) S-Deletion (because it is coreferential with the S of the main clause).  
(ii) V-Participialization (i.e. be → being).

This transformation is used when the verb in the finite clause is stative.

Below are more examples of the two transformations (S-Deletion & V-Participialization).

- (4) a. As he didn't know the answer, the student left the classroom ⇒  
b. Not knowing the answer, the student left the classroom.
- (5) a. As he realized that he was a failure in everything he did, he left his family and immigrated to Canada ⇒  
b. Realizing that he was a failure in everything he did, he left his family and immigrated to Canada.

In most of their occurrences, ING participial clauses do not have an expressed subject. There are cases, however, where they occur with an expressed subject. Consider the following example from Aarts and Aarts (1988: 167):

- (6) a. The referee being ill, the match had to be postponed.

The ING clause in (6.a) is derived from the finite clause in (6.b) below through V-Participialization:

- (6) b. As the referee was ill, the match had to be postponed.



Notice that the S of the adverbial clause cannot be deleted since it is : (i) definite and (ii) not coreferential with another noun in the matrix sentence: cf.

- (6) c. \*Being ill, the match had to be postponed.

#### NOTES

1. We shall return to discuss ING clauses of the type instanced in (3), (4) and (5) above in Unit Four in connection with Nonrestrictive Relative Clauses.
2. ING clauses may or may not be introduced by a subordinator. The one in (2.a) above has a subordinator (i.e. while); the ones in (3), (4), (5) and (6) do not.

#### (ii) Infinitival Clauses

Like ING participial clauses, infinitival clauses may realize the function ADV in a variety of contexts. In most contexts, infinitival clauses functioning as adverbials occur without a subject (i.e. subjectless). However, there are contexts where they occur with a subject. The infinitival clauses in (7) below are subjectless, whereas the ones in (8) have subjects.

- (7) a. Bill went to Canada to study medicine.  
b. To tell you the truth, I never liked her.  
c. To excel in grammar, you should read it carefully and make sure you understand everything you read.  
d. To conclude, this paper is not original.  
e. He left, never to return.
- (8) a. We left early (in order) for Sue to catch the 7.15 train.  
b. For your plan to be accepted, the question of marketing should be dealt with adequately.

#### NOTES

- i. Subjectless infinitival clauses functioning as adverbials are not introduced by subordinators.
- ii. The S of the infinitival clause, if overtly expressed is preceded by the morpheme for as in the two examples in (8) above.



In most of their occurrences, infinitival clause realizing the function ADV may be replaced by finite clauses. Compare the (a) and (b) examples in the following pairs:

- (9) a. To be blunt, I cannot work with her.  
b. If I may be blunt, I cannot work with her.
- (10) a. To conclude, all the figures I've cited are tentative.  
b. If I may conclude, all the figures I've cited are tentative.
- (11) a. I arrived early to get a good seat.  
b. I arrived early so that I might/ may get a good seat.

### QUESTION

What items are deleted when a finite clause is transformed into a non-finite one?

As you can see, changing a finite clause into a non-finite one involves two steps:

1. S-Deletion: The subject of the adverbial clause is deleted because it is coreferential with another noun in the matrix clause as is the case in (9) (10) and (11) above.
2. V-Infinitivization: The finite VP is replaced by an infinitive phrase. This involves:
  - a. placing the infinitive marker to in front of the VP, and
  - b. deleting verbal elements (eg. modals) that cannot be contained in a non-finite VP.

### NOTE

The subordinators that introduce NF clauses are often deleted, since in many of their occurrences NF clauses do not take subordinators.

### PROBLEM SOLVING

What is the deleted subject in the infinitive clauses contained in the following two examples?

- (12) a. I lent Carl a fiver to get home.  
b. To get home, I had to borrow a fiver from Carl.



### (iii) EN Participle Clauses

EN participial clauses functioning as adverbials are reduced/contracted passive finite clauses. Study the relationship between the two adverbial clauses in the following pair of sentences:

- (13) a. Tortured and humiliated, the prisoner committed suicide.  
b. As/Because he was tortured and humiliated, the prisoner committed suicide.

The transformation that converts the finite clause in (13.b) into the EN participial clause in (13.a) is, as you know, one that is frequently used in English; namely, S+AUX Deletion.

#### REMINDER

A finite adverbial clause may be transformed into an ING participial clause through the application of S+AUX Deletion. Can you think of an example? See the examples in SAQ(1) above.

Like other NF clauses, EN clauses may occur with or without a subject. The following examples are borrowed from Aarts and Aarts (1988: 168-169):

#### (A) Subjectless

- (14) a. Born in 1855, he spent his early days in England.  
b. Encouraged by this success, Conrad wrote another novel.  
c. Left a widow at the age of 30, Mrs. O'Rourke returned to Ireland.  
d. This kind of analysis, when done properly, can yield surprising results.  
e. When looked at from a syntactic point of view, this sentence is unacceptable.  
f. He sank down in a chair, as if stunned by the news.

#### NOTES

- (i) EN clauses commonly occur in the initial position, but they can also occur medially as in (14.d) or finally as in (14.f).  
(ii) In most of their occurrences, EN clauses occur without a subordinator. However, they may be preceded by one in some contexts as in (14 d-f).





### EXERCISE (1)

Replace the EN clauses in (14) above by finite clauses. Do not change the position of the clause. Underline the reconstructed elements.

#### REMINDER

EN clauses of the type instanced in (14) above will be further discussed in Unit Three in conjunction with Nonrestrictive Relative Clauses.

### (B) With Subject

- (15) a. All his energy spent, he now wished to retire at last.  
b. His clothes caught in the barbed wire, he could not escape.  
c. Our task completed, we breathed a sigh of relief.  
d. Given these facts, how are we to interpret them?



### EXERCISE (2)

Replace the EN clauses in (15) above by finite clauses. Underlined the reconstructed element. Do not change the position of the clause.

### 3.1.3 Verbless Clauses

Verbless clauses are originally finite clauses whose main verb is the copula BE. The deletion of the main verb (i.e. BE) results in a verbless clause. Consider the following pair of examples:

- (16) a. His feet up on the table, he talked at great length about Marxism.  
b. [As his feet were up on the table], he talked at great length about Marxism.

As you can see, the verbless clause in (16.a) above is derived from the finite clause in (16.b) through the deletion of the verb. This transformation is called V-Deletion.

Like non-finite clauses, verbless clauses occur with or without a subject. Below are representative examples of both types.



(i) Subjectless Verbless Clauses

- (17) a. When in difficulty, consult the manual.  
b. If uncertain, ask Miss Hughes for help.  
c. Unaware of the consequences, he refused to pay his debts on time.  
d. Though very ill, she continued working until 5 p.m.



**EXERCISE (3)**

Replace the verbless clauses in (17) above by finite clauses recovering the deleted elements. Do not change the position of the clause:

Notice that the deleted subject in each of the verbless clauses in (17) above is coreferential with the subject of the matrix sentence (i.e. main clause). This explains why the subject is deleted. There are, however, contexts, where the suppressed subject is not coreferential with another noun in the matrix sentence: cf.

- (18) a. If possible, I'll see you at six o'clock.  
b. [If it is possible], I'll see you at six o'clock.
- (19) a. I'll drive you home, if necessary.  
b. I'll drive you home, [if it is necessary].

The deleted subject in the verbless clauses in (18) and (19) above is the pronoun it.

(ii) Verbless Clauses With Subject

- (20) a. His hair long and untidy, he stood on the stage reciting Irish poetry.  
b. Christmas then only days away, the family was pent up with excitement [Quirk, et.al., 1985: 1120].



**SAQ (3)**

Give examples of the following types of adverbial clauses:

1. Subjectless ING clause: .....
2. Subjectless EN clause: .....
3. Subjectless infinitive clause: .....
4. Subjectless Verbless clause: .....

**3.2 Syntactic Functions**

Like adverbials in general, adverbial clauses are divided into three groups according to the specific syntactic role they perform within the main clause (matrix sentence) or in conjunction with it. These three syntactic roles are:



- (i) Adjuncts
- (ii) Disjuncts
- (iii) Conjuncts

### 3.2.1. Adjuncts

An adjunct is an integral part of the matrix sentence within which it occurs. All the adverbial clauses in the following examples are adjuncts:

#### (i) Finite clauses

- (21) a. I came because I want to talk to you.  
 b. I'll see you when I come back.  
 c. If you work hard, you will succeed.

#### (ii) ING clauses

- (22) a. He injured his leg while working in the garden.  
 b. Being behind the door, he overheard everything we said.  
 c. Failing to convince the judge of his innocence, the accused collapsed in court.

#### (iii) INF clauses

- (23) a. He left school at the age of ten to look after his brothers and sisters.  
 b. She lived to be ninety.  
 c. You have to be intelligent to solve this problem.

#### (iv) EN clauses

- (24) a. Tortured and humiliated, the prisoner committed suicide.  
 b. Encouraged by his success, Conrad wrote another novel.  
 c. Looked at from this angle, the situation seems different.

#### (v) Verbless clauses

- (25) a. When in difficulty, phone the police.  
 b. If uncertain, consult the manual.  
 c. Though a devout Roman Catholic, Diana accepted to marry an atheist.

Adverbial clauses functioning as adjuncts can often be identified by asking and answering the questions: When?, Where?, How?, Why?, Under what conditions/circumstances?, How often? etc. . For instance, the adverbial clauses in (21) above answer the following questions:

- (26) a. Why did you come?  
 b. When will you see me?  
 c. Under what conditions/circumstances will you succeed?



Although adjuncts are quite often optional elements in the sentence, they closely resemble other sentence elements such as S, O, and C. For instance, like them (i.e. S, O, C)-but unlike disjuncts and conjuncts-an adjunct can be the focus of a cleft sentence. Consider the following data:

S            V            O            Co                            ADV

(27) a. Bob / calls / Leila / Maggie / because she resembles Margaret Thatcher.

(i) S as focus

b. It is Bob that calls Leila Maggie.

(ii) O as focus

c. It is Leila that Bob calls Maggie.

(iii) C as focus

d. It is Maggie that Bob calls Leila.

(iv) ADV as focus

e. It is because she resembles Margaret Thatcher that Bob calls Leila Maggie.

**NOTE**

As we shall see in 3.2.2. and 3.2.3. below, conjuncts and disjuncts cannot be the focus of a cleft sentence.

Secondly, like S, O and C, adjuncts can, as pointed out above, be elicited by question forms. Consider the following examples:

- (28) a. Bill likes Mary because she is rich.  
       b. S/ who likes Mary?  
       c. O/ Whom does Bill like?  
       d. ADV/ Why does Bill like Mary?

### 3.2.2 Disjuncts

Disjuncts convey the speakers comment on what he is saying. The following examples are self-explanatory:



(i) Finite clauses

- (29) a. If I may say so, your paper is not very convincing.  
b. If I may be frank with you, your work leaves much to be desired.

(ii) INF clauses

- (30) a. To be honest with you, I don't like him.  
b. To judge from her remarks, she is not easy to deal with.  
c. To be frank, I think I am underpaid.

(iii) ING clauses

- (31) a. Frankly speaking, you are a sham.  
b. Putting it bluntly, his contribution has been marginal.  
c. Speaking for myself, I won't vote for him.

(iv) EN clauses

- (32) Put frankly, this offer is unfair to us.

(v) Verbless clauses

- (33) Even more remarkable, the company pays her fifty thousand pounds a year.

As can be seen from the examples cited above, a disjunct is not integrated within the matrix sentence (main clause) as an adjunct is. It is used as an introductory note to the main message contained in the main clause (matrix sentence). The speaker specifically seeks to:

- (i) define under what conditions he is speaking (e.g. to be frank, ...), or  
(ii) comment on the content of the communication (e.g. even more remarkable, ....).

Unlike adjuncts and other sentence elements (i.e. S, O, C), disjuncts cannot be elicited by question forms, nor can they be the focus in a cleft sentence. Notice the following data with the adverb fortunately, which is a disjunct,:

- (34) a. Fortunately, he does not know this.  
b. \* Why/How doesn't he know this?  
c. \* It is fortunately that he doesn't know this.

### 3.2.3 Conjuncts

Most conjuncts are adverbs or prepositional phrases. The following are some representative examples of adverbs and prepositional phrases functioning as conjuncts:



- (35) a. Leila is an attractive lady. In addition, she is very intelligent.  
 b. It was a very tricky test. Nevertheless, he scored eight out of ten.  
 c. She doesn't need our support. On the contrary, we shall need her support when it comes to voting.  
 d. There was a general strike that day. As a result, there were no trains.

As you can see from the above examples, conjuncts have the function of conjoining units or even sentences. The unit preceded by the conjunct is not subordinated to the main clause (i.e. matrix sentence) as is the case with nominal clauses and adjuncts. In fact, conjuncts may be thought of as linking devices which establish the meaning relationship between consecutive sentences, signalling the logical flow of ideas. Sentence connectors will be discussed in detail in Unit Six below. What is important to note in this connection is that conjuncts may relate one clause to another (not only one sentence to another): cf.

- (36) a. You promise to help me; then you let me down!  
 b. You haven't answered my question; in other words, you disapprove of my proposal.

As pointed out above, conjuncts are mainly adverbs and prepositional phrases. Clauses do not commonly occur as conjuncts. Only in few contexts do adverbial clauses function as conjuncts. The following are some examples of adverbial clauses functioning as conjuncts:

- (37) a. To return to the examples in (29-33) above, we notice that disjuncts commonly occur in the initial position.  
 b. To sum up, a conjunct may link two independent sentences as in (35) above or two clauses as in (36).



#### EXERCISE (4)

Identify the syntactic function of the adverbial clauses in the following examples.

1. You can't sit where you like.
2. Please give Bill the message as soon as he arrives.
3. He left early because he felt ill.
4. She looks pretty whatever she wears.
5. They must have worn gloves in order not to leave any fingerprints.
6. If you want to order a washing machine, you have to pay a deposit.
7. While trying to open the can, I cut my hand.
8. It being a bank holding, all the shops were shut.
9. If accepted for this post, you will be informed by telephone.
10. Reading my newspaper, I heard the doorbell ring.
11. Strictly speaking, you ought to be here by 7.55.
12. Judging from what he says, he is no good for the job.
13. To be frank with you, you are conceited.
14. If I may say so, your argument is not valid.
15. Put frankly, his attitude is rather aggressive.



**SAQ (4)**

Identify the deleted subjects in the adverbial clauses contained in the following examples. If uncertain, revise the examples in this section.

1. Bill injured his leg while working in the garden.
2. He met his wife while studying at Oxford.
3. Bill went to Canada to study medicine.
4. To conclude, this paper is not original.
5. To be blunt, I cannot work with her.
6. I lent Carl a fiver to get home.
7. Encouraged by his success, Conrad wrote another novel.
8. When in difficulty, consult the manual.
9. If possible, I'll see you at six o'clock.
10. Even more remarkable, the company pays for her travel expenses.

**4. SEMANTIC ROLES**

The semantic roles of adverbial clauses may be related to those for adverbials in general, particularly prepositional phrases.

Most grammarians distinguish eight semantic roles for adverbial clauses; namely,

- (i) Clauses of Time
- (ii) Clauses of Place
- (iii) Clauses of Condition
- (iv) Clauses of Concession
- (v) Clauses of Reason
- (vi) Clauses of Purpose
- (vii) Clauses of Result
- (viii) Clauses of Manner and Comparison

Other grammarians, for instance, Quirk, et.al (1985) distinguish further semantic roles: cf.

- (ix) Clauses of Exception
- (x) Clauses of Proportion
- (xi) Clauses of Preference

In the ensuing sections we shall briefly discuss each of the semantic roles listed above. The discussion will focus on the following aspects:

- (i) meaning relationship between the adverbial clause and the main clause
- (ii) types of clauses (i.e. finite, non-finite and verbless) that signal semantic roles.
- (iii) subordinators used with each type of clause.
- (iv) susceptibility of each type of clause to transformation.



Illustrative examples will be provided throughout. Notice that some examples are borrowed from Quirk, et.al (1985); *Collins COBUILD English Grammar* (1990), Alexander (1988), and Aarts and Aarts (1988).

#### 4.1 Clauses of Time

##### (i) Finite Clauses

Finite adverbial clauses of time are introduced by such subordinators as: after, before, since, until, when, as, once, till, now (that), as long as, as soon as, etc: cf.

- (1) a. You didn't look very well when you got up this morning.
- b. Wait here until they call you.
- c. I'd like to see you before you go to lunch.
- d. Mary looks after the children while I go to Oxford.
- e. They heard the noises as soon as they opened the window.
- f. The turtle returns to the sea after it has laid its eggs.
- g. We came in just as it started to rain.
- h. Now that we have painted the house, we can move in.

##### (ii) ING Clauses

Adverbial ING clauses of time are introduced by one of the following subordinators: once, till, until, whenever, while or by a preposition such as after, before, on and since. Consider the following examples:

- (2) a. All children should wash their hands before taking their meals.
- b. Since phoning you last night, I've changed my plans.
- c. On finding the front door open, I became suspicious.
- d. Mike watched us while pretending not to.
- e. Adults sometimes do not realize their strength when dealing with children.

#### POINTER

- (i) All the-ING adverbials in (1a-e) are subjectless. What is the deleted subject in each case?
- (ii) Adverbial clauses of time answer the question When?

##### (iii) EN Clauses

Adverbial EN clauses are introduced by one of the following subordinators: as soon as, once, till, until, when, whenever. Notice that these are subordinators which also introduce finite clauses. This is, as you no doubt know, because EN clauses are



contracted finite clauses; i.e. they derive from finite clauses through AUX-Deletion and sometimes S-Deletion also. Consider the following examples:

- (3) a. Mike looks hurt and surprised when scolded.  
b. He slept while stretched out on the floor.  
c. Once published, the book is bound to have a tremendous impact.  
d. Whenever known, such facts should be reported.  
e. The documents will be endorsed as soon as signed.

#### (iv) Verbless Clauses

Verbless clauses of time are introduced by the same subordinator which introduce EN clauses. You should remember that verbless clauses are derived from finite clauses through V-Deletion and sometimes S-Deletion. The following are illustrative examples:

- (4) a. Steam or boil them until just tender.  
b. Beat the mixture until fluffy.  
c. We should help them whenever necessary.  
d. When ready, they will be shipped at once.

#### POINTER

All the verbless clauses in (4) above are subjectless. What is the deleted S in each case? Why does it get deleted?

#### (v) Infinitive clauses

Infinitive subjectless clauses may in certain contexts be used to express time relations. In such situations they express "the outcome of the event". Consider the following examples cited by Quirk, et.al. (1985: 1079):

- (5) a. He left, never to return.  
b. She turned around, to find the car gone.  
c. He lived to be 100.  
d. She grew up to become a successful actress.  
e. I woke up one morning to find the house in an uproar.

#### Notes

- i. Temporal infinitive clauses are characteristically subjectless.
- ii. They are restricted to final position.





### EXERCISE (5)

Replace the NF clauses in (2), (3) and (4) above by finite ones recovering the deleted elements.



### SAQ (5)

What transformations are used in the derivation of the NF clauses in (2), (3) and (4) above?

## 4.2 Clauses of Place

Adverbial clauses of place are mainly finite clauses introduced by the subordinators where and wherever. Non-finite EN clauses and verbless clauses may also designate place when introduced by where and wherever.

### (i) Finite Clauses

- (6) a. He left it where it lay.
- b. She is happy where she is.
- c. Wherever you look, you see trees.
- d. We'll go where we can find work.

### (ii) EN Clauses

- (7) Wherever known, such facts have been reported.

### (iii) Verbless Clauses

- (8) Help must be given where necessary.

## 4.3. Clauses of Condition

### 4.3.1. Types and Variation

Conditional sentences are traditionally divided into three main types according to the meaning they impart and the tense of the verb in the matrix clause and the subordinate clause (i.e. the conditional clause). The table below shows these three types.



Type	V in Sub CL	V in matrix CL
1	simple present If you <u>invite</u> him,	<u>will/shall</u> + V he <u>will come</u> .
2	simple past If you <u>invited</u> him,	<u>would/should</u> + V he <u>would come</u> .
3	past perfect If you <u>had invited</u> him,	<u>would+have</u> + V-EN he <u>would have come</u> .

Table (I)

The traditional analysis shown in the above table is largely correct, but it does not fully describe the normal patterns of tense in conditional clauses. In fact, each of the three types described above has its own variations, depending on the intended meaning and the linguistic/situational contexts. While we do not intend to go into the details of the variations within each type and the semantic implications of such variations, it is convenient to draw your attention to the main variations within each type. For more details you may consult the following:

- 1- Alexander, L.G. (1988), pp. 273-283.
- 2- *Collins COBUILD English Grammar* (1990), pp. 349-353.
- 3- Quirk, et.al. (1985), pp. 1087-1102.

### (I) Type 1

#### Basic Pattern (see Table 1 above)

#### Examples

- (9) a. If I lose my job, I will go abroad.
- b. If I am better tomorrow, I will get up.
- c. If you do that, I shall be very pleased.
- d. If she finishes early, she will go home.
- e. If the weather doesn't clear, we will not go for a walk.

#### Variations

1. The main verb in the if-clause may be present progressive instead of simple present: cf.

(10) If he is standing in the rain, he will catch cold.

2. The main verb in the if-clause may be present perfect: cf.

(11) If she has arrived at the station, she will be here soon.



3. The verb in the main clause may be preceded by a modal auxiliary: cf.
- (12) a. If she finishes early, she can/could/may come to see her children.  
 b. If you want some more, you should ask me.
4. The verb in the if-clause may be preceded by the modal should:
- (13) a. If he should call, tell him I want to see him.  
 b. If you should write to him, ask him to send me a copy of his new book.

Notice that the two sentences in (13) above may be used in a different pattern without the subordinator if: cf.

- (14) a. Should he call, tell him I want to see him.  
 b. Should you write to him, ask him to send me a copy of his new book.

#### REMINDER

The sentences in (14) are derived from those in (13) through S-AUX Inversion (i.e. the S of the sentence inverts with the AUX in the VP).

#### (ii) Type 2

Basic Pattern: (see Table 1 above)

Examples:

- (15) a. If you took a taxi, you would get there in time.  
 b. If it rained tomorrow, we would stay home.  
 c. If I went back on the train, it would be cheaper.  
 d. If I lost my job, I would go abroad.

#### Variations

1. Were can be used instead of was with I, he, she and it in the if-clause: cf.
- (16) a. If I were (\*was) you, I would resign.  
 b. If I were (\*was) as big as you, I would kill you.  
 c. If she was/were ready, she would go.
2. The verb in the main clause may be preceded by a modal auxiliary: cf.
- (17) If she were here, she could/might solve the problem.



### (iii) Type 3

**Basic Pattern:** (see Table 1 above)

**Examples:**

- (18) a. If we had gone by train, we would have arrived on time.  
b. If you had discussed the matter with Dr. Clark, you would have changed your mind.  
c. If she had not married, she would probably have become a celebrated actress.  
d. If it had rained, we would have stayed at home.

### Variations

1. The progressive aspect is possible in the main verb of the if-clause:

(19) a. If it had been raining this morning, we would have stayed at home.

2. The verb in the main clause may be preceded by a modal auxiliary: cf.

(20) If Jim had been here yesterday, he could/might have told us.

### (iv) Neutral Type

In addition to the three main types of conditional clauses discussed above, English makes use of a fourth type, often referred to as the neutral type. In this type of clause the tense of the verb is the same tense in the main clause. For instance, if the verb in the main clause is simple present, the verb in the if-clause is simple present: cf.

- (21) a. If the wind blows from the north, this room is very cold.  
b. If you never have a cold, you are very lucky.  
c. If it rains heavily, the two rivers flood.  
d. If you want to borrow an umbrella, there is one by the front door.  
e. If the amount of CO<sub>2</sub> in the atmosphere is too little, the climate becomes colder.

Other variations of tense are possible:

- (22) a. If you are standing by the shore of the Dead Sea, you are actually at the lowest point on Earth.  
b. If you are working hard, your heart beats at a faster rate.



### NOTE

In most of the examples in (21) and (22) above the subordinator if may be replaced by when: cf.

- When the wind blows from the north, this room is very cold.
- When you are working hard, your heart beats at a faster rate.

#### 4.3.2 Subordinators

Conditional clauses are typically introduced by the subordinator if. This explains why they are often referred to as if-clause. The subordinator if is used with positive conditions. All the examples in (6-19) above exemplify this use. With negative conditions the subordinator unless is used: cf.

- (22) a. I won't let you drive my car unless you show me your driving license.  
b. Unless you change your mind, I won't be able to help you.

Conditional clauses may be introduced by other subordinators such as: as long as, so long as, on condition that, provided (that), providing (that), if and only if, if and when, only if. Below are some representative examples:

- (23) a. She is prepared to return provided that she may bring her son.  
b. I'll fix this only if he requests this in writing.  
c. They will lend us their flat on condition (that) we paint it.  
d. As long as you clear your desk by this evening, you can have tomorrow off.

### REMINDER

All the adverbial clauses cited in this section are finite.

#### Non-finite Clauses of Condition

Non-finite clauses with the exception of the EN clause do not normally express condition. When used as a clause of condition, the EN clause is introduced by the subordinator if and unless; other subordinators are not possible:

- (24) a. If begun now, the project will be ready within two months.  
b. A dog will turn away if looked steadily in the eye.  
c. Unless phrased properly, this proposal will be rejected.



### Verbless Clauses of Condition

Verbless clauses expressing 'condition' are introduced by if and unless: cf.

- (25) a. If in doubt, ask at you local library.  
b. If uncertain, consult the manufacturer's manual.  
c. This situation is to be avoided if possible.  
d. It has little taste unless hot.

#### 4.3.3 Transformations

The three main transformations that operate on adverbial clauses are (i) S-AUX Deletion, (ii) S-V Deletion and (iii) S-AUX Inversion.

##### i. S-AUX Deletion

This transformation, as you already know, deletes the S and the AUX in a passive finite clause to produce a non-finite EN clause: cf.

- (26) a. If (it is) begun now, the project will be completed within two months⇒  
b. If begun now, the project will be completed within two months.

##### ii. S-V Deletion

This transformation deletes the S and the verb BE in a finite clause to produce a verbless clause:

- (27) a. If she is ready, she will come with us ⇒  
b. If ready, she will come with us.

##### iii. S-AUX Inversion

This transformation reorders the normal position of the S and V/AUX in a declarative sentence (i.e. S+V/AUX ⇒ AUX/V+S). In other words, the S inverts with the V/AUX. In such cases the subordinator is deleted: cf.

- (28) a. If I had known, I would have told you ⇒  
b. Had I known, I would have told you.
- (29) a. If she were in charge, she would do things differently ⇒  
b. Were she in charge, she would do things differently.
- (30) a. If you should write to him, tell him to phone me ⇒  
b. Should you write to him, tell him to phone me.



- (31) a. If it were not for your help, I would still be in jail ⇒  
 b. Were it not for your help, I would still be in jail.

#### 4.4. Clauses of Concession

Concessive clauses imply a contrast between two circumstances; i.e. the information in the matrix clause is surprising or unexpected in the light of the information in the subordinator clause: cf.

- (32) Although Bill worked very hard, he did not pass his exams.

Finite clauses of concession are introduced chiefly by the subordinator although. Other subordinators include: even though, even if, while, whereas and when:

- (33) a. While I did well in class, I was a poor performer on tests.  
 b. Even if you dislike her, you would enjoy her parties.  
 c. She insists on paying the fee when she can take the course free of charge.  
 d. He drove my car even though I told him not to.

Finally notice that certain adverbial clauses combine elements of meaning of both conditional and concessive clauses. Quirk, et.al. (1985) distinguish two classes of such clauses: (i) alternative conditional-concessive clauses, and (ii) universal conditional-concessive clauses.

##### (i) Alternative Conditional-Concessive Clauses

Alternative conditional-concessive clauses are introduced by whether.....or, no matter whether and it doesn't matter whether. Consider the following sets of example from Quirk, et.al (1985:1100):

##### Finite Clauses

- (34) a. You will have to face this situation, whether you want to or not.  
 b. Whether I agreed or not, the search would take place.

##### ING Clauses

- (35) a. Sarah is always intense, whether working or playing.

##### EN Clauses

- (36) a. Whether trained or not, Marilyn is doing an excellent job.



### Verbless Clauses

(37) No matter whether right or wrong, your son needs all the support you can give him right now.

Notice that the subordinator may be deleted in the case of non-finite clauses. Thus instead of (35.a) and (36.a) we can have (35.b) and (36.b) respectively:

(35) b. Working or playing, Sarah is always intense.

(36) b. Trained or not, Marilyn is doing an excellent job.

### (ii) Universal Conditional-Concessive Clauses

These clauses are introduced by one of the wh-compounds whatever, whoever, etc.: cf.

(38) a. She looks pretty whatever she wears.

b. Whatever I say to them, I can't keep them quiet.

c. However much advice you give him, he does exactly what he wants.

Universal conditional-concessive clauses are commonly finite. It is possible, however, to delete the verb BE in the subordinate clause. The resulting clause will be a verbless clause: cf.

(39) a. Whatever your problems (are), they can't be worse than mine.

b. However great the pitfalls (are), we must do our best to succeed.

## 4.5 Clauses of Reason

Clauses of reason may be finite, non-finite or verbless. If finite, they are introduced by the subordinators because, as and since. Non-finite and verbless clauses, on the other hand, occur without a subordinator.

### (i) Finite

(40) a. I couldn't feel anger against him because I liked him.

b. Since I was in the same class as Bill, I know him very well.

c. She is thin because she doesn't eat enough.

d. As Bill was the eldest, he had to leave school to support his brother.

### (ii) ING Clauses

(41) a. Realizing that he was bound to lose, Bill withdrew his suggestion.

b. Being behind the door, she overheard our argument.



(iii) EN Clauses

- (42) a. Encouraged by this success, Conrad wrote a new novel.  
b. Constructed according to international specifications, the building was able to withstand the earthquake.

(iv) Verbless Clauses

- (43) Tired and exhausted, the girls soon fell asleep.

QUESTION

What transformations are used in the derivation of the NF and verbless clauses in (50), (51) and (52) above? Some of these examples occur in previous sections.

In their treatment of reason clauses, Quirk, et.al. (1985) distinguish different types of relation between the matrix clause and the subordinate clause: (i) cause and effect, (ii) reason and consequence, (iii) motivation and result, and (v) circumstance and consequence. In all types the situation in the subordinate clause precedes in time that of the matrix clause. Below is a brief discussion of these types together with some illustrative examples borrowed from Quirk, et.al. (1985:1103-1105).

(i) Cause and Effect

- (44) She is thin because she doesn't eat enough.

1: CAUSE → 2: EFFECT

She doesn't eat enough → She is thin

(ii) Reason and Consequence

- (45) She watered the flowers because they were dry.

1: REASON → 2: CONSEQUENCE

The flowers were dry. → She watered them.

(iii) Motivation and Result

- (46) You'll help me because you are my brother.

1: MOTIVATION → 2: RESULT

You are my brother → You will help me.



(iv) Circumstance and Consequence

- (47) Since the weather has improved, we shall eat in the garden.

1: CIRCUMSTANCE → 2: CONSEQUENCE

The weather has improved → We shall eat in the garden.

Notes

- (i) Circumstantial clauses are introduced by as, because and since. They may be also introduced by such complex subordinators as: seeing (that), as long as, now (that): cf.

- (48) a. Seeing that it is only three, we should be able to finish this before we leave today.  
b. Now that she could drive, she felt independent.

- (ii) Circumstantial adverbs may be non-finite in which case they are introduced by with: cf.

- (49) With the exam coming next week, I have no time for her party. [ING clause with subject]

- (50) With so many children to support, they both have to work full time. [infinitive clause]

4.6 Clauses of Purpose

Clauses of purpose can be finite or non-finite, particularly infinitive clauses. Finite clauses are introduced by so that or in order that, whereas infinitive clauses are introduced by in order to, (in order) for N to, so as to.

(i) Finite Clauses

- (51) a. The school closes early so that the children can get home before dark.  
b. Be as clear and factual as possible in order that there may be no misunderstanding.

(ii) Infinitive Clauses

A. With Subject

- (52) They left the door open (in order) for me to hear the baby.

B. Without Subject

- (53) a. Bill went to London to visit his mother.  
b. I arrived early so as not to miss anything.



## Notes

- i. Finite clauses quite often require one of these modal auxiliaries: can, could, may, might, should, would:

(54) I arrived early [so that I could/would/might get a good view of the procession].

[see also (60.a) and (60.b) above]

- ii. In formal contexts, finite clauses are introduced by the subordinators for fear that, in case or lest: cf.

- (55) a. They left early for fear (that) they would meet him.  
b. I bought the car at once in case he changed his mind.  
c. I asked them to ring first lest we were out.

### 4.7 Clauses of Result

Clauses of result are typically finite; non-finite clauses do not express the concept of result, except indirectly in the case of infinitive clauses that blend the meaning of time and outcome. This type of infinitive clause was discussed in Section 4.1. above. We repeat some examples for convenience:

- (56) a. He left, never to return.  
b. She grew up to become a successful actress.

Clauses of result overlap with these of purpose both in meaning and in subordinators. Like finite clauses of purpose, finite clauses of result are introduced by the subordinators so and so that:

- (57) a. My suitcase had become damaged, so that the lid would not become closed.  
b. We turned the radio up, so that everyone heard the announcement.

The main semantic difference between result clauses and purpose clauses is that result clauses are factual (i.e. the result is achieved) whereas in purpose clauses the result (of the action) is yet to be achieved (i.e. it is a desired result). Consider the following pair of examples cited by Quirk, et.al. (1985:1108):

- (58) a. We paid him immediately, so that he left contended. [result]  
b. We paid him immediately, so that he would leave contended. [purpose]

Notice the ambiguity in the following example cited by Close (1875:66):

- (59) a. We turned the radio up so that everyone could hear the announcement.

This sentence can be paraphrased in two different ways:



(59) b. We turned the radio up so that everyone was able to hear the announcement.  
[result]

c. We turned the radio up in order for everyone to be able to hear the announcement. [purpose]

### SO THAT

The subordinate so that may be translated in two different ways into Arabic. What are these two translations? Use your dictionary if uncertain.

The correlative so...that and such...that are also used to express result: cf.

- (60) a. His speech was so clear that we understood every word.  
b. He spoke so clearly that we understood every word.

### REMINDER

The word so in these two examples functions as an intensifier premodifying the adjective clear in (a) and the adverb clearly in (b).

- (61) a. These birds have such small wings that they cannot get into the air.  
b. They obeyed him with such willingness that the strike went on for even a year.

### NOTE

When the verb in the main clause is BE, the normal word order is often changed for greater emphasis. The intensifier so and the following Adj, (e.g. so tiny) is placed at the very beginning of the clause followed by the verb BE. Consider the following data:

- (62) a. The room was so tiny that you could not get a bed into it.

b.	S	BE	Cs
	The room	was	so tiny ⇒
c.	So tiny	was	the room

- d. So tiny was the room that you could not get a bed into it.



As you can see from (b) and (c) above, the S (i.e. the room) and the Cs (i.e. so tiny) invert with each other. We shall refer to this transformation as S-C Inversion.



#### **EXERCISE (6)**

Apply S-C Inversion to the main clause in the following sentences:

1. They have been so successful that they are moving to London.
2. The rate of progress is so rapid that advance seems to be following.
3. Our protest was so strong that the manager agreed to reconsider the matter.

### **4.8 Clauses of Manner and Comparison**

Adverbial clauses of manner answer the question How? and can be introduced by the subordinators as, just as and exactly as. Manner adverbials normally come after the main clause. Consider the following examples containing finite clauses:

- (63) a. Type this again as I showed you this morning.  
b. Please do it exactly as I instructed.  
c. I don't understand why he behaves as he does.

Manner adverbials often overlap with adverbials of comparison [see (64) below], particularly when the clause is introduced by as if, as though and just as: cf.

- (64) a. It swims above the sea floor just as its ancestors did.  
b. She treats him as though he was her own son.  
c. She acted as if she was mad.  
d. He treated me as if he had never met me.

The subordinators as, as if and as though may introduce non-finite and verbless clauses. Consider the following four examples:

#### **(i) ING Clauses**

- (65) He bent down as if tightening his shoe laces.

#### **(ii) EN Clauses**

- (66) Fill in the application as instructed.

#### **(iii) Infinitive Clauses**

- (67) He winked to her as if to say she shouldn't say anything.



#### (iv) Verbless Clauses

- (68) You should discuss the matter with him as though unaware that they are facing a financial problem.

In a sentence containing a comparison clause, the proposition expressed in the matrix clause is compared with the proposition expressed in the subordinate clause with respect to some standard of comparison (e.g. education, health, etc): cf.

- (69) a. Bill is as healthy as his brother is.  
b. She is not as educated as her sister is.  
c. Nancy is as beautiful as her sister (is).  
d. She behaves as politely as her mother (does).

The correlatives more.....than is also used in sentences incorporating adverbial clauses of comparison. Notice that more can premodify a noun, an adjective or an adverb: cf.

- (70) a. I have more books than my brother (does).  
b. She is more beautiful than most of the girls you know (are).  
c. The time passed more quickly than (it passed) last year.

#### Notes

- (i) Ellipsis of a part of the subordinate clause is likely to occur when that part is a repetition of something in the main clause: cf.

- (71) John is as intelligent as his brother (is).

- (ii) Sometimes ellipsis results in ambiguity. Try to resolve the ambiguity in the following example:

- (72) a. John loves his dog more than his wife.

Notice that this sentence can be paraphrased in two different ways:

- (72) b. John loves his dog more than his wife (does). (i.e. more than she loves the dog).  
c. John loves the dog more than (he loves) his wife. (i.e. more than her).

#### **POINTER**

1. How would you translate (81.a) into Arabic? Is the Arabic sentence ambiguous? If so, how would you resolve the ambiguity?
2. What is the function of the NP his wife in (81.a)?



#### 4.9 Clauses of Exception

Clauses of exception are introduced by such subordinators as: except, except that, save that, etc. They are chiefly finite, but infinitive clauses are used in certain contexts and are introduced by but.

##### (i) Finite Clauses

(73) He thinks highly of you, except that he is not ready to support you publicly.

**Note:** The subordinator save that is restricted to formal contexts. Consider the following example cited by Quirk, et.al. (1985:1102):

(74) No memorial remains for the brave who fell on that battle field, save that they will leave their image for ever in the hearts and minds of their grateful countrymen.

##### (ii) Infinitive Clauses

(75) Nothing would satisfy the child but for me to place her on my lap.

#### 4.10 Clauses of Proportion

Clauses of proportion express a proportionality of degree or tendency between two situations. They are mainly finite clauses introduced by as or the correlatives the ..... the followed by comparative forms. Consider the following example with the subordinator as:

(76) As years passed by, they became lonely and disheartened.

**Note:** the use of correlative the....the+comparative Adj/Adv involves the fronting of the comparative element. We shall refer to this process as COMPARATIVE FRONTING. Consider the following data:

- |      |    |                  |                 |
|------|----|------------------|-----------------|
|      | S  | V                | ADV             |
| (77) | a. | You / arrive /   | <u>later</u> ⇒  |
|      | b. | <u>The later</u> | you arrive..... |

- |  |    |                       |                         |
|--|----|-----------------------|-------------------------|
|  | S  | V                     | Cs                      |
|  | c. | The food / is /       | <u>better</u> ⇒         |
|  | d. | <u>The better</u>     | the food is.....        |
|  | e. | The later you arrive, | the better the food is. |



#### 4.11 Clauses of Preference

Clauses of preference are introduced by the subordinator rather than and sooner than. They are chiefly bare infinitive clauses involving deletion of elements repeated in the matrix clause: cf.

- (78) a. I'd rather take the slowest train  
          THAN                } ⇒  
      b. I go there by air  
      c. I'd rather take the slowest train than go there by air.

As you can see, the S of the subordinate clause is deleted because it is coreferential with the subject of the matrix clause.

In certain contexts the subordinate clause may occur with an expressed subject: cf.

- (79) a. Rather than [you say anything] }  
      b. [I would speak to the manager] } ⇒  
      c. Rather than you say anything, I would speak to the manager.

#### 4.12 Summary

Before closing this section, it is expedient to revise with the main issues in it and to highlight some points that merit further discussion and elaboration.

- i. All types of clauses may function as adverbials (i.e. finite, non-finite) [ING, EN, infinitive], and verbless.
- ii. When functioning adverbially, non-finite and verbless clauses occur with or without a subject.
- iii. Some adverbial clauses may occur without a subordinator.
- iv. Adverbial clauses may occur initially, medially or finally.
- v. Adverbial clauses have three distinct syntactic functions depending on the extent of integration within the matrix clause; namely, adjuncts, disjuncts and (rarely) conjuncts.
- vi. The semantic relation between the subordinate clause and the matrix clause is determined by different linguistic factors. Amongst these factors are:  
(i) type of clause, (ii) subordinator, (iii) position of clause, (iv) tense and modality in both the matrix and the subordinate clause.
- vii. The same subordinator may introduce adverbial clauses expressing different semantic roles. Notice, for instance the use of the subordinator as in the following examples:



- (80) a. As I was by the seaside, I met an old friend of mine. [time]  
 b. As Jane was the eldest, she looked after the others. [reason]  
 c. As you are in charge, when can I get my salary? [circumstance]  
 d. Do it as I had instructed. [manner]

(viii) Two or three subordinators may express the same semantic notion. This explains why such subordinators are in free variation in certain contexts: cf.

- |      |             |                              |
|------|-------------|------------------------------|
| (81) | a. When     | necessary, phone the police. |
|      | b. Whenever |                              |
| (82) | a. Where    |                              |
|      | b. Wherever |                              |
| (83) | If          |                              |

(ix) Sometimes elements of two semantic concepts may blend together. For instance, the following example exhibits elements of meaning of both condition and concession:

- (84) Whether they come to see us or we go to see them, we have to finalize the matter tonight.



#### SAQ (6)

Identify the type and the semantic role of the underlined adverbial clauses in the following examples. All examples occur in this section.

1. Wait here until they call you.
2. They heard the noises as soon as they opened the window.
3. Since phoning you last night, I've changed my plans.
4. Mike looks hurt and surprised when scolded.
5. We should help them whenever necessary.
6. She turned around, to find the car gone.
7. He left it where it lays.
8. Wherever known, such facts have been reported.
9. If you invited him, he would come.
10. Should he call, tell him I want to see him.
11. If you are working hard, your heart beats at a faster rate.
12. Unless phrased properly, this proposal will be rejected.
13. If ready, she will come with us.
14. Even if you dislike her, you would enjoy her parties.
15. Whether I agreed or not, the search would take place.
16. Trained or not, Mary is doing an excellent job.
17. However great the pitfalls, we must do our best.
18. Since I was in the same class as Bill, I know him very well.
19. Encouraged by his success, Conrad wrote a new novel.
20. Tired and exhausted, the girls soon fell asleep.
21. You'll help me because you are my friend.



22. Now that she could drive, she felt independent.
23. With so many children to support, they both have to work full time.
24. They left the door open for me to hear the baby.
25. I asked him to ring first lest we were out.
26. These birds have such small wings that they cannot get into the air.
27. Please do it as I showed you this morning.
28. He bent down as if tightening his shoe laces.
29. Bill is as healthy as his brother is.
30. He thinks highly of you, except that he is not ready to support you publicly.
31. As years passed by, he became lonely and disheartened.
32. I'd rather take the slowest train than go by air.

?

#### SAQ (7)

Give examples of a subjectless - ING clause expressing the following concepts/notions:-

1. Time: .....
2. Concession: .....
3. Reason: .....
4. Manner/Comparison: .....

?

#### SAQ (8)

Give examples of a subjectless verbless clause expressing the following semantic roles:

1. Time: .....
2. Condition: .....
3. Reason: .....

?

#### SAQ (9)

Give examples of a subjectless EN clause having the following semantic roles:

1. Time/Outcome: .....
2. Purpose: .....
3. Manner/Comparison: .....



?

**SAQ (10)**

Give examples of the following transformations showing (a) the underlying structure and (b) derived structure:

1. **S-AUX Deletion:**

a: .....  
b: .....

2. **S-V Deletion:**

a: .....  
b: .....

3. **S-Deletion+V-Participialization:**

a: .....  
b: .....

4. **S-AUX Inversion:**

a: .....  
b: .....

5. **S-C Inversion:**

a: .....  
b: .....

6. **S-Deletion+V-Infinitivalization:**

a: .....  
b: .....

?

**SAQ (11)**

Give examples of adverbial clauses introduced by as or as if expressing the following semantic roles:

1. Time: .....
2. Reason: .....
3. Manner: .....
4. Proportion: .....





### EXERCISE (7)

Change the second sentence in each of the following pairs into an -EN adverbial clause as specified below. Delete elements wherever necessary.

1. a. Mike looks hurt.  
b. Mike is scolded. [Time]  
.....
2. a. The book will not sell well.  
b. The book is not published by an international publishing house. [Condition]  
.....



### EXERCISE (8)

Change the first sentence in each of the following pairs into an EN adverbial clause as specified below. Delete elements wherever necessary.

1. a. Conrad was encouraged by his success. [Reason]  
b. Conrad wrote a new novel.  
.....
2. a. Mary is trained (or not) [Alternative Conditional-Concessive]  
b. Mary is doing an excellent job.  
.....

## 5. NOMINAL AND ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

Before closing this unit, it is expedient to revise with you the major points of similarities and differences between nominal and adverbial clauses. The objective of this contrastive presentation is twofold:

- (i) to show that both types of clause are in fact instances of the same phenomenon in English, namely subordination; and
- (ii) to show that many of the syntactic transformations that operate on the structures underlying nominal clauses also apply on structures underlying adverbial clauses.

Since this is a review of topics which you have already studied, we shall not provide illustrative examples of each point. You are expected to provide such examples. If you are unable to provide a certain example, go back to the relevant section in Unit Three or Unit Four and make sure you find it. In this sense, you are expected to contribute actively towards this section. The idea behind this is to make you think and search for examples to do the quizzes in this section.

Below is a summary of the main points of similarity and difference between nominal and adverbial clauses:



(i) Communicative Function

Adverbial clauses, like nominal clauses, enable the speaker to express statements that are complex and detailed in one sentence instead of using a string of simple sentences.

**QUIZ (1)**

Change the following string of sentences into one complex sentence in any way you like:

1. You are wrong.
2. You believe something.
3. I am not telling the truth.

(ii) Status

Nominal clauses are obligatory elements in clause structure, whereas adverbial clauses are generally optional (from a syntactic point of view).

**QUIZ (2)**

Give two examples where the adverbial clause is obligatory.

(iii) Level of Embedding

Nominal clauses can function on the phrase level as complements to head words, whereas adverbial clauses cannot.

**QUIZ (3)**

Give examples of nominal clauses having the following functions on the phrase level: 1. COMP/NOM, 2. COMP/ADJ, 3. COMP/PREP.



#### (iv) Types of Clause

All types of clauses (i.e. finite, non-finite and verbless) may occur as adverbials. In addition, all types of non-finite clauses (i.e. ING clauses, EN clauses and infinitive clauses) may function adverbially. In contrast, nominal clauses may be finite, ING clauses, and infinitive clauses. Verbless clauses and EN clauses are unlikely to be used nominally.

#### QUIZ (4)

Give examples of an ING clause having the following functions:

- 1- ADV
- 2- NOM/SENTENCE LEVEL
- 3- NOM/PHRASE LEVEL

#### (v) Transformations

Some of the major transformations that operate on nominal clauses operate also on adverbial clauses. Amongst these transformations are: S-Deletion; Modal-Deletion; V-Infinitivalization; V-Participialization, To-Deletion.

#### QUIZ (5)

Give example of S-Deletion+V-Participialization in both nominal and adverbial clauses.

#### (vi) Subject

Non-finite nominal clauses, like non-finite adverbial clauses, may occur with or without a subject.

#### QUIZ (6)

Give examples of a subjectless ING clause whose deleted S is indefinite in both nominal and adverbial functions.



(vii) Modality

Non-finite nominal clauses, like non-finite adverbial clauses, cannot incorporate a modal auxiliary.

**QUIZ (7)**

Why cannot non-finite clauses contain a modal auxiliary?

(viii) Freedom of Co-Occurrence

A- Nominal clauses and adverbial clauses are not mutually exclusive. The same sentence may contain both types of clause: cf.

(1) Although Bill is tired (ADV), he believes that he can finish this work by five (NOM).

B- A nominal clause may have as one of its constituents an adverbial clause and vice versa: cf.

(2) I believe that you can do it [if you work hard]. (ADV within NOM)

(3) Although he believes [that you are good for this job]/NOM within ADV/, he cannot support you publicly.

(ix) Multiple Embeddings

A- A finite clause may have as one of its constituents another finite clause or a non-finite clause.

**QUIZ (8)**

Give an example of a finite clause having another finite clause as one of its constituents.

B- A non-finite clause may have as one of its constituents another non-finite clause or a finite one.

**QUIZ (9)**

Give an example of a NF clause containing another NF clause.



**(x) Subordinator**

Both nominal and adverbial clauses may occur with or without a subordinator.

**QUIZ (10)**

- 1- Give an example of an adverbial clause having no subordinator.
- 2- Give an example of a nominal clause having a subordinator.

**REMINDER**

You should remember that non-finite clauses, whether functioning nominally or adverbially, are always tenseless. They can, however, be perfective, progressive or passive.



**EXERCISE (9)**

Rewrite these sentences replacing non-finite clauses by finite ones. If the finite clause is not replaceable by a finite one, write NOT POSSIBLE. Do not change the structure of the sentence.

**WARNING**

- (i) Some sentences contain more than one non-finite clause.
- (ii) Some sentence may not contain a non-finite clause at all. In such cases write NO NF CLAUSES.
- (iii) Some times you may need to apply Extraposition to produce an acceptable sentence.

1. Bill is reported to have been working as a secret agent.

.....

2. For Bill to have lost the race annoyed his parents.

.....

3. It is odd for you to be eating at this time of night.

.....



4. He went to London to visit his mother.  
.....
5. Not knowing the answer, the student pretended to be sick.  
.....
6. The fact of his having been nominated for a prize is irrelevant.  
.....
7. He suggested our taking the exam again.  
.....
8. After their departure at midnight we went for a walk in the park.  
.....
9. She denied having been treated badly by her boss during the meeting.  
.....
10. Believing he was a total failure in everything he did, Bill was on the point of suicide.  
.....
11. No one enjoys deceiving his own family.  
.....
12. At a later stage I regretted having accepted the proposal.  
.....
13. Being hot, Bill expected to be given a shower.  
.....
14. Tears streaming from his face, the child ran home to be comforted by his mother.  
.....
15. His problem is that he believes himself to be intelligent.  
.....
16. A student hoping to finish college in three years must work hard.  
.....
17. Anyone having talked to him once will be convinced of his innocence.  
.....
18. The painting of the picture by Bill pleased us.  
.....
19. Magda has categorically refused to give us the documents.  
.....
20. Bill seems to have lost his charm.  
.....



#### **EXERCISE (10)**

Give examples of ING clauses without S resulting from S-Deletion+V-Participialization having the functions listed below. Cite complete sentences showing:

- (a) The original structure (containing the finite clause), and
- (b) The derived structure (containing the non-finite clause)

##### 1. **ADVERBIAL**

- a. ....
- b. ....



2. **NOMINAL**
  - a. ....
  - b. ....
3. **ADJECTIVAL (CONTRACTED REL CL)**
  - a. ....
  - b. ....
4. **APPOSITIVE (COMP/NOM)**
  - a. ....
  - b. ....

## 6. **OVERVIEW**

Unit Three has dealt in a rather comprehensive manner with adverbial clauses. The following aspects have been particularly emphasized:

- (i) Types of Adverbial clauses (F, NF and V-less)
- (ii) Syntactic Functions of Adverbial clauses
- (iii) Semantic Roles of Adverbial clauses
- (iv) Contrasting Adverbial and Nominal clauses

## 7. **PREVIEW OF UNIT FOUR**

Unit Four deals exclusively with Adjectival and Appositive clauses. It also deals with other borderline clauses such as sentential relative clauses and indeterminate clauses.

The unit will concentrate on both the syntactic functions and the semantic roles of the clauses mentioned above. Syntactic transformations that apply to the structures underlying these clauses will be highlighted. Finally, adjectival clauses will be compared to both nominal and adverbial clauses.

## 8. **ANSWER KEY**

### **EXERCISE (1)**

- a. As he was born in 1855, .....
- b. As he was encouraged by this success, .....
- c. Since she was left a widow at the age of 30, .....
- d. ...., when it is done properly, .....
- e. When it is looked at from a syntactic point of view, .....
- f. ...., as if he was stunned by the news.

### **EXERCISE (2)**

- a. Since his energy was spent, .....
- b. Because his clothes were caught in the barbed wire, .....
- c. Once our task was completed, .....
- d. Since we are given these facts, .....



### EXERCISE (3)

- a. When you are in difficulty,.....
- b. If you are uncertain,.....
- c. As he was unaware of the consequences,.....
- d. Though she was very ill,.....

### EXERCISE (4)

Nos 1-10 are adjuncts.

Nos 11-15 are adjuncts.

### EXERCISE (5)

- (2) a. .... before they take their meals.  
b. Since I phoned you last night, .....  
c. When I found the front door open,.....  
d. While he was pretending not to.  
e. ....when they deal with their children.
- (3) a. .... when he is scolded.  
b. .... while he was stretched out on the floor.  
c. Once it is published, .....  
d. Whenever they are known,.....  
e. ....as soon as they are signed.
- (4) a. ....until they are just tender.  
b. ....until it is fluffy.  
c. ....whenever it is necessary.  
d. When they are ready,.....

### EXERCISE (6)

1. So successful have they been that .....
2. So rapid is the rate of progress that .....
3. So strong was our protest that .....

### EXERCISE (7)

1. Mike looks hurt when scolded.
2. The book will not sell well if not published by an international publishing house.

### EXERCISE (8)

1. Encouraged by his success, Conrad wrote a new novel.
2. (Whether) trained or not, Mary is doing an excellent job.

### EXERCISE (9)

1. It is reported that Bill has been working as a secret agent. [Extraposition is obligatory].
2. That Bill had lost the race annoyed his parents.
3. It is odd that you are eating at this time of night.
4. He went to London so that he would visit his mother.
5. As he did not know the answer, the student pretended that he was sick.



6. The fact that he has been nominated for a prize is irrelevant.
7. He suggested that we (should) take the exam again.
8. NO NF CLAUSES.
9. She denied that she had been treated badly by her boss during the meeting.
10. As/Because he believed that .....
11. NOT POSSIBLE.
12. ....I regretted that I had accepted the proposal.
13. As he was hot, Bill expected that he would be given a shower. (2 clauses)
14. As tears streamed from his eyes, the child ran home so that he would be comforted by his mother. (2 clauses)
15. His problem is that he believes that he is intelligent.
16. A student who hopes [that he will finish college in three years] must work hard: (2 clauses)
17. Anyone who has talked to him.....
18. NO NF CLAUSE
19. NOT POSSIBLE
20. It seems that Bill has lost his charm. (Extraposition is obligatory).

### **EXERCISE (10)**


1. a. As he didn't know the answer, Bill left the room.  
b. Not knowing the answer, Bill left the room.
2. a. That he failed the exam annoyed Bill.  
b. Failing the exam annoyed Bill.
3. a. A man who resembles your father-in-law wants to see you.  
b. A man resembling you father-in-law.....
4. a. The idea that he would spend his life in prison horrified him.  
b. The idea of spending his life in prison .....

### **9. REFERENCES**

1. Allsop, J. (1983), pp. 226-250.
2. Close, R. (1975), pp. 279-297.
3. *Collins COBUILD English Grammar* (1990), pp. 342-362.
4. Frank, M. (1986), pp. 19-44.
5. Jackson, H. (1982), pp. 97-102.
6. Kaplan, J. (1989), pp. 267-300.
7. Quirk and Greenbaum (1973), pp. 322-341.
8. Quirk, et.al. (1985), pp. 1068-1146.

\*\*\*\*\*



A decorative graphic consisting of a central horizontal bar with a textured, grey background. Above and below this bar are four rectangular frames arranged in a cross pattern. The top-left and bottom-right frames are smaller squares, while the top-right and bottom-left frames are taller rectangles.

# UNIT FOUR

Adjectival and Appositive Clauses



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## 1. INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Preview

Units Two and Three above have dealt with subordinate clauses as constituents of complex sentences. This unit deals with clauses having adjectival and appositive functions. In other words, this unit deals with embedded sentences as constituents of the noun phrase.

Adjectival and appositive clauses, like nominal and adverbial clauses, will be classified according to the following parameters:

- (i) Finiteness (i.e. finite, non-finite, verbless).
- (ii) Subject (with or without subject).

The unit will also discuss the transformations that operate on both adjectival and appositive clauses.

### 1.2 Unit Objectives

Upon completing this unit, you should be able to:

1. **recognize** restrictive and nonrestrictive relative clauses,
2. **analyze** all types of relative clauses in terms of their constituents and the function of such constituents,
3. **be aware** of the syntactic and semantic differences holding between restrictive and nonrestrictive relative clauses and differences holding between these two types of clause and sentential clauses,
4. **be aware** of the distribution of relative pronouns and use them correctly and appropriately,
5. **be aware** of the reduction/contraction transformations that operate on relative clauses,
6. **recognize** all types of appositive clauses and identify their form and function, and
7. **use** adjectival and appositive clauses appropriately and correctly in speech and writing.

### 1.3 Unit Sections

In addition to this introductory section and the overview at the end, this unit consists of four main sections as follows:

<u>Section No.</u>	<u>Content</u>
2	Assumptions and Definitions
3	Adjectival Clauses
4	Appositive Clauses
5	Adjectival and Appositive Clauses Compared

This unit also contains (15) exercises and (14) SAQs.



## 1.4 Supplementary Reading



For further details on the topic of this unit, you are advised to consult the following references (See bibliographical details at the end of the book).

1. Alexander, L. (1988), pp. 16-24
2. Allsop, J. (1983), pp. 290-296
3. Close, R. (1975), pp. 50-55
4. Frank, M. (1986), pp. 45-56
5. Kaplan, J. (1989), pp. 301-327
6. Quirk, and Greenbaum (1973), pp. 375-405

## 2. ASSUMPTIONS AND DEFINITIONS

### 2.1 Assumptions

Before starting our discussion of adjectival clauses, it is expedient to make some assumptions that will establish the theoretical and descriptive framework upon which this unit is based.

- (i) Adjectival clauses, like nominal and adverbial clauses, originate as embedded sentences.
- (ii) Unlike sentences underlying nominal and adverbial clauses (which are embedded into the matrix sentence to realize one of its functions), a sentence underlying an adjectival clause is embedded into an NP to function as a constituent of this NP.
- (iii) Like adverbial and nominal clauses, adjectival clauses may appear in different forms (i.e. finite, non-finite, verbless, with/without a subject, etc.).
- (iv) Adjectival clauses are called so because they have a similar function to adjectives, in that like the adjective, the adjectival clause **qualifies/describes** the HN it co-occurs with.
- (v) All adjectives which premodify nouns originate as relative clauses. The adjective **old** in the phrase:  
(1) a. The **old** man.  
is originally a predicative adjective in a relative clause: cf.  
(1) b. The man [who is **old**].  
We shall return to discuss the transformational relationship between (1.a) and 1.b) in a subsequent section.
- (vi) All postnominal modifiers having an adjectival function (e.g. ING clauses, EN clauses, infinitive clauses, verbless clauses) are related semantically and syntactically to relative clauses in the sense that they result from the reduction/contraction of relative clauses through the application of some independent transformations. Some of these transformations (e.g. **S + Aux Deletion; S-Deletion + V-Participialization**, etc.) also operate on sentences underlying nominal and adverbial clauses.
- (vii) From (iii), (iv) and (v) above we can conclude that adjectives and adjectival clauses and other structures that qualify nouns constitute one whole system, namely that of qualifying/describing nouns. Thus this system may be compared to other systems in the language (i.e. nominal system, verbal system and



adverbial system). Notice that these four systems relate to the four major word-classes in English: cf.

<u>No.</u>	<u>Word Class</u>	<u>System</u>
1	Noun	Nominal
2	Verb	Verbal
3	Adjective	Adjectival
4	Adverb	Adverbial

### REMINDER

Make sure that you understand the above assumptions before you proceed to do the second part of this section, which deals with the definition of terms used in this unit.

## 2.2 Definitions

**Adjectival clauses** should be distinguished from **appositive clauses**. Adjectival clauses are discussed in detail in Section 3 below whereas appositive clauses are discussed in Section 4.

Adjectival clauses (whether intact or **reduced**) are postnominal modifiers that modify/describe/qualify the headnoun they follow. All the underlined constructions in the following examples are adjectival. The HN is placed between brackets:

- (1)
- a. The [man] who came into the room was small and thin.
  - b. The [girl] sitting in the garden is my daughter.
  - c. The [goods] shipped last month have been damaged.
  - d. The best [man] to talk to is Henry Widdowson.
  - e. The [files] on your desk are confidential.
  - f. We need [someone] taller and stronger.
  - g. The [car] which she bought is rather expensive.
  - h. The [room] in which we stayed was small and damp.
  - i. The [idea] which he put forward is rather interesting.
  - j. The [principles] which they adopted are not fair.

### POINTER

1. What type of headnouns precede the underlined adjectival constructions in (1) above? Do they refer to people, places or things?
2. Can you expand the underlined constructions that are not relative clauses into relative clauses (i.e. 1.b, 1.c, 1.d, 1.e, 1.f)?



**Appositive clauses**, as you already know from Unit Two above, are **nominal clauses** (**not adjectival**) that postmodify certain **abstract nouns**. This is why they are called **APPOSITIVE** (or **NOMINAL COMPLEMENT**). However, they are treated in this unit because, like adjectival clauses, they occur after headnouns (i.e. postnominal positions). All underlined constructions in the following sentences are appositive (i.e. **NOM/COMP**). The HN is placed between brackets:

- (2)
- a. The [fact] that he is American is irrelevant.
  - b. The [assumption] that things will improve is not valid.
  - c. The [idea] of spending his life in prison horrified him.
  - d. The [fact] of her being the director's daughter should make no difference.
  - e. The [plan] to rebuild the palace never materialized.
  - f. You must excuse the [fact] that I am late.
  - g. The [action] of climbing the mountain tired the children.
  - h. This [business] of marking registers is a waste of time.
  - i. We were not deceived by their [proposal] to call a truce.
  - j. Their [refusal] to fulfill their promise was disgraceful.

### QUESTIONS

1. What type of HNs precede the appositive clauses in (2) above?
2. What type of clauses are used as appositive in (2) above?

**Adjectival clauses** can be **finite** or **non-finite**. **Finite adjectival clauses** are characteristically preceded by a **relative pronoun** (i.e. **who, whom, that, which**). This is why they are called **Relative Clauses**.

### REMINDER

Finite adjectival clauses are Relative Clauses.

**Non-finite adjectival clauses** are (i) **ING clauses**, (ii) **EN clauses** and (iii) **infinitive clauses**. Thus an **ING clause** may function as (i) **Nominal**, (ii) **Adverbial**, and (iii) **Adjectival**. You, no doubt, remember the **ING clause** **walking by the seaside** that was used in three different syntactic functions (in Unit 3 above). However, we repeat these three examples here for convenience:

- (3)
- a. **Walking by the seaside** is fun. (NOM)
  - b. **Walking by the seaside**, I met an old friend of mine. (ADV)
  - c. The [man] **walking by the seaside** is Japanese. (ADJ)



Appositive clauses can be finite and non-finite. The clauses in (2.a) and (2.b) above are finite, the rest are non-finite (ING clauses and infinitive clauses).



### SAQ (1)

Give examples of a **subjectless infinitive clause** having the following functions:

1. NOM .....
2. ADV .....
3. ADJ .....
4. APPOS (NOM/COM) .....

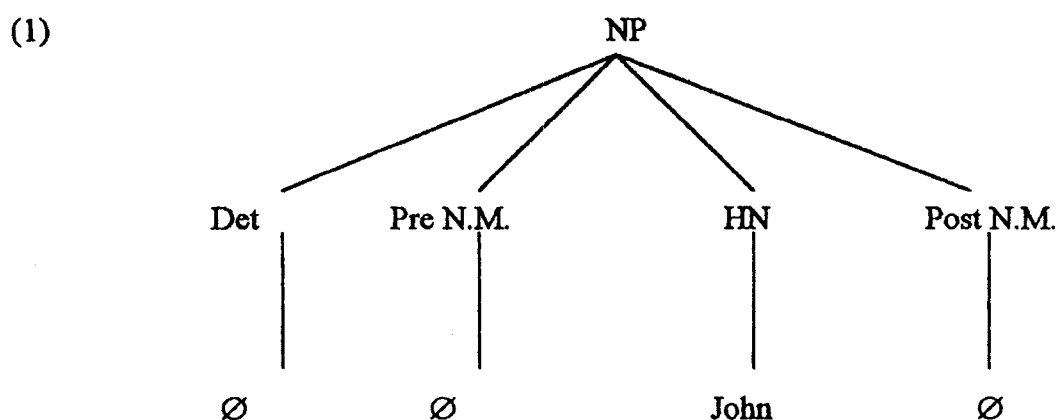
## 3. ADJECTIVAL CLAUSES

### 3.1 Introductory Remarks

As pointed out in Section 1 above, an adjectival clause originates as a sentence embedded into an NP (in the postnominal position). Before we explain how an embedded sentence is transformed into an adjectival clause, it is convenient to remind you of the structure of an NP.

The noun phrase is a word or a group of words whose head is typically a noun (or a pronoun). The headnoun (HN) may be preceded by (i) determiners and/or (ii) pre-nominal modifiers (pre N.M.) and followed by postnominal modifiers (post N.M.). All the following are NPs:

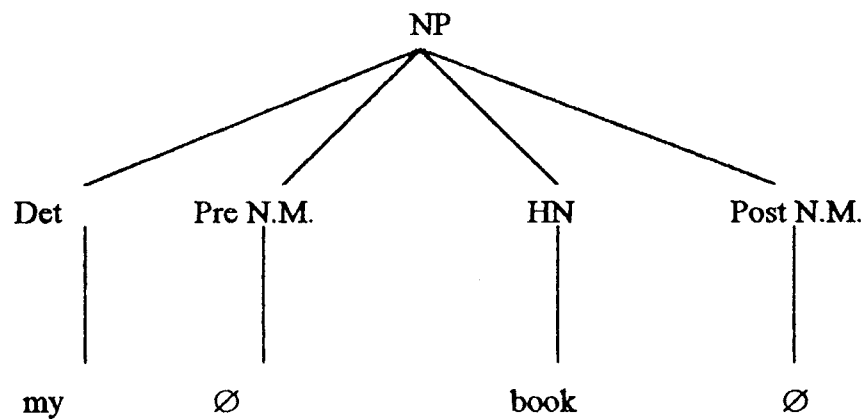
#### (i) HN (only)





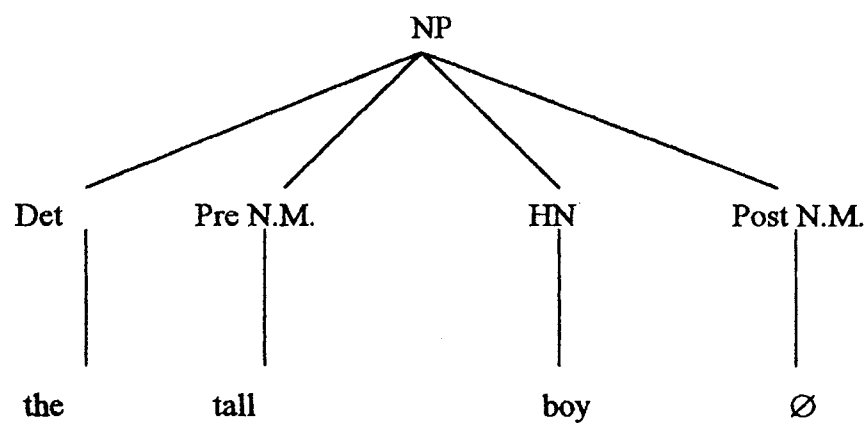
(ii) **Det + N**

(2)



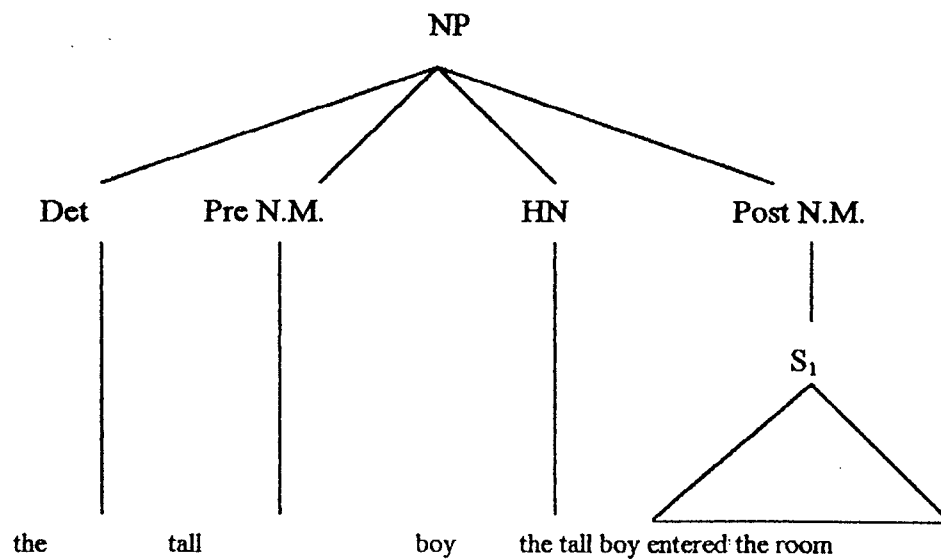
(iii) **Det + Pre N.M. + HN**

(3)



(iv) **Det + Pre N.M. + HN + Post N.M.**

(4)





The following are examples representing the above diagrams. Consider the underlined NPs and notice that the head word is enclosed between brackets:

- (5) **HN (only)**
  - a. [John] is a professor.
  - b. [We] have solved the problem.
  - c. Jane doesn't like [men].
  - d. They live in [Cairo].
- (6) **Det + HN**
  - a. The [lion] is a strong animal.
  - b. My [wife] is a typist.
  - c. This [book] belongs to your secretary.
- (7) **Det + Pre N.M. + HN**
  - a. I have never met your charming [wife].
  - b. This red [car] is quite expensive.
  - c. The new [regulations] are rather unfair.
- (8) **Det + Pre N.M. + HN + Post N.M.**
  - a. The tall [man] who is sitting in the corner is my uncle.
  - b. The country [cottage] which we saw yesterday is wonderful.

What we are concerned with in this section is the category Postnominal Modifier (or Postmodifier). The assumption that we want to make here is that all postnominal modifiers originate as embedded sentences. These embedded sentences are then transformed into finite, non-finite and verbless clauses. Thus from the embedded sentence in (4) above we can get the relative clause contained in the following NP:

- (9) The tall boy who entered the room
- The process which converts an embedded sentence into a relative clause is called **Relativization**.

Below are relevant details about this important transformation. Notice that we describe this transformation as important because it, together with subsequent transformations, underly all adjectival constructions in English, whether in the postnominal or prenominal positions: i.e.

- (i) ING Adjectival Clauses.
- (ii) EN Adjectival Clauses.
- (iii) Infinitival Adjectival Clauses.
- (iv) Verbless Adjectival Clauses.
- (v) Prenominal adjectives and nouns (e.g. as in tall boy, and university professor respectively).



### Conditions for Relativization

For an embedded sentence to meet the conditions for relativization, it should contain a noun which is coreferential with (identical to) the HN. For instance, the embedded sentence in (4) above contains the noun *boy* (preceded by the adjective *tall*), which is identical to the HN (preceded by the adjective *tall*).

## Steps

1. Replace the N (in the embedded sentence) which is identical to the HN with the appropriate relative pronoun (**who, whom, whose, which**). The noun which is replaced by the relative pronoun is called the **relativized N**.

**Note:** The choice of the relative pronoun is determined by the grammatical function of the N it replaces in the embedded sentence (S, O, C) and by the semantic class of HN, in particular whether it refers to people or things.

2. Move the relative pronoun to the beginning of the embedded sentence, if it is not already there.

**Note:** The relative pronoun always comes at the beginning of the relative clause, except when it is preceded by a preposition. We shall return to discuss this point below.

The examples below illustrate the conditions and steps defined above (The symbol  $S_0$  stands for the matrix sentence and  $S_i$  for the embedded sentence).

- (10) a. So: I don't like **girls**. }  
 b.  $S_1$  : Girls talk too much }  $\Rightarrow$   
 c. I don't like **girls** [who talk too much].

- (11)      a. So: This is the book. }  
              b. S<sub>1</sub>: I bought **the book** yesterday. } ⇒



Step (1): I bought **which** yesterday.

Step (2): **which** I bought yesterday.  $\Rightarrow$

- c. This is the book [which I bought yesterday].

There are two kinds of relative clauses, (i) **Restrictive/Defining** relative clauses, and (ii) **Nonrestrictive/Nondefining** relative clauses. These two kinds will be discussed in the subsequent two subsections.

### 3.2 Restrictive Relative Clauses (RCs)

### 3.2.1 Head-Clause Relation

Restrictive relative clauses are also referred to as defining relative clauses because they define or restrict the reference of the HN they modify. Consider the following examples illustrating the use of restrictive relative clauses:

- (12) a. A [person] **who reads the news** is a newsreader.  
b. A novelist is a [person] **who writes novels**.



- c. A killer disease is a [disease] **which kills people and animals.**
- d. A museum is a [building] **in which objects illustrating art, history, science, etc. are displayed.**
- e. A nipple is [that part of the breast] **through which a baby gets its mother's milk.**

As you can see from the examples in (12) above, a restrictive relative clause serves to define the HN it modifies. Without it the meaning of the sentence will be abrupt and odd: cf.

- (13)     a. ? A person is a newsreader.  
           b. ? A novelist is a person.

In fact, restrictive/defining relative clauses are frequently used in dictionaries to define terms and concepts.



#### SAQ (2)

Using your dictionary complete the definitions of the following words/terms. Use restrictive relative clauses in your definitions (of the type instanced in (12) above).

- 1. An **idiom** is a phrase .....
- 2. A **boiler** is a metal container .....
- 3. An **archer** is a person .....
- 4. A **polyglot** is one .....
- 5. A **motor** is a device .....

In addition to its use in defining words/concepts/ideas, etc., a restrictive relative clause may be used to describe things or the functions they perform: cf.

- (14)     a. A saw is [a tool] **that has a blade with sharp teeth along one edge.**  
           b. A drill is [a tool or machine] **that is used for making holes.**  
           c. A tool-box is [a metal or plastic box] **which contains general tools that you need at home.**

#### QUESTIONS

What happens if the restrictive/defining relative clauses in (14) above are deleted?

Now consider the following examples which illustrate another use of RCs:

- (15)     a. [Drivers] **who don't care for the safety of the public** should be punished.  
           b. [A person] **who cannot be kind and understanding** should not become a doctor.



- c. The university administration has decided to sack [all students] **who were caught cheating in the final exam.**

The restrictive relative clauses in (15) above are, as you can see, essential to the sentences within which they are contained. Without them, the examples in (15) will be odd and will make little sense. Notice the oddity of the following examples:

- (16) a. ? Drivers should be punished. [cf. 15.a].  
 b. ? A person should not become a doctor. [cf. 15.b].  
 c. ? The university administration has decided to sack all students.

The RCs in (15) above restrict the reference of the HN they modify. For instance, in (15.a) the predicate **should be punished** does not refer to drivers in general; it refers to a certain class of drivers, namely those **who don't care for the safety of the public**. This explains why the relative clause that postmodifies the HN in (15.a) is called **restrictive** or **defining**.

To conclude, a restrictive relative clause is essential for the identification of the HN.

### NOTE

A restrictive relative clause immediately follows the antecedent HN it modifies. It is not preceded or followed by a comma.



### EXERCISE (1)

Complete the sentences in column A with the RCs in column B. Use your dictionary if necessary:

<b>A</b>		<b>B</b>	
1.	A pilot is a person	a.	who studies language (s).
2.	A Londoner is someone	b.	who studies the sounds of language.
3.	A linguist is a person	c.	who flies an airplane.
4.	A meteorologist is a person	d.	who lives in London.
5.	A jack-of-all-trades is someone	e.	who studies weather phenomena.
6.	A phonetician is someone	f.	who hates people.
7.	A psychiatrist is someone	g.	who is always hopeful.
8.	A misanthrope is someone	h.	who treats mental illness.
9.	An optimist is someone	i.	who knows something of many things.
10.	A crook is someone	j.	who makes a living by dishonest or criminal means.





1. A baker is someone **who** .....
2. A mechanic is someone **who** .....
3. A spendthrift is someone **who** .....
4. A miser is a person **who** .....
5. An astronomer is a scientist **who** .....
6. A dish-washer is a machine **which** .....
7. A cutter is an instrument **which** .....
8. A transitive verb is a verb **which** .....
9. A barometer is an instrument **which** .....
10. A radiator is an apparatus **which** .....

(18) a. So: **The man** no longer lives here. }  
 b. S<sub>1</sub>: **The man/S/** made this shed. } →  
 c. **The man** [that made this shed] no longer lives here.



### POINTER

The relative pronoun **who** is more common than **that** when the HN is personal and the pronoun is the S of the relative clause.

In fact **who** is favoured irrespective of the style and the occasion.

When the HN is personal and the pronoun is the object of the relative clause, we use **who**, **whom** or **that**: cf.

- (19) a. So: He is a distant relative. }  
b. S<sub>1</sub>: I haven't seen him for a long time. } →  
↓  
c. He is a distant relative [who/whom/that I haven't seen for a long time].

#### B. Non-Personal HNs

When the HN is non-personal and the relative pronoun is the S or Od of the relative clause, we use **which** or **that**: cf.

- (20) a. So: This is the book. }  
b. S<sub>1</sub>: The book /S/ deals with pollution } →  
c. This is the book [which/that deals with pollution].
- (21) a. So: This is the book. }  
b. S<sub>1</sub>: Bill wrote the book/Od/ years ago. } →  
c. This is the book [which/that Bill wrote years ago].

#### Relative Pronoun Deletion

When the relative pronoun is the Od of the relative clause, it can be optionally deleted regardless of the gender of the HN (i.e. personal or non-personal): cf.

- (22) a. They are delighted with the person [(whom) /Od/ we have appointed].  
b. They are delighted with the book [(which) /Od/ she has written].

### REMINDER

Parentheses ( ) indicate optional items.



**(ii) Function of the Relativized  $N(P)$**

As pointed out above, the choice of relative pronoun is dependent on the function of the pronoun in the relative clause, or - more specifically - the function of the relativized N(P). A relativized NP may be a constituent of the embedded sentence (i.e. S, O, C) or it may be a complement in a prepositional phrase contained in the embedded sentence.

### A. Subject and Object

We have already cited examples where the relative pronoun functions as S (cf. 17, 18, 20) and Od (cf. 19, 21). We have also seen that the choice of relative pronoun is governed by the syntactic function of the pronoun (in the relative clause). For instance, with personal HNs, only **who** (but not **whom**) is possible if the pronoun is S, whereas both **who** and **whom** are possible if the pronoun is Od. Below are some more illustrative examples:

- (23) a. They are delighted with the person [who/whom we have appointed].  
b. This is the man [who/\*whom has won the race].

Secondly, we have seen that the relative pronoun may be optionally deleted if it is the Od of the relative clause but not the S. For instance, it is possible to delete the relative pronoun in (23.a) but not in (23.b).

### B. Subject Complement

If the relative pronoun is the Cs of the relative clause, only **which** is possible; **who** and **that** are not possible regardless of the gender of the HN. Consider the following data:

- (24) a. So: He is the perfect engineer. }  
 b.  $S_1$ : His predecessor was not the perfect engineer /Cs/. }  $\Rightarrow$   
 c. He is the perfect engineer [which/\*that/\*who/his predecessor was not].

### C. Possessive Determiner

The relativized N may also function as a possessive determiner in an NP contained in the embedded sentence. Consider the function of the possessive pronoun *her* in the following sentence:

- (25) a. You met **her daughter** yesterday.

Supposing we want to convert this sentence into a relative clause to postmodify the NP **the lady** in the following example:

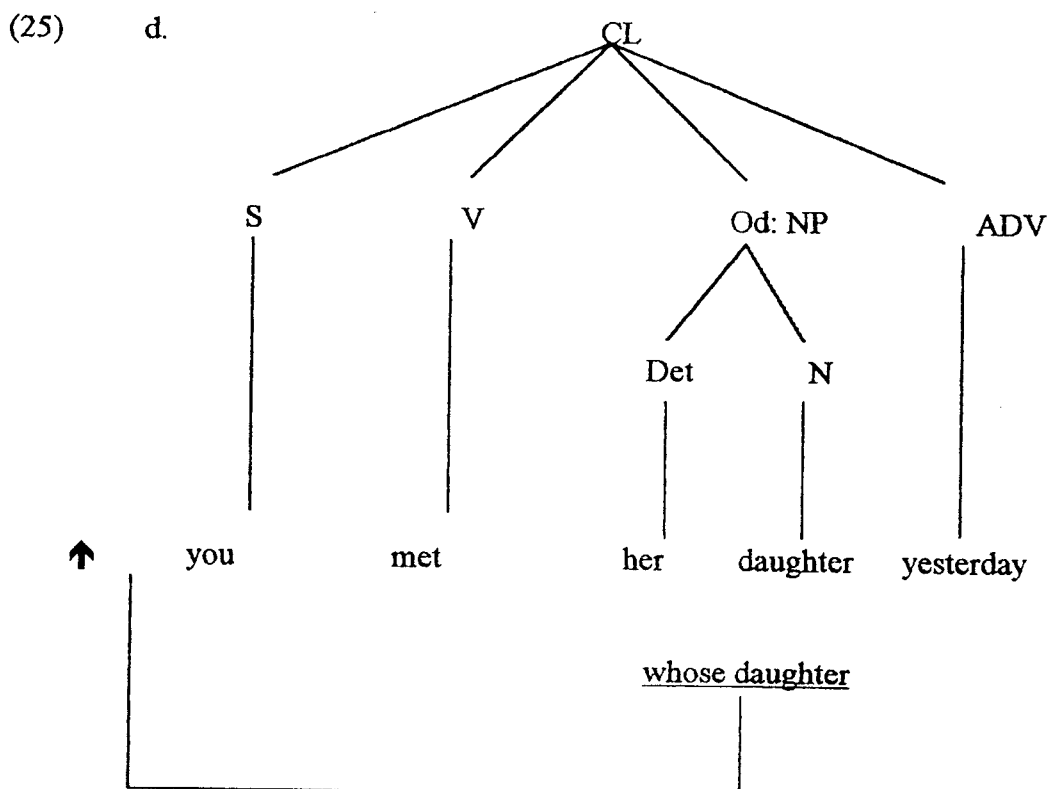
- (25) b. This is the lady.



The resulting sentence will be:

- (25) c. This is the lady [**whose** daughter you met yesterday].

The relative clause **whose daughter you met yesterday** will have the same structure as the embedded sentence in (25.a) above.



With non-personal NPs the relative pronoun **whose** is also used, but not so frequently: cf.

- (26) a. The car is in the garage. }  
 b. You damaged its [i.e. the car's] engine. } ⇒  
 c. The car [**whose** engine you damaged] is in the garage.

#### RULE

The relative pronoun **whose** is used to replace a possessive N or Pro functioning as Det.

#### D. Prepositional Complement

A relativized N(P) may function as a prepositional complement as in the following example:



- (27) a. I spoke to the man.

Supposing we want to convert this sentence into a relative clause that modifies the HN **man** in the following sentence:

- (27) b. The man is rather snobbish,

The resulting sentence will:

- (27) c. The man [whom I spoke to] is rather snobbish.

or

- (27) d. The man [to whom I spoke] is rather snobbish.

In (27.c) the preposition **to** remains in its original position in the embedded sentence, only the relative pronoun is fronted: cf.

(28)

	I	spoke	to	the man
<-----				whom
whom	I	spoke	to	

On the other hand, in (27.d) both the preposition **to** and the relative pronoun **whom** are fronted (i.e. placed at the beginning of the relative clause). Consider the following illustration:

(29)

	I	spoke	to	the man
<-----				to whom
to whom	I	spoke		

We shall call the pattern in (27.c) where the preposition comes at the end of the relative clause **a prepositional relative clause**.

**PATTERN (1).** The pattern exhibited in (27.d) where the preposition is moved to the very beginning of the clause (i.e. fronted) is quite formal and **Pattern (1)** is more frequently used. Let us call this **PATTERN (2)**.

The embedding of (27.a) into the NP **the man** in (27.b) may result in other patterns. One such pattern involves the use of the relative pronoun **that**, another involves the use of the **Zero** relative pronoun (i.e. the relative pronoun is deleted): cf.

### **PATTERN (3) / Using that**

- (27) c. The man [that I spoke to] is rather snobbish.



Notice that the preposition **to** cannot be fronted if the relative pronoun **that** is used:  
cf.

- (27) f. \*The man [**to that** I spoke] is rather snobbish.

**PATTERN (4) / Zero relative pronoun (Ø)**

- (27) g. The man [I spoke **to**] is rather snobbish

Note: The preposition cannot be fronted in this case.

**PATTERN (5) / Using who**

- (27) h. The man [**who** I spoke **to**] is rather snobbish.

Note: The preposition cannot be fronted in this case: cf.

- (27) i. \*The man [**to who** I spoke] is rather snobbish.

**Comments**

1. Pattern (1): **Prep + whom** is quite formal.
2. Pattern (2): **whom ..... Prep** is more usual.
3. Pattern (3): **that ..... Prep** is not so common with personal HNs.
4. Pattern (4): **Zero ..... Prep** is the most common.
5. Pattern (5): **who ..... Prep** not preferred in formal English.

With non-personal HNs, **which**, **that** and **zero** are used in Patterns 1, 2, 3 and 4: cf.

**PATTERN (1): Prep + which**

- (30) a. The journal [**to which** Professor Lewis has referred you] is on your desk.

**PATTERN (2): which ..... Prep**

- b. The journal [**which** Professor Lewis has referred you **to**] is on your desk.

**PATTERN (3): that ..... Prep**

- c. The journal [**that** Professor Lewis has referred you **to** ] is on your desk.

**PATTERN (4): Zero ..... Prep**

- d. The journal [Professor Lewis has referred you **to**] is on your desk.



**Notes:**

1. Pattern (1) is quite formal.
2. Pattern (4) is the most common.

**POINTER**

Since Pattern (4) is the most common, we advise you to use it both in speech and writing.



**EXERCISE (2)**

Combine the two sentences into one sentence by changing the second into a restrictive relative clause and placing it immediately after the HN it modifies. Use **who**, **whom**, **whose**, and **which**.

1. a. Animals are called carnivores. }  
b. Animals eat meat. } ⇒  
c. ....
2. a. He gave me the book. }  
b. I wanted the book. } ⇒  
c. ....
3. a. Planes are called gliders. }  
b. Planes do not have engines. } ⇒  
c. ....
4. a. He found the woman. }  
b. He was looking for the woman. } ⇒  
c. ....
5. a. Swahili is a language. }  
b. This language is spoken in East Africa. } ⇒  
c. ....
6. a. Bicycles are called motorcycles. }  
b. Bicycles have engines. } ⇒  
c. ....
7. a. Do you know the people? }  
b. The people live in the white house. } ⇒  
c. ....
8. a. The waitress was very friendly. }  
b. The waitress served us dinner. } ⇒  
c. ....
9. a. Do you like the mechanic? }  
b. The mechanic fixed your car. } ⇒  
c. ....



10. a. I talked to the people. }
- b. The people were sitting next to me. } ⇒
- c. ....
11. a. The man was polite. }
- b. The man answered the phone. } ⇒
- c. ....
12. a. My daughter asked me a question. }
- b. I could not answer the question. } ⇒
- c. ....
13. a. Pat likes the family. }
- b. She is living with the family. } ⇒
- c. ....
- d. ....
14. a. There is the man. }
- b. The man's car was stolen. } ⇒
- c. ....
15. a. That is the man. }
- b. His son is an astronaut. } ⇒
- c. ....
16. a. I know a girl. }
- b. The girl's brother speaks eight languages. } ⇒
- c. ....
17. a. I have a neighbour. }
- b. The neighbour's dog barks all night long. } ⇒
- c. ....
18. a. These are the photos. }
- b. The photos show your house. } ⇒
- c. ....
19. a. He is the man. }
- b. The pictures were stolen from his house. } ⇒
- c. ....
20. a. In 1980 he caught a serious illness. }
- b. He still suffers from its effects. } ⇒
- c. ....



### EXERCISE (3)

Underline the relative pronouns that can be deleted in the relative clauses contained in the following examples:

1. Is he the man **whose** house was burnt down?
2. This is the best book **that** has been written on the subject so far.
3. A person **who** sings pop(ular) songs is a pop-singer.
4. A person **who** frequently drinks coffee is a coffee-drinker.
5. Yesterday I met a friend **who** was at school with me.



6. The car **which** overtook us a few minutes ago has now been stopped by the police.
7. Where is the man **whom** I saw this morning ?
8. Is that the man **whom** you gave your tickets to ?
9. The shed **which** we built in the garden last year has been damaged.
10. Nearly all people **whom** I used to know have gone.
11. This is the pen **which** I bought yesterday.
12. The book **which** you referred me to is not in the library.

### 3.2.3 Contact and Prepositional Relative Clauses

#### (i) **Contact Relative Clauses**

You have already seen that the relative pronoun may be optionally deleted in certain contexts. Such clauses are called **Contact Clauses**, and are very common in both speech and writing. Here are a few more examples where the relative pronoun is omitted:

- (31)
- a. The play **we** saw last night was disappointing.
  - b. The library didn't have the book **I** wanted.
  - c. Was the man **you** spoke to just now a friend of yours?
  - d. Is the offer **you** made last week still open?
  - e. One of the chief things a computer **can** do is to save money, manpower and time.

#### **RULE**

In a restrictive relative clause, the relative pronoun may be omitted **IF IT IS NOT THE SUBJECT OF THE RELATIVE CLAUSE**. It not only may be omitted, it very often **is**, particularly in spoken English.

#### **Remarks**

1. Contact clauses are called so because what characterizes them is the close contact in sound and sense between the clause and the HN. .
2. Contact clauses are necessarily restrictive. A relative pronoun introducing a non-restrictive clause may not be deleted.

#### (ii) **Prepositional Relative Clauses**

You have already seen that a relative pronoun may function as COMP-PREP in the relative clause. Relative clauses which contain such relative pronouns are often referred to as **Prepositional Relative Clauses**. As you have seen above, the position of the preposition that co-occurs with the relative pronoun is governed by two factors:



(i) **Level of formality**

In formal contexts, the preposition precedes the relative pronoun: cf.

- (32) a. He is the man [to] whom I gave the money.

In informal contexts, the most usual practice is for the preposition to be placed at the end-position: cf.

- (32) b. He is the man whom I gave the money [to].

(ii) **Choice of Relative Pronoun**

The preposition may precede **whom**, **which** and **whose**, BUT NOT **who**,  $\emptyset$ , or **that**. The following examples are self-explanatory:

**Whom**

- (33) a. The person [to] whom I complained is the manager.  
b. The person whom I complained [to] is the manager.

**Who**

- (34) a. The person who I complained to is the manager.  
b. \*The person [to] who I complained is the manager.

**Zero [ $\emptyset$ ]**

- (35) a. The person I complained to is the manager.  
b. \*The person [to] I complained is the manager.

**Whose**

- (36) a. This is the lady whose paintings you are interested [in].  
b. This is the lady [in] whose paintings you are interested.

**That**

- (37) a. The book that you referred me [to] is not available.  
b. \*The book [to] that you referred me is not available.

**Which**

- (38) a. The house [in] which you are interested has been sold.  
b. The house which you are interested [in] has been sold.

**REMINDER**

The most usual practice in informal style is to use a Contact Relative Clause with the preposition at the end position. See the examples in (39) below.

- (39) a. The house you are interested [in] has been sold.



- b. The book **you referred me [to]** is not available.
- c. The person **I complained [to]** is the manager.



#### SAQ (4)

Delete the relative pronoun and move the preposition to the end-position in the relative clauses contained in the following examples:

1. The house **[in] which you are interested** has been sold.
2. The agency **[from] which we bought our tickets** is in Oxford.
3. This is the pan **[in] which I boiled the milk**.
4. He is the policeman **[at] whom the burglar fired the gun**.

#### Note:

Some prepositions cannot occur at the end-position in a restrictive relative clause; they must be placed before the relative pronoun at the beginning of the clause. Notice the acceptability of the first example and the unacceptability of the second one in the following pair of sentences cited by Quirk and Greenbaum (1973:381):

- (40) a. The meeting **[during] which I slept** was boring.
- b. \*The meeting **which I slept [during]** was boring.

### 3.3 Nonrestrictive Relative Clauses (NRCs)

#### 3.3.1 Head-Clause Relation

Let us begin our discussion of nonrestrictive relative clauses by considering the following examples which contain nonrestrictive relative clauses. As you read each example pay special attention to two things (i) type of HN, (ii) punctuation marks. Notice that the relative clauses are printed in bold type:

- (41) a. New Zealand, **which was founded by the intellectuals,** is the world's most enlightened community.
- b. Wool still has advantages over artificial fibre, **which is never so comfortable.**
- c. Brighton, **in which he had spent such happy days,** quickly forgot him.
- d. Here is John Smith, **whom I mentioned the other day.**
- e. I spoke to Dr. Owen, **who had examined me before.**
- f. Then I met Linda, **who started shouting at me.**
- g. Vitamins, **which are essential for health,** occur naturally in many kinds of food and are also sold in the form of pills.

A moment's reflection on the examples in (41) above will convince us that non-restrictive relative clauses differ from restrictive relative clauses in two distinct ways with regard to (i) antecedent HN, and (ii) punctuation marks preceding and/or following the relative clause.



(i) **Antecedent HN**

The antecedent HNs used in the five examples in (41) above are either (i) **proper nouns** (e.g. **New Zealand, Brighton, John Smith, Dr. Owen, Linda**), which have unique reference or (ii) **generic nouns** that refer to members of the whole class (e.g. **artificial fibre and vitamins**). In both cases the reference of the noun can hardly be narrowed or restricted.

(ii) **Orthographic Marks**

Unlike a restrictive relative clause, which immediately follow the HN it modifies, a NRC is separated from its antecedent HN by a comma. A nonrestrictive clause is also followed by a comma if it occurs within the matrix sentence (i.e. not at the end-position of the sentence). Nonrestrictive clauses may also be marked off by means of dashes or placed in parentheses: cf.

- (42)     a. Mary, **who lived next door**, called the police.  
          b. Mary - **who lived next door** - called the police.  
          c. Mary (**who lived next door**) called the police.

In speech, nonrestrictive clauses are preceded and followed by a pause or an open juncture, whereas restrictive clauses are not. The pause (or open juncture) is represented orthographically by commas, dashes or parantheses as in (42) above.

However, the most important difference between restrictive and nonrestrictive clauses resides in meaning and function (i.e. semantic differences), in particular the relationship between the relative clause and its antecedent HN.

Let us begin by examining the following pair of sentences, which exemplify the different semantic implications of restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses:

- (43)     I have two brothers **who study linguistics**.  
(44)     I have two brothers, **who study linguistics**.

Apart from a superficial difference in punctuation, the two sentences look the same in print. However, if we reflect for a moment on the meaning of the two sentences, we realize that whereas the second sentence (i.e. 44) tells us that the speaker has two brothers only and that the two brothers study linguistics, the first sentence (i.e. 43) conveys quite different information. Sentence (43) tells us that the speaker has more than two brothers but the two brothers whom he is speaking about are those defined by the relative clause (i.e. **who study linguistics**). Out of context, sentence (43) sounds abrupt. The listener expects the speaker to continue and say, for instance,

- (45)     I have two brothers **who study linguistics** and one **who is a doctor**.

Sentence (44) seems quite simply to be an answer to the question:



- (46) How many brothers do you have?

The listener expects, and is primarily interested in, the information carried by the main clause (i.e. **I have two brothers**), rather than the information carried by the relative clause, which in this particular case seems to be entirely gratuitous. The speaker's intention is not to convey the idea that his two brothers study linguistics so much as to tell that he has two brothers. Sentence (43), on the other hand, cannot be construed as an answer to the same kind of question. It is more likely to be an answer to such a question as:

- (47) What kind of brothers do you have?

Our comments so far rather suggest that since a nonrestrictive clause carries no essential information, it may be omitted without effect on the meaning of the matrix sentence. In fact it is often said that a nonrestrictive clause, being merely **parenthetical**, is not essential to the meaning of the matrix sentence, which is significant and intelligible on its own. This is why the NRC, in contradistinction to the restrictive clause, is often referred to as an omissible element. Although in many cases this seems to be undoubtedly true, it is possible to cite examples of sentences containing a NRC clause in which the clause is semantically related in some quite subtle way to the matrix sentence and, if omitted, would alter the sense of the matrix sentence. Consider, for example, the following sentence:

- (48) John, **who is a linguist**, could not disambiguate this sentence.

The information carried by the relative clause in (48) seems to be of a vital importance to the context. The assumption that if we delete the NRC, the meaning of the matrix sentence remains unchanged seems here to be quite untenable. The listener may know John but he may not know that he is a linguist. Using a high-fall pitch on the word **linguist** the relative clause gives significance to, and in a sense explains, the matrix sentence. Sentence (48) could be a paraphrase of:

- (49) **Although John is a linguist**, he could not disambiguate this sentence,  
or of:  
(50) Even John, **who is a linguist**, could not disambiguate this sentence.

From such examples as those given in the preceding paragraph and others cited below we can adduce the following argument. Semantically, a restrictive clause is related strictly to the antecedent HN and serves solely to **define, identify or restrict** this head-noun. A NRC, on the other hand, seems to be semantically (or logically) related not solely to the antecedent HN but to the whole of the matrix sentence within which it is embedded, seeming in some way to **explain or account** for it. Let us consider, by way of further illustration, the following couple of sentences:

- (51) President Clinton, **who comes from an Irish origin**, is to visit Northern Ireland next year,



where the NRC seems to explain why President Clinton is to visit Northern Ireland next year.

The same explanatory force of the NRC can be seen in the following sentence:

- (52) Peter, **who had been walking for over an hour**, was beginning to feel tired,

where the NRC seems to explain why Peter was beginning to feel tired. This “because” sense expressed by the non-restrictive clause is displayed in (53) and (54), which could be a paraphrase of (51) and (52) respectively:

- (53) **Because he comes from an Irish origin**, President Clinton is to visit Northern Ireland next year.  
(54) **Because he had been walking for over an hour**, Peter was beginning to feel tired.

To summarize, the NRC is not necessarily a gratuitous, omissible element but may have explanatory relevance in the context in which it is placed. Whereas the restrictive clause limits the HN and defines it, the NRC, in most cases, draws attention to a particular quality, feature or characteristic of a known HN, this feature or characteristic frequently providing some kind of **explanation** for the information imparted by enclosing sentence.

Similar examples where a nonrestrictive clause may be replaced by an adverbial clause are cited by Quirk, et.al. (1985:1249): cf.

- (55) a. My brother, **who has lived in America for thirty years**, can still speak Italian.  
b. My brother can still speak Italian, **although he has lived in America for over thirty years**.

Quirk, et.al. (ibid) correctly point out that the relative clause in (55.a) is **grammatically optional**, but **semantically obligatory** as the correlate of **still** in the main clause.

Finally notice that in some of their occurrences, NRCs are semantically similar to coordination (with or without conjunctions). Consider the following example and the paraphrases that follow it:

- (56) a. Then she phoned her husband, **who told her what to do**.  
b. Then she phoned her husband, **and he told her what to do**.  
c. Then she phoned her husband; **he told her what to do**.

#### Notes:

- (i) Proper nouns cannot have restrictive modification when they have the normal unique interpretation: cf.

- (57) a. \*[Michael Halliday] **who is Britain's most famous linguist** has immigrated to Australia.



- b. [Michael Halliday], **who is Britain's most famous linguist**, has immigrated to Australia.

However, it is possible in certain contexts for a proper noun to be postmodified by a restrictive relative clause as in the following examples:

- (58) a. [The London] **which I knew** is no more. (i.e. London has changed).  
b. He is not [the Peter] **whom I met**. (i.e. Peter has changed).  
c. Last night I met [a John] **who spoke well of you**. (i.e. I met a person who is called John).

Notice that in such cases the proper noun is preceded by **the** or **a**. This implies that the proper noun is not used in its normal unique reference.

(ii) Like proper nouns, personal pronouns cannot be followed by a restrictive relative clauses: cf.

- (59) a. \*He **who is a member of the party** lives next door.  
b. He, **who is a member of the party**, lives next door.

However, the third person pronoun **he** may be followed by a restrictive clause if it expresses a generic sense (i.e. he stands for any man or any person): cf.

- (60) a. [He] **who defeats the enemy** shall marry Princess Anne.  
b. [He] **who looks after his health** is wise.

#### REMARKS

- (i) Definite NPs, pronouns, and proper nouns, being definite, are unlikely to be followed by a restrictive relative clause because they cannot be further restricted. Such nouns are typically followed by NRCs which are not essential for HN identification.
- (ii) The fact that NRCs are not essential for identification can be seen in the following two sentences, which are equivalent in meaning:
- a. My brother, **who is a linguist**, lives in Canada.  
b. My brother, **who lives in Canada**, is a linguist.
- Notice that the NRC in (a) becomes part of the matrix sentence in (b) without any change in meaning.



### 3.3.2 Relative Pronouns

The relative pronouns that are most frequently used in NRCs are **who**, **whom** and **which**. The zero relative pronoun cannot occur and the relative pronoun **that** is very rare indeed.

A relative pronoun in NRCs may realize different syntactic functions: S, O, C:  
cf.

#### (i) **Subject**

- (61) a. Professor Halliday, **[who]** is currently lecturing at the University of Sydney, taught for many years at the University of London.  
b. *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*, **[which]** was published in 1985, is the most thorough and most definitive grammar of modern English ever written.

#### (ii) **Object**

- (62) This is Maria, **[whom]** you met in Liverpool in 1990.

#### (iii) **Subject Complement**

**Note:** Only **which** is possible in this context: cf.

- (63) He looked like a lawyer, **[which]** he was.

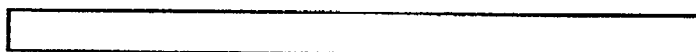
#### (iv) **Prepositional Complement**

- (64) Brighton, in **[which]** he had spent such happy days, quickly forgot him.

#### (v) **Possessive Determiner**

The relative pronoun **whose**, which replaces a possessive determiner in RCs, is not used in NRCs. It is characteristically replaceable by **of whom** or **of which** depending on whether the HN is personal or non-personal. Consider the following examples:

- (65) a. This is Mrs. Jones.                    }  
      b. You admire her paintings. }  $\Rightarrow$   
      c. \*This is Mrs. Jones, **[whose]** paintings you admire.  
      d. This is Mrs. Jones, the paintings **[of whom]** you admire.





### REMINDER

The relative pronoun  $\emptyset$  is never used in NRCs.  
The pronouns **that** and **whose** are rare indeed.

?

#### SAQ (5)

Mention four differences between RCs and NRCs that relate to:

1. Antecedent HN: .....
2. Relative Pronouns: .....
3. Orthographic Marking: .....
4. Contraction/Reduction: .....
5. Semantic Function/Significance: .....

#### 3.3.3 Where, When, Why

Relative clauses expressing place, time, and reason may be introduced by the sequence **prep + relative pronoun** or by **where, when** and **why** respectively. The following examples illustrate the use of these forms (i.e. **where, when, why**):

- (66) That is [the place] **in which/where** she was born. (place)
- (67) I still remember [those good old days] **during which/when** we lived peacefully.  
(time)
- (68) This is [the reason] **for which/why** the book has had so wide an appeal. (reason)

As you can see from the above examples, the use of the relative adverbs **where, when** and **why** is possible whenever the antecedent HN has place, time, or reason reference.

The HN in the type of examples instanced in (66 - 68) above may be optionally deleted yielding a Nominal Relative Clause: cf.

- (69) a. She still remembers [the day] **when** she first met you  $\Rightarrow$   
b. She still remembers **when** she first met you.
- (70) a. I don't know [the place] **where** I bought this book (from)  $\Rightarrow$   
b. I don't know **where** I bought this book (from).
- (71) a. [The reason] **why** he shouted at the manager is still unknown  $\Rightarrow$



### 3.4 Non-Finite and Verbless Adjectival Clauses

Non-finite and Verbless adjectival clauses result from the contraction and reduction of relative clauses, in particular from the application of the following transformations:

- (i) S + Aux Deletion
- (ii) S + V Deletion

The first transformation (i.e. S + Aux deletion) results in ING clauses if the relative clause is active and in EN clauses if the relative clause is passive. The second transformation (i.e. S + V deletion) results in verbless clauses. There are other transformations that apply to relative clauses which we shall discuss in an ensuing subsection. Below is a brief discussion of non-finite and verbless adjectival clauses.

#### 3.4.1 ING Adjectival Clauses

ING adjectival clauses result from the contraction of relative clauses. Two types of transformations result in ING clauses, namely (i) S + Aux Deletion, and (ii) S-Deletion + V-Participialization.

##### (i) S + Aux Deletion

This transformation deletes the subject of the relative clause and the auxiliary BE (of the progressive VP). The following two examples are self-explanatory:

- (73)                    S    Aux    V        ADV
- a. The dog [which is barking outside] is an Alsatian.  $\Rightarrow$
- ↓       ↓
- b. The dog [  $\emptyset$   $\emptyset$  barking outside] is an Alsatian.
- c. The dog barking outside is an Alsatian.

- (74)                    S    Aux    V            ADV
- a. The train [which is coming through the tunnel] is our express.
- $\Rightarrow$
- ↓       ↓
- b. The train [  $\emptyset$   $\emptyset$  coming through the tunnel] is our express.
- c. The train coming through the tunnel is our express.

#### Subsequent Transformations

In certain contexts there will be a subsequent transformation that preposes the ING clause to become a Prenominal Modifier: cf.

- (75)            a. The woman [ who was smiling] walked towards us.  $\Rightarrow$



- b. Why he shouted at the manager is still unknown.

### REMINDER

A Relative Clause is an NP constituent, whereas a Nominal Relative Clause is a clause/sentence constituent.

### HN Deletion

The transformation that deletes the antecedent HN when followed by a relative clause is called **HN Deletion**. The deletion of HN changes the function of the clause that accompanies it from Adjectival into Nominal.



### EXERCISE (4)

Each of the following sentences contain one error. Underline the error and correct it. The error relates to a certain aspect of the relative clauses in these sentences.

1. The book **which** I bought it yesterday was very expensive.
2. The people **which** live next to me are very friendly.
3. I met a woman **whom** her husband is a famous novelist.
4. The professor teaches English linguistics is in that house.
5. The students **who** I met **them** are studying English.
6. The man was very angry **whose** bicycle was stolen.
7. One of the things I like best are spicy food.
8. Do you know the woman **who** she is standing over there?
9. I enjoyed the music to **that** we listened yesterday.
10. Cairo **which** is the capital of Egypt is over-populated.
11. Noam Chomsky, we met in Boston last year, has agreed to deliver some lectures at the University of Jordan.
12. *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*, **that** was published in 1957, is Chomsky's most important book.

### REMINDER

The relative adverbs **where**, and **when** are frequently used in NRCs: cf.

- (72)
- a. The Tower of London, **where** so many people lost their lives, is now a tourist attraction.
  - b. I want to see you at 12 o'clock, **when** you go to your lunch.
  - c. She carried them to the art room, **where** the brushes and paints had been set out.
  - d. He came from Bangor, **where** I had once spent a holiday.



- ↓   ↓
- b. The woman [ Ø   Ø   smiling] walked towards us. ⇒  
 c. The **smiling** woman walked towards us.

We shall call this transformation **Participle Preposing**.

Notice that S + Aux Deletion is also possible in NRCs. Consider the following example:

- S   Aux
- (76) a. Janet, who was glancing at us, refused to speak. ⇒  
           ↓   ↓  
 b. Janet, Ø   Ø   **glancing at us**, refused to speak.

**Preposing** is also possible in this case: cf.

- (76) c. **Glancing at us**, Janet refused to speak.

**WARNING**

While S + Aux Deletion is possible in many contexts, there are certain contexts where it does not apply. The same is true of preposing. The examples above are meant to show you the relationship between premodifiers and postmodifiers.

(ii) **S-Deletion + V-Participialization**

You remember that this transformation applies to both nominal and adverbial clauses to convert a finite clause into a non-finite ING clause. This transformation also applies on relative clauses incorporating a stative verb. Consider the following examples:

- S   V
- (77) a. Students [who wish to go abroad] should see me today. ⇒  
           ↓   ↓  
 b. Students [ Ø wishing to go abroad] should see me today.  
 c. Students **wishing to go abroad** should see me today.
- (78) a. A man [who resembles Mike Jackson] wants to see you. ⇒  
           ↓   ↓  
 b. A man [ Ø resembling Mike Jackson] wants to see you.  
 c. A man **resembling Mike Jackson** wants to see you.











### 3.4.3 Infinitive Adjectival Clauses

Consider the infinitive clauses contained in the following examples paying special attention to the antecedent HN they modify . The HN is enclosed in brackets.

- (84)     a. The [man] to help you is Ken Albrow.  
          b. The [time] for you to go is July.
- (85)     Bill is the right [man] to negotiate with them.
- (86)     She may be an ideal [person] to look after the children.
- (87)     A good [place] to stay at is Green Mount Hotel.

#### POINTER

Three of the infinitive clauses above are subjectless and one has an expressed S. Which ones are subjectless? What is the deleted S in each case?

Infinitive adjective clauses of the type instanced above are commonly used after HNs such as **man, person, time, place**, etc. All the infinitive clauses in 84-87 above may be replaced by RCs without loss of meaning: cf.

- |      |    |   |  |
|------|----|---|--|
|      | S  | M   |  |
| (88) | a. | The man who can help you is Ken Albrow.   |  |
|      |    | ↓     ↓                                   |  |
|      | b. | The man Ø    Ø to help you is Ken Albrow. |  |
|      | c. | The man to help you is Ken Albrow.        |  |

#### POINTER

How is (88.b) derived from (88.a) ?

Two transformations apply to the relative clause in (88.a) to derive the infinitive clause in (88.b), namely, (i) S-Deletion and (ii) V-Infinitivization. First, S-Deletion applies to delete the S of the relative clause because it is coreferential with the HN. Secondly, V-Infinitivization converts the finite VP **can help** into the infinitive phrase **to help** deleting the modal **can** because a non-finite VP cannot incorporate a modal auxiliary.





- Notice that in some cases the subject of the infinitive clause is not deleted.

- ### EXERCISE (8)

1. a. The procedure **that should be followed** is rather complicated. ⇒  
b. ....
2. a. Sam is just the right man **who can cool their zeal**. ⇒  
b. ....
3. a. The man **who John can talk to** is Bob Crosby. ⇒  
b. ....
4. a. There is nothing **which we can do**. ⇒  
b. ....
5. a. Sue will be an ideal person **who can look after the children**. ⇒  
b. ....

Like adverbial verbless clauses, adjectival verbless clauses result from the deletion of the subject of the clause and its main verb (i.e S-V deletion). The following examples are self-explanatory:

- (91)
- |    | S       | V                      | ADV |                            |
|----|---------|------------------------|-----|----------------------------|
| a. | The man | [who is near the door] |     | is my uncle. ⇒             |
|    | ↓       | ↓                      |     |                            |
| b. | The man | ∅                      | ∅   | near the door is my uncle. |
| c. | The man | near the door          |     | is my uncle.               |

**What is the phrase near the door in (91.b) above called?**



- ↓ ↓

(93) a. [If you are in trouble], call me at once.  $\Rightarrow$   
            $\downarrow$      $\downarrow$   
       b. If  $\emptyset$   $\emptyset$  in trouble, call me at once.  
       c. If in trouble, call me at once.



**Apply S + V Deletion to the relative clause in the following sentences.**

1. a. The girl who was in front of the screen wore a large hat. ⇒  
b. ....
2. a. The children who were behind the fence jeered at the soldiers. ⇒  
b. ....
3. a. A man who is like John will never do that. ⇒  
b. ....
4. a. I want to try on something which is larger. ⇒  
b. ....
5. a. For this kind of job we shall need someone who is both tall and strong. ⇒  
b. ....
6. a. They have a house which is much larger than yours. ⇒  
b. ....

(i) In certain circumstances it is possible to prepose the Adj-P after S + V Deletion has applied. Consider the following data from Quirk and Greenbaum (1973:117):

- (94)
- |    | S                                | V                 | Cs                                   |
|----|----------------------------------|-------------------|--------------------------------------|
| a. | Soldiers [who                    | are               | timid or cowardly] don't fight well. |
|    | (i) S + V Deletion $\Rightarrow$ |                   |                                      |
| b. | Soldiers                         | timid or cowardly | don't fight well.                    |
|    | (ii) Adj-Preposing $\Rightarrow$ |                   |                                      |
| c. | Timid or cowardly                | soldiers          | don't fight well.                    |



- (ii) If the Adj-P consists of a H-Adj only, then Adj-Preposing is obligatory:

S V Cs

- (95) a. The man [**who is tall**] is my uncle.  $\Rightarrow$   
       (i) S + V Deletion  
       b. \*The man **tall** is my uncle.  $\Rightarrow$   
       (ii) Adj-Preposing  
       c. The **tall** man is my uncle.
- (96) a. I don't like apples [**that are red**].  $\Rightarrow$   
       (i) S - V Deletion  
       b. \*I don't like apples **red**.  $\Rightarrow$   
       (ii) Adj-Preposing  
       c. I don't like **red** apples.



### EXERCISE (10)

Apply S + V Deletion and Adj-Preposing to the relative clauses in the following examples:

1. a. Sentences **that are long** are difficult to understand.  $\Rightarrow$   
    b. ....
2. a. This painting **which is beautiful** belongs to the lady **who is tall**.  $\Rightarrow$   
    b. ....
3. a. No one would accept this suggestion of yours **which is stupid**.  $\Rightarrow$   
    b. ....
4. a. Very few men like women **who are talkative**.  $\Rightarrow$   
    b. ....
5. a. If you want to do something, do it in a way **that is efficient**.  $\Rightarrow$   
    b. ....

### 3.4.5 Other Transformations

In addition to the reduction transformations discussed above, relative clauses may be contracted/reduced in some other ways. Below is a brief discussion of reduction transformations that operate on relative clauses.

#### (i) S + HAVE Deletion

Consider the following pairs of examples and notice the transformational relation between the first and second sentence in each pair:



- (98) a. The man [who has a white beard] is my father.
- S      V
- ↓      ↓
- ∅    ∅
- b. The man **with**                      **a white beard** is my father.

As you can see, the Prep-P in (97.b) -i.e. **with a gun**- is derived from the relative clause in (97.a) through (i) S + V Deletion and (ii) **With-Insertion**. The same observation applies to the Prep-P in (98.b).

Sometimes the preposition **of** is used instead of **with** in relative clauses whose main verb is **have**: cf.

- (100)      a. She is a woman [who 

S	V
---	---

 has strong will].  $\Rightarrow$   
               b. She is a woman of strong will.

(ii) **HN-Deletion**

In certain circumstances it is possible to delete the HN preceding the relative clause. Consider the following pairs of examples:

- (101) a. [The thing] that he said was perfectly true.  $\Rightarrow$   
            $\downarrow$      $\downarrow$      $\downarrow$   
 b.  $\emptyset$   $\emptyset$  what he said was perfectly true.  
 c. What he said was perfectly true.
- (102) a. [The person] that he needs is lawyer.  $\Rightarrow$   
            $\downarrow$      $\downarrow$      $\downarrow$   
 b.  $\emptyset$   $\emptyset$  what he needs is a lawyer.  
 c. What he needs is a lawyer.

As you can see from the above examples, it is possible to delete the HN preceding a restrictive relative clause if it is generic referring to people, places, and things in general. The deletion of the HN is followed by another transformation that deletes the relative pronoun and replaces it by a **wh-word** (e.g. **what, whatever, whoever, whichever**). This transformational relationship may be represented in the following way:



(103) HN + Rel. Pronoun  $\Rightarrow$  wh-word

As you no doubt remember, the structure that results from the application of this transformation is a **nominal relative clause**. Nominal relative clauses were discussed in Unit Two above. A nominal relative clause is a nominal clause because it occurs in positions available to other nominal clauses and NPs: cf.

- (104)
- a. **What she really needs** is a nice cup of tea. (S)
  - b. We don't like **what she said**. (Od)
  - c. I'll do **whatever you want**. (Od)
  - d. I'll give **whoever comes first** the right to publish my books. (Oi)
  - e. You can call me **whatever you want**. (Co)

Now consider the following pairs of example and notice the relationship between the first and the second sentence in each pair:

- (105)
- |    |                   |                |                     |
|----|-------------------|----------------|---------------------|
|    | S                 | V              | Cs                  |
| a. | <u>The people</u> | [who are poor] | are getting poorer. |
|    | ↓                 | ↓              | ↓                   |
|    | Ø                 | Ø              | Ø                   |
- b. The **poor** are getting poorer.

- (106)
- |    |                   |                         |                 |
|----|-------------------|-------------------------|-----------------|
|    | S                 | V                       | Cs              |
| a. | <u>The people</u> | [who are extremely old] | need attention. |
|    | ↓                 | ↓                       | ↓               |
|    | Ø                 | Ø                       | Ø               |
- b. The **extremely old** need attention.

As you can see, (b) is derived from (a) in the above two examples through the application of two general transformations that we have already discussed:

- (i) HN Deletion (because it is generic), and
- (ii) S + V Deletion (in the relative clause).

The (b) examples in (105) and (106) above represent cases where the Adjective functions as the head of an NP. The transformational relationship between the original relative clause and the derived NP may be represented as follows:

- (107)
- a. Det + HN + [Rel. Pro + BE + Adj-P]  $\Rightarrow$
  - b. Det + Ø + Ø + Ø + Adj-P
  - c. **the old**





### EXERCISE (11)

Contract the sequence **HN + Relative clause** in the following examples:

1. a. **The thing** [that she really needs] is a nice cup of coffee. ⇒  
b. ....
2. a. I'll give **the person** [who defends me] a substantial reward. ⇒  
b. ....
3. a. **The people** [who are young in spirit] enjoy life. ⇒  
b. ....
4. a. There is usually a lack of communication between **the people** [who are old] and **the people** [who are young]. ⇒  
b. ....
5. a. These seats are reserved for **the people** [who are disabled]. ⇒  
b. ....

### 3.5 Indeterminate Clauses

#### 3.5.1 Indeterminate ING Clauses

Before closing our discussion of adjectival clauses, it is necessary to revise with you some instances of ING participle clauses which are open at least to two different interpretations as to their origin. Let us begin by examining the ING clause contained in the following example:

- (108) a. **Being behind the door**, the nurse heard what we said.

The ING clause in this sentence may be (i) a contracted NRC modifying the HN nurse or (ii) a contracted adverbial clause of Reason. Consider the following data:

#### (i) First Alternative (Adjectival)

S   V

- (109) a. The nurse, [who was behind the door] heard what we said.  
           (i) S - Deletion + V - Participialization ⇒  
       b. The nurse, **being behind the door**, heard what we said.  
           (ii) Participle - Preposing ⇒  
       c. **Being behind the door**, the nurse heard what we said.

Notice that all the transformations in (109) are general transformations that have been shown to apply to numerous instances of NRCs.

#### (ii) Second Alternative (Adverbial)

S   V

- (110) a. **As she was behind the door**, the nurse heard what we said.  
           (i) S - Deletion + V - Participialization ⇒



- b. \*As being behind the door, the nurse heard everything we said.
- (ii) Subordinator - Deletion  $\Rightarrow$
- c. **Being behind the door**, the nurse heard what we said.

Other examples of subjectless ING clauses that are open to two interpretations (i.e. adjectival and adverbial) are the following:

- (111) **Not knowing what to do**, Jane began to cry.
- (112) a. As she did not know what to do, Jane began to cry.  $\Rightarrow$   
            $\downarrow \downarrow \downarrow \quad \downarrow$   
       b.  $\emptyset \emptyset \emptyset$  knowing.  
       c. **Not knowing what to do**, Jane began to cry.
- (113) a. Jane, who did not know what to do, began to cry.  $\Rightarrow$   
            $\downarrow \quad \downarrow \quad \downarrow$   
            $\emptyset \quad \emptyset$  knowing.  
       b. Jane, **not knowing what to do**, began to cry.  $\Rightarrow$   
       c. **Not knowing what to do**, Jane began to cry.

The above facts confirm that NRCs are semantically related to adverbial clauses, and that, unlike RCs, they are not solely related to the antecedent HN but to the entire matrix sentence within which they are contained.



### **EXERCISE (12)**

Show two origins for each of the ING clauses contained in the following examples:

1. **Being an experienced nurse**, Rosemary took care of the injured.
2. **Realizing that he was a failure in everything he did**, George immigrated to Brazil.
3. **Having walked for over an hour**, Peter was beginning to feel tired.

The same phenomenon can be noticed with both EN participle clauses and verbless clauses.

### **3.5.2 Indeterminate EN Clauses**

Like ING clauses, EN clauses may in certain circumstances be open to two different interpretations (i.e. adjectival and adverbial). Consider the EN clause in (111) and the paraphrases suggested in (112) and (113):

- (111) **Tortured and humiliated**, the prisoner committed suicide.

- (i) **First Alternative (Adjectival)**



- (112) a. The prisoner, **who was tortured and humiliated**, committed suicide.  
 (i) S + Aux Deletion  $\Rightarrow$   
 b. The prisoner, **tortured and humiliated**, committed suicide.  
 (ii) Participle - Preposing  $\Rightarrow$   
 c. **Tortured and humiliated**, the prisoner committed suicide.

(ii) **Second Alternative (Adverbial)**

- (113) a. **Because he was tortured and humiliated**, the prisoner committed suicide.  
 (i) S + Aux Deletion, and  
 (ii) Subordinator Deletion  $\Rightarrow$   
 b. **Tortured and humiliated**, the prisoner committed suicide.



**EXERCISE (13)**

Show the two possible origins of the following EN clauses:

1. **Told of his son's accident**, Jack immediately phoned Dr. Sharp.
2. **Encouraged by his success**, John applied for a grant.
3. **Questioned by the police on two different counts**, Bill began to think that his wife was behind it.

**3.5.3 Indeterminate Verbless Clauses**

Like ING and EN clauses, verbless clauses may be interpreted in an adjectival sense and in an adverbial sense. Consider the verbless clause in the following example and the alternative analyses that follow:

- (114) **Tired of reading**, Jane went to the cinema.

(i) **First Alternative (Adjectival)**

- S      V
- (115) a. Jane, **who was tired of reading**, went to the cinema.  
 (i) S + V Deletion  $\Rightarrow$   
 b. Jane, **tired of reading**, went to the cinema.  
 (ii) Adj-Preposing  $\Rightarrow$   
 c. **Tired of reading**, Jane went to the cinema.

(ii) **Second Alternative (Adverbial)**

- (116) a. **Because she was tired of reading**, Jane went to the cinema.  
 (i) S + V Deletion  $\Rightarrow$   
 b. **Because tired of reading**, Jane went to the cinema.  
 (ii) Subordinator Deletion  $\Rightarrow$   
 c. **Tired of reading**, Jane went to the cinema.





### EXERCISE (14)

Show the two possible origins of the verbless clauses in the following examples:

1. **Unaware of the danger**, the children continued playing on the upper deck.
2. **Dismayed at what had happened**, Ruth left without saying good-bye.



### SAQ (6)

Contract and Prepose the relative clauses contained in the following examples as instructed. All the examples occur in this section.

1. The dog **which is barking outside** is an Alsatian. (contraction)
2. The woman **who was smiling** walked towards us. (contraction and preposing)
3. Janet, **who was glancing at us**, refused to speak. (contraction and preposing)
4. Students **who wish to go abroad** should see me today. (contraction)
5. I don't like women **who lisp**. (contraction and preposing)
6. We were met by a man **who was carrying a large parcel**. (contraction)
7. The boys **who are fighting in the street** are not our children. (contraction)
8. The letters **which were posted yesterday** have been damaged. (contraction)
9. Articles **that are not declared to the customs** will be confiscated. (contraction)
10. Apples **which are grown at home** are the best. (contraction, preposing and compounding)
11. The prisoner, **who was tortured and humiliated**, committed suicide. (contraction and preposing)
12. Any case **that is reported to this office** will be treated seriously. (contraction)
13. The man **who can help you** is Ken. (contraction)
14. The procedure **that should be followed** is rather complicated. (contraction)
15. She will be an ideal person **who can look after the children**. (contraction)
16. The man **who is near the door** is my uncle. (contraction)
17. I want something **which is more fashionable**. (contraction)
18. The children **who were behind the fence** jeered at the soldiers. (contraction)
19. Soldiers **who are timid or cowardly** don't fight well. (contraction and preposing)
20. Very few men like women **who are talkative**. (contraction and preposing)
21. The man **who has a white beard** is my uncle. (contraction)
22. John is a man **who has courage**. (contraction)
23. She is a woman **who has strong will**. (contraction)
24. The nurse, **who was behind the door**, heard what we said. (contraction and preposing)
25. Jane, **who didn't know what to do**, began to cry. (contraction and preposing)
26. Peter, **who had walked for over an hour**, was beginning to feel tired. (contraction and preposing)
27. John, **who was encouraged by his success**, applied for a grant. (contraction and preposing)
28. Ruth, **who was dismayed at what had happened**, left without saying good-bye. (contraction and preposing)



?

**SAQ (7)**

Give examples of the following transformation showing (a) the underlying structure, and (b) the derived structure:

1. S + Aux Deletion
  - a. ....
  - b. ....
2. S + V Deletion
  - a. ....
  - b. ....
3. S - Deletion + V - Participialization
  - a. ....
  - b. ....
4. S - Deletion + V - Infinitivialization
  - a. ....
  - b. ....
5. Participle Preposing
  - a. ....
  - b. ....
6. Adjective Preposing
  - a. ....
  - b. ....
7. HN Deletion
  - a. ....
  - b. ....
8. Compounding
  - a. ....
  - b. ....

?

**SAQ (8)**

Apply HN Deletion to the following examples:

1. **The thing** [that she really needs] is a nice cup of coffee.  
.....
2. These seats are reserved for **the people** [who are disabled].  
.....
3. **The person** [that he needs] is a lawyer.  
.....
4. **The person** [that he is looking for] is a wife.  
.....
5. **The thing** [that he is looking for] is a knife.  
.....



#### 4. APPOSITIVE CLAUSES

As you know, appositive clauses are not adjectival clauses; they are nominal clauses. The decision to review them here is motivated by two considerations:

- (i) Like adjectival clauses,, appositive clauses are postnominal modifiers; i.e. they are preceded by an antecedent HN.
- (ii) Students often fail to distinguish between adjectival clauses and appositive clauses, hence it is necessary to explicate in some detail the semantic and syntactic differences between adjectival clauses and appositive clauses. This is done in Section 5 below.

##### REMINDER

Appositive clauses are also called Nominal Complements (COMP-NOM) because they complement the HN they modify.

As you already know, appositive clauses are either finite or non-finite. Below is a brief discussion of the two types of clause.

##### REMINDER

Verbless clauses and non-finite EN clauses do not normally have an appositive function. This follows from the fact that they do not normally function as nominals.

#### 4.1 Finite Appositive Clauses

Finite appositive clauses postmodify abstract HNs (e.g. **fact**, **idea**, **assumption**, etc.) only; they do not postmodify (or complement) concrete HNs. This follows from the fact that nominal clauses often refer to abstractions. Let us consider the following example which was cited in Unit Two above.

- (1) [The fact] **that Bill lost the race** is annoying.

The relationship between the HN **fact** and the appositive clause **that Bill lost the race** is exactly the same relationship holding between two appositive NPs; namely:

- (2) a. X = Y

and, thus

- (2) b. Y = X



Consider the following data:

- (3)      a. John, my brother, lives in London.  
             b. My brother, John, lives in London.
- (4)      a. John is my brother.  
             b. My brother is John.

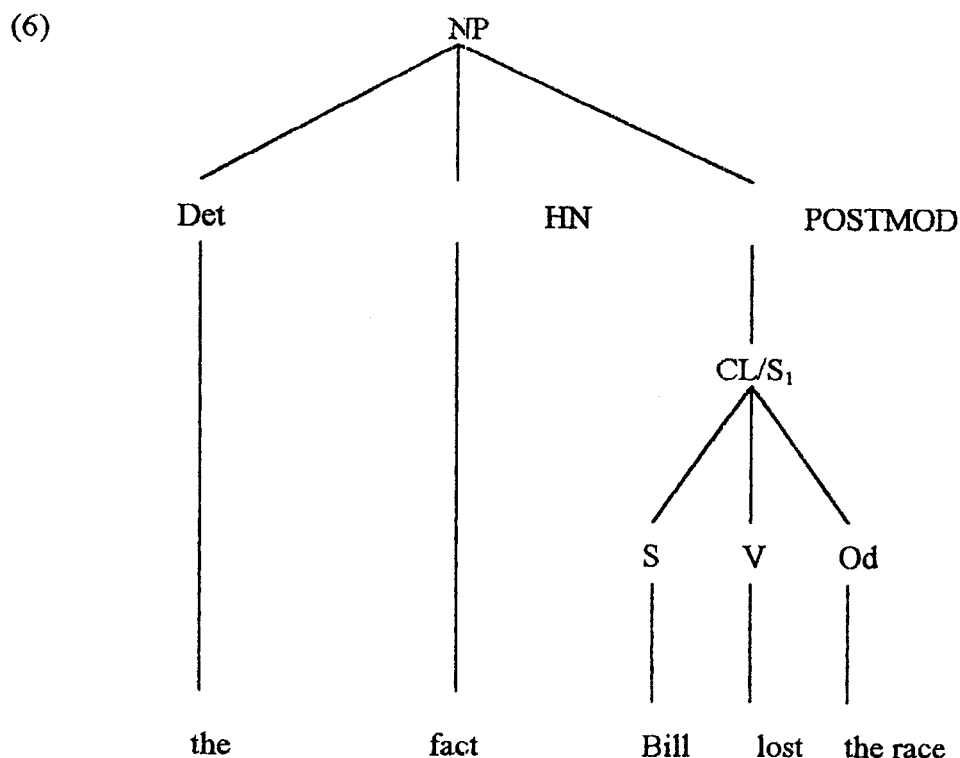
The same observations apply to the appositive clause in (1) above: cf.

- (5)      a. The fact is that Bill lost the race.  
             b. That Bill lost the race is a fact.

Briefly, the appositive clause serves to explain/spell out what the HN (i.e. **fact** in this case) is. On the other hand, the HN serves to characterize the information contained in the appositive clause as **a fact, an idea, a rumour, a belief, etc.**

### Notes

(i) The subordinator that introduces the appositive clause (e.g. **that**) is not an element in the clause structure; it is a mere conjunction having no grammatical function. Consider the following PM that represents the structure underlying the phrase **the fact that Bill lost the race** in (1) above:





This phrase marker shows that the conjunction **that** has no grammatical function in the embedded sentence (i.e. **Bill lost the race**).

### QUESTION

Can we transform the embedded sentence in (6) above into a relative clause? Why not? What conditions should the embedded sentence have in order to be changed into a relative clause?

Below are some more examples of finite appositive clauses. Notice that the HN is placed between square brackets:

- (7) a. [The rumour] **that Bill and Mary are getting married** is not true.  
 b. [The idea] **that we should meet the dean** is not practical.  
 c. [The assumption] **that men are better cooks than women** is not valid.



### SAQ (9)

Draw phrase markers to represent the sequence **HN + Appositive Clause** in the four examples in (7) above. If uncertain, see PM (6) above.

(ii) The sequence **Det + HN + Appositive Clause** (e.g. **the fact that Bill lost the race**) may occur in different syntactic contexts (e.g. S, Od, Cs, COMP-PREP): cf.

- (8) a. **The fact that Bill lost the race** is annoying. (S)  
 b. I regret **the fact that Bill lost the race**. (Od)  
 c. I am not aware of **the fact that Bill lost the race**. (COMP-PREP)  
 d. What annoys me is **the fact that Bill lost the race**. (Cs)

(iii) It is possible to delete the HN fact without any loss of meaning: cf.

- (9) a. **The fact that Bill lost the race** is annoying.  $\Rightarrow$

$\downarrow$     $\downarrow$   
 $\emptyset$     $\emptyset$

- b. **That Bill lost the race** is annoying.

- (10) a. I regret **the fact that Bill lost the race**.  $\Rightarrow$

$\downarrow$     $\downarrow$   
 $\emptyset$     $\emptyset$

- b. I regret **that Bill lost the race**.





### EXERCISE (15)

Join each pair of sentences by changing the second sentence into an appositive clause.

1. a. The fact is annoying }  
b. The fact is that Bill lost the race. } ⇒  
c. ....
2. a. The rumour is not true. }  
b. The rumour is that Bill and Mary are getting married } ⇒  
c. ....
3. a. The idea is old-fashioned. }  
b. The idea is that women are less intelligent than men. } ⇒  
c. ....

## 4.2 Non-Finite Appositive Clauses

Only ING and infinitive clauses may have an appositive function. As pointed out above, EN clauses do not function as appositive clauses.

### 4.2.1 ING Clauses as Appositive

ING clauses with and without subject may function as appositive clauses to abstract HNs.

#### (i) **With Subject**

- (11) a. [The fact] of **his being the director's son** is irrelevant.  
b. [The fact] of **its being Sunday today** should make no difference.

#### (ii) **Without Subject**

- (12) a. [The idea] of **spending his life in prison** horrified him.  
b. [This business] of **marking registers** is a waste of time.  
c. [The strain] of **looking after five children** is getting her down.

### REMINDER

The deleted S of the ING clause in (12.a) is **he**, in (12.b) is **one**, and in (12.c) is **she**.

### Notes

- (i) With ING clauses, and sometimes with **wh**-clauses having an appositive function, **of** is used as an **indicator**. When the ING clause is transformed into a finite clause, this indicator is deleted and replaced by **that**: cf.



- (13) a. The fact [ 

that	he	won
⌞	⌞	⌞

 ] is immaterial.  
 b. The fact [ 

of	his	winning
⌞	⌞	⌞

 ] is immaterial.

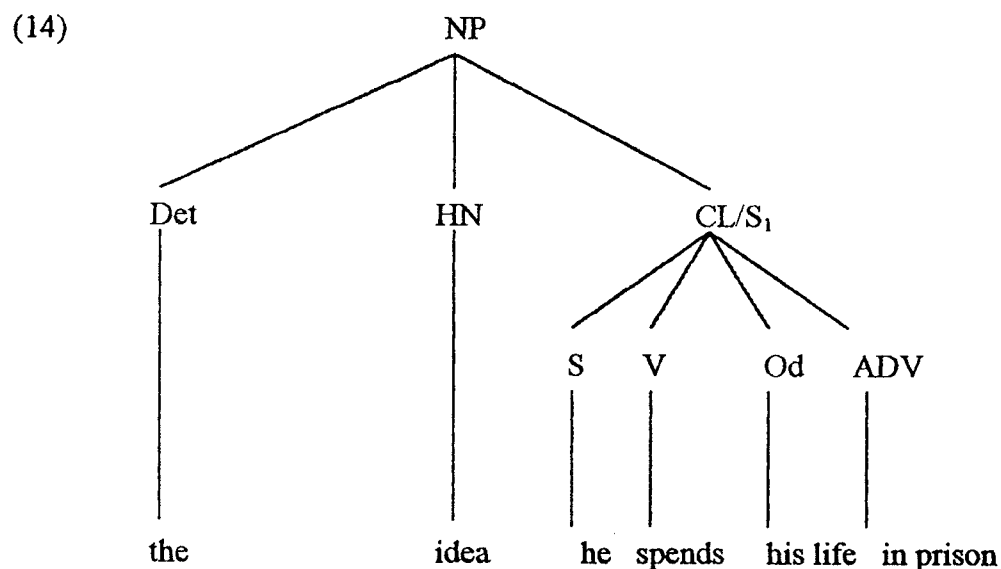
- (ii) The relationship between the ING appositive clause and its antecedent HN is that of  $X = Y$ . For instance, the information imparted by the ING clause in (12.a) is characterized as an **idea** (not a fact).  
 (iii) The S of the ING is deleted if it is generic (i.e. **one**) or if it is identical to another N in the matrix sentence.



#### SAQ (10)

Draw phrase markers to represent the structures underlying the appositive clauses and their antecedent HNs in (11) and (12) above. We shall do (12.a) for you.

- (12) a. [The idea] of spending his life in prison horrified him.



Notice that the subject of the clause (i.e. he) is deleted because it is coreferential with the determiner his in the Od position in the matrix sentence.

#### 4.2.2 Infinitive Appositive Clauses

Appositive postmodification is fairly common by means of infinitive clauses (with or without a subject).

##### (i) With Subject

- (15) a. [The appeal] for us to give blood received strong support.  
 b. [The plan] for the students to meet the dean was not feasible.



(ii) **Without Subject**

- (16) a. [Their proposal] **to rebuild the castle** never materialized.  
b. We don't approve of [your attempt] **to criticize the administration**.  
c. [Their chance] **to go abroad** was lost.

Notes

- (i) If the S of the appositive infinitive is expressed, it is preceded by the indicator for (cf. (15.a) and (15.b) above).  
(ii) The NP consisting of the sequence **Det + HN + Appositive Infinitive**, like other NPs, may occur in different syntactic environments. For instance, the NP **your attempt to criticize the administration** may occur as S, Od, Cs, COMP-PREP: cf.

- (17) a. **Your attempt to criticize the administration** won't make any difference. (S)  
b. I shall not mention **your attempt to criticize the administration**. (Od)  
c. What she resents most is **your attempt to criticize the administration**. (Cs)  
d. We don't approve of **your attempt to criticize the administration**. (COMP-PREP)

**COMPLEX NP**

An NP that contains as one of its constituents an embedded sentence (i.e a clause) is often referred to as a **complex NP**. Thus an NP consisting of an adjectival clause or an appositive clause is a complex NP. This unit deals primarily with complex NPs.

Remember that a sentence is embedded after the HN, not before it, and that a clause contained in a complex NP is always a POSTMOD. Remember also that a contracted clause, may be preposed to sentence initial position.

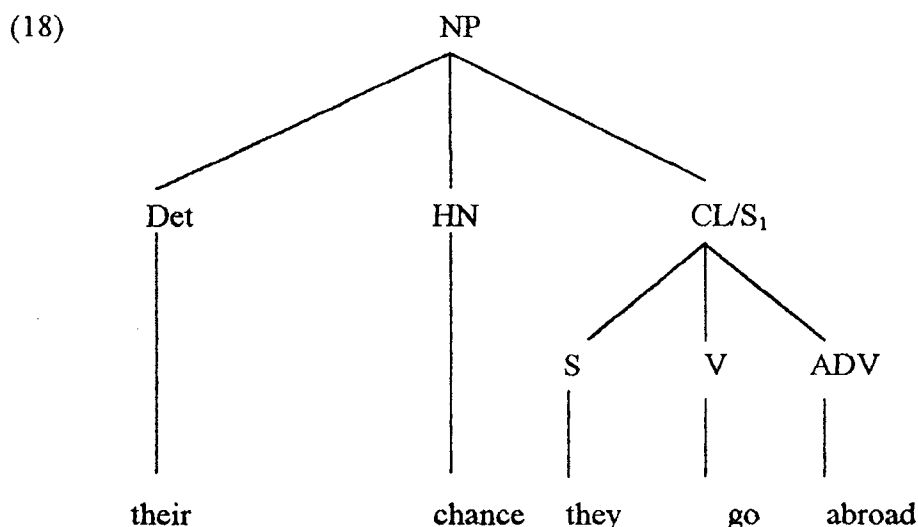
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**SAQ (11)**

Draw phrase markers to represent the structures underlying the complex NPs in (15) and (16) above. We shall do (16.c) for you.

- (16) c. **Their chance to go abroad** was lost.





Notice that the S of the embedded sentence (i.e. they) gets deleted in the surface structure because it is coreferential with the Det (i.e. their) which precedes the HN chance.

## 5. APPOSITIVE AND ADJECTIVAL CLAUSES COMPARED

Adjectival clauses differ from appositive clauses in a number of significant ways. It is the aim of this section to discuss these differences. Before we begin our discussion of these differences, it is essential that you remember and understand the following facts which we have discussed in this unit.

- (i) Adjectival clauses are essentially relative clauses or contracted relative clauses having a modifying/defining function, whereas appositive clauses are nominal clauses having an appositive or complementing function.
- (ii) Non-finite and verbless adjectival clauses result from the contraction of relative clauses. This means that every NF adjectival clause can be reconstructed as a finite relative clause. This is not the case with NF appositive clauses.
- (iii) EN clauses and verbless clauses cannot function appositively but they can do so adjectivally.

All these facts have been discussed and exemplified above. In what follows we shall refer to some specific systematic differences between adjectival and appositive clauses. These differences will be presented under different headings:

### (i) **Headnoun**

Only abstract HNs (e.g. **fact, idea, plan**, etc.) may be followed by an appositive clause; concrete HNs (e.g. **book, boy, car**, etc.) cannot be postmodified by an appositive clause. Consider the following data:



- (1) a. [The fact] **that Bill won the race** is surprising.
- b. \*[The man] **that Bill won the race** is surprising.

Relative clauses, on the other hand, may postmodify both concrete and abstract HNs: cf.

- (2) a. [The cat] **which Bill likes** is black.
- b. [The fact] **which Bill mentioned** is annoying.

## (ii) Relative Pronoun Vs. Conjunction

The relative pronoun in a relative clause always has a grammatical function (e.g. S, Od), whereas the conjunction **that** has no grammatical function in the appositive clause: cf.

- (3) a. The man 

Od	S	V
[whom	you	met]

 is an engineer.
- b. The fact 

Ø	S	V	Od
[that	Bill	won	the race]

 is surprising.

## (iii) Preposing

An adjectival clause may be reduced and preposed, whereas an appositive clause must always follow the HN it postmodifies; it cannot be preposed: cf.

- (4) a. The nurse, **who was behind the door**, heard what we said.  $\Rightarrow$
- b. The nurse, **being behind the door**, heard what we said.  $\Rightarrow$
- c. **Being behind the door**, the nurse heard what we said.
- (5) a. The thought **that he would spend his life in prison** horrified him.  $\Rightarrow$
- b. The thought of **spending his life in prison** horrified him.  $\Rightarrow$
- c. **\*Spending his life in prison**, the thought horrified him.

## (iv) Proper Nouns

A proper noun can never be postmodified by an appositive clause, whereas it can be postmodified by a NRC: cf.

- (6) a. Bill, who was an engineer, could not solve the problem.
- b. **\*Bill, that he was an engineer**, could not solve the problem.

## (v) Verb Deletion

The verb in a relative clause may be deleted, whereas the verb in an appositive clause may not: cf.



- (7) a. I want something [which  $\begin{array}{c|c} \text{S} & \text{V} \\ \hline \text{is} & \end{array}$  more fashionable].  $\Rightarrow$   
b. I want something **more fashionable**.

This explains why verbless clauses cannot occur as appositive postmodifiers.

Now consider the clause that he remembered which postmodifies the HN fact in the following example:

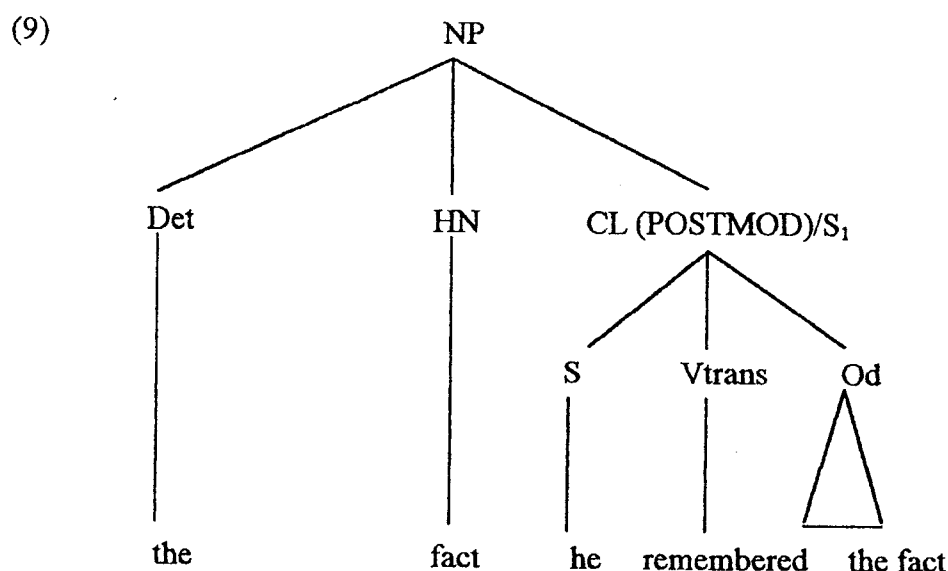
- (9) [The fact] that he remembered is irrelevant.

This sentence is two ways ambiguous. This means that it has two different structures and two different meanings. The ambiguity of this sentence resides in the clause **that he remembered**, which may be interpreted and analyzed in two different ways.

Under the first analysis, the clause that he remembered is a relative clause; whereas under the second analysis it is an appositive nominal clause. Below is a brief discussion of the two analyses.

### FIRST ANALYSIS: RELATIVE CLAUSE

Under this analysis the structure underlying the complex NP the fact that he remembered can be represented by the following PM:



Notice that the embedded sentence he remembered the fact meets the conditions of Relativization in that the object is identical to the HN. Hence from (9) we can derive the following NPs:



- (10) a. [the fact] **which he remembered**  
 b. [the fact] **he remembered** (by Rel Pro deletion)  
 c. [the fact] **that he remembered**

In fact any of the three NPs in (10) can be used in the context of (9) above: cf.

- (11) a. The fact | **which he remembered** | is irrelevant.  
 b. | **that he remembered** |  
 c. | **he remembered** |

The fact that the three examples in (11) have the same structure and the same meaning proves beyond any doubt that the clause that he remembered is a relative clause. Notice that the verb remember under this interpretation is transitive requiring a direct object.

?

#### SAQ (12)

Translate the three examples in (11) above into Arabic. What Arabic relative pronoun would you use in each case.

Notice that the HN fact in (11) above cannot be deleted because it is not generic. Witness the unacceptability of:

- (12) \*Which he remembered is irrelevant.

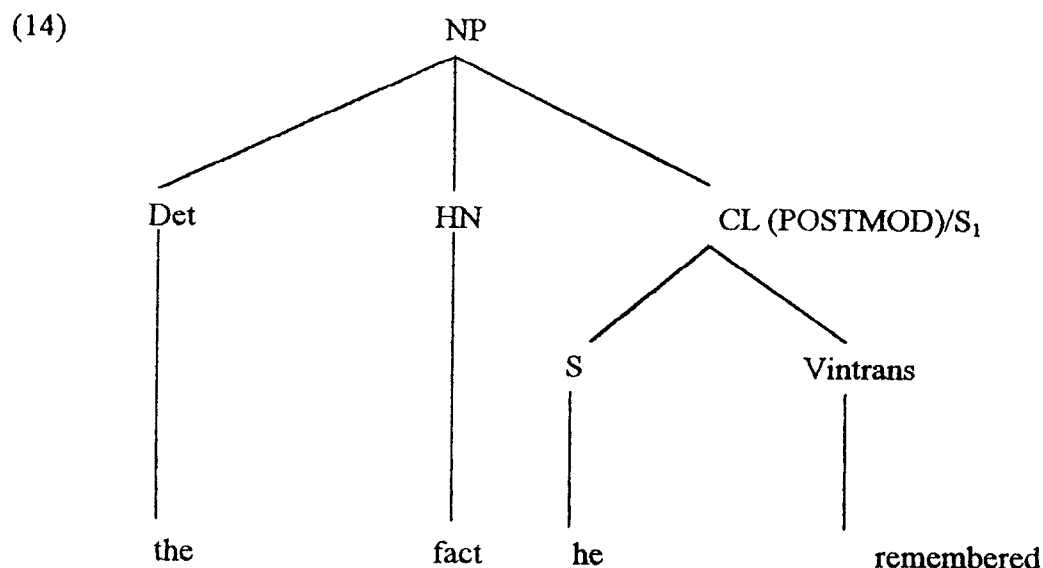
Evidence that the verb remembered in (9) above is transitive comes from the fact that the relative clause can be passive: cf.

- (13) a. The fact | **which was remembered** | is irrelevant.  
 b. | **that was remembered** |  
 c. | **remembered** |

#### SECOND ANALYSIS: APPOSITIVE CLAUSE

Under this analysis the structure underlying the complex NP the fact that he remembered can be represented by the following PM:





Notice that the embedded sentence he remembered does not meet the conditions for Relativization; thus it cannot be transformed into a relative clause. It can, however, be converted into a nominal clause: cf.

- (15) a. The fact *of* his remembering  
 b. *that* he remembered

The two NPs in (15) may be used in the context of (9) above with no change either in structure or in meaning: cf.

- (16) a. The fact *of* his remembering is irrelevant.  
 b. *that* he remembered

Since the ING clause in (16.a) is unmistakably an appositive clause, it follows that the finite clause in (16.b) is also an appositive clause. The presence of the indicator *of* in (16.a) proves that the ING clause is appositive. Notice that the verb is intransitive under this analysis, and this explains why it can be replaced by another intransitive verb:

- (17) a. The fact *of* his disappearing is irrelevant.  
 b. *that* he disappeared

Notice finally that since the appositive clauses in (16) above are **factive**, the HN fact may be deleted without any loss in meaning:

- (18) a. His remembering is irrelevant.  
 b. That he remembered is irrelevant.



### SAQ (13)

Translate the two examples in (16) above into Arabic. How would you translate the conjunction *that* in (16.b) into Arabic.



Notice finally that the ambiguity in (9) above arises from the fact that the verb remember, like many other verbs such as eat, and drink, may be used in two different ways (i) transitively, and (ii) intransitively: cf.

- (19) a. I shall **remember** all the details. (trans.)  
b. I cannot **remember** well nowadays. (intrans)



**SAQ (14)**

The following sentence cited by Quirk, et. al. (1985: 1262) is two ways ambiguous. Resolve the ambiguity by providing two different analyses and two Arabic translations:

- A report **that he stole** was ultimately sent to the police.

Make use of the analyses and argumentation provided for sentence (9) above.



## 6. OVERVIEW

Unit Four has dealt, in some detail, with adjectival clauses:

1. Functions of adjectival clauses
2. Forms and types of adjectival clauses
3. Distribution of adjectival clauses
4. Contraction and displacement of adjectival clauses.

Adjectival clauses were also compared with appositive clauses.

This unit brings to an end our discussion of the phenomenon of subordination, complex sentences, and the clausal system in English.

## 7. PREVIEW OF UNIT FIVE

Unit Five is a rather brief unit dealing with other types of clauses not covered in Unit Two (Nominal Clauses), Unit Three (Adverbial Clauses) and Unit Three (Adjectival and Appositive Clauses). The clauses which Unit Five discusses are special types of clauses that are frequently used in English but cannot be analyzed as nominal, adjectival and adverbial. These are:

- (i) Sentential Clauses
- (ii) Parenthetical Clauses, and
- (iii) Reporting Clauses.

## 8. ANSWER KEY

### EXERCISE (1)

1/c ; 2/d ; 3/a ; 4/e ; 5/i ; 6/b ; 7/h ; 8/f ; 9/g ; 10/j.

### EXERCISE (2)

1. Animals **which** eat meat are called carnivores.
2. He gave me the book **which** I wanted.
3. Planes **which** do not have engines are called gliders.
4. He found the woman **whom** he was looking for.
5. Swahili is a language **which** is spoken in East Africa.
6. Bicycles **which** have engines are called motorcycles.
7. Do you know the people **who** live in the white house.
8. The waitress **who** served us dinner was very friendly.
9. Do you like the mechanic **who** fixed your car?
10. I talked to the people **who** were sitting next to me.
11. The man **who** answered the phone was polite.
12. My daughter asked me a question **which** I could not answer.
13. Pat likes the family **whom** she is living with. OR **with whom** she is living.



14. There is the man whose car was stolen.
15. That is the man whose son is an astronaut.
16. I know a girl whose brother speaks eight languages.
17. I have a neighbour whose dog barks all night long.
18. These are the photos which show your house.
19. He is the man from whose house the pictures were stolen.
20. In 1980 he caught a serious illness from whose effects he still suffers.

### EXERCISE (3)

- 1-6 The relative pronoun cannot be deleted.  
 7-12 The relative pronoun can be deleted.

### EXERCISE (4)

<u>Correct</u>	<u>Error</u>
1. .... which I bought yesterday .....	it
2. .... who lives next to me .....	which
3. .... whose husband is a famous novelist .....	whom her
4. .... who teaches English linguistics	Ø relative
5. .... whom (who) I met .....	them
6. The relative clause should follow the HN man ..... The man whose bicycle was stolen was very angry.	
7. is	are
8. .... who is standing over there?	she
9. .... to which we listened yesterday.	that
10. The NRC should be preceded and followed by a comma	
11. , whom we met in Boston last year,	Ø relative
12. , which was published in 1965,	that

### EXERCISE (5)

1. .... carrying a large parcel.
2. .... wearing a red dress.
3. .... fighting in the street .....

### EXERCISE (6)

1. .... weighing over 150 kilos.
2. .... costing less than \$ 20 .....
3. .... not having a valid LD .....

### EXERCISE (7)

1. .... driven by a young man without a licence.
2. .... reported to this office .....
3. .... left in the reading room .....



### EXERCISE (8)

1. .... to be followed .....
2. .... to cool their zeal.
3. .... for John to talk to .....
4. .... for us to do.
5. .... to look after the children.

### EXERCISE (9)

1. .... in front of the screen .....
2. .... behind the fence .....
3. .... like John .....
4. .... larger.
5. .... both tall and strong.
6. .... much larger than yours.

### EXERCISE (10)

1. Long sentences are difficult to understand.
2. This beautiful painting belongs to that tall lady.
3. No one would accept this stupid suggestion of yours.
4. Very few men like talkative women.
5. If you want to do something, do it in an efficient way.

### EXERCISE (11)

1. What she really needs .....
2. .... whoever defends me .....
3. The young in spirit .....
4. .... the old and the young.
5. .... the disabled.

### EXERCISE (12)

1. a. Rosemary, who was an experienced nurse, took care of the injured.  
b. As she was an experienced nurse, Rosemary took care of the injured.
2. a. George, who realized that he was a failure in everything he did, immigrated to Brazil.  
b. As he realized that he was a failure in everything he did, George immigrated to Brazil.
3. a. Peter, who had walked for over an hour, was beginning to feel tired.  
b. Because he had walked for over an hour, Peter was beginning to feel tired.

### EXERCISE (13)

1. a. Jack, who was told of his son's accident, immediately phoned Dr. Sharp.  
b. Because he was told of his son's accident, Jack .....
2. a. John, who was encouraged by his success, applied for a grant.  
b. As he was encouraged by his success, John .....
3. a. Bill, who was questioned by the police on two different counts, .....
- b. As he was questioned by the police on two different counts, Bill .....



### **EXERCISE (14)**

1. a. The children, who were unaware of the danger, .....  
b. Because they were unaware of the danger, the children .....
2. a. Ruth, who was dismayed at what had happened, .....  
b. As she was dismayed at what had happened, Ruth .....

### **EXERCISE (15)**

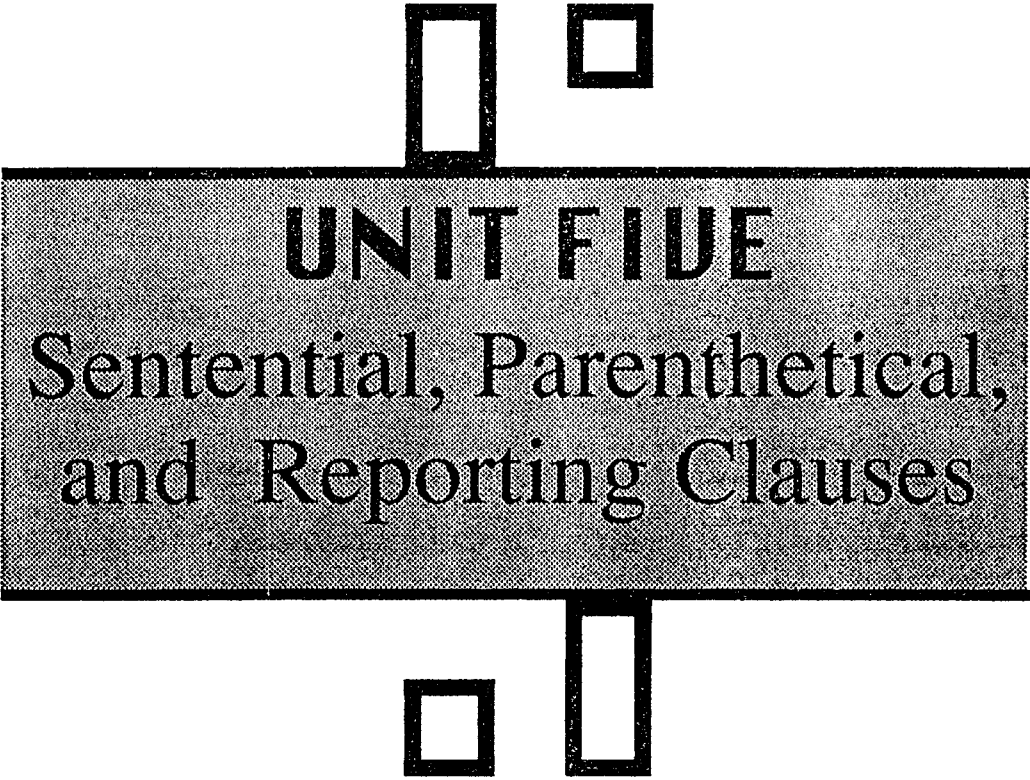
1. The fact that Bill lost the race is annoying.
2. The rumor that Bill and Mary are getting married is not true.
3. The idea that women are less intelligent than man is old-fashioned.

## **9. REFERENCES**

- |  |
|--|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"><li>1. Alexander, L. (1988), pp. 16-24</li><li>2. Allsop, J. (1983), pp. 290-296</li><li>3. Close, R. (1975), pp. 50-55</li><li>4. Frank, M. (1986), pp. 45-56</li><li>5. Kaplan, J. (1989), pp. 301-327</li><li>6. Quirk and Greenbaum (1973) pp. 375-405</li><li>7. Quirk, et. al. (1985), chapter 17.</li></ol> |
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## UNIT FIVE

Sentential, Parenthetical,  
and Reporting Clauses



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## 1. INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Preview

The last three units (2, 3, 4) have dealt with nominal, adverbial and adjectival clauses respectively. There are other types of clauses which are not easy to categorize as belonging to any of the three major clauses discussed in the last three units in the sense that they exhibit certain syntactic, semantic and discoursal characteristics which distinguish them from other clauses. Such adjectives fall into three distinct classes:

- (i) Sentential Relative Clauses.
- (ii) Parenthetical and Comment Clauses.
- (iii) Reporting and Reported Clauses.

It is the aim of this unit, which is rather short, to discuss these three types of clauses. It is also the objective of this unit to revise nominal, adverbial and adjectival clauses. This is done through Reminders, Pointers, Phrase Markers and SAQs.

### 1.2 Unit Objectives

Upon completing this unit, you are expected to:

1. recognize and use sentential relative clauses,
2. recognize and use parenthetical /comment clauses,
3. recognize and use reporting and reported clauses, and
4. be aware of the syntactic and semantic characteristics of sentential, parenthetical and reporting clauses.

### 1.3 Unit Sections

In addition to this introduction and the overview, this unit consists of three sections:

<u>Section No.</u>	<u>Content</u>
2	Sentential Relative Clauses
3	Parenthetical and Comment Clauses
4	Reporting and Reported Clauses

The unit also contains a lot of exercises and SAQs.

### 1.4 Supplementary Reading

For further details on the topic of this unit, you are advised to consult the following references (See bibliographical details at the end of the book).

1. *Collins COBUILD English Grammar* (1990), Chapter 7.
2. Quirk, et. al. (1985): 1020-1033; 1112-1120.





## 2. SENTENTIAL RELATIVE CLAUSES

### 2.1 Sentential Clauses Defined

Let us begin our discussion of sentential relative clauses by examining the underlined construction in the following example:

- (1) Bill was promoted yesterday, which pleased his wife.

#### QUESTIONS

- i. Why is the underlined construction called a relative clause?
- ii. What is the antecedent HN which this clause modifies?
- iii. Why is it called sentential?
- iv. Can the relative pronoun which be replaced by that?
- v. Is this clause more similar to the RC or the NRC?

The underlined construction in (1) above is called a relative clause because it begins with the relative pronoun which. Notice that the relative pronoun which is the only relative pronoun that can be used with this type of structure. The relative pronouns who and that are not possible here. Witness the unacceptability of the following two examples:

- (2) a. \*Bill was promoted yesterday, that pleased his wife.  
b. \*Bill was promoted yesterday, who pleased his wife.

Notice secondly that the sentential relative clause in (1) above is not preceded by an antecedent HN. In other words, the relative clause does not modify an antecedent HN; the antecedent of this relative clause is the whole of the main clause (i.e. the matrix sentence) Bill was promoted yesterday. This explains why this type of clause is referred to as a sentential relative clause.

#### POINTER

Unlike a RC or a NRC, which has an antecedent HN, a sentential relative clause (SRC) refers back to the matrix sentence that precedes it or to a certain constituent in the matrix sentence BUT NOT to an antecedent HN.



## 2.2 Antecedent

### 2.2.1 Simple Sentence as Antecedent

As pointed out above, a SRC characteristically refers back to the entire sentence that precedes it. The example in (1) above illustrates this use. Other representative examples of this use (i.e. reference to the whole of the matrix sentence) are the following:

- (3) a. Bill failed the exam, **which surprised us.**
- b. He is not on the telephone, **which makes it difficult to get in touch with him.**
- c. John lost his job, **which annoyed him.**

As can be seen from the examples in (1) and (3) above, a SRC may refer back to the entire preceding sentence. This can be demonstrated by asking a **what-**question. For instance, the following question about the example in (1):

- (4)       What pleased Bill's wife?

may be answered by the entire matrix clause in (1): cf.

- (5)       That he was promoted yesterday.

The same remark applies to the SRCs in (3) above.

In addition to modifying a simple sentence as in the examples in (1) and (2) above, a SRC may refer back to: (i) a complex sentence, (ii) a compound sentence, (iii) the predicate in a preceding sentence and (iii) Od. Below is a brief discussion with examples of these four types:

### 2.2.2 Complex Sentence as Antecedent

The SRC in the following examples refers back to the entire preceding sentence, which is a **complex sentence**.

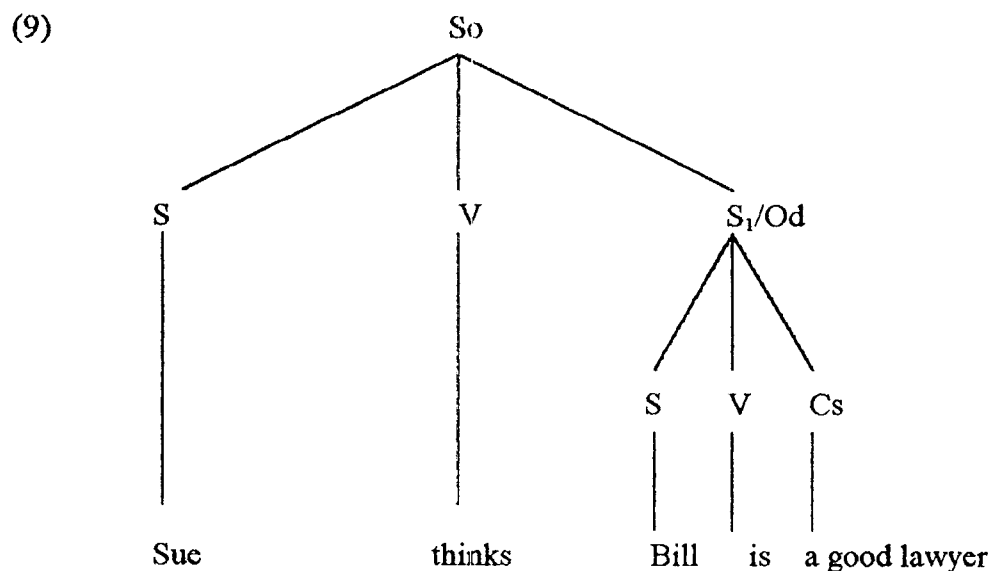
#### **REMINDER**

A complex sentence contains a main (matrix) clause and at least one subordinate (dependent) clause. This subordinate clause may realize a Nominal or an Adverbial function.



### 2.3.5 Subordinate Clause as Antecedent

First consider the structure of the following complex sentence:



From the structure in (9) we can get the following complex sentence which contains a finite object clause (i.e. a *that*-clause):

(10) Sue thinks **that Bill is a good lawyer**.

Now consider the following example and notice that the SRC refers back to the nominal clause **Bill is a good lawyer**:

(11) Sue thinks [*that Bill is a good lawyer*], **which he is not**.



#### **SAQ (1)**

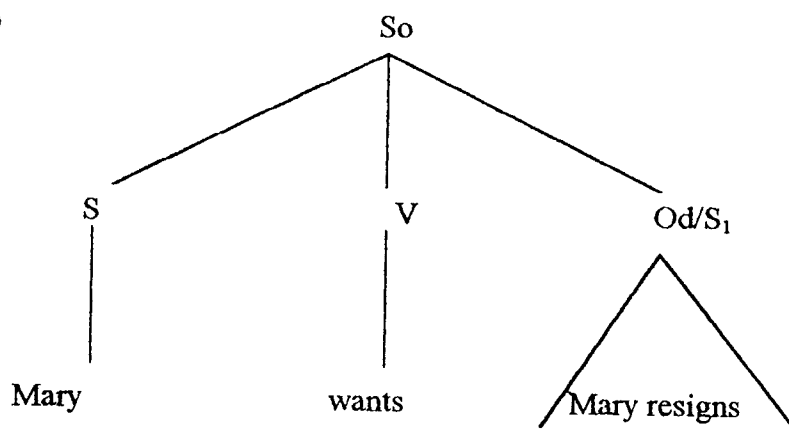
Derive a complex sentence from the following phrase marker and then add a SRC that refers back to the entire sentence.

#### **TIP**

Change the embedded sentence  $S_1$  into an infinitival clause and delete its  $S$ ; i.e. S-Deletion + V-Infinitivalization.



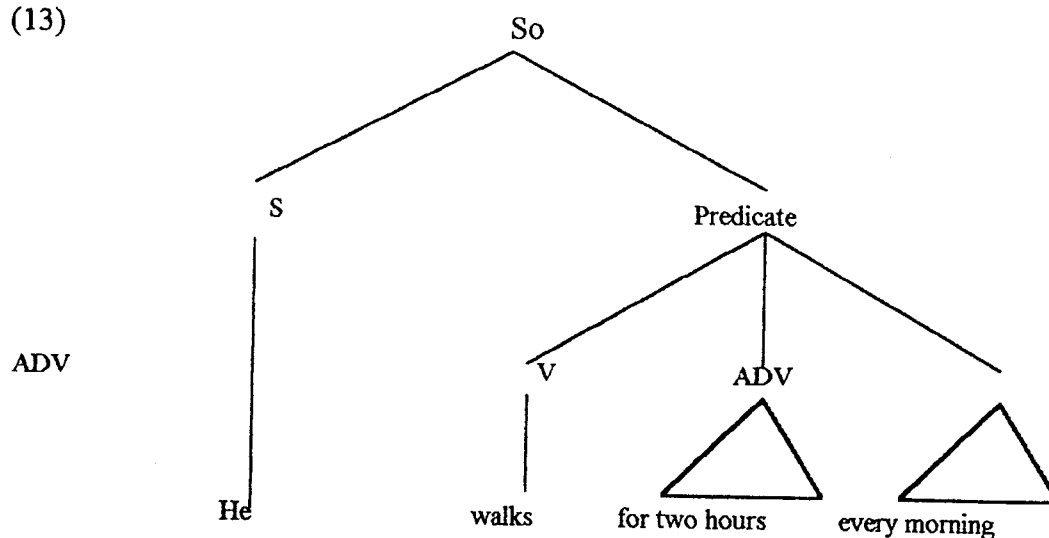
(12)



### SAQ (2)

Add the SRC which would bore me to refer back to the predicate in the following phrase marker. Transform the embedded sentence S<sub>1</sub> into a finite nominal clause.

(13)



## 2.3 Semantic and Syntactic Characteristics

A SRC is often replaceable by a coordinate clause in which case the relative pronoun which is replaced by and this or and that: cf.

- (14) a. Few people attended the meeting, *which* is a pity.  
b. Few people attended the meeting, *and that* is a pity.
- (15) a. John was still in bed, *which* explains why he didn't turn up last night.  
b. John was still in bed, *and this* explains why he didn't turn up last night.





### EXERCISE (1)

Join the sentences in each pair by changing the second one into a SRC.

1. a. We have installed central heating.  
b. This should make a tremendous difference to the house.  
c. ....
2. a. He is only five years old and he speaks five languages.  
b. Many people find this surprising.  
c. ....
3. a. Tom and Jane were quarreling within one month of their marriage and separated within three months.  
b. This is something I'll never understand.  
c. ....

In this sense SRCs, are similar to NRCs, which quite often can be replaced by coordinate clauses: cf.

### NRC

- (16) a. Paul then met Mary, *who* invited him for dinner.  
b. Paul then met Mary, *and she* invited him for dinner.

### SRC

- (17) a. Paul met Mary at the airport, *which* pleased him.  
b. Paul met Mary at the airport, *and this* pleased him.

Secondly, like NRCs, SRCs are separated from the matrix sentences by means of commas as in (16) and (17) above respectively.

Thirdly, like NRCs, SRCs may not be introduced by the relative pronoun that. Notice the unacceptability of the following two examples which correspond to (16.a) and (17.a) respectively.

- (16) c. \*Paul then met Mary, *that* invited him for dinner.  
(17) c. \* Paul met Mary at the airport, *that* pleased him.

Semantically, SRCs are very much similar to comment clauses, which we shall discuss in Section 2 below. Notice the close affinity between the SRC in (18) and the Comment Clause in (19).

- (18) Jane fell down and broke her leg, *which* upset everybody.  
(19) What was more upsetting, Jane fell down and broke her leg.



However, unlike Comment Clauses , SRCs may not occur sentence initially: cf.

- (20) \*Which upset everybody, Jane fell down and broke her leg.

**POINTER**

The main difference between a NRC and a SRC is that the first but not the second is preceded by a HN.

?

**SAQ (3)**

Underline the antecedent of the SRC and identify its class. All examples occur in this section.

1. Bill was promoted yesterday, **which pleased his wife.**
2. He is not on the phone, **which makes it difficult to get in touch with him.**
3. John lost his job, **which annoyed him.**
4. She decided not to complete her university course, **which disappointed her parents.**
5. I washed the dishes and dried them, **which made Sue forgive me.**
6. He walks for an hour every morning, **which would bore me.**
7. Sue thinks that Bill is a good driver, **which he is not.**
8. Mary wants to resign, **which is surprising.**
9. Few people attended the meeting, **which is a pity.**
10. Jane fell down and broke her leg, **which upset everybody.**

?

**SAQ (4)**

Mention three similarities between NRCs and SRCs.

?

**SAQ (5)**

What is the major difference between a NRC and a SRC?

**2.4 NP Representing Antecedent**

Consider the following example paying special attention to the phrase **in which case**, which introduces the SRC:

- (21) The plane may be several hours late, ***in which case*** there's no point in our waiting.



As can be seen (21) comes from the following two sentences:

- (22) a. The plane may be several hours late.  
b. and in this case there's no point in our waiting.

From the pair of examples in (22) we can get either (21), where (22.b) is converted into a SRC, **OR**:

- (23) The plane may be several hours late, *and in this case* there's no point in our waiting,

where (22.b) is conjoined to (22.a).

### QUESTIONS

1. What does the noun case in (21) refer to?
2. What is the function of the relative pronoun which in (21)?

The noun case in (22.b) characterizes/describes the information in (22.a) - i.e. the plane may be several hours late. Notice that the relative pronoun which in (21) is a determiner which replaces the determiner this in (22.a).

By way of further exemplification consider the following data which illustrate the type of SRC instanced in (21) above where the NP (i.e. this case) represents (stands for) the preceding sentence:

- (24) a. I was told my work was unsatisfactory.  
b. At this point I submitted my resignation. }  $\Rightarrow$   
c. I was told my work was unsatisfactory, at [*which point*] I submitted my resignation.
- (25) a. They remain in the pouch for seven weeks.  
b. By this time, they are about 10 cm long. }  $\Rightarrow$   
c. They remain in the pouch for seven weeks, by [*which time*] they are about 10 cm long.
- (26) a. They were under water for several hours.  
b. They emerged unharmed from this experience. }  $\Rightarrow$   
c. They were under water for several hours, from [*which experience*] they emerged unharmed.





### EXERCISE (2)

Identify the type of the relative clauses and mark the antecedent of each clause.

1. Ten minutes later, Jane rang up her fiancée and apologised, **which required a great effort on her part.**
2. He gave in his resignation, **which was the best thing he could do in the circumstances.**
3. I gave the message to your secretary, **who was supposed to pass on to you.**
4. He blamed me for everything, **which I thought was very fair.**
5. The climbers spent two nights on the mountainside, **which was swept by biting winds.** (Close, 1974: 125)
6. The climbers spent two nights on the mountainside, **which was an ordeal for the hardest of them.** (Close, 1974:125).
7. The singer gave five encores, **all of which were quite new to the audience.**
8. The singer gave five anchors, **for which he received enthusiastic applause.**
9. They say he plays rugby, **which he doesn't.**
10. He continually does the washing for his wife, **which would bore me.**

### 3. PARENTHETICAL AND COMMENT CLAUSES

#### 3.1 The Status of Parenthetical/Comment Clauses

Before we begin our discussion of parenthetical/comment clauses, it would be useful to examine the syntactic and semantic roles of such clauses as exemplified by the **underlined** clauses contained in the following examples.

- (1)
  - a. There are new applicants, I believe, for the new job.
  - b. I've got nothing to do with him, I'm glad to say.
  - c. She is not interested in this job, I feel.
  - d. We cannot possibly live on this salary, you know.
  - e. This is a fourth-year course, as you know.
  - f. This issue was discussed in Unit 3 above, as you no doubt remember.
  - g. As it seems, Bill is the strongest candidate.
  - h. What is more surprising, Sue got married without informing her parents.
- (2)
  - a. To be honest with you, I cannot work with him.
  - b. To judge from her remarks, she is not easy to deal with.
  - c. I think you are being underpaid, to be frank with you.
  - d. Putting it bluntly, the quality of his work is far from being satisfactory.
  - e. Put frankly, this offer is unfair to us.
  - f. If I may be frank with you, your work leaves much to be desired.



The underlined clauses in (1) and (2) above have been invariably referred to as:

- (i) Sentential Clauses (Adverbs),
- (ii) Parenthetical Clauses (particularly the ones in (1) above),
- (iii) Comment Clauses,
- (iv) Content Disjuncts (e.g. 1.a-h),
- (v) Style Disjuncts (e.g. 2.a-f).

However, regardless of the various labels used to describe such clauses, it is evident that such clauses are not integrated within the main clause as is the case with adjunct adverbial clauses discussed in Unit Three above. In fact they differ from adjunct adverbial clauses in a number of linguistically significant ways:

- i. Adjuncts denote circumstances of the situation in the matrix clause: cf.
  - **Time Clauses** are used to indicate when the action/event described in the matrix clause happens by referring to a period of time or to another event: cf.

- (3) a. Her father died **when she was young**.
- b. I haven't talked to him **since he arrived**.

Time clauses can be elicited by a **when-question**: cf.

- (3) c. **When** did her father die?
- d. **When** she was young .

- **Place Clauses** specify the location or position in which the action/event described in the matrix clause takes place: cf.

- (4) a. He left it **where it lay**.
- b. She said she was happy **where she lived**.

Place clauses can be elicited by a **where-question**: cf.

- (5) a. **Where** did he leave it?
- b. **Where** it lay.

- **Condition Clauses** describe the conditions under which the action/event described in the matrix clause happens or does not happen. They are usually elicited by a question beginning with **under what conditions**: cf.

- (6) a. **If he buys this house**, his wife will be very pleased.
- b. **Under what conditions** will his wife be very pleased?
- c. **If he buys this house**.

The above remarks and observations apply to other types of adjunct adverbial clauses discussed in Unit Three above (i.e. Concessive Clauses, Reason Clauses, Purpose Clauses, Result Clauses, Manner and Comparison Clauses, Clauses of Exception, Clauses of Proportion, Clauses of Preference).



What is important to note in this section is that parenthetical/comment clauses of the type instanced in (1) and (2) above **DO NOT DESCRIBE/DENOTE THE CIRCUMSTANCES OF THE SITUATION IN THE MATRIX CLAUSE** (e.g. time, place, manner, condition, result, reason, purpose, etc.).

Parenthetical/ Comment clauses express either (i) the speaker's comments on the information contained in the matrix clause, or (ii) the speaker's views on the way he is speaking (e.g. the capacity in which he is speaking).

The following two sets of examples illustrate the two major functions of parenthetical clauses:

i. **Commenting on the Content of the Matrix Clause:**

- (7) a. To be sure, we have heard many such promises before.  
b. **What is even more remarkable**, Lewis managed to write this book in two months.

ii. **Expressing the Speaker's Views on the Way he is Speaking**

- (8) a. To be frank with you, I don't like her.  
b. **Putting it frankly**, his chances are very slim.  
c. **If I may be frank**, Sue is not honest.

**NOTES**

- I. Parenthetical and Comment Clauses may occur initially, medially or finally.  
ii. They generally have a separate tone unit in speaking.  
In writing they are marked off by commas.

**?**

**SAQ (6)**

1. What is the semantic role of the clauses in (1) and (2) above? Do they comment on the **content** of the matrix clause, or do they express the **speaker's** views on the way he is speaking? To help you do this SAQ, compare the clauses in (1) with those in (7), and the clauses in (2) with those in (8).

In this section we shall use the two terms 'parenthetical' and 'comment' interchangeably because the clauses in (1) and (2) above embody elements of meaning of both terms.



As pointed out above, the major semantic role of a parenthetical/comment clause is to comment on the **form/style** of what is said or its **content**; but they do not describe or denote the circumstances of the situation in the matrix clause. The parenthetical nature of comment clauses can be seen in the fact that they can occur initially, medially or finally and that they are commonly separated from the matrix clause by means of **commas** (in writing) and **Intonation** (in speech).

In addition to the difference in semantic role between parenthetical clauses and adjunct adverbial clauses, the two types of clause differ syntactically. Quirk et. al. (1985:1071) list six major syntactic differences between the two types of clause. It would sufficient here to mention three major differences.

Let us begin by comparing the adjunct adverbial clause in (9.a) with the comment/parenthetical clause in (10.a):

- (9) a. I like him **because he is helpful**.  
 (10) a. **To be honest with you**, I like him.

Notice that (9.a) and (10.a) have the same matrix clause (i.e. **I like him**). Now witness how the syntactic behaviour of the two clauses in (9.a) and (9.b) is different.

(i) **Focus of a Cleft Sentence**

Only the clause in (9.a) can be the focus of a cleft sentence. Notice the acceptability of (9.b) and the unacceptability of (10.b):

- (9) b. It's **because he is always helpful** that I like him.  
 (10) b. \*It's **because to be honest with you**, that I like him.

(ii) **Focus of a Question**

Only the clause in (9.a) - i.e. adverbial adjunct clause- can be the focus of a question. Witness the acceptability of (9.c) and the unacceptability of (10.c):

- (9) c. Do I like him **because he is always helpful**?  
 (10) c. \*Do I like him, **to be honest with you**?

(iii) **Focus of Negation**

Only the clause in (9.a) can be the focus of negation: cf.

- (9) d. I don't like him, **because he is always helpful** *but* because he is modest.  
 (10) d. \*I don't like him, **to be honest with you** *but* to be frank with you.



**SAQ (7)**

List three syntactic differences between adjunct adverbial clauses and parenthetical clauses.





### **EXERCISE (3)**

Identify the clauses in the following examples as either adjunct clauses or as parenthetical clauses:

1. They have other plans, **I believe**.
2. **As you may remember**, we have to finish this today.
3. He has no chance of winning, **as it seems**.
4. **To judge from your remarks**, you are not interested in our offer.
5. **To be honest with you**, this is an excellent course.
6. **What is annoying**, she never complains.
7. **Stated bluntly**, this is not what we want.
8. You can't sit **where you like**.
9. Wait here **until they call you**.
10. **If you do that**, I shall be very pleased.
11. She looks pretty **whatever she wears**.
12. Type this again **as I showed you this morning**.

### **3.2 Forms of Comment Clauses**

Quirk, et. al. (1985:1112-1113) distinguish seven types of comment clauses according to form:

1. Like the matrix clause.
2. **As**-Clause.
3. **What**-Clause.
4. Infinitive clause.
5. ING Clause.
6. EN Clause.
7. **If**-Clause.

Below is a brief discussion of these forms.

#### **3.2.1 Type (1)** (Like the matrix clause)

##### **(i) Examples**

- (13)
- a. There are now new applicants, **I believe**, for this post.
  - b. They are not at home, **I think**.
  - c. Bill and Mary are getting married, **I am told**.
  - d. I've got nothing to do with him, **I'm glad to say**.

##### **(ii) Comments**

Type (1) comment clauses are probably the most important in terms of frequency of use. They commonly consist of S + Vtrans (e.g. **I believe, I think**). Notice that the transitive verb in a comment clause is not followed by an object. Notice further that they are not introduced by a subordinator.



### POINTER

Type (1) comment clauses resemble matrix clauses in that:

- i. They contain at least a subject and a verb, and
- ii. They are not introduced by a subordinator.

Comment clauses differ from main clauses in that the verb is not followed by its obligatory complement: cf.

- (14) a. \*I believe .....  
b. \*I'm pleased to say .....

#### (iii) Semantic Functions

Type (1) comment clauses may have various semantic functions:

1. Expressing the speaker's degree of certainty about the information in the main clause: cf.

#### Examples

- (15) a. She is not interested in this job, I feel.  
b. She has given you the report, I am sure.

Commonly, the subject of the comment clause is I and the verb is in the simple present.

### COMMENT CLAUSES EXPRESSING DEGREE OF CERTAINTY

I believe; I guess; I think; I expect; I feel; I hear; I assume; I understand; I know; I suppose; I suspect; I hear; I see; I admit; I must say; I must admit; I dare say; ..... etc. Other constructions not introduced by I are: it seems; it appears; it is said; it is rumoured; they say; they allege; etc.

2. Expressing the speaker's emotional attitude (reaction) towards the information contained in the main clause: cf.

#### Examples

- (16) We have chosen you for a scholarship, I'm happy to tell you.



Usually the subject is I and the verb is in the simple present followed by an adjective and a to-infinitive verb of speaking: cf.

- (17) Our products compare favourably with international products, **I'm pleased to say.**

#### **COMMENT CLAUSES EXPRESSING ATTITUDE**

I'm glad to tell you, I'm glad to say, I'm pleased to inform you, I'm delighted to say, I'm happy to tell you, I regret to say, I'm sorry to say, I'm afraid, etc.

Other clauses not introduced by I are:  
it pains me to say; it grieves me to say; it delights me to tell you, etc.

3. Claiming the hearer's attention or calling for his agreement:

#### **Examples**

- (18) a. We cannot possibly live on this salary, **you know.**  
b. She has been rather obstructive recently, **you realize.**

The subject of the clause is usually you or the implied you of the imperative, and the verb is in the simple present.

#### **CLAUSES CALLING FOR HEARER'S AGREEMENT/ATTENTION**

you know, you see, you realize, you must admit, mind you, mark you, etc.

#### **3.2.2 Type (2) / As-Clauses**

Comment clauses introduced by as are next in importance (cf. Quirk, et. al., 1985:1115).

The word as which introduces this type of comment clause may function as either (i) a relative pronoun, or (ii) a subordinator.

##### **(i) Relative Pronoun**

In this use as can be replaced by the relative pronoun which that is commonly used in sentential relative clauses (SRC): cf.



- (19) a. He is a fourth-year student, *as you know*.  
b. He is a fourth-year student, *which you know*.

**COMMENT CLAUSES WITH THE RELATIVE AS**

as you know, as everybody knows, as you may remember, as is common knowledge, as you say, as I have said, as I'm told, as you may have heard, as is common knowledge, as one would expect in such circumstances, as seems likely, as often happens, as is expected, etc.

Notice that a comment/parenthetical clause introduced by the relative as may occur initially, medially or finally: cf.

- (20) a. *As you know*, Bill is an outstanding student.  
b. Bill is, *as you know*, an outstanding student.  
c. Bill is an outstanding student, *as you know*.

Notice that when the comment clause occurs medially or initially, the relative as cannot be replaced by the relative pronoun which: cf.

- (21) a. \**Which you know*, Bill is an outstanding student.  
b. \*Bill is, *which you know*, an outstanding student.  
c. Bill is an outstanding student, *which you know*.

(ii) **Subordinator**

Consider the *as*-clause in the following example:

- (22) Bill is the best candidate, *as it seems*.

Notice that as cannot be replaced by which: cf.

- (23) \*Bill is the best candidate, *which it seems*.

Notice further that the *as*-clause in (22) may occur sentence-initially or sentence-medially:

- (24) a. *As it seems*, Bill is the best candidate.  
b. Bill is, *as it seems*, the best candidate.

**COMMENT CLAUSES WITH THE SUBORDINATOR AS**

as it appears, as it happens, as I see it, as I interpret it, as I understand it, as it seems likely, as it often happens, etc.



Compare now the following two sentences:

- (25) Jane is an excellent researcher, **as appears from her thesis.**  
(26) Jane is an excellent researcher, **as it appears from her thesis.**

**QUESTION**

In which example can as be replaced by the relative pronoun which?

In (25) but not (26) as can be replaced by the relative pronoun which.

**3.2.3 Type (3) / What-Clauses**

As you already know from Unit Two and Unit Five, a nominal relative clause is a contracted relative clause which functions as a nominal clause in the sense that it occurs in all positions available to an NP.

Below are some examples that are meant to remind you of the major syntactic functions of a nominal relative clause:

**(i) Subject**

- (27) **Whoever arrives first will get the prize.**

**(ii) Direct Object**

- (28) I will accept **whatever they offer me.**

**(iii) Indirect Object**

- (29) They will give **whoever solves this problem** a generous grant.

**(iv) Subject Complement**

- (30) Home is **where your friends and family are.**

**(v) Object Complement**

- (31) Call me **whatever (names) you like.**

**(vi) Prepositional Complement**

- (32) Sue is quite happy with **what she is.**



You also remember from Unit Five that a nominal relative clause results from the deletion of the HN preceding a restrictive relative clause: cf.

(33) a. [The thing] **which he said** was perfectly true.  $\Rightarrow$

↓ ↓

b.  $\emptyset$   $\emptyset$  **what he said** was perfectly true.

c. **What he said** was perfectly true.

What is important to note in this connection is that in addition to functioning as a nominal clause, a nominal relative clause may function as a comment/parenthetical clause as in the following example:

(34) **What is more surprising**, he left without informing us.

#### NOTE

A nominal relative clause functioning as a comment clause occurs only initially. Since a nominal relative clause in this function is not a nominal, we shall refer to it as a **what-clause** to distinguish it for similar clauses having nominal functions.

A **what-clause** corresponds to a sentential relative clause. Notice the similarity between (34) and:

(35) He left without informing us, **which is more surprising**.

One major difference between a **what-clause** and a SRC is that the first is restricted to sentence-initial position, whereas the second (i.e. SRC) occurs in sentence-final position only.

A **what-clause** also corresponds to a nominal relative clause functioning as a subject. Notice the affinity between (34) above and:

(36) **What is more surprising** is that he left without informing us.

#### WHAT-CLAUSES

Other examples of type (3) comment clauses are: **what's more significant**; **what is more annoying**; **what's strange**; **what's more upsetting**, etc.



Before we move to discuss types 4-6 of comment/parenthetical clauses, it is expedient to remind you that types 1-3, which have been discussed above, are **CONTENT DISJUNTS** (i.e. They comment on the content of the matrix clause). Types (4-6), which we shall discuss below, are **STYLE DISJUNTS** (i.e. they comment on the style or form of what is said in the matrix clause).

### 3.2.4 Type (4) / Infinitive Comment Clauses

#### Examples

- (37) a. **To be honest** with you, I do not like Sue.  
 b. **To judge from her remarks**, she is not easy to deal with.  
 c. **To be frank**, I think you are underpaid.

#### INFINITIVE COMMENT CLAUSES

to be honest, to be fair, to be frank, to be precise, to be truthful,  
 to be serious, to put it briefly, to put it frankly, etc.

#### Notes

- (i) Infinitive comment clauses are commonly subjectless; i.e. they occur without the subject. The suppressed subject is characteristically **I**, which is not necessarily coreferential with the subject of the matrix clause (cf. (37.b) above).
- (ii) An infinitive comment clause may occur initially, medially or finally: cf.
- (38) a. **To be frank** with you, I think you are being exploited.  
 b. I think, **to be frank with you**, you are being exploited.  
 c. I think you are being exploited, **to be frank with you**.
- (iii) The infinitive clause is separated from the matrix clause by a comma (and by analogy occupies a separate tone unit in speech).

### 3.2.5 Type (5) / ING Comment Clauses

#### Examples

- (39) a. **Frankly speaking**, you are a sham.  
 b. **Putting it bluntly**, his contribution has been marginal.  
 c. **Speaking for myself**, I won't vote for him.



### ING COMMENT CLAUSES

broadly speaking; roughly speaking; frankly speaking; speaking personally; putting it mildly; putting it bluntly; putting it crudely; flatly speaking; etc.

#### Note

The three above notes on infinitive comment clauses apply to ING comment clauses.

#### **3.2.6** Type (6) / EN Comment Clauses

##### **Examples**

- (40) a. Put frankly, this offer is unfair to us.  
b. Stated briefly, she is no good for this job.

### EN COMMENT CLAUSES

put frankly; stated bluntly; put in another way; rephrased; stated quite simply; worded differently, etc.

It is important to remember in this connection that EN participle clauses are commonly derived from finite clauses through the application of S + Aux Deletion as well as other transformation which we have already discussed: cf.

- (41) a. If I may put it frankly, ..... ⇒  
b. If it is put frankly, ..... ⇒  
    ↓↓↓  
c. ØØØ put frankly, .....

#### **3.2.7** Type (7) / If-Clauses

##### **Examples**

- (42) a. If I may be frank with you, your work leaves much to be desired.  
b. If I can put it frankly, you are not competent to do this job.  
c. If I may say so, your argument is not very convincing.



### Notes

1. The subject of the if-clause is I, and the subordinator is if.
2. The verb is often preceded by the modal may or can.
3. Finite if-clauses functioning as comment disjuncts often have corresponding NF subjectless clauses: cf.

- (43) a. If I can speak frankly, you are a sham.  
b. Frankly speaking,  
c. To put it frankly,  
d. Put frankly,



### EXERCISE (4)

Identify the types of the comment clauses in the following examples:

1. Bill wants to start a new business, **I guess**.
2. Lewis is an excellent grammarian, **I must admit**.
3. He has not been friendly recently, **I regret to say**.
4. **You know**, I cannot discuss this matter with him.
5. **As you no doubt recollect**, this contract won't be signed until you pay your share.
6. Bill and Mary have given in their resignation, **as you know**.
7. **What is most annoying**, Sue has access to all documents.
8. **What's strange**, he behaves as if nothing has happened.
9. **To be honest with you**, I don't think he is the right man.
10. **To be frank**, I think you are not being objective.
11. **Frankly speaking**, this project is far from being practical.
12. **Putting it bluntly**, your ideas are funny.
13. **Worded differently**, this project is bound to fail.
14. **Stated briefly**, I don't accept your offer.
15. **If I may say so**, your plan is not feasible.

## 4. REPORTING AND REPORTED CLAUSES

This section deals with the different ways of reporting what people say or write.

### 4.1 Introductory Remarks and Definitions

There are several ways in which what other people say or write may be reported: cf.

- (i) **Using a Reporting Clause** (e.g. *X said*) to refer to the speaker and the act of communication:



## EXAMPLES

- A. **The Speaker's Exact Words:**  
*Anne* : I want an apple.
- B. **Quoting the Speaker's Words Using a Reporting Clause:**  
(1) Anne said, "I want an apple."

### NOTES & DIRECTIONS

1. Put a comma after the verb said.
2. Put **opening quotation marks** (above the line, not on the line) at the beginning of direct speech. The quotation marks are either single inverted commas '.....' or double inverted commas ".....".
3. Capitalize the first word of the quotation.
4. Write the quotation.
5. Put a full-stop at the end of the quotation.
6. Put **closing quotation marks** ..... or ..... after (not before) the full stop: cf.  
- Anne said, "I want an apple."

The **reporting clause** (i.e. Anne said) refers to the speaker and the act of communication.

- (ii) **Using a Reporting Clause** that refers to the speaker, the act of communication and the person or persons spoken to: cf.

- (2) Anne told *us*, "I have resigned."

- (iii) **Using a Reporting Clause** that refers to the speaker, the act of communication and the manner of speaking: cf.

- (3) Anne said *hesitantly*, "I really don't know."

- (iv) **Using a Reporting Clause** that refers to the speaker, the act of communication and the circumstance of the speech act:

- (4)
- a. Anne *explained*, "I don't mean to hurt you."
  - b. Anne *yelled*, "I can't stand this."
  - c. Anne said *while washing her hair*, "I have nothing to do with Bill."

The **REPORTED CLAUSE** refers to the utterance itself; i.e. what the speaker/writer has said/written. It may take the form of (i) **DIRECT SPEECH** (cf. 1-4 above or (ii) **INDIRECT SPEECH**. Below is a discussion of the two types.



## 4.2 Direct Speech

Direct speech is signalled by being encloseded in **QUOTATION MARKS**. Quotation marks enclose the **speaker's/writer's** actual (exact) words as in examples (1-4) above. The speaker's/writer's actual words are referred to as the **QUOTE** or **QUOTED SPEECH**.



### **EXERCISE (5)**

Write sentences in which you quote the speaker's actual words using the verb **said**.

Punctuate carefully.

1. **William:** My sister is a student.

.....

2. **Alice:** I am hungry.

.....

3. **Lewis:** Grammar is fascinating.

.....

The **REPORTING CLAUSE** may occur in any of the following three positions:

- (i) Before the Direct Speech (i.e. Quoted Speech),
- (ii) Within the Direct Speech, and
- (iii) After the Direct Speech.

#### **(i) Before the Direct Speech**

- (5) a. Jane said, "I wonder whether I can borrow your camera."  
b. Elizabeth complained, "The radio is too loud."

#### **(ii) Within the Direct Speech**

- (6) "I wonder," Jane said, "whether I can borrow your camera."

Notice here that both parts/divisions of the Direct Speech are enclosed between quotation marks. Notice also that the first word in the second part of the direct quote (i.e. **whether**) does not begin with a capital letter.

#### **(iii) After the Direct Speech**

- (7) "The radio is too loud," Elizabeth complained.

Notice here that the Direct Speech is followed by a comma and enclosed between inverted commas.



#### 4.2.1 S-V Inversion

When the reporting clause occurs medially or finally, **S-V Inversion** may take place if the reporting verb is in the simple present or in the simple past: cf.

(7) a. **Without Inversion**

S V

"I wonder," Jane said, "whether I can borrow your camera."

b. **With Inversion**

V S

"I wonder," said Jane, "whether I can borrow your camera."

(8) a. **Without Inversion**

S V

"The radio is too loud," Elizabeth complained.

b. **With Inversion**

V S

"The radio is too loud," complained Elizabeth.

#### NOTE

S-V Inversion is most common in contexts like (7.b) and (8.b) above; i.e.

- i. When the reporting verb is **said**,
- ii. When the subject in the reporting clause is not a pronoun, and
- iii. When the reporting clause is medial.

#### 4.2.2 Reporting Verbs

We indicate that we are reporting or quoting what someone has said by using a reporting verb. Every reporting clause contains a reporting verb. The most common reporting verb is **say**:

(9) a. "I don't see what you are getting at," Jane said.

b. Tom said, "I need some change."

We use the verb **said** when we are simply reporting or quoting what someone said and do not want to add any more information about what we are reporting.

We use the verb **asked** when we are reporting or quoting a question: cf.

(10) "How is it all going?" Dick asked.



A quotation mark comes after a question mark as in (10) above and after an exclamation mark as in the following two examples:

- (11) a. My friend said, **"Watch out!"**  
b. **"Jump!"** shouted the old woman.

Below is a representative list of reporting verbs that are frequently used with direct speech:

**REPORTING VERBS USED WITH DIRECT SPEECH**

add, admit, announce, answer, argue, ask, beg, boast, claim, comment, conclude, confess, declare, exclaim, explain, insist, note, object, observe, order, promise, protest, remark, reply, report, say, state, tell, think, urge, warn, whisper, wonder, write, etc.

**Notes**

- i. You can quote anything that someone says: statements, questions, orders, and exclamations (see 9-11 above).
- ii. If you want to indicate the manner in which something was said, you can use one of the following verbs: call, cry, mumble, mutter, scream, shout, shriek, storm, thunder, wail, whisper, yell, etc.: cf.

(12) **"Get out of here!"** she screamed.

- iii. When the reporting clause occurs within the quote, it comes in one of the following positions:
- A. **after an NP:**  
(13) **"That man,"** I said, **"never talks to strangers."**
- B. **after a Vocative:**  
(14) **"Darling,"** Max said to his wife **"don't say it's not possible."**
- C. **after a sentence adverb (such as maybe):**  
(15) **"Maybe,"** he said, **"maybe there is a beast."**
- D. **after a clause:**  
(16) **"I rang the bell,"** Dick said, **"and she let me in."**

**REMINDER**

The inverted commas used to begin a quote are called **opening inverted commas**, and the ones used to end a quote are called **closing inverted commas**.



- iv. Thinking is sometimes represented as speaking to oneself. Some verbs that are used to refer to thinking can be used as reporting verbs. In such contexts the inverted commas are omitted at the beginning and end of the quote: cf.

(17) I must go and see Jack, Linda thought.

- v. In written narratives quotes can be used without reporting clauses if the speakers have been established and if the writer does not wish to indicate what kind of utterance the quotes are: cf.

(18) - "When do you leave?"  
- "I should be gone now."  
- "Well, good-bye Jenny."

#### 4.2.3 Syntactic Analysis

The decision to discuss Reporting Clauses and Reported Clauses in this unit stems from the fact that it is not easy to group these clauses with any of the major classes of clauses discussed in Units Two to Four above, namely, nominal, adverbial, and adjectival clauses respectively.

Let us first begin by discussing the status and syntactic behaviour of direct speech (i.e. quotes). In some respects the direct speech functions as a subordinate nominal clause. In the following example the direct speech seems to function as a direct object:

(19) Bill said, "I'm really tired."

First, we can ask a **wh**-question and elicit the direct speech as an answer (in the same way we elicit the direct object): cf.

(20) a. What did Bill say?  
b. "I'm really tired."

Secondly, we can make the quote (i.e. the direct speech) the Cs in a pseudo-cleft construction: cf.

(21) What Bill said was "I'm really tired."

Thirdly, the two sentences incorporating the direct speech in (19) and (21) will be incomplete without the direct speech. In other words the direct quote is an obligatory element of clause structure: cf.

(22) a. \*Bill said (cf. 19)  
b. \*What Bill said was (cf. 21)



The examples above provide evidence that the direct speech is an obligatory subordinate clause. However, an examination of the syntactic behaviour of Reporting Clauses shows contrary evidence.

Quirk, et. al. cite arguments that the reporting clause is a subordinate clause, in fact, an adverbial clause. The first argument is that, like an adverbial clause, a reporting clause can occur initially, medially or finally (see examples 5-7 above). Secondly, like an adverbial clause, a reporting clause can be omitted sometimes (see 18 above). Thirdly, both syntactically and semantically, a reporting clause resembles comment/parenthetical clauses, particularly type (1). Compare the reporting clause in (23.a) with the comment clause in (23.b) and the adverb in (23.c): cf. Quirk, et. al. (1985: 1023);

- (23) a. "Generals," they alleged, "never retire; they merely fade away."  
(reporting clause)  
b. General, it is alleged, never retire; they merely fade away. (comment clause)  
c. Generals, allegedly, never retire; they merely fade away. (adverb)

The above conflicting arguments demonstrate that either way of analysis confronts serious problems, and that reporting clauses and direct quotes have their own idiosyncratic characteristics and are best analyzed as a special area of syntax.



#### SAQ (8)

Write sentences in which you quote the speaker's actual words using the verb shown at the end of the direct speech and placing the reporting clause as instructed. The first example is done for you: (I = initial, M = medial and F = Final)

1. **Anne: I want an apple**  
V: said; Reporting Cl (I); no S-V Inversion  
- Anne said, "I want an apple."
2. **Jane: I wonder whether I can borrow your camera.**  
V: said; Reporting Cl (M);  
a. No S-V Inversion: .....  
b. S-V Inversion: .....
3. **Elizabeth: The radio is too loud.**  
V: complained; Reporting Cl (F); No S-V Inversion  
.....
4. **Dick: How is it all going?**  
V: asked; Reporting Cl (F); No S-V Inversion  
.....
5. **The old woman: Jump!**  
V: shouted; Reporting Cl (F); S-V Inversion  
.....
6. **Max (to his wife): Darling, don't say it's not possible.**  
V: said (to his wife); Reporting Cl (M); No S-V Inversion  
.....



### 4.3 Indirect Speech

#### 4.3.1 Reporting Statements

When you report what someone has said using **your own words** rather than the words he/she actually used, you use a **report structure** or **indirect speech**. The underlined constructions in the following examples represent the indirect speech of the speaker:

- (24) a. The woman **said that she had seen nothing.**  
b. I **replied that I had not read it yet.**  
c. Tom **said that he needed his pen.**  
d. Ali **told me that he needed to talk to me.**  
e. Henry **said that he wanted to go home.**  
f. She **says that she wants to see you this afternoon.**

As can be seen from the above examples in (24), indirect speech is typically used to report statements. It takes the form of a nominal **that**-clause that functions as a direct object to the reporting verb (i.e. **said, replied, told, etc.**).

Reporting verbs that are used with the indirect speech include those listed in 4.2.2 above (i.e. those that are frequently used with direct speech) as well as other verbs of **speaking and thinking** which were listed in Unit Two above as taking an object **that**-clause (e.g. **believe, feel, imagine, know, mention, realize, guess, reckon, suppose, etc.**).

In indirect speech the reporting clause is typically placed in sentence-initial position immediately followed by the **that**-clause as in all the examples in (24) above. However, if the speaker (reporter) wants to emphasize the statement contained in the indirect speech, he may alter the order and put the indirect speech in sentence-initial position: cf.

- (25) a. **All these things were trivial, he said.**  
b. **She was worried, he thought!**

#### POINTER

When the indirect speech is placed in sentence-initial position as in (25), notice that:

- i. It is followed by a comma,
- ii. The conjunction **that** is not used to introduce the clause.



Reported speech may be a representation of what someone **thinks**, as opposed to what he actually **says** or **writes**. Verbs of thinking (e.g. **think**, **knew**, etc.) are used as reporting verbs in this case: cf.

- (26) a. Bill **thought** [that Sue was worried].
- b. They **knew** [that the town was cut off].

#### 4.3.2 Changes in Wording

In reporting the language of others in the form of indirect speech (i.e. not quoting the actual words of the speaker/writer) the reporter has to make some changes in wording in order to make his utterance appropriate to the new situation (i.e. the situation of reporting). These changes may be grouped into five different headings: (i) tense, (ii) time adverbials, (iii) place adverbials, (iv) personal pronouns and (v) demonstratives. Below is a brief discussion of the type of change in wording in each of these areas.

##### (A) Tense

The reporting verb may be in the present or in the past: cf.

- (27) a. Cindy **says** [that she **has finished** her work and that she **will make** the tea].
- b. Cindy **said** [that she **had finished** her work and that she **would make** the tea].

The most important point to remember in this regard is that there should be some sort of harmony between the tense of the reporting verb and the tense in the **that-clause**. This type of harmony is often referred to as **sequence of tenses**. The golden rule is that whatever tense you use in reporting should be contextually and situationally **appropriate**. Below are some guidelines for the use of tense in indirect speech.

##### (i) **Present Tense**

The reporting verb may be in the present tense for communicating **very recent activities/events**. Consider the following example as well as the example in (27.a) above:

- (28) Jane **says** [that she **has finished** packing and that she **is going** to the airport in an hour's time].

The reporting verb may also be in the present tense in the following contexts:

- (i) In reports attributed to famous works or writings which are seen as still valid in the present time (i.e. time of reporting): cf.

- (29) a. The Bible **says** [that humility is a virtue].
- b. Shakespeare somewhere **writes** [that women are weak].



(ii) When the reporting verb is a verb of cognition (e.g. **know**, **think**, etc.): cf.

(30) a. Carl **thinks** [that Chomsky's contribution is not that great].

The choice of the verb form in the reported clause (i.e. the **that**-clause) depends on the time reference of the verb. For instance, in the following example the reporting verb is in the present but the main verb in the **that**-clause is in the past because it co-occurs with an explicit past time adverbial and hence the present tense will be inappropriate. Witness the acceptability of (31.a) and the unacceptability of (31.b):

- (31) a. Sue **thinks** [that Paul **went** to Oxford last night.]  
 b. \*Sue **thinks** [that Paul **goes** to Oxford last night.]

(ii) **Past Tense**

When the time reference of the original utterance is not appropriate for the time of reporting, it is necessary to change the tense form of the verbs. This change in verb forms is called **BACKSHIFT**. The resulting "harmony" between the tense of the **reporting verb** and the tense of the verb in the **reported clause** is termed, as pointed out above, **SEQUENCE OF TENSES**. The table below sums up the type of changes in tense in moving from the original utterance (i.e. direct speech) to the reported utterance (i.e. indirect speech):

Direct Speech	Indirect Speech
(i) present simple tense →	past simple tense
(ii) present perfect →	past perfect
(iii) present progressive →	past progressive
(iv) present perfect prog. →	past perfect prog.
(v) past simple tense →	past perfect (or no change)

The pairs of examples below are self-explanatory. These examples are also meant to show you the mechanics of changing direct into indirect speech.

(i) **Present Simple → Past Simple**

- (32) a. Bill **said**, 'I **work** hard.' ⇒  
 b. Bill **said** [that he **worked** hard].

(ii) **Present Perfect → Past Perfect**



- (33) a. Bill **said**, "I **have not seen** the camera before." ⇒  
 b. Bill **said** [that he **had not seen** the camera before].

(iii) **Present Progressive → Past Progressive**

- (34) a. Bob **said**, "I **am staying** at a small hotel." ⇒  
 b. Bob **said** [that he **was staying** at a small hotel].

(iv) **Present Perfect Prog. → Past Perfect Prog.**

- (35) a. "I **have been waiting** for hours," **said** Sue. ⇒  
 b. Sue **said** [that she **had been waiting** for hours].

(v) **Past Simple → Past Perfect**

- (36) a. Sue **said**, "I **lived** in London for ten years." ⇒  
 b. Sue **said** [that she **had lived** in London for ten years].

**WARNING**

The present tense may be retained in the reported clause (even if the reporting verb is past) **if the time reference of the original utterance (i.e. direct speech) is seen as still valid at the time of reporting.** Consider the following examples cited by Quirk, et. al. (1985: 1027):

- (37) a. The teacher **had told** them [that the earth **moves** around the sun].  
 b. Sam **told** me last night [that he **is** now an American citizen].  
 c. She **said** [that they **are being** discriminated against].  
 d. They **thought** [that prison conditions **have improved**].

However, in all these sentences, **past forms** may also be used.

**(B) Modal Auxiliaries in Indirect Speech**

In indirect speech the past tense form of the modal is used in backshifting as in the following table:

Direct Speech	Indirect Speech
may can shall will	might could should would



The following examples are borrowed from Leech (1987: 108):

- (38) a. "Visitors **may** ascend the tower for 50 p." ⇒  
 b. The brochure **declared** [that visitors **might** ascend the tower for 50p].
- (39) a. "You **can** help me carry the cases."  
 b. She **said** [that we **could** help her carry the cases].
- (40) a. "You **shall** have an ice-cream when we **get** home."  
 b. They **promised** [that he **should** have an ice-cream when they **got** home].
- (41) a. "The plan **will** fail." ⇒  
 b. I **warned** them [that the plan **would** fail].

The modals **would**, **should** and **might** do not change their forms in indirect speech (because they are past). On the other hand, the modals **must**, and **ought to** have no past tense forms, but are used in indirect speech as if they were past tense forms: cf.

- (42) a. "You **must** reach camp by ten." ⇒  
 b. They **were** told [that they **must** reach camp by ten].

### (C) Other Changes

#### (i) Time and Place Adverbials

The table below shows the changes in time and place adverbials:

Direct Speech	Indirect Speech
yesterday now tomorrow today tonight last night here	the day before/the previous day then/immediately the next day/the following day that day that night the night before there



### Examples:

- (43) a. Jill said, "I will come tomorrow." ⇒  
b. Jill said [that she would come the next/following day].

### (ii) Personal Pronouns and Demonstratives

If the identities of the person speaking and the person addressed are not identical in the situation of the original (i.e. direct) and reported (i.e. indirect) utterances, the personal pronouns need to be changed. This change, which is referred to as **PRONOUN SHIFT**, requires the shift of first and second personal pronouns to third personal pronouns: cf.

- (44) a. "I'll behave myself," he promised. ⇒  
b. He promised [that he would behave himself].
- (45) a. "I like your car," she told Carl. ⇒  
b. She told Carl [that she liked his car].
- (46) a. "You should behave yourself," she told Jim. ⇒  
b. She told Jim [that he should behave himself].

Demonstrative pronouns have to be changed in moving from direct into indirect speech (**this** becomes **that** and **these** becomes **those**): cf.

- (47) a. "I cannot continue to live in this flat," complained Maysoon. ⇒  
b. Maysoon complained [that she could not continue to live in that flat].



### EXERCISE (6)

Change the direct quotes into reported (indirect) speech making any necessary changes in (i) tense, (ii) adverbials, and (iii) pronouns and demonstratives. Notice that some of the examples are taken from this section.

1. a. Anne said, "I want an apple." ⇒  
b. Anne said .....
2. a. Anne told us, "I have resigned." ⇒  
b. Anne told us .....
3. a. Anne explained to Bill, "I don't mean to hurt you." ⇒  
b. Anne explained to Bill .....
4. a. Jane complained, "The radio is too loud." ⇒  
b. Jane complained .....
5. a. Bill said, "I'm really tired." ⇒  
b. Bill said .....
6. a. They allege, "Generals never retire; they merely fade away." ⇒  
b. They allege .....
7. a. "I have seen nothing," said the old woman. ⇒  
b. The old woman said .....



8. a. Bill said, "I'm staying at a small hotel, but I'm leaving it next week." ⇒  
b. Bill said .....
9. a. Jane said to Max, "You can help me carry the cases." ⇒  
b. Jane asked Max .....
10. a. The director told the student, "You must reach the camp by ten tonight." ⇒  
b. The director ordered the students .....



#### **SAQ (9)**

Define the following terms and provide examples to illustrate them.

1. Sequence of Tense: .....
2. Backshift: .....
3. S-V Inversion: .....
4. Pronoun Shift: .....

#### **SAQ (10)**

Mention three similarities between direct speech (quote) and subordinate clauses. Cite relevant examples.

1. ....
2. ....
3. ....

#### **SAQ (11)**

Mention three similarities between reporting clauses and parenthetical/comment clauses. Cite relevant examples:

1. ....
2. ....
3. ....

### **4.3.3 Reporting Questions, Commands and Exclamations**

All the main sentence types (i.e. statements, questions, commands and exclamations) may be converted into indirect speech. The table below shows the types of clauses that are used in reporting the various types of sentences used in direct speech. Notice that so far we have been dealing with how to report statements.



Sentence Type Direct Speech	Clause Type Indirect Speech
i. Statement	<b>that</b> -clause (finite)
ii. Question/Interrogative	A. <b>If</b> -clause (finite) B. <b>Wh</b> -clause (finite)
iii. Imperative	A. <b>that</b> -clause (finite) B. Subjectless infinitive (finite)
iv. Exclamative	<b>Wh</b> -clause (finite)

Section 4.3.2 above has dealt exclusively with changing statements from direct speech into indirect speech. In what follows we shall provide examples of how the other classes of sentences are converted into indirect speech.

#### REMINDER

All changes in wording discussed above (e.g. Backshift, pronoun shift, etc.) apply to reported (indirect) questions, commands and exclamations.

#### (A) Questions

As well as reporting what people say or think, we can also report a question that they ask or wonder about. The reporting verb most often used for reporting questions is **ask**. Other verbs like **inquire** are also used: cf.

- (48) a. He asked me, "Where are you going?" ⇒  
b. He asked me [where I was going].
- (49) a. She inquired, "How is Tariq getting on?" ⇒  
b. She inquired [how Tariq was getting on].



### POINTER

In changing a question from direct speech into indirect speech, observe the following two points:

- i. Word order in an indirect question is that of an ordinary statement. Thus in (47.a):

Aux S

- a. **Where are you going?** becomes

S Aux

- b. **Where I was going.**

- ii. The indirect question, unlike the direct one, does not begin with a capital letter and does not end with a question mark.

#### (i) **Yes/No Questions**

When we report a yes/no question, we use an **if**-clause or a **whether**-clause. An **if**-clause is used if the speaker has suggested one possibility that may be true: cf.

- (50) a. A woman asked, "Do you know my name?" ⇒  
b. A woman asked [if I knew her name].

- (51) a. The boss asked me, "Is the work going well?" ⇒  
b. The boss asked me [if the work was going well].

We use a **whether**-clause when the speaker has suggested one possibility but has left open the question of other possibilities: cf.

- (52) a. She asked, "Are the cleaners still here?" ⇒  
b. She asked [whether the cleaners were still there].

- (53) a. I asked Professor Lewis, "Do you like my paper?" ⇒  
b. I asked Professor Lewis [whether he liked my paper].

Sometimes the alternative possibility is expressed by means of **or not**: cf.

- (54) a. She asked me, "Do you want to stay at a hotel?" ⇒  
b. She asked me [whether I wanted to stay at a hotel or not].

#### (ii) **Wh-questions:**

As you know, **Wh**-questions ask for information, and thus cannot be answered by **yes** or **no**. In reporting a **Wh**-question we use a **wh**-word at the beginning of the reported clause: cf.



- (55) a. Bill asked, "Where are you going?" ⇒  
b. Bill asked **where I was going**.
- (56) a. Sue inquired, "Why are you late?" ⇒  
b. Sue inquired **why I was late**.
- (57) a. She asked, "How do you like the new job?" ⇒  
b. She asked **how I liked the new job**.
- (58) a. He said, "What are you talking about?" ⇒  
b. She inquired **what we were talking about**.

**(B) Orders and Requests**

Direct orders and requests can be reported in the indirect speech by means of a subjectless infinitive clause: cf.

- (59) a. John told Sue, "Wake up!" ⇒  
b. John told Sue **to wake up**.
- (60) a. "Tidy the room at once," I said to Tom. ⇒  
b. I told Tom **to tidy the room at once**.
- (61) a. "Stop all the noise," an officer shouted to us. ⇒  
b. An officer shouted to us **to stop all the noise**.

If an imperative sentence incorporates an explicit suggestion about what someone (not the addressee) should do, we report his suggestion by using a **subjunctive that-clause** with or without **should**: cf.

- (62) a. I suggested, "You should resign at once." ⇒  
b. I suggested **that he (should) resign at once**.
- (63) a. The leader of the union urged, "All restrictions should be lifted immediately." ⇒  
b. The leader of the union urged **that all restrictions (should) be lifted immediately**.

**REMINDER**

When the modal **should** is omitted, the verb remains in the same form (i.e. base/infinitive form). Both constructions (i.e. **should + V** or **Ø + V**) are used.



### (C) Exclamations

As pointed out above, an exclamatory sentence may be converted into indirect speech by means of a **Wh**-question. Consider the following example from Quirk, et. al. (1985: 1030):

- (64) a. "What a brave boy you are!" Margaret told him. ⇒  
b. Margaret told him **what a brave boy he was**.

#### NOTE

In changing an exclamatory sentence into indirect speech, delete the exclamation mark !.



### EXERCISE (7)

Convert the following from direct into indirect speech:

1. a. Ali told me, "I need to talk to you." ⇒  
b. Ali told me .....
2. a. Sami said to me, "I can't read your handwriting." ⇒  
b. Sami told me .....
3. a. Bob said to me, "Are you hungry?" ⇒  
b. Bob asked me .....
4. a. Bob said to Jane, "Have you seen this film before?" ⇒  
b. Bob asked Jane .....
5. a. Max said to Vicky, "Are you going downtown tomorrow?" ⇒  
b. Max aksed Vicky .....
6. a. Bill said to Mary, "Do you live in the dorm?" ⇒  
b. Bill asked Mary .....
7. a. Joyce said to me, "Please come to my party." ⇒  
b. Joyce invited me .....
8. a. My teacher said to me, "You should take another English course." ⇒  
b. My teacher advised me .....
9. a. Bill said to Karen, "Don't touch that hot pot." ⇒  
b. Bill warned Karen .....
10. a. Tom said to me, "I suggest that you should call a doctor." ⇒  
b. Tom suggested .....
11. a. Sue said, "Why are you late?" ⇒  
b. Sue inquired .....
12. a. She said, "How do you like your new job?" ⇒  
b. She asked me .....



## 5. OVERVIEW

Unit Five has dealt with three major types of clauses:

- i. Sentential Relative Clauses
- ii. Parenthetical and Comment Clauses,
- iii. Reporting and Reported Clauses.

The decision to treat these clauses in an independent unit has been motivated by two considerations:

- i. They represent an important aspect of English use, particularly in terms of frequency of occurrence, and thus any serious investigation of the clausal system of English should devote both time and space for these three types of clauses,
- ii. They cannot be discussed under any of the three major categories of clauses (nominal, adverbial and adjectival) and are best treated as special clauses.

## 6. PREVIEW OF UNIT SIX

Unit Six is the last unit in this course. Units One - Five have dealt, in a rather exhaustive manner, with the clausal system in English, embedding and complex sentences. Unit Six rounds up the discussion of non-simple sentences through investigating compound sentences, how clauses are coordinated (and ellipted), and how sentences are connected with each other in discourse.

## 7. ANSWER KEY

### EXERCISE (1)

1. ...., which should make a tremendous difference to the house.
2. ...., which many people find surprising.
3. ...., which is something I'll never understand.

### EXERCISE (2)

1. SRC / preceding sentence.
2. SRC / preceding sentence.
3. NRC/ your secretary (HN)
4. SRC / preceding sentence.
5. NRC / mountainside (HN)
6. SRC / preceding sentence.
7. NRC / five encores (HN)
8. SRC / preceding sentence.
9. SRC / subordinate clause he plays rugby.
10. SRC / predicate of preceding sentence.



### **EXERCISE (3)**

- 1-7 are parenthetical/comment clauses  
8-12 are adjunct adverbial clauses of: place, time, condition, universal conditional, and manner.

### **EXERCISE (4)**

- 1-4 type (1)/like the matrix clause  
5&6 type (2)/as-clause  
7&8 type (3)/what-clause  
9&10 type (4)/infinitive clause  
11&12 type (5)/ING clause  
13&14 type (6)/EN clause  
15 type (7)/if-clause

### **EXERCISE (5)**

1. William said, "My sister is a student."
2. Alice said, "I am hungry."
3. Lewis said, "Grammar is fascinating."

### **EXERCISE (6)**

1. .... that she wanted an apple.
2. .... that she had resigned.
3. .... that she didn't mean to hurt him.
4. .... that the radio was too loud.
5. .... that he was really tired.
6. .... that generals never retire; they merely fade away.
7. .... that she had seen nothing.
8. .... that he was staying at a small hotel, but he was leaving it the following week.
9. .... if he could help her carry the cases.
10. .... to reach the camp by ten that night.

### **EXERCISE (7)**

1. .... that he needed to talk to me.
2. .... that he couldn't read my handwriting.
3. .... if I was hungry.
4. .... if she had seen that film before.
5. .... if/whether she was going downtown the following day.
6. .... if she lived in the dorm.
7. .... to come to her party.
8. .... to take another English course.
9. .... not to touch the hot pot.
10. .... that I (should) call a doctor.
11. .... why I was late.
12. .... how I liked my new job.





# UNIT SIX

## Clause Coordinators and Sentence Connectors



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## 1. INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Preview

This is the last unit in this course and with it we conclude our discussion of **complex and compound** sentences and of the creative phenomenon of **EMBEDDING** which underlies the **CLAUSAL SYSTEM** in English.

As you no doubt recollect, the preceding units have dealt with the major types of clauses in English: **Nominal** (Unit 2), **Adverbial** (Unit 3), **Adjectival** (Unit 4) and **Sentential** (Unit 5). Our discussion of these clauses has primarily dealt with the various types of clauses in terms:

- (i) Status,
- (ii) Syntactic Function,
- (iii) Distribution,
- (iv) Forms (with regard to S),
- (v) Forms (with regard to V),
- (vi) Position, and
- (vii) Susceptibility to Contraction and Displacement.

This unit is meant to complement previous units in the sense that it will deal with other aspects of the clausal system in English and discuss certain syntactic phenomena that relate to the clausal system in general. The most important phenomena that will be discussed are:

- i) Elliptical Clauses, and
- ii) Coordination of Clauses

In addition, this unit will discuss in some detail the phenomenon of coordination and sentence connectors.

By the end of this unit we expect that you will have formed an overall view of the **CLAUSAL SYSTEM** in English, in particular the phenomenon of **EMBEDDING** and the generation of **complex and compound** sentences as well as the major syntactic processes (**transformations**) that apply across the various types of clauses and the principles underlying such processes.

This course is also expected to have deepened your insights into the major **syntactic systems** and subsystems of English and together with what you learnt from **STRUCTURE (1)** equipped you with the necessary tools that you need to describe such systems, in particular the following linguistic systems.

- (I) The Nominal System,
- (ii) The Verbal System,
- (iii) The Adjectival System, and
- (iv) The Adverbial System.



## 1.2 Unit Objectives

Upon completing this unit, you are expected to:

1. **recognize coordinators and use them correctly,**
2. **recognize how independent and dependent clauses are coordinated,**
3. **recognize the various syntactic processes of ellipsis operating on finite and non-finite clauses,**
4. **recognize the various devices used to and link sentences, and use them correctly.**

## 1.3 Unit Sections

In addition to this introduction and the overview at the end, Unit Six consists of four major sections as follows:

<u>Section No.</u>	<u>Content</u>
2	Coordination and Coordinators
3	Coordination of Subordinate Clauses
4	Elliptical Clauses
5	Sentence Connectors.

Like other units, Unit Six contains numerous exercises and SAQs.

## 1.4 Supplementary Reading

For further details on the topic of this unit, you are advised to consult the following references (See bibliographical details at the end of the book).

1. Alexander, L (1988), pp. 10-12.
2. Allsop, J. (1983), pp. 278-283.
3. Chalker, S (1985), 237-242; 264-270
4. Close, R. (1975), pp. 40-42
5. Frank, M. (1986), pp. 7-15.
6. Kaplan, J. (1989), pp. 268-270.
7. Quirk and Greenbaum (1973), pp. 251-275.
8. Quirk, et. al. (1985), 856-984; 1461-1463.



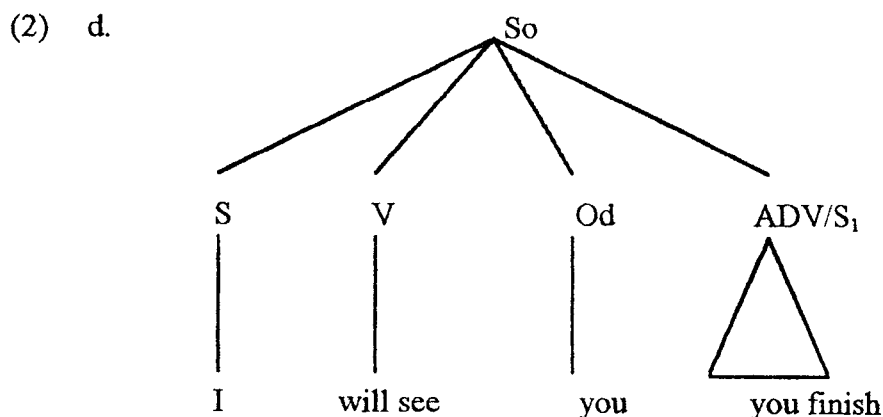






- (2) a. So: I will see you. }  
 b. S<sub>1</sub>: You finish. }  $\Rightarrow$   
 c. I will see you, *when* you finish.

The **complex sentence** in (2.c) can be represented diagrammatically by the following phrase marker:



Notice that the embedded sentence (S<sub>1</sub>) is:

- (i) **not in construction** with So (the matrix sentence); they are not on the same level,
- (ii) **on the same level** as the other constituents of So, namely, S, V, and Od.
- (iii) **a constituent of So**, and hence it is **dependent on** or **subordinated** to it (i.e. matrix sentence or main clause).

The fact that the coordinated clauses in (1.c) above are **equal in rank** can be demonstrated by reversing the two units (i.e. S<sub>1</sub> and S<sub>2</sub>) without a change in meaning. Thus instead of (1.c):

- (1) c. [The girls will cook] *and* [the boys will eat],

we can have:

- (1) e. [The boys will eat] *and* [the girls will cook].

Quirk, et. al. (1985:920) represent this phenomenon in symbolic terms in the following way:

- (3) A + Conjunction + B = B + conjunction + A

They provide the following example:

- (4) a. Mary studies at a university | conj | John works at a factory.  
 b. John works at a factory | *and* | Mary studies at a university.



This possibility is, however, dependent on various considerations, chief amongst which is meaning. Notice, for instance, that while (5.a) is perfectly acceptable, (5.b) is anomalous:

- (5) a. I got into the car *and* I started the engine at once.  
b. ? I started the engine at once *and* got into the car.

In addition, Quirk, et. al. (ibid: 920) cite the following pair of examples, which exemplify the reversal of coordinated clauses, and observe that the two sentences are not synonymous: cf.

- (6) a. [He died] *and* [he was buried in the cemetery].  
b. [He was buried in the cemetery] *and* [he died].

The most important point to remember about **coordinated independent clauses** is that they are equal in rank and that neither of them is a constituent of the other as is the case in subordination, where the subordinate clause is a constituent of the matrix sentence.

## (ii) Structure

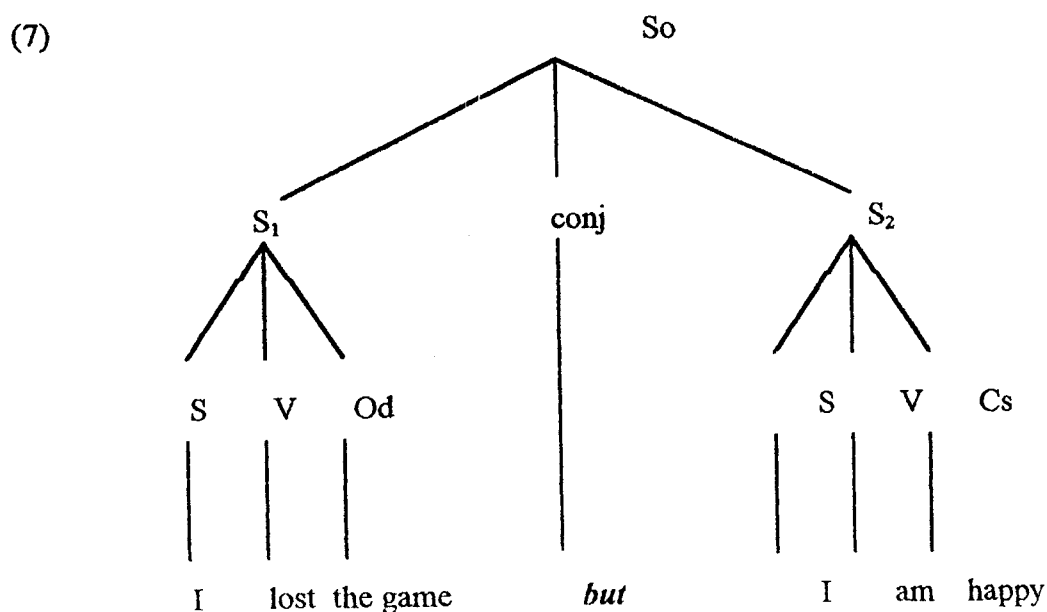
Returning to the two coordinated clauses in (1.c) above, we notice that they have identical structures (i.e. S + V intrans): cf.

- (1) c. 

S	Vintrans
The girls will cook	<i>and</i>

S	Vintrans
the boys will eat.	

The same is true of the two coordinated clauses in (4), both of which have the following structure S + V + ADV. Structure identity is not, however, a condition for clausal coordination. Consider the structure of the two coordinated clauses in the following phrase marker and notice that the structure of the first clause is S + V + Od, whereas the structure of the second one is S + V + Cs:





Finally notice that coordination may be used to link phrases and words. Although we are interested in this section with the coordination of clauses, we shall cite below some examples of phrasal and word coordination: cf.

(i) **NP + NP**

(8) [Some of the boys] *and* [all the girls] take their lunch in the refectory.

(ii) **VP + VP**

(9) Walking [may reduce] *but* [does not eliminate] cholesterol.

(iii) **N + N**

(10) Your [son] *and* [daughter] are here today.

(iv) **V + V**

(11) She has [washed] *and* [dried] the dishes.

(v) **Adv + Adv**

(12) She talked to him [firmly] *but* [respectfully].

(vi) **Adj-P + Adj-P**

(13) He is [very polite] *but* [rather obstinate].

Finally, notice that units larger than the phrase but smaller than the clause (e.g. predicate) may be also coordinated by means of *and* or *but*: cf.

(viii) **Predicate + Predicate**

(14) Bill [ate an apple] *and* [drank a glass of beer].

## 2.2 Coordinators

Most grammarians distinguish three major coordinators in English, namely, (i) *and*, (ii) *or* and (iii) *but*. Other grammarians add the following three correlative pairs: (i) *either....or*, (ii) *both....and*, (iii) *neither....nor*. Still other grammarians consider words like *yet*, *so* and *then* as coordinators.

Following Quirk, et. al. (1985: 920) we distinguish three central coordinators, namely,

- (i) *and*,
- (ii) *or*,
- (iii) *but*



We shall, however, discuss the three correlative pairs listed above as instances of coordinators for two reasons. First, the second element in each pair is a coordinator. Secondly, they are mainly used to emphasize one aspect of meaning usually imparted by the second element in the pair (e.g. **and**).

However, before we proceed to discuss the uses of the three central coordinators (**and**, **or**, **but**) and the three correlative pairs (**either.....or**, **neither.....nor**, **both.....and**), it is expedient to discuss some of the syntactic characteristics of coordinators which distinguish them from other structural items such as **subordinators** and **conjuncts**. We shall, nonetheless, highlight those syntactic features of coordinators as **CLAUSE LINKERS/CONNECTORS**. In this function, **coordinators** bear strong semantic/functional affinities to both **subordinators** and **conjuncts**, for the three types of structural words often perform the same semantic linking function. Consider the following three examples cited by Quirk, et. al. (ibid:921):

- (15) He tried hard, **but** he failed.
- (16) He tried hard, **although** he failed.
- (17) He tried hard, **yet** he failed.

#### REMINDER

The linking words introducing the clauses in the above three examples are:

- i. In (15) **but** is a coordinator.
- ii. In (16) **although** is a subordinator.
- iii. In (17) **yet** is a conjunct.

In view of the above, it is essential that we search for syntactic criteria to distinguish between the three **LINKING DEVICES** instanced in (15-17), namely, **coordinators**, **subordinators** and **conjuncts**. Below is a brief discussion of such syntactic criteria. For more details, the reader is referred to *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* (pp. 921-926).

- i. **Clause coordinators are restricted to clause-initial position:**

The three central coordinators (**and**, **or**, **but**) are restricted to clause-initial position and this makes them distinct from **conjuncts**. Consider the following data:

- (18) a. [The girls will cook] **and** [the boys will eat].  
b. \*[The girls will cook] [the boys **and** will eat].
- (19) a. Sue is a full-time nurse; [**moreover**, she works as a part-time baby-sitter].  
b. Sue is a full-time nurse; [she, **moreover**, works as a part-time baby-sitter].



**NOTE:**

Like coordinators, subordinators are commonly restricted to clause-initial position except in very few contexts: cf.

- (20) a. He tried hard, [*although* he failed].  
b. \*He tried hard, [he *although* failed].
- (21) a. [*Though* he is poor], he is happy.  
b. [Poor *though* he is], he is happy.

(ii) **Coordinated clauses are sequentially fixed:**

Clauses introduced by the central coordinators (*and*, *or*, *but*) are sequentially fixed in relation to the preceding clause. This means that they cannot be preposed to sentence-initial position: cf.

- (22) a. Bill ate the pizza [*and* Sue drank the coke].  
b. \*[*And* Sue drank the coke], Bill ate the pizza.

This feature distinguishes coordinators from **subordinators**, which -in most cases- may be preposed (together with the subordinate clause they introduce) to sentence-initial position: cf.

- (23) a. I'll discuss this matter with you [*when* you are free].  
b. [*When* you are free], I'll discuss this matter with you.

**NOTE:**

Like coordinators, conjuncts cannot be preposed to sentence-initial position: cf.

- (24) a. She sold her house, [*yet* she can't help regretting it].  
b. \*[*Yet* she can't help regretting it], she sold her house.

(iii) **Coordinators cannot be preceded by a conjunction**

Unlike both **subordinators** and **conjuncts**, which can usually be preceded by conjunctions, coordinators cannot be preceded by a conjunction. Consider the following data:

(A) **Subordinators**

- (25) Bill resigned [because his salary was not good *and* because he was not on good terms with his boss].

(B) **Conjuncts**

- (26) Sue was unhappy about the whole thing, [*and* yet she agreed to meet with the company's lawyer].

(C) **Coordinators**

- (27) \*Max washed the car, [*and* but didn't polish it].



(iv) **Coordinators can link clause constituents**

As pointed out above, (cf. examples 8 - 13), coordinators can link phrases as well as words. Subordinators and conjuncts, on the other hand, cannot link predicates and other clause constituents. Witness the acceptability of (28) and the unacceptability of (29) and (30):

(A) **Coordinators**

(28) [Bill washed the car] and [Δ polished it].

(B) **Conjuncts**

(29) \*[Bill was not on good terms with his boss]; *therefore* [Δ decided to resign].

(C) **Subordinators**

(30) \*[Bill wants to resign] *because* [Δ is not on good terms with his boss].

**2.3 The Use of Coordinators**

Before we close our discussion of the main coordinators, it is expedient to discuss, albeit briefly, their uses and the uses of the correlative pairs referred to above.

(i) **AND**

The coordinator **and** is used to express a variety of meaning relations between the clause it introduces and the preceding clause: cf.

A. The second clause is a **result** or **consequence** of the first clause: e.g.

(31) Sue could not find her pen, *and* (she) wrote in pencil.

B. The second clause is a **logical sequent** to the first (i.e. the event described in the first clause happens before the event described in the second clause): cf.

(32) He opened the car door *and* got out.

C. The second clause introduces a **contrast**: cf.

(33) I want to leave *and* (yet) feel obliged to stay.

D. The first clause is felt to have a **concessive** interpretation, in that the event described in the second clause is felt to be somewhat surprising: cf.

(34) She tried hard *and* (yet) she couldn't make it.



E. The first clause is a **condition** of the second: e.g.

- (35) a. Do as you are told, **and** you'll be all right.  
(i.e. If you do as you are told, you'll be all right.)  
b. Do this, **and** you will lose your job.  
(i.e. If you do this, you will lose your job).

F. The second clause is a pure **addition** to the first: cf.

- (36) a. He has long hair **and** (he) often wears jeans.

(ii) **OR**

A. The second clause introduces an **alternative**: cf.

- (37) You can sleep on my floor, **or** you can go to the hotel.

Sometimes the alternative expressed by **or** may be a restatement to correct the information imparted by the first clause:

- (38) He speaks French, **or** perhaps (he) understands it.

B. The first clause implies a negative condition: cf.

- (39) a. Hurry up **or** you will be late for school.  
(i.e. If you don't hurry up, you will be late for school).  
b. Clear off, **or** I will scream.  
(i.e. If you don't clear off, I will scream).

**NOTE:**

The coordinator **and** can be used to link two negative clauses: cf.

- (40) a. She doesn't drink }  
b. She doesn't smoke }  $\Rightarrow$   
c. She doesn't drink **and** she doesn't smoke.

The coordinator **or** may be used instead of **and** in (40.c) since the subject and the auxiliary in the two clauses are identical. When using **or** both the subject and the auxiliary in the second clause are deleted (i.e. S-Aux Deletion). Thus instead of (40.c) we can have:

- (40) d. She doesn't drink **or** smoke.

Below is another example:

- (41) a. We will not pay ransom. }  
b. We will not negotiate with the kidnappers. }  $\Rightarrow$   
c. [We will not pay ransom] **and** [we will not negotiate with the kidnappers].  $\Rightarrow$   
d. [We will not pay ransom] **or** [  $\Delta \Delta \Delta$  negotiate with the kidnappers].



**NOTE**

The symbol  $\Delta$  stands for a deleted element. In (41.d) the three deleted elements are: **we, will, not.**

(iii) **BUT**

The coordinator **but** usually expresses a **contrast**, which can be expressed by **and yet**: cf.

- (42) a. [I'm only 53], **but** [I sometimes feel a hundred].  
b. [I'm only 53], **and yet** [I sometimes feel a hundred].
- (43) [John is poor], **but/and yet** [he is happy].  
(i.e. Although John is poor, he is happy).

**NOTE**

A comma usually precedes **but** and **and yet** as in (42) and (43) above.

(iv) **EITHER.....OR**

The correlative pair **either.....or** emphasizes the general meaning commonly imparted by the coordinator **or**. Consider the following example from Quirk, et. al (1985:936):

- (44) **Either** the room is too small **or** the piano is too large.

(v) **BOTH.....AND**

The correlative pair **both.....and** emphasizes the **additive** meaning of the coordinator **and**: cf.

- (45) [Jack **both** loves Sally] **and** [  $\Delta$  wants to marry her].

Notice that the use of **both.....and** neutralizes other possible meanings of **and** (e.g. **consequential** or **sequent** relations). For instance, in the following example the event



in the second clause may be interpreted as a consequence of the state described in the first clause, which is not the case in (45): cf.

(46) [Jack loves Sally] **and** [Δ wants to marry her].

(vi) **NEITHER.....NOR**

The correlative pair **neither.....nor** replaces two instances of negation in two coordinated clauses, one instance of negation in each clause: cf.

- (47) a. Jack **doesn't** love Sally.  
b. Jack **doesn't want** to marry her. } ⇒  
c. [Jack **doesn't** love Sally] **and** [(he) **doesn't want** to marry her]. ⇒  
d. [Jack **neither** loves Sally], **nor** [wants to marry her].

However, while the coordinator **and** in (47.c) seems to imply a **consequential** relation (i.e. the second clause is a consequence of the first), the correlatives **neither.....nor** do not.

**USAGE NOTES:**

1. Sometimes, in writing, two clauses can be made in one sentence without a coordinator being used. Instead, a semicolon or a dash is put between the first and the second clause. This is one way of expressing two statements in one sentence: cf.

- (48) a. The neighbours drove by. }  
b. They couldn't bear to look. } ⇒  
c. [The neighbours drove by]; [they couldn't bear to look].

2. In writing, we can sometimes begin a sentence (**not a clause**) with a coordinator. We do this to make the sentence seem more dramatic or forceful. Consider the following authentic examples cited in *Collins COBUILD English Grammar* (p. 376):

- (49) a. The villagers had become accustomed to minor earth tremors. **But** everyone knew that something unusual had woken them on Monday.  
b. Do you think there is something wrong with her. **Or** do you just not like her?  
c. Send him ahead to warn Eric. **And** close that door.





### SAQ (1)

Fill in the blanks with appropriate coordinators.

1. He opened the car door \_\_\_\_\_ got out.
2. Do as you are told, \_\_\_\_\_ you'll be safe.
3. Clear off, \_\_\_\_\_ I will scream.
4. She doesn't drink \_\_\_\_\_ smoke.
5. John is poor, \_\_\_\_\_ he is happy.
6. Jack both loves Sally \_\_\_\_\_ wants to marry her.
7. Jack \_\_\_\_\_ loves Sally, nor wants to marry her.
8. Hurry up, \_\_\_\_\_ you will be late for school.



### SAQ (2)

Mention four syntactic characteristics of coordinators. Cite relevant examples.



### SAQ (3)

Mention four different uses of the coordinator **and**. Cite relevant examples.



### SAQ (4)

Mention (with examples) two syntactic differences between subordinators and coordinators.

## **3. COORDINATION OF SUBORDINATE CLAUSES**

Section 2 above has dealt with the coordination of complete independent clauses, for, as pointed out above, the coordinators **and**, **or** and **but** coordinate clauses that are equal in importance and linguistic status.

### **COORDINATING MORE THAN TWO CLAUSES**

Coordinators can link more than two independent clauses. Consider these examples cited by Quirk, et. al. (1985: 925 & 926):

- (i) [The battery may be disconnected], **or** [the connection may be loose], **or** [the bulb may be faulty].
- (ii) [John played football], **and** [Mary played tennis], **but** [Alice stayed at home].



The two coordinated independent clauses (i.e. clause 1 and clause 2) are often referred to as **CONJOINS**. Below are some more examples of **coordinated independent clauses**:

- (1) a. [I came here in 1972] **and** [I have lived here ever since].
- b. [They don't need to know all the answers] **but** [they need to know how to find out the answers].
- c. [Don't put anything plastic in the oven], **or** [it will probably start melting].

Like independent clauses, dependent clauses may be coordinated, as long as they belong to the same **FUNCTION CLASS** (i.e. **NOMINAL**, **ADVERBIAL**, **ADJECTIVAL**). Below are some illustrative examples:

### 3.1 Coordinate Nominal Clauses

#### Examples

- (2) a. I know [that he is honest] **and** [that we do need him]. (that-clause + that-clause)
- b. I didn't know [who she was] **or** [what she wanted]. (Wh-clause + Wh-clause)
- c. She enjoys [watching horror films] **and** [reading science fiction]. (ING clause + ING clause)
- d. I want [to have this essay typed out today] **and** [to have it sent to the magazine before 5 p.m.]. (Infinitival + Infinitival)

#### NOTES:

A. Sometimes the infinitive marker **to** is omitted in the second infinitival clause: cf.

- (3) Soldiers tried [to clear road obstructions] **and** [Δ remove flags and anti-government posters].

B. If two nominal clauses are **IDENTICAL** except for their subordinators/conjunctions, one of the clauses may be omitted, normally the first one, as a result of coordination: cf.

- (4) a. I don't know [why he destroyed the files] **and** [when he destroyed the files]. ⇒
- b. I don't know [why] **and** [when] he destroyed the files.

C. It is not possible to coordinate a **FINITE** nominal clause with a **NON-FINITE** one.

Witness the unacceptability of the following sentences:

- (5) a. \*I still remember [that Bill was there] **and** [his father being there]. (that-clause + gerundial).



- b. \*They reported [that the accident had taken place at 10 p.m.] *and* [all the passengers to have died]. (that-clause + infinitival)

D. It is not also possible to coordinate non-finite clauses whose main verb is different. For instance, it seems impossible to coordinate an infinitival nominal clause with an ING nominal clause: cf.

- (6) a. \*Hani likes [*going to the races*] *and* [*to bet on the horses*].  
b. \*Fatima tried [*getting up early*] *and* [*to go for a walk*].

#### REMINDER

The verbs like and try in (6) above may be followed by both gerundial and infinitival nominal clauses: cf.

- i. Sue tried *to lock* the door.  
ii. Sue tried *locking* the door.

Thus the unacceptability of (6.a) and (6.b) is due to the fact that infinitival and gerundial nominal clauses cannot be normally coordinated with each other.

### 3.2 Coordinate Adverbial Clauses

#### **Examples**

- (7) a. [If you pass the exam] *and* [if no one else applies], we shall give you a grant.  
(adverbial if-clause + adverbial if-clause)  
b. We pay you [*to treat people*] *and* [*not to interrogate them*].  
(infinitive adverbial + infinitive adverbial)  
c. The mother lay on the bed [*gazing at the child*] *and* [*smiling at him*].  
(ING adverbial + ING adverbial)

#### **NOTES:**

- i. Nonfinite adverbial clauses are unlikely to be coordinated with finite ones. Witness the acceptability of the first sentence and the unacceptability of the second one in the following pairs:

- (8) a. He went to London [*to visit his mother*] *and* [*to consult with his lawyer*].  
(NF adverbial + NF adverbial)  
b. \*He went to London [*in order that he may visit his mother*] *and* [ (in order) to consult with his lawyer]. (F adverbial + NF adverbial).



- (9) a. [As it was raining] *and* [as the referee was not in a good mood], the match had to be postponed. (F + F)  
 b. ? [As it was raining], *and* [the referee not being in a good mood], the match had to be postponed. (F + NF)
- ii. Finite adverbial clauses introduced by different subordinators and expressing different meanings (e.g. time, purpose, etc.) are unlikely to be coordinated with each other.

Consider the following data:

- (10) a. Mary looks after the children | while I go to Oxford. (Time)  
 b. | because she likes them. (Reason)  
 c. \*Mary looks after the children [while I go to Oxford] *and* [because she likes them]. (Time + Reason)
- (11) a. I won't see you | before you go to lunch. (Time)  
 b. | unless you apologise. (Condition)  
 c. \*I won't see you [before you go to lunch] *and/or* [unless you apologise]. (Time + Condition).
- iii. Finite adverbial clauses having the same form (except for the subordinator) may be coordinated. However, it is customary in this case to omit one of the two clauses and retain the subordinate: cf.
- (12) a. I'll let you know | if I hear from them. }  
 b. | when I hear from them. } ⇒  
 c. I'll let you know [if I hear from them] *and* [when I hear from them]  
 ⇒  
 d. I'll let you know [if] *and* [when] I hear from them.

### 3.3 Coordinate Adjectival Clauses

Finite adjectival clauses (i.e. relative clauses) can be coordinated with each other freely if they are introduced by the same relative pronoun: cf.

- (13) a. Bill was dying to talk to the girl | who was sitting in the corner.  
 b. | who had smiled at him.  
 c. Bill was dying to talk to the girl [who was sitting in the corner] *and* [who had smiled at him].

It is not normal, however, for a finite adjectival clause (i.e. relative clause) to be coordinated with a non-finite adjectival clause (e.g. ING clause). Witness the doubtful acceptability of (14.c) and (15.c) below:



- (14) a. Bill was longing to talk to the girl | sitting in the corner.  
 b. | who had smiled at him.
- c. ? Bill was longing to talk to the girl [sitting in the corner] *and* [who had smiled at him]. (ING clause + F relative clause)
- (15) a. Sam is the right man | who can cool their zeal.  
 b. | to negotiate with them.
- c. \*Sam is the right man [who can cool their zeal] *and* [to negotiate with them]. (relative clause + infinitive adjectival clause).

?

### SAO (5)

Coordinate the subordinate clauses in the following pairs of sentences. All the examples are taken from this section. Check your answers against the relevant examples in this section.

1. a. I know | that he is honest. }  
 b. | that we do need him. } ⇒  
 c. ....
2. a. She enjoys | watching horror films. }  
 b. | reading science fiction. } ⇒  
 c. ....
3. a. I don't know | who she was. }  
 b. | what she wants. } ⇒  
 c. ....
4. a. If you pass the exam, | we shall give you a grant. }  
 b. If no one else applies, | } ⇒  
 c. ....
5. a. We pay you | to treat people. }  
 b. | not to interrogate them. } ⇒  
 c. ....
6. a. Sam is the right man | who can cool their zeal. }  
 b. | who can negotiate with them. } ⇒  
 c. ....



?

#### SAQ (6)

Delete one of the two coordinate subordinate clauses retaining just the subordinator/conjunction. Check your answers against the relevant examples in this section.

1. a. I'll let you know [when I hear from them] *and* [if I hear from them]. ⇒  
b. ....
2. a. I don't know [why he destroyed the files] *and* [when he destroyed the files].  
⇒  
b. ....

?

#### SAQ (7)

Delete the subordinator/conjunction in the second clause.

1. a. Soldiers tried [to clear road obstructions] *and* [to remove flags and anti-government posters].  
b. ....

### 4. ELLIPTICAL CLAUSES

#### 4.1 Ellipsis in Coordinate Clauses

When clauses are coordinated by *and*, *or*, or *but*, the second clause is often reduced/contracted through the deletion of some instances of repetition: cf.

- (1) a. Frank worked hard. }  
b. He became a linguist. } ⇒  
c. [Frank worked hard], *and* [ (he) became a linguist].

In (1.c) the subject of the second clause (i.e. *he*) may be optionally deleted because it is coreferential with the subject of the first clause (i.e. *Frank*). Below are some more examples of *S-Deletion* in the second clause:

- (2) a. [He opened the door], *and* [ Δ got out].  
b. [Linda fell off her bike], *but* [ Δ was unhurt].  
c. [He took her hands from her eyes] *and* [ Δ led her towards the house].  
d. [Jack loves Mary] *and* [ Δ wants to marry her].

Sometimes, as we have seen above, both the subject and the auxiliary in the second clause are ellipted: cf.

- |        |   |     |                        |
|--------|---|-----|------------------------|
|        | S   | Aux |                        |
| (3) a. | Margaret  | is  | selling her bicycle. } |
| b.     | Margaret  | is  | buying a car. } ⇒      |
| c.     | [Margaret is selling her bicycle] <i>and</i> [ Δ Δ buying a car]. |     |                        |



- |  |     |                         |
|--|-----|-------------------------|
| S  | Aux |                         |
| (4) a. The boss  | may | arrive tonight. }       |
| b. The boss  | may | ask for the report. } ⇒ |
| c. [The boss may arrive tonight] <i>and</i> [ Δ Δ ask for the report]. |     |                         |

Sometimes, ellipsis in the second clause involves more than two constituents:  
cf.

(i) **S + AUX + ADV Deletion**

- |   |      |         |                        |
|---|------|---------|------------------------|
| S   | Aux  | ADV     |                        |
| (5) a. They   | have | already | finished their work. } |
| b. They   | have | already | gone home. } ⇒         |
| c. [They have already finished their work] <i>and</i> [ Δ Δ Δ gone home]. |      |         |                        |

(ii) **S + Aux(1) + Aux(2) Deletion**

In this case both the subject and the two auxiliaries in the VP in the second clause are deleted: cf.

- |   |     |      |          |                       |
|---|-----|------|----------|-----------------------|
| S   | Aux | Aux  |          |                       |
| (6) a. Sue  | has | been | watching | films at night. }     |
| b. Sue  | has | been | playing  | cards at daytime. } ⇒ |
| c. [Sue has been watching films at night] <i>and</i> [ Δ Δ Δ playing cards at daytime]. |     |      |          |                       |

(iii) **S + VP Deletion**

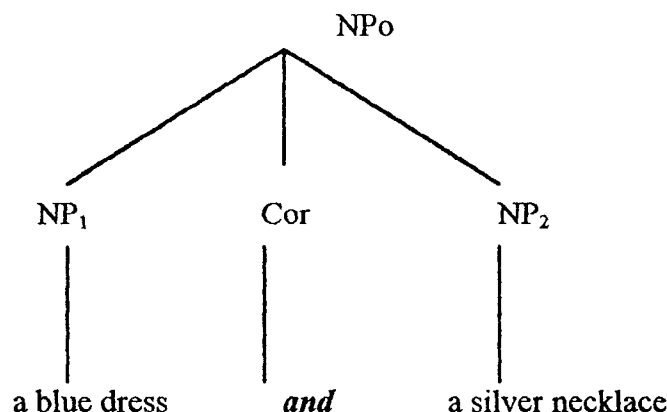
Sometimes both the subject and the entire VP in the second clause are deleted:  
cf.

- |   |            |                        |
|---|------------|------------------------|
| S   | VP         |                        |
| (7) a. She  | has bought | a blue dress. }        |
| b. She  | has bought | a silver necklace. } ⇒ |
| c. [She has bought a blue dress] <i>and</i> [ Δ Δ Δ a silver necklace]. |            |                        |

It may be argued that (7.c) does not result from the coordination of the two simple sentences in (7.a) and (7.b) and that what we have in (7.c) is in fact a case of two coordinated NPs: cf.



(8)



However, many grammarians consider ellipsis as a relation of systematic correspondence between sentences not phrases.

#### 4.2 Ellipsis in Subordinate Clauses

The cases of ellipsis discussed above relate to complete independent clauses (i.e. coordinated clauses). Subordinate clauses, as we have seen in Units (2-5) above also undergo different types of ellipsis: e.g. S + Aux Deletion; S + V Deletion; Subordinator Deletion; Modal Deletion, etc.). In what follows we shall briefly revise with you the major types of ellipsis (in subordinate clauses) that have been discussed above and briefly discuss other types of ellipsis that we have not discussed in previous units.

##### A. Subject Complement Deletion

- |     |                              |     |           |
|-----|------------------------------|-----|-----------|
|     | S                            | V   | Cs        |
| (9) | a. I'm happy [if you         | are | happy]. ⇒ |
|     | b. I'm happy [if you are Δ]. |     |           |
|     | c. I'm happy if you are.     |     |           |

##### B. Adverbial Deletion

- (10) a. His father was at Oxford [when Harold Wilson was at Oxford].  
b. His father was at Oxford [when Harold Wilson was Δ Δ].  
c. His father was at Oxford when Harold Wilson was.

##### C. NF Part of the VP + Adverbial Deletion

- (11) a. Jane is not playing today [because her boyfriend isn't playing today]  
⇒  
b. Jane is not playing today [because her boyfriend isn't Δ Δ].  
c. Jane is not playing today because her boyfriend isn't.



#### D. Clause Deletion/Ellipsis

Sometimes ellipsis involves the deletion of the entire clause or the whole clause except for an introductory word (e.g. the *wh*-word). Consider how a *wh*-clause gets ellipited in the following example:

- (12) a. Someone has eaten my porridge, *but* I do not know [who has eaten my porridge] ⇒  
b. Someone has eaten my porridge, *but* I do not know [who Δ Δ Δ Δ].
- (13) a. Someone has hidden my book, *but* I do not know [where he has hidden my book] ⇒  
b. Someone has hidden my book *but* I do not know [where Δ Δ Δ Δ Δ].
- (14) a. I am prepared to meet them [when they like] and [where they like]: ⇒  
b. I am prepared to meet them [when Δ Δ] and [where they like].

Like a *wh*-clause, an infinitival nominal clause may be ellipited leaving behind as indicator an introductory word (i.e. the infinitive marker *to*) or nothing: cf.

- (15) a. You can borrow my car, if you want [to borrow it] ⇒  
b. You can borrow my car, if you want [to Δ Δ].  
OR  
c. You can borrow my car, if you want [Δ Δ Δ].

Below are some examples of the main types of ellipsis in subordinate clauses that were discussed in previous units.

##### (i) S + Aux Deletion

- (16) a. [While 

S	Aux
I	was

 walking by the seaside], I saw a huge crocodile. ⇒  
b. [While Δ Δ walking by the seaside], I saw a huge crocodile.

- (17) a. When 

S	Aux
it	is

 looked at from this angle], the situation seems different. ⇒  
b. [When Δ Δ looked at from this angle], the situation seems different.

##### (ii) S + V Deletion

- (18) a. [While 

S	V
he	was

 at Cambridge], he was active in politics. ⇒  
b. [While Δ Δ at Cambridge], he was active in politics.



- (19) a. [Though 

S	V
---	---

 he was very ill], Phil went on teaching.  $\Rightarrow$   
 b. [Though  $\Delta \Delta$  very ill], Phil went on teaching.

(iii) **V-Deletion**

- (20) a. [Being one of the wealthiest men in the city], Jack donated a large sum of money to the city council.  $\Rightarrow$   
 b. [ $\Delta$  One of the wealthiest men in the city], Jack donated a large sum of money to the city council.

(iv) **Subordinator Deletion**

From (16.b) above we get (16.c) and from (17.b) we get (17.c) through deleting the subordinator (while and when respectively): cf.

- (16) c. **Walking by the seaside**, I saw a huge crocodile.  
 (17) c. **Looked at from this angle**, the situation seems different.



**EXERCISE (1)**

Join the first and the second sentence by means of **and**, deleting whatever elements you can from the second clause.

1. a. The boss took a dislike to us. }  
 b. He didn't attempt to conceal it. }  $\Rightarrow$   
 c. ....
2. a. She looked at him disdainfully. }  
 b. She went on with her telephone conversation. }  $\Rightarrow$   
 c. ....
3. a. He threw himself from his horse. }  
 b. He lay still as if he had been shot. }  $\Rightarrow$   
 c. ....
4. a. She read **Oliver Twist**. }  
 b. She wrote an essay on it. }  $\Rightarrow$   
 c. ....
5. a. Come over to my place. }  
 b. We can play chess. }  $\Rightarrow$   
 c. ....





### EXERCISE (2)

Join the first and the second sentence by means of **or**, **and** or **but** deleting whatever elements you can from the second clause.

1. a. Jack was illiterate. }  
b. He made a fortune on the stock market. } ⇒  
c. ....
2. a. I asked if I could borrow her car. }  
b. She refused. } ⇒  
c. ....
3. a. The boys shouted. }  
b. They rushed forward. } ⇒  
c. ....
4. a. June had to go into town. }  
b. She wanted to go to Oxford Street. } ⇒  
c. ....
5. a. She was born in Swansea. }  
b. She was raised in Liverpool. } ⇒  
c. ....
6. a. I'm only 65. }  
b. I feel a hundred. } ⇒  
c. ....
7. a. It costs quite a lot. }  
b. It is worth it. } ⇒  
c. ....
8. a. Was the mine laid in the harbour. }  
b. Did it drift from the Gulf of Mexico? } ⇒  
c. ....
9. a. Go by train. }  
b. You'll get there quicker. } ⇒  
c. ....
10. a. One soldier was killed. }  
b. Another soldier was wounded. } ⇒  
c. ....
11. a. He gained a B in English. }  
b. He now plans to study Arabic. } ⇒  
c. ....



### EXERCISE (3)

Apply one of these transformations to the subordinate clauses in the examples that follow:

- (i) S + Aux Deletion
- (ii) S + V Deletion
- (iii) S-Deletion + V-Participialization
- (iv) Subordinator Deletion



1. Janet, who was glancing at us, refused to speak. ⇒  
.....
2. Any student who doesn't have a valid I.D. cannot take the exam. ⇒  
.....
3. Any case that is reported to this office will be treated seriously. ⇒  
.....
4. While he was having his lunch, Bill had a serious heart attack. ⇒  
.....
5. The man who is near the door is my uncle. ⇒  
.....
6. As she did not know what to do, Sue began to cry. ⇒  
.....

?

#### **SAQ (8)**

Give examples of the following:

1. Coordinate Finite Nominal Clauses .....  
.....
2. Coordinate NF Nominal Clauses .....  
.....
3. Coordinate Finite Adverbial Clauses .....  
.....
4. Coordinate NF Adverbial Clauses .....  
.....

### **5. SENTENCE CONNECTORS**

#### **5.1 Clause Connection**

As pointed out in the introduction to this unit, the major objective of this course is to show you how sentences and clauses can be linked to or built into other sentences or clauses to generate complex and compound sentences capable of incorporating complex ideas.

Now, after you have studied the different types of clauses in English, you should be able to explain how clauses are built into other clauses or linked to them. However, the following summary table is meant to give you an overall view of how clauses and sentences are linked together or built into each other to make the transmission and reception of complex ideas possible, economic and effective.



CI Function & Type	Embedded into	Process	Linked to	Process
1. <b>NOM CI/SUB</b> F, NF, V-less	a. Matrix S b. NP	SUB APPOS (SUB)	NOM CIs APPOS CIs	COOR COOR
2. <b>ADV CI/SUB</b> F, NF, V-less	Matrix S	SUB	ADV CIs	COOR
3. <b>ADJ CI/SUB</b> F, NF, V-less	NP	SUB (MOD)	ADJ CIs	COOR
4. <b>COOR CI/MAIN</b> F	-----	-----	MAIN CI	COOR

(SUB = Subordinate/Subordination; COOR = Coordinate/Coordination)

The generalizations that may be drawn from the facts contained in the above table with respect to how clauses and sentences are joined together to form larger units are:

- (i) Two or more **INDEPENDENT CLAUSES (SIMPLE SENTENCES)** may be linked together (through **COORDINATION** to form **COMPOUND SENTENCES**.
- (ii) A **SUBORDINATE CLAUSE (embedded sentence)** may be **EMBEDDED** into a **MATRIX SENTENCE (or MAIN CLAUSE)** to form a **COMPLEX SENTENCE (through SUBORDINATION)**.
- (iii) A **SUBORDINATE CLAUSE** may realize any of the following functions in the **MATRIX SENTENCE**: S, O, C, ADV. (i.e. **NOMINAL** or **ADVERBIAL**).
- (iv) A **SUBORDINATE CLAUSE (EMBEDDED SENTENCE)** may be a constituent of a **PHRASE**, i.e. it realizes one of the functions in the phrase within which it is embedded: cf. **COMP-NOM**; **COMP-ADJ**; **COMP-PREP**, or **ADJECTIVAL**.
- (v) Like independent clauses, subordinate clauses may be **COORDINATED** with each other.
- (vi) **SUBORDINATION** and **COORDINATION** may be used simultaneously to generate **COMPLEX-COMPOUND SENTENCES**.
- (vii) Clauses are linked to each other as well as to **HEAD WORDS** by means of **SUBORDINATORS**, **COORDINATORS** or **CONJUNCTIONS**.
- (viii) A subordinate clause may be built into another subordinate clause.
- (ix) **SUBORDINATION**, **COORDINATION**, and **TRANSFORMATIONS** generate an infinite number of diverse structures, sentences and utterances.



## 5.2 Sentence Connection

The grammar that you have studied so far (in *STRUCTURE (1)* and *STRUCTURE (2)*) deals with the construction of different types, classes and patterns of individual sentences; that is to say, sentences in isolation. In other words, it does describe how sentences are linked together.

Although most grammars deal with sentences, in the sense that the grammatical description is sentence-based, it is expedient in this last section of the book to look at the major ways and means which native speakers use to link sentences; both in speech and writing.

There are many factors that interact in pointing to links between sentences (in speech and writing). The relation between sentences in a spoken or written text is achieved by **connective devices** that fall into four main categories:

- (i) Pragmatic and semantic implication,
- (ii) Lexical linkage,
- (iii) Prosodic features (in speech) and punctuation (in writing),
- (iv) grammatical/syntactic devices.

Since this is a grammar course, we shall be concerned only with grammatical/syntactic devices for sentence connection. Such syntactic devices are invariably referred to as “**sentence connectors**”, “**linking adjuncts**”, “**transitional words**”, “**logical connectors**”, “**conjuncts**”, “**conjunctions**”, etc. In this section we shall use the term “**sentence connector**” or “**conjunct**”.

The function of sentence connectors is to reinforce, clarify or explicate the intended meaning relationship between sentences that co-occur with each other. The basic assumption in this regard is that consecutive sentences in a text cannot form a **coherent unit** (e.g. paragraph) unless they are logically connected in meaning. This explains why some grammarians refer to syntactic devices that link sentences as “**logical connectors**”. Consider the following two pairs of sentences and notice that there is semantic relatedness between the two sentences in the first pair, but there is no such relationship in the second pair:

- (1) a. Hani wants to study philosophy.  
b. His father wants him to study medicine.
- (2) a. Hani wants to study philosophy.  
b. His father wants him to wash the dishes.

The meaning relationship between the two sentences in (1) above may be highlighted by means of a connector that reinforces or clarifies this meaning relationship: (e.g. **but**, **however**,): cf.

- (1) c. Hani wants to study philosophy. **But** his father wants him to study medicine.  
d. Hani wants to study philosophy. **However**, his father wants him to study medicine.



Returning to the two sentences in (2) above, we notice that it is not easy to establish a logical relationship between them, even if we link them together by means of a connector. Witness the oddity of the following sentence:

- (2) c. ? Hani wants to study philosophy. **However/But**, his father wants him to wash the dishes.

By way of further exemplification, let us examine the meaning relationship (if any) between the sentences in each of the following pairs:

- (3) a. Peter doesn't really like medicine.  
b. Peter intends to become a doctor.  
(4) a. Peter doesn't really like medicine.  
b. The weather is awful today.

Notice again that while it is possible to link the two sentences in (3), one cannot think of any possible meaning relation between (4.a) and (4.b): cf.

- (3) c. Peter doesn't really like medicine. **Nevertheless**, he intends to become a doctor.  
(4) c. ? Peter doesn't really like medicine. **Nevertheless**, the weather is awful today.

Before we proceed to discuss sentence connectors, study this text carefully and pay special attention to the words in *italics*. Ask yourself about the role of each word. The type of questions that you ask yourself are:

- i. Is this word absolutely necessary?
- ii. Does it refer to a preceding/following item in the text?
- iii. Does it explain something?
- iv. Some of these words are not compulsory (from a syntactic point of view). Can we delete such words?

Henry VIII was King of England from 1509 till his death in 1549. **He** was a very intelligent and educated and a most powerful king. **For example**, he was able to put most of his enemies - and two of his wives - into the Tower of London. **They** usually stayed there until their heads were cut off.

Henry wanted his family to rule England after his death so he needed a son. **That** was one of the reasons for his many wives.



First, in 1509, Henry married Catherine of Aragon. She was a very religious woman, but she gave him only a daughter, and no son. So Henry divorced her. Next, he married Ann Boleyn in 1533. She was a very pretty brunette. However, she didn't have any sons either. So Henry found a reason to put her in the Tower. Then, in 1536, Henry married Jane Seymour, a kind, quiet woman. She finally gave Henry a son and he later became Edward VI. Unfortunately Jane Seymour herself died in 1537.

## QUESTIONS

### FIRST PARAGRAPH

1. How many linking/reference words are there in the first paragraph?  
What is the function of each word?
  - A. **He** : refers back to **Henry VIII** in the preceding sentence.
  - B. **For example** : exemplification of the power of Henry VIII.
  - C. **They** : refers back to **most of his enemies** in the preceding sentence.

### SECOND PARAGRAPH

2. There is only one linking reference word in the second paragraph.  
What is it? What is its function?
  - **That**: refers to the fact that Henry VIII wanted a son in order to rule England after he dies.

### THIRD PARAGRAPH

3. There are ten linking/reference words in this paragraph, which can be grouped into three groups as follows:
  - A. **First, Next, Then,**
  - B. **She, She**
  - C. **So, So**
  - D. **However,**
  - E. **Unfortunately**
4. What connective function does each of these words serve?
5. Link the words in A-E above with the following meanings/functions. They are arranged in the same order (i.e. (i)/A):
  - (i) reference to a N in the preceding sentence.
  - (ii) result
  - (iii) enumeration
  - (iv) contrast/concession
  - (v) comment/viewpoint



Quirk et. al. (1985) talk about three distinct classes of syntactic devices used to connect sentences in speaking and writing: (i) Time Relators, (ii) Place Relators, and (iii) Logical Connectors. In what follows we shall discuss each of these three types, albeit briefly, and provide relevant examples.

### 5.3 Time Relators

Time-relationships between sentences can be signalled by (i) temporal adjectives, (ii) temporal adverbs, and (iii) tense, aspect and phrase.

Three major divisions of time-relationship are often distinguished: (i) **Before** given time-reference, (ii) **Simultaneous with** given time-reference, and (iii) **Subsequent** to given time-reference.

#### 5.3.1 Before Given Time-Reference

##### (i) **Adjectives**

Consider the use of the adjectives **previous** in the second sentence:

- (5) He handed in a good essay. His **previous** essays were not that good.

**Note:**

The adjective **previous** refers to the essays handed before the given time- i.e. that of handing in the good essay.

**PRIOR TO/ ADJECTIVES**

earlier, former, preceding, previous, etc.

##### (ii) **Adverbs**

Consider the use of the adverb **first** in the second sentence:

- (6) I shall explain to you what happened. But **first** I must give you a cup of tea.

**Note:**

The adverb **first** refers to “before explaining what happened.”



### PRIOR TO/ADVERBS

already, as yet, before, earlier, first, previously,  
so far, until now, before then, etc.

#### (iii) Tense

Consider the use of the past perfect in the second sentence in the following example:

- (7) He **telephoned** the police. There **had been** an explosion.

The use of the simple past in the first sentence and the past perfect in the second fixes the time sequence of the information conveyed in the two sentences in (7) (i.e. the explosion took place before the act of telephoning). Even if the order of the two sentences in (7) is reversed, the time-relationship "remains constant (cf. Quirk and Svartvik, 1973:287):

- (8) There **had been** an accident. He **telephoned** the police.

#### 5.3.2 Simultaneous with Given Time-Reference

##### (i) Adjectives

- (9) The death of the president was reported this afternoon on Cairo radio. A **simultaneous** announcement was broadcast from Baghdad.  
(i.e. **simultaneous** with the report of the death of the president on Cairo radio): cf. Quirk and Svartvik, *ibid*: 286).

##### (ii) Adverbs

- (10) She ate an olive and tried to sit still. Nick, **meanwhile**, was talking about Linda.  
("at the same time as").

### SIMULTANEOUS WITH/ADVERBS

at present, meantime, meanwhile, now,  
presently, at this point, etc.



### (iii) Tense and Aspect

- (11) John **was taking** a shower. Alice **was watching** T.V.

The use of past progressive in the second sentence implies that the action of "watching T.V." was simultaneous with the action of "taking a shower".

### 5.3.3 Subsequent to Given Time-Reference

#### (i) Adjectives

- (12) Sam and Sally got married in 1990. The **following** year they were divorced.

(i.e. following the year just mentioned)

Other adjectives that are used in this context are: **later**, **next** (e.g. **next year**), etc.

#### (ii) Adverbs

- (13) He left school at the age of twelve. Four years **later** he was dying to go back to school.

(i.e. subsequent to "leaving school")

Amongst the adverbs that can be used to express this posterior time-relationship are: **afterwards**, **later**, **next**, **since**, **then**, **after that**, etc.

### 5.4 Place Relators

Like time relators, place relators play a part in sentence connection: cf.

- (14) He examined the car. The **front** was slightly damaged.  
(i.e. **front of the car**)
- (15) My wife has been to London several times. I am going **there** next month for the first time.  
(**there** = to London)

Grammatical correlates to **physical location** (i.e. place) are not as numerous as grammatical correlates to **temporal relations**. Distinctions within space (i.e. physical location) tend to be expressed by means of:

- (I) Location-specific lexical items, and
- (ii) Proper Nouns (i.e. place names)

Below is a list of familiar spatial distinctions (cited by Quirk, et. al., 1985:1448). Notice the heavy dependence on lexical items (as opposed to grammatical units/correlates):



### SPATIAL DISTINCTIONS

**within** my apartment, **through** the hall, **into** the kitchen, **inside** the bedroom, **out of** the underground station, **up** Heath Street, New York, **along** the Hudson, etc.

There are, however, certain grammatical expressions that are heavily used to indicate spatial relations in discourse. Amongst these are numerous common adverbs such as: **abroad, above, across, alongside, around, away, back, behind, beneath, beyond, down, downstairs, east, eastward, everywhere, far, here, in, indoors, inside, near, nearby, north, on, opposite, out, outside, through, there, throughout, under, underground, up, uphill, within, etc.**

The following example is self-explanatory (Notice the use of the underlined words/phrases):

- (16) On Thursday evening, I was at the front door talking to a caller. Suddenly we heard a crash and two cars collided just opposite. We hurried across to see if we could help.....

#### **Notes:**

Even out of context, the reader/listener may interpret the spatial relations in the setting as follows:

- i. The phrase **at the front door** will be understood to refer to the main entrance of the speaker's/writer's house or apartment,
- ii. Likewise, **just opposite** is understood to mean "opposite to where the speaker/writer and his caller were standing (i.e. just opposite the front door of the speaker's/writer's house or apartment).
- iii. The adverb **across** means "across the intervening space (of footpath and street).

Where place relators operate in text (discourse) structure, ellipsis is often involved. This is particularly true in the case where spatial relations are expressed by location-specific lexical items. Consider the following examples:

- (17) He examined the car. The **front** was slightly damaged.  
(18) The building was heavily guarded by the police. The windows **at the top** were covered with boards.



The ellipted items in (17) and (18) are of the car and of the building respectively. Sometimes, the ellipted items are not present in the text, but they can be inferred/recovered from the situational context. For instance, the adverb **across** in the following example implies the road: cf.

(19) The traffic lights eventually changed. He walked **across** quickly.

Before we close this brief discussion of place and time relators, it is necessary to point out that textual structure requires firm orientation to both **place** and **time**. The above brief discussion was meant to acquaint you with the types of temporal and spatial relations in a text and how they can be expressed.

### 5.5 Logical Connectors

Quirk et. al. (1985:634) distinguish seven distinct semantic roles for **sentence connectors**: cf.

- |                 |                |                 |
|-----------------|----------------|-----------------|
| 1. LISTING      | 2. SUMMATIVE   | 3. APPOSITIONAL |
| 4. RESULTIVE    | 5. INFERENTIAL | 6. CONTRASTIVE  |
| 7. TRANSITIONAL |                |                 |

**Note:** Some of the examples cited in this section are borrowed from Quirk, et.al. (1985:634-647) and from *Collins COBUILD English Grammar* (1990:422-428).

Before we start our discussion of these semantic roles and the items that are used to express such semantic relations, it is expedient to point out that a connector such as **in addition** may be used to link sentences together or to link parts of a sentence: cf.

- (20) The candidate is a fine teacher, a broadcaster of some experience, and a respected drama critic. **In addition**, she has written a successful novel.
- (21) The candidate has written a successful, lengthy, popular, and **in addition** highly original novel.

In (20) **in addition** links the second sentence to the first one, whereas in (21) it links the adjective phrase **highly original** to preceding adjectives (i.e. **successful, lengthy, popular**). This explains why some grammarians refer to such connecting devices as **CONJUNCTS**. In fact, connectors (or **CONJUNCTS**) may link linguistic units that are very small (e.g. phrases) or very large (e.g. sentences or -even- paragraphs). However, what we are concerned with in this section is how these connective devices are used to connect sentences in discourse.

#### 5.5.1 Listing

Listing is a basic language function which can be further divided into two subclasses (i) **enumerative** and (ii) **additive**.



(i) **Enumeration:**

Enumerative conjuncts (connectors) indicate a listing of what is being said. The following table contains the most frequently used enumerative conjuncts:

<u>ENUMERATIVE CONJUNCTS</u>	
(i)	first, second, third, .....
(ii)	one, two, three,.....
(iii)	in the first place, in the second place,
(iv)	first of all
(v)	for one thing, for another (thing)
(vi)	for a start, to begin with, to start with
(viii)	finally, last, lastly, last of all,

Study the following examples carefully and observe how enumerative conjuncts (underlined) are used:

- (22) Bill Hopkin is well known in this city. First, he has been a member of the city council for many years. Secondly, he writes regularly in our daily newspaper. Thirdly, and far more importantly, he is a football player of national reputation.
- (23) What are the advantages of thermal energy? Firstly, there's no fuel required, the energy already exists. Secondly, there's plenty of it. Finally, it is safe and clean.

The enumerative function does more than merely assign numerical labels to the items listed; it often indicates relative priority (i.e. statements are sometimes listed in ascending order of importance). For instance, the addition of **far more importantly** in (22) above indicates that this final statement (i.e. **he is a football player of national reputation**) marks the end of an ascending order. On the other hand, a descending order may be indicated at the beginning of the series by such expressions as **first and foremost**; **first and most importantly**, etc. Consider the following text which indicates a descending order of importance:

- (24) Using nuclear power has three main advantages. **First, and most importantly**, it causes no air pollution and we do not need to worry about the Greenhouse Effect and acid rain. **Secondly**, nuclear power plants produce much heat than oil- burning plants. **Thirdly**, they use much less fuel.



### (iii) Additive

The “addition” relationship is often conveyed by two subclasses of additive connectors: (i) reinforcing, and (ii) equative.

“Equative” conjuncts include: **equally, similarly, in the same way, likewise, by the same token, etc.** “Reinforcing” conjuncts, on the other hand, include: **also, further, furthermore, moreover, in addition, above all, etc.**

Consider the following examples and notice how the “reinforcing” conjuncts are employed to **add** to the preceding statement and **reinforce** its main thesis:

- (25) His first book was published in 1932, and it was followed by a series of novels.  
He **also** wrote a book on Arabic music. (reinforcing)
- (26) Kuwait’s oil will last for more than 200 years at current production levels.  
**Moreover**, new reserves continue to be discovered. (reinforcing)

Alternatively, a speaker may emphasize that he is adding a fact that **illustrates** the same point as the one he has just made by using an “equative” conjunct such as **similarly, likewise, etc.**: cf.

- (27) Every baby’s face is different from every other’s. **In the same way**, every baby’s pattern of development is different.
- (28) Never feed your rabbit raw potatoes that have gone green - they contain a poison. **Similarly**, never feed it rhubarb leaves.
- (29) There has been no progress in the negotiations between the union and the employers. The union is determined to get more than the employers have proposed. **Equally**, the employers have absolutely no intention of increasing their final offer.

### 5.5.2 Summative

This semantic role is expressed by such conjuncts as **altogether, overall, then, all in all, in conclusion, in sum, to conclude, to sum up, to summarize, etc.** Summation conjuncts indicate that the final part of a unit (e.g. paragraph, argument) is a **generalization** or **summing up** of what preceded. Consider the following examples cited by Quirk and Svartvik (1973:290):

- (30) The techniques discussed are valuable. Sensible stress is laid upon preparatory and follow-up work. Each chapter is supported by a well-selected bibliography. **In all**, this is an interesting and clearly written textbook that should prove extremely useful to geography teachers.
- (31) He lost his watch, his car broke down, and he got a letter of complaint from a customer. **All in all**, he had a bad day.



As can be seen from the above two examples, summative conjuncts/connectors introduce an item which is to be looked at in relation to all the items that have gone before. For instance, the summative conjunct **all in all** in (31) introduces the statement (**he had a bad day**), which embraces all the preceding statements: cf.

- He lost his watch.
- His car broke down.
- He got a letter of complaint from a customer.

### 5.5.3 Appositional

Appositive connectors include: **namely, thus, in other words, for example** (often abbreviated **e.g.** in written English) **for instance, that is** (often abbreviated as **i.e.**); **that is to say, specifically**, etc.

Appositive connectors, like summative connectors, precede an item which is to be looked at in relation to all the items that have gone before. Consider the following examples:

- (32) It is important that young children should see things and not merely read about them. **For example**, it is a valuable educational experience to take them on a trip to a farm.
- (33) Admission to I.C.U. is strictly controlled. **That is**, no one without special permission is allowed in.

The conjunct **for example** in (32) above expresses the content of the preceding item (i.e. statement) in other terms.

### 5.5.4 Resultive

Resultive conjuncts include: **accordingly, consequently, now, therefore, as a consequence, in consequence, as a result, of course, so**, etc. Consider the following examples and observe the use of the two resultive conjuncts **so** and **therefore**:

- (34) Oxford and Cambridge have a large income of their own. **So** they are not in quite the same position as other universities.
- (35) It isn't giving any detailed information. **Therefore** it isn't necessary.

As can be seen from the above two examples, a 'resultive' connector indicates that a statement expresses the consequence or result of what was said before (i.e. in the preceding sentence). Below are some more examples of resultive connectors:

- (36) They don't often use it over the weekend. **So** you can borrow it if you want to.
- (37) They refused to pay the higher rent when an increase was announced. **As a result**, they were evicted from their house.



### 5.5.5 Inferential

Inferential conjuncts indicate a conclusion based on logic and supposition. They include: **otherwise, then, in other words, in that case**, etc. Other markers of inference include **if so, if not, that implies..** etc. Consider the following examples and observe the use of the three inferential connectors **otherwise, then** and **in other words**:

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- (38) The defender should remember to keep a tight grip on the attacker's legs.  
**Otherwise**, his opponent will escape.
- (39) A: Give my regards to Bill.  
B: **Then** you're not coming with me?
- (40) A: I 'm afraid there isn't much I can help you with.  
B: **In other words**, you don't want to be bothered.

### 5.5.6 Contrastive

Contrastive conjuncts express a variety of related meanings. Quirk, et. al. (1985:635) distinguish four subclasses of contrastive conjuncts. The table below includes members of each of the four subclasses:

Subclass	Conjuncts/Connectors
1. Reformulatory	better, rather, more precisely, alternatively, in other words, more accurately, etc.
2. Replacive	again, rather, better, worse, on the other hand, etc.
3. Antithetic	conversely, on the contrary, in contrast, by contrast, in/by comparison, etc.
4. Concessive	however, nevertheless, still, though, yet, in spite of that, after all, all the same, admittedly, of course, etc.

Below is a brief discussion of the four types of contrastive connectors.



### (i) Reformulatory Conjuncts

Reformulatory conjuncts are frequently preceded by **or**: **cf.**

- (41) They are enjoying themselves. **Or rather**, they appear to be enjoying themselves.
- (42) You say you took the book without permission. **In other words**, you stole it.

As can be seen, the statement introduced by a reformulatory conjunct is a restatement of the preceding sentence. This restatement expresses the information (in the preceding sentence) in a more precise, accurate, or frank manner. Thus in (42), the act of taking a book without permission is rephrased as an act of "stealing".

### (ii) Replacive Conjuncts

Like reformulatory conjuncts, replacive conjuncts are frequently preceded by **or**: **cf.**

- (43) I might do it. **Or again** I might not.
- (44) Please suit yourself. You can move in at once. **Or again** you may prefer to do so next week.

A sentence preceded by a replacive conjunct indicates that the speaker is withdrawing an item (i.e. what he has said in the preceding sentence), not to express it better or more precisely (as is the case with reformulatory conjuncts) but to **replace it by a more important one**.

### (iii) Antithetic

An item (a statement) may be contrasted with a preceding one by introducing a direct antithesis.

#### NOTE

The term **antithesis** means the exact opposite; or the placing next to each other of two different statements, facts, etc.

Antithesis is expressed by means of antithetic conjuncts, such as **on the contrary**, **conversely**, etc. Consider the following examples:

- (45) Bill is rather foolish, I'm afraid. **By comparison**, Julie, his wife, is a genius.



- (46) A cut of one quarter in the total wages bill would bring only a five percent saving in the ship's final cost. **By contrast**, the price difference between British and Japanese tankers is now as much as 25 percent.

#### (iv) **Concessive**

Concessive conjuncts (e.g. **however**, **nevertheless**, etc.) signal the unexpected, surprising nature of what is being said in view of what was said before (in the preceding sentence):

- (47) She didn't get the award after all. **Still** her results were very good.  
(48) Her aim is to punish the criminal. **Nevertheless**, she is not convinced that imprisonment is always the answer.  
(49) He has been in office for only a few months. He has, **however**, achieved more than any of his predecessors.

#### **Note:**

Most of the concessive relations signalled by concessive conjuncts can be paraphrased by concessive adverbial clauses. Thus instead of (47), (48) and (49) above we can get (50), (51) and (52) respectively: cf.

- (50) [**Although** her results were very good], she did not get the award.  
(51) [**Although** her aim is to punish the criminal], she is not convinced that imprisonment is always the answer.  
(52) [**Although** he has been in office for only a few months], he has achieved more than any of his predecessors.

#### **5.5.7 Transitional**

Transitional conjuncts serve to shift attention to another topic or to a temporally related event. They include: **incidentally**, **by the way**, **meantime**, **in the meantime**, **meanwhile**, **in the meanwhile**, etc. The following are some representative examples:

- (53) I want to tell you about my trip, but, **by the way**, how is your mother?  
(54) I know that we've got to finish this report by 5 p.m. But, **incidentally**, are we still invited for dinner tonight?

#### **5.6 Other ways of Linking Sentences**

In addition to using logical connectors/conjuncts, English makes use of other devices to link sentences. We have already mentioned some of these devices in our discussion of coordination above. However, we shall list below the major techniques that are used to link sentences (**not independent clauses**) that do not involve the use of the connectors discussed in 5.5 above.



### 5.6.1 The Use of AND

As pointed out above, **AND** may be used to link sentences (i.e. not coordinated independent clauses) to express virtually all the meanings it expresses when used as a coordinator. In other words, **AND** can begin a new sentence. Consider the following authentic example (cf. Quirk and Svartvik, 1973:288), where **AND** links its sentence with several preceding sentences:

- (55) It was a convention where the expected things were said, the predictable things were done. It was a convention where the middle class and the middle aged sat. It was a convention where there were few blacks and fewer beards. **And** that remains the Republican problem.

Below are some more authentic examples from *Collins COBUILD English Grammar* (376, 424):

- (56) Send him ahead to wan Eric. **And** close that door.  
(57) We stayed fifteen miles from Bonar Bridge. **And** we went up to the coast too.

### 5.6.2 The Use of BUT and OR

Like **AND**, the coordinators **BUT** and **OR** can be used to link two sentences (not just two independent clauses). Consider the following authentic examples from *Collins COBUILD English Grammar* (424, 376):

- (58) a. I think it's motor cycling. **BUT** I'm not sure.  
b. The villagers had become accustomed to minor earth tremors. **BUT** everyone knew that something unusual had woken them on Monday.  
(59) Do you think there is something wrong with her? **Or** do you just not like her?



#### **EXERCISE (4)**

Identify the class/semantic role of the sentence connectors/conjuncts in the following examples. Most of the examples occur in this unit.

1. Sami likes to have his coffee with milk and sugar. **On the other hand**, Hani likes to have his coffee black.
2. Gasoline is very expensive in many parts of the world. **In comparison**, it is quite cheap in countries which produce it.
3. You have to be at the airport well ahead of time. **Otherwise**, you may miss your flight.
4. George was told that the dentist was busy to see him that afternoon. **Nevertheless**, he insisted on waiting.
5. Never feed your rabbit raw potatoes that have gone green. **Similarly**, never feed it rhubarb leaves.



6. It isn't giving any detailed information. **Therefore**, it isn't necessary.
7. They don't often use it over the weekend. **So** you can borrow it if you want to.
8. They are enjoying themselves. **Or** rather, they appear to be enjoying themselves.
9. She didn't get the award after all. **Still** her results were very good.
10. I want to tell you about my trip, but, **by the way**, how is your mother?

?

### SAQ (9)

Give examples of the following types of sentence connectors.

1. Enumerative: .....
2. Additive/reinforcing: .....
3. Additive/equative: .....
4. Enumerative/ascending order: .....
5. Enumerative/descending order: .....
6. Summative: .....
7. Appositive: .....
8. Resultive: .....
9. Contrastive/reformulatory: .....
10. Contrastive/replacive: .....
11. Contrastive/antithetic: .....
12. Contrastive/concessive: .....
13. Transitional: .....
14. **AND**/Addition: .....
15. **BUT**/Contrast: .....



### EXERCISE (5)

Fill in the blanks with the most appropriate connector from the list given. Do not use the same item more than once.

in addition    similarly    in contrast    in comparison  
on the other hand    on the contrary    nevertheless  
otherwise    in a few words    in other words    in fact

1. Television can be a bad influence on children's behavior. .... it can be very entertaining and educational.
2. Professor Smith yesterday gave an enlightening talk on the history of the Arabs. .... he was the best speaker so far in the guest lecture series.
3. Commercials on television often get people to buy things which they do not really need. .... salesman often persuade people to purchase products which are not really essential.
4. Some people think that money can buy an education. .... an education can be attained only through hard work and sacrifice.



5. Frequently the meaning of an unfamiliar word can be inferred from the context.  
..... a reader can guess its meaning from the words and the sentences surrounding it.
6. I had two difficult tests on the same day. .... I was able to do well on both of them.
7. Muna had to cancel all the engagements she had made for that evening.  
..... she would not have been able to finish her assignments for class the next day.
8. A university should have dormitories to house students who wish to live on campus. .... it should have recreational facilities so that students can enjoy a variety of social activities.



#### **EXERCISE (6)**

Fill in the blanks with the appropriate connector from the list given. Use each word only once. Add the correct punctuation.

briefly, in a few words, that is, in other words, indeed, in fact, for example, for instance

1. There are several gifted Arab writers. .... Najib Mahfouz and Yousuf Idris are internationally recognized.
2. Professor Harrison is reported to be a good teacher. .... his students say he gives the best lectures they have ever attended.
3. The English language has many onomatopoeic words. .... these are words which resemble the sounds they signify such as bang, click or ping-pong.
4. There is a residence requirement for graduation at most universities.  
..... a student cannot graduate unless he has spent a certain minimum period at the university.
5. It is very convenient to have fully automatic washing machine at home.  
..... for a family where the mother has outside employment it is almost a necessity.



#### **EXERCISE (7)**

Fill in the blanks with the appropriate connector or phrase from the given list. Add the correct punctuation.

in comparison      similarly      likewise      in contrast

1. Some television programmes can have a bad effect on children's behaviour.  
..... the wrong type of reading material can be harmful.
2. Mr. Taylor has many house bills to pay. .... Mr. Roberts is burdened with heavy expenses.



### **EXERCISE (8)**

Fill in the blanks with the appropriate connector from the given list. Add the correct punctuation.

on the other hand      on the contrary      nevertheless      but

1. The neighbours think the woman next door is a sweet old lady. .... she is bad tempered.
2. Peter is afraid of heights. .... he insists on going ahead with flying lessons.
3. Horseback riding is a very exciting sport. .... it can be dangerous.

### **6. OVERVIEW**

This is the last section in the final unit in this book. We hope that you have liked this book and that you have learnt from it what you had expected to learn before starting this course.

Unit Six has dealt with two major issues, namely, **Clause Coordination** and **Sentence Connectors**. We have also tried to link these two syntactic aspects to other aspects that relate to the clausal system in English. The unit has also discussed the phenomenon of ellipsis in both independent and subordinate clauses.

### **7. ANSWER KEY**

#### **EXERCISE (1)**

1. The boss took a dislike to us **and** [Δ didn't attempt to conceal it].
2. She looked at him disdainfully **and** [Δ went on with her telephone conversation].
3. He threw himself from his horse **and** [Δ lay still as if he had been shot].
4. She read Oliver Twist **and** [Δ wrote an essay on it].
5. Come over to my place **and** [we can play chess].

#### **EXERCISE (2)**

1. Jack was illiterate, **but** [he made a fortune on the stock market].
2. I asked if I could borrow her car, **but** [she refused].
3. The boys shouted **and** [Δ rushed forward].
4. June had to go into town **and** [she wanted to go to Oxford Street].
5. She was born in Swansea **and** [Δ Δ raised in Liverpool].
6. I'm only 65, **but** [I feel a hundred].
7. It costs quite a lot, **but** [it is worth it].
8. Was the mine laid in the harbour or [did it drift from the Gulf of Mexico]?
9. Go by train **and** [you'll get there faster].
10. One soldier was killed **and** [another Δ Δ wounded].
11. He gained a B in English **and** [Δ now plans to study Arabic].



### EXERCISE (3)

1. S + Aux Deletion  
..... glancing at us .....
2. S-Deletion + V-Participialization  
..... not having a valid I.D. ....
3. S + Aux Deletion  
..... reported to this office .....
4. S + Aux Deletion  
While  $\Delta \Delta$  having his lunch, .....
5. S + V Deletion  
..... near the door .....
6. Sub + S Deletion + V-Participialization  
Not knowing what to do, .....

### EXERCISE (4)

- |                      |                              |
|----------------------|------------------------------|
| 1. contrastive       | 2. contrastive               |
| 3. inferential       | 4. contrastive/concessive    |
| 5. additive/equative | 6. resultive                 |
| 7. resultive         | 8. contrastive/reformulatory |
| 9. concessive        | 10. transitional             |

### EXERCISE (5)

- |                      |                   |                 |
|----------------------|-------------------|-----------------|
| 1. On the other hand | 2. In fact        | 3. Similarly,   |
| 4. On the contrary   | 5. In other words | 6. Nevertheless |
| 7. Otherwise         | 8. In addition    |                 |

### EXERCISE (6)

- |                   |            |                |
|-------------------|------------|----------------|
| 1. For instance   | 2. Indeed  | 3. For example |
| 4. In other words | 5. In fact |                |

### EXERCISE (7)

1. Similarly/Likewise
2. Similarly/Likewise

### EXERCISE (8)

1. On the contrary/But
2. On the other hand/But
3. Nevertheless



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