# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE OF CONTENTS</th>
<th>2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER ONE: SIMPLE SENTENCES</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sentence parts</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>brief definitions of the names of the sentence parts</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>simple sentences and sentence parts</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER TWO: WORD CLASSES</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>word classes</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>word class analysis</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>membership in multiple word classes</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>phrases</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recognizing the functions of phrases</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sentence parts or parts of sentence parts</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>postmodification and premodification</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>definitions of some word classes</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER THREE: COMPOUND AND COMPLEX SENTENCES</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clauses</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>compound sentences</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coordinating conjunctions</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nesting</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dependent clauses as sentence parts</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>functional classification of dependent clauses</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clause introducers</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER FOUR: FINITE AND NON-FINITE CLAUSES</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>finite and non-finite clauses</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>types of non-finite clause</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER FIVE: ADJECTIVE CLAUSES</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adjective clauses</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>relative pronouns</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronouns or clause introducers?</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>relative pronouns as subjects and objects</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>omission of relative pronouns</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>position of adjective clauses</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>restrictive and non-restrictive adjective clauses</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a catalogue of relative pronouns</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>who' and 'whom</td>
<td>38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>whose: a possessive relative pronoun</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ONE

SIMPLE SENTENCES

These are the terms that will be introduced in Chapter One:

| semantical refer simple sentence sentence part subject object direct object indirect object complement subject object adverbial adjunct disjunct conjunct |

SIMPLE SENTENCES

To understand English sentence structure it is necessary to understand what a simple sentence is. Unfortunately, although simple sentences are simple, understanding them is not always easy. This is not because there is anything really difficult about the sentences themselves; it is because, in the beginning, thinking about language is difficult, sometimes even painful.

Rather than thinking about how we are speaking and writing, we usually prefer just to speak or write. Similarly most people are content to drive cars or use computers without thinking much about how these things work. There is a difference though: Only a few people really understand cars or computers, but, in a way, we all understand language because, we are not only constantly using it, but creating it too — by making sentences that no one has ever used before. So keep in mind, if you have any difficulty with the ideas in these notes, that you already unconsciously understand English grammar and that, in studying it, you are only making your knowledge conscious.
SENTENCE PARTS

- Simple sentences, like other sorts of sentence, begin with capital letters and end with periods, and — once again like other sorts of sentence — simple sentences have parts. We will call these sentence parts.

There are five sentence parts: subjects, verb phrases, objects, complements, and adverbials.

The first letters of these names make an easily-remembered ‘word’: SVOCA

BRIEF DEFINITIONS OF THE NAMES OF THE SENTENCE PARTS

- We can explain subjects from a semantical point of view — that is from the point of view of their meaning — by saying that subjects are words, or groups of words, that typically tell us who or what is doing the action.

From a grammatical point of view, we can describe subjects by saying that they typically come before verb phrases. In the majority of sentences the subject comes at the beginning — although the first sentence part in a sentence is often an adverbial. We can also say that subjects have a nominal or noun-like quality: They are nouns or ‘noun phrases’ or ‘noun clauses’. (These terms will be explained in Chapter Two.)

- Verb phrases defined semantically are words, or groups of words, that typically say what action is being done or what is happening. Speaking grammatically, we can define verb phrases as sentence parts that typically come after subjects and before objects. We can also say that verb phrases, unlike other sentence parts undergo a variety of changes — from the present tense to the past tense, for example, and from the active voice to the passive voice.

Here are a couple of very short sentences that contain only a one-word subject and a one-word verb.

* Susie [SUBJECT] sings. [VERB]
* Jack [SUBJECT] criticizes. [VERB]

- Objects, semantically speaking, are words, or groups of words, that say to whom or what the action is being done. Grammatically defined, they typically follow verbs and they can, in most cases, be made into the subjects of passive sentences.

Susie sings songs. [OBJECT]

Jack plays the piano. [OBJECT]

The passive versions of these sentences are

Songs are sung by Susie.
The piano is played by Jack.

There are two kinds of object, direct objects and indirect objects.

Susie sings Jack [INDIRECT OBJECT] a song. [DIRECT OBJECT]

The indirect object refers to the person or thing to or for whom the action is done. Grammatically speaking, indirect objects can be identified by the fact that they can be transformed into ‘prepositional indirect objects’.

Susie sings a song to Jack. [prepositional indirect object]

Only some verbs can take indirect objects. Some of the most common are: give, take, sell, tell, ask, send, feed.

- There are two types of complement — object complements and subject complements. Semantically speaking, we can say that a subject complement names, or refers to, the same thing that the subject names or refers to; and we can say that an object complement refers to the same thing that the object refers to.

Grammatically speaking, subject complements have two important characteristics: Like objects, they follow verbs, but they can only follow a special class of verbs called intensive verbs, verbs that are used between two words or phrases both of which refer to the same thing. (Be, seem, appear, stay, and become are examples of intensive verbs.)

Susie seems angry. [COMPLEMENT]

Jack became a doctor. [COMPLEMENT]

Object complements are much less common than subject complements and can only appear after a small number of verbs.

They elected Jack [OBJECT] president. [OBJECT COMPLEMENT]

Susie swept the floor [OBJECT] clean. [OBJECT COMPLEMENT]

The following are examples of other verbs which can take an object complement: make, wipe, consider, find, call, name, eat, prefer.

Notice that not only nouns but also adjectives like angry and clean can operate as both subject and object complements. In such cases it is best to think of the complement not as referring to the same thing as the subject but as referring to a characteristic of the same thing that the subject refers to.
4 / Simple Sentences

• There are three kinds of **adverbial**. From our point of view the most important category is the adjuncts. These adverbials provide information about the action referred to by the verb, telling us, for example, when, where, how, or why the action is done.

  *Susie sings in the shower.* [ADVERBIAL, ADJUNCT]
  *Whenever he has a chance* [ADVERBIAL, ADJUNCT] *Jack sarcastically* [ADVERBIAL, ADJUNCT] *criticizes Susie’s singing.*

  Disjuncts, although classified as adverbs, do not refer to the verb of the sentence. They provide information about the speaker’s attitude toward the statement being made.

  *Honestly,* [ADVERBIAL, DISJUNCT] *I have no idea how this happened.*
  *Astonishingly,* [ADVERBIAL, DISJUNCT] *he got the best mark in the class.*
  *In the end they decided not to come, which is just what I hoped would happen.* [ADVERBIAL, DISJUNCT]

  Conjuncts are used to emphasize the logical connections between one statement and another.

  *The next morning, he noticed she was not wearing the ring. Then* [ADVERBIAL, CONJUNCT] *he realized what had happened.*
  *He’s been behaving strangely lately. For example,* [ADVERBIAL, CONJUNCT] *last night he went straight to his room when he came home.*
  *I promised to keep it a secret. Otherwise,* [ADVERBIAL, CONJUNCT] *I would have told you long ago.*

**SIMPLE SENTENCES AND SENTENCE PARTS**

• Now that we know something about sentence parts, we can understand the difference between simple sentences and sentences of other sorts. All sentences, must have at least one subject and one verb; a group of words which does *not* contain a subject and a verb cannot be a sentence. *Many* sentences — including the compound and complex sentences that are the main subject of these notes — have more than one subject and more than one verb but: Simple sentences contain only one subject and one verb phrase.

As well as containing one subject and one verb a simple sentence *may* have an object or a complement and it *may* contain one or more adverbials. There are, however, many simple sentences such as,

*He agreed.*

*I quit.*
which contain only a subject and a verb.

As we have seen, when the first letters of the names of the five sentence parts are put together they spell ‘SVOCA’. The order of the letters in this word also indicates the most common order of the sentence parts: the subject typically comes first, followed by a verb and next, in many cases, an object or a complement. Adverbials most often come at the end of a simple sentence, although they are also found in other positions. We can use the letters of the word ‘SVOCA’ to describe the ‘patterns’ of simple sentences. For example, the sentence

*Little Bo Peep lost her sheep.*

has the pattern S V O. (*Little Bo Peep* is the subject; *lost* is the verb and *her sheep* is the object.)

- There are seven simple sentence patterns. An example of each is given below. In these examples we use the system of marking sentence parts that will be followed throughout the notes. Square brackets ([ ]) will be used to indicate the subject, parentheses (‘( )’) to indicate the verb phrase, and angle brackets (“< >”) to indicate objects and complements. Adverbials will be indicated by underlining. It is important to become familiar with this system as soon as possible. (In the examples, the letters S, V, O, C, and A are also used below the appropriate sentence parts but this is not be done at other points.)

(1) S V C  
[Life]  (is) <mysterious>.  
S       V           C

(2) S V A  
[Jack]  (sat ) on a stool.  
S       V           A

(3) S V  
[The bomb]  (exploded).  
S       V

(4) S V O  
[It ] (killed) <Jack>.  
S       V           O

(5) S V O C  
[The newspapers]  (called) <him > <a brave man>.  
S       V           O     C

(6) S V O A  
[His friends]  (put ) <his books> in the national library.  
S       V           O     A

(7) S V O O  
[The government ]  (gave) <Jack’s wife > <a pension>.  
S       V           O     O
exercise 1-A

ANALYZE THE FOLLOWING SIMPLE SENTENCES BY MARKING THE SUBJECTS WITH BRACKETS ('[ ]'), THE VERB PHRASES WITH PARENTHESES ('( )'), THE OBJECTS OR COMPLEMENTS WITH ANGLES ('< >') AND THE ADVERBIALS WITH UNDERLINING.

THERE ARE TWO IMPORTANT THINGS TO REMEMBER WHEN DOING THIS EXERCISE AND OTHERS LIKE IT:

1) The key to the structure of any sentence is its verb phrase. If you are having trouble, try to find it first.

2) All the words in a sentence must be placed in one or another of the five categories of sentence part. If any words are left out when you have finished, something is wrong.

EXAMPLE: [CONSTRUCTION OF THE RAILWAY] (SHOULD BEGIN) EARLY NEXT SPRING.

(1) The project will feature low-floor streetcars.
(2) The judge found Mr Cornacchia a thoroughly dishonest witness.
(3) Mr Topham is in his office.
(4) The jury overturned the finding of a provisional court.
(5) The police have arrested a suspect.
(6) A psychiatrist gave the man an anti-depressant drug.
(7) Most of the inspectors are retired police officers.
(8) The prime minister sat down.
(9) The unarmed police officers seized ten tons of illegal drugs.
(10) He put his watch in the drawer.

exercise 1-B

ANALYZE THE FOLLOWING SIMPLE SENTENCES BY MARKING THE SUBJECTS WITH BRACKETS ('[ ]'), THE VERB PHRASES WITH PARENTHESES ('( )'), THE OBJECTS OR COMPLEMENTS WITH ANGLES ('< >') AND THE ADVERBIALS WITH UNDERLINING.

(1) Early agrarian societies changed the landscape on a major scale.
(2) Almost all the world’s arable land had been cultivated by the beginning of this century.

(3) By 4100 B.C. humans had laid the foundation for one of the world’s earliest civilizations.

(4) They had irrigated the Euphrates River plain.

(5) They abandoned these lands by 1700 B.C.

(6) Their farming methods destroyed the soil.

(7) Contemporary transportation systems in some countries rival agriculture as a consumer of land.

(8) Rapid population increases drive the search for more productivity.

(9) By burning coal humans have altered the global flow of energy.

(10) Some scientists predict a catastrophic warming of the earth.

exercise 1-C

ANALYZE THE FOLLOWING SIMPLE SENTENCES BY MARKING THE SUBJECTS WITH BRACKETS ([ ]), THE VERB PHRASES WITH PARENTHESES (‘( )’), THE OBJECTS OR COMPLEMENTS WITH ANGLES (< >) AND THE ADVERBIALS WITH UNDERLINING.

(1) Epilepsy surgery is becoming more popular.

(2) Ashkelon was the main seaport of the Philistines.

(3) A channel in the shallow grape-treading basin directs the liquid into collecting areas.

(4) In the next several weeks, scientists are going to blast an 11-pound projectile from a 155-foot long cannon into a California hill.

(5) Light-gas guns resemble conventional guns in many ways.

(6) Cannibalism offers many advantages.

(7) Because of the curvature of the earth, the sun’s path is not at the same angle everywhere on Earth.

(8) Colour places great demands on a computer system.

(9) Changes of fashion rarely happen in a neat or orderly manner.

(10) Part of the new importance of pants is related to the uncertainty about skirt hems.
exercise 1-D

First find the two sentences among the eleven that follow that are not simple. Then analyze the remaining nine sentences in the usual way.

(1) Racism is a fact of life in Canada.
(2) Hundreds of former Newfoundlanders jammed Toronto’s Nathan Phillips Square yesterday to fight for fish.
(3) My friend Louise lives in an old downtown building.
(4) An employee can claim from the assets of a bankrupt firm.
(5) The program will produce about 23,000 more jobs through the creation of day care, space, public works and a non-profit home initiative.
(6) Mulroney is asking Bush to attend the Rio summit.
(7) The grand prize includes round-trip airfare and deluxe hotel accommodation.
(8) The outcome was predictable.
(9) He was knighted for his services to the royal family.
(10) The Hawaiian Islands have an air of unreachable beauty.
(11) We could hear his scream through the door.
TWO

WORD CLASSES

THESE ARE THE IMPORTANT TERMS THAT WILL BE INTRODUCED IN CHAPTER TWO:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>word class</th>
<th>adjective</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>noun</td>
<td>adverb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>count/non-count</td>
<td>pronoun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noun introducer</td>
<td>preposition</td>
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<td>determiner</td>
<td>clause introducer</td>
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<td>article</td>
<td>phrase</td>
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<tr>
<td>verb</td>
<td>noun phrase</td>
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<tr>
<td>lexical</td>
<td>prepositional phrase</td>
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<tr>
<td>auxiliary</td>
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WORD CLASSES

- As we learnt in the last chapter, simple sentences are made up of sentence parts — subjects, verbs, objects, complements, and adverbials.

- Parts of things can themselves have parts. For example, the parts of the human body have parts: Our mouths have teeth and lips; our hands have fingers and fingernails. In a similar way, sentence parts also have parts; these parts are words.

- Words can be classified into eight basic categories; we will call these categories word classes. (They are often called ‘parts of speech’.) Here is a list of the word classes with examples of each category:

  nouns (table, chair)
  noun introducers (the, a, this, both, a little)
  adjectives (large, comfortable)
  adverbs (very, unfortunately)
  verbs (break, running)
10 / Word Classes

pronouns (me, someone)
prepositions (of, between)
clause introducers (and, if)

WORD CLASS ANALYSIS

Just as all the parts of any sentence belong to one or another of the five categories of sentence part, all of the words within these sentence parts belong to one or another of nine categories of word class. Our primary interest in these notes is not in word classes but in sentence parts. Nevertheless, the idea of a sentence part can only be fully understood when the contrast between sentence parts and word classes is understood.

Just as a sentence can be analyzed in terms of sentence parts, sentence parts can be analyzed in terms of word classes. For example, all the sentence parts of the sentence

\[ \text{That fat old man in the big, soft chair} \] (has been) happily (reading) <the newspaper> for hours.

Can themselves be internally analyzed in terms of word classes. (The names of some of the word classes have been abbreviated.)

\begin{verbatim}
hours [NOUN].
\end{verbatim}

MEMBERSHIP IN MULTIPLE WORD CLASSES

It is possible for a word to belong to two different word classes in two different contexts:

\begin{verbatim}
He’s been painting all day.
He’s been working on his new painting all day.
\end{verbatim}

In the first of these sentences painting is a verb. In the second it is a noun. There are many cases of this sort in English. That, for example can be a conjunction, a noun introducer, or a pronoun. The word round can be a noun, a verb, an adjective, an adverb or a preposition.
Before going on to give detailed descriptions of the various word classes, it is
necessary to introduce one more piece of terminology, the word ‘phrase’. A phrase
is a group of words that work together to do one job. For example, the words that
are joined together in a verb phrase ‘do the job’ of the verb of the sentence.
Noun phrases do the same jobs as single-word nouns. They act as the subjects,
objects or complements of sentences.

In fact, only a small percentage of sentences have single-word nouns as their subjects,
objects or complements. There are many such sentences of course:

- Time is money.
- Pandas eat bamboo.

But it is far more common to find a noun phrase — even if it only a very short one
containing nothing more than a noun and an article — in these positions.

Noun phrases can be very short simple groups of words such as the computer
— a phrase that consists only of a noun and an article or they can be long and
complicated groups such as the already outmoded computer that they spent so
much money on. All noun phrases, whether simple or complicated center on a
single noun, called the headword. In the example just given, the headword is
computer.

Noun phrases can contain other sorts of phrases including noun phrases. For
instance, the phrase the already outmoded computer that they spent so much
money on contains the noun phrase so much money.

Adjective phrases — groups of words that do the same job as adjectives
— also have headwords. The following sentence

- He is afraid of his wife.

contains as its complement the adjective phrase, afraid of his wife. The headword is
afraid.

We also refer to any group of words that begins with a preposition as a
prepositional phrase. Typically prepositional phrases

The term prepositional phrase is also used to refer to groups of words that are
introduced with a preposition. Typically the words that follow the preposition
—and make up the bulk of the noun phrase — This classification is not exactly
parallel to the others because, it does not identify a phrase type so much by the job it
does in a sentence as by the kind of word it begins with. Prepositional phrases do
the job either of adverbials or of adjectives. In the first case they are doing the job of
a sentence part, the adverbial; in the second case they are doing the job of a word class, the adjective.

**RECOGNIZING THE FUNCTIONS OF PHRASES**

In many of the sentences we will be analyzing here and in other chapters it will important to be able first to identify prepositional phrases and, second to recognize whether they are doing an adverbial or an adjectival job. Consider these two sentences

*She put the candy in the bowl.*

and

*She ate the candy in the bowl.*

Superficially, the two sentences are identical except for their verbs, but despite their similar appearances, they have very different grammatical structures. This difference results from the difference in the *meaning* of their verbs. However, because of the different *meanings* of the verbs, the prepositional phrase, *in the bowl* must be interpreted as adverbial in the first sentence and as adjectival in the second sentence. One way of putting this would be to say that in the first sentence the phrase gives extra information about the ‘putting’, whereas in the second sentence it gives information about the candy. In these two sentences the meaning of the verb alone forces us to analyze the first sentence in one way, the second in another. There are many other possible sentences however such as

*She kept the candy in the bowl.*

that, taken in isolation could be analyzed in either way. We can say that a sentence like this is *ambiguous*, that it could have either of two meanings. It could mean either that

*She kept the candy that was in the bowl (and threw out the rest.)*

or that

*She put into a bowl the candy that she wanted to keep.*

Given a sentence of this sort we must use the **context** — the surrounding situation or the surrounding words — in order to decide how it should be understood.
SENTENCE PARTS OR PARTS OF SENTENCE PARTS

It is also important to remember in analyzing the sentences in the exercises that sometimes noun phrases, adjective phrases, and prepositional phrases make up entire sentence parts and sometimes they are contained by sentence parts. For example in the sentence

[A man in his thirties] (entered) the office.

the noun phrase, *a man in his thirties*, is the complete subject of the sentence. But in the sentence

[The new manager, *a man in his thirties*,] (entered) the office.

the noun phrase, *a man in his thirties*, is only part of the subject

POSTMODIFICATION AND PREMODIFICATION

The part of a noun phrase that comes after the headword is called the *premodification*; the part that comes after the headword is referred to as the postmodification. For example

*both the large paintings in the upstairs bedroom*

PREMODIFICATION HEADWORD POSTMODIFICATION

DEFINITIONS OF SOME WORD CLASSES:

nouns The traditional way of defining nouns is to say that they are words that refer to persons, places or things. From a more strictly grammatical point of view, we can say that nouns are headwords of the noun phrases that are used as the subjects, objects and complements of simple sentences. (It is also possible to describe nouns as words that can take plurals or words that must be preceded by articles such as *the* or *a*, but it must be remembered that there are many nouns which have no plural form and many which do not take articles.)

noun introducers This class includes a variety of words that can only appear before nouns. It includes several important sub-classes: determiners (articles [*a*, *the*] and demonstratives [*this*, *that*]); predeterminers (words that can occur before determiners such as *all*, *both*, *half* and *twice*); ordinals (*first*, *third*, *next* and *last*) and quantifiers (*fewer*, *less*, *more* and *a lot of*).
verbs

Verbs are the only words that can appear in the verb phrase of a simple sentence. (Verb phrases are unlike the other sentence parts in that all the words they contain must belong to one word class; all the other sentence parts can contain words from every word class.) The main sub-classifications of verbs are auxiliary verbs (which can never exist independently or be the main word in a verb phrase), and lexical verbs (which can exist independently). There is a further important division between two kinds of auxiliary verbs, primary auxiliaries and modal auxiliaries.

pronouns

Pronouns are words that can be used to take the place of nouns. The most important pronouns are the personal pronouns (subject, object, and possessive.) Other categories are reflexive pronouns (myself, yourself), interrogative pronouns (who, what) demonstrative pronouns (this, those) and indefinite pronouns (each, some, any).

adjectives

Adjectives are words that ‘modify’ nouns: they provide extra information about the person, place, or thing the noun refers to. Speaking more ‘grammatically’, we can say that adjectives are words that: like adverbs, can be modified by the adverb very; appear either directly before nouns or as complements to the verb to be; they also have comparative and superlative forms such as more interesting and happiest.

adverbs

Adverbs are single words that can be used as adverbials. Like adverbials, they can be divided into three categories, adjuncts, disjuncts and conjuncts. Most adverbs are formed from adjectives by adding the ‘suffix’ -ly, but there are many important ones that do not end in -ly, for example, now, here, well, often. (Adverbs are also used to modify adjectives as in an extremely sick man.)

prepositions

Prepositions, in their most basic and literal use, are used to indicate relationships of place (in, at), direction (into, away), or time (before, after). Prepositions are often used with verbs, and in many of these cases they must be regarded as part of the verbs they are attached to; these verb-preposition combinations often have very idiomatic meanings. Most prepositions consist of only one word, but a few complex prepositions contain two or even three words (along with, except for, by means of). Prepositions are used to introduce a prepositional phrase and the part of such a phrase, which itself will be a noun phrase, that follows the preposition is called the object of the preposition.
introducers clause introducers are used to join clauses (groups of words containing a subject and a verb). The three major sub-categories are coordinating conjunctions (and, or, but), subordinating conjunctions (after, although, unless and while), and relative pronouns (that, who, which). Coordinating conjunctions and relative pronouns are used to create compound sentences and subordinating conjunctions are used to create complex sentences. The remaining chapters of this text will be concerned with the structure of compound and complex sentences.

exercise 2-A

INDICATE THE WORD CLASS OF EACH WORD BY PLACING ONE OF THE FOLLOWING ABBREVIATIONS IN THE BLANK SPACES: NOUN, N; ADJECTIVE, ADJ; ADVERB, ADV; VERB, V; NOUN INTRODUCER, NI; PRONOUN, PRN; PREPOSITION, PREP; CLAUSE INTRODUCER, CI.

(1) Humans ________ have ________ always ________ exploited ________ nature ________.

(2) We ________ have ________ always ________ thought ________ that ________ the ________ biosphere ________ was ________ infinitely ________ vast ________.

(3) The ________ moment ________ of ________ awakening ________ may ________ have ________ come ________ in ________ the ________ 1980s ________.

(5) People ________ have ________ changed ________ the ________ biosphere ________.

(6) Everywhere ________ on ________ the ________ sprawling ________ plaza ________ were ________ scores ________ of ________ people ________ flying ________ kites ________.
(7) Global ______ population ______ stood ______ at ______ 2.5 billion ______ in ______ 1950 ______.

(8) Until ______ the ______ present ______ humans ______ have ______ always ______ ignored ______ the ______ physical ______ limits ______ on ______ their ______ expansion ______.

exercise 2-B

• ANALYZE THE FOLLOWING SIMPLE SENTENCES INTO SENTENCE PARTS IN THE USUAL WAY.

• INDICATE THE WORD CLASS OF EACH UNDERLINED WORD BY PLACING ONE OF THE FOLLOWING ABBREVIATIONS BENEATH THE LINE: NOUN, N; ADJECTIVE, ADJ; ADVERB, ADV; VERB, V; PRONOUN, PRN; PREPOSITION, PREP.

(1) The recent elections in Hong Kong have produced an encouraging result.

(2) The riots on housing estates in Tyneside last week had led to 261 arrests.

(3) All criminal charges against Oliver North were dropped on Monday.

(4) In the first two days of ground fighting, three brigades of the First Division destroyed Iraqi trenches with earth movers and ploughs.

(5) Construction unions in New York have long been criticized for their exclusion of racial minority groups.

(6) For over 50 years Barney has been helping people with their hair and scalp problems.

(7) Cleo the Camel now won’t eat anything except smoked salmon sandwiches.

(8) The panel will meet twice during the campaign.
exercise 2-C

• **Put brackets (“{ }”) around any prepositional phrases more than five words long. If a prepositional phrase of more than five words is contained in another such phrase, put parentheses (“( )”) around the inner phrase.**

1. The apparent unease about the growing presence of Latinos also is reflected in a torrent of anti-immigration legislation introduced recently in Sacramento.

2. Statistics Canada warned that the April decline may simply be a correction of inflated job gains in March.

3. In his native Malaysia, he faces extortion charges alleging a series of encounters with lonely, wealthy women who said they were lured into hotel rooms, drugged, photographed nude, then blackmailed.

4. The estimated cost of developing the advanced robotic arms has ballooned by nearly $138 million in the past three years.

5. Striking Winnipeg emergency room doctors have reached a settlement with the province of Manitoba.

6. The negotiations have made slow progress during the past two months with attempts by the Inkatha Freedom Party, homeland leaders, and the white right-wing parties to block significant movement.

7. Each day, if the wind is not too strong, some of the Druze gather at the place called “echo valley” outside Majdal Shams to shout messages to their family and friends who stand several hundred meters away on the Syrian side of the ceasefire line.

8. There are several reasons why the recruitment and organizing may not be as vigorous in the rest of the country.

---

exercise 2-D

**Put brackets (“{ }”) around any noun phrases more than five words long. If a noun phrase of more than five words is contained in another such phrase, put parentheses (“( )”) around the inner phrase.**

1. Belet Uen is a dusty crossroads in central Somalia.

2. Mary entered a brush-hut encampment of 30,000 victims of drought, famine and war.
(3) The only significant growth sector for low-skill workers will be the service industry.

(4) A third of Quebeckers on welfare are under thirty.

(5) During his six-month tenure as Education Minister, he also segregated men and women in the ministry and boys and girls in high schools.

(6) The rift between the former allies was not resolved by President Yeltsin’s victory in the April referendum.

(7) An outbreak of meningitis at the University of Connecticut has been classified as an epidemic.

(8) The highly charged assassination case produced widely divergent interpretations of the evidence.
THREE

COMPOUND AND COMPLEX SENTENCES

THESE ARE THE TERMS THAT WILL BE INTRODUCED IN CHAPTER THREE:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>compound sentence</th>
<th>clause</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>coordinating conjunction</td>
<td>independent clause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>complex sentence</td>
<td>main clause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nesting</td>
<td>dependent clause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subordination marker</td>
<td>adverbial clause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subordinating conjunction</td>
<td>noun clause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>relative pronoun</td>
<td>adjective clause</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- So far we have been talking about simple sentences. In this part we will go on to talk about two other sorts of sentence that are not simple — compound sentences and complex sentences. In order to explain what compound and complex sentences are, we have to introduce another grammatical term — **clause**.

CLAUSES

- A clause is a group of words that contains a subject and a verb. This definition is simple enough, but, even so, it is not easy to understand exactly what clauses are. One reason for this difficulty is the way we are taught the grammar of our own languages as schoolchildren — and the way we are taught the grammar of the other languages we study later in life. Clauses are often mentioned in grammar textbooks and grammar courses, but they are seldom discussed fully. We are usually left with the impression that they are puzzling and mysterious things — but fortunately not very important ones. For us, however, the idea of a clause is extremely important. Until we understand what clauses are, we cannot begin to understand complex sentences.
The key to understanding the idea of a clause is to remember that there is not really anything difficult about the idea. If it seems difficult that is only because of the difficulty of getting used to a certain way of looking at things. Perhaps the best way to start is simply by memorizing the definition and then using this definition as a base from which to work toward full understanding. Here is the definition again:

A clause is a group of words that contains a subject and a verb phrase.

This definition is not perfect, but it will do for the time being.

It is important to notice that, according to the definition, simple sentences are clauses. This is because, as they were defined in Chapter One, simple sentences must contain a subject and a verb. In fact, we could quite justifiably refer to simple sentences as ‘simple sentence/clauses’.

All simple sentences are clauses but all clauses with one subject and one verb phrase do not qualify as simple sentences. There are important differences which will become clear as we go along between clauses like

Susie sings in the shower

which is a simple sentence and clauses like

when Susie sings in the shower

or

Susie singing in the shower

which are not simple sentences.

COMPOUND SENTENCES

A simple sentence — which as we now know is also a clause — can be combined with another simple sentence (another clause) to form a compound sentence. For example, the simple sentence/clause

Susie sings in the shower

can be combined with the simple sentence/clause

Jack accompanies her on the piano

to form the compound sentence

Susie sings in the shower and Jack accompanies her on the piano
When simple sentences are joined together in this way — when they become parts of compound sentences — we no longer call them simple sentences. We say instead that they are independent clauses. Independent clauses are clauses that, despite being joined together in one sentence, are grammatically of equal importance to one another. As we shall see below, the essential difference between compound and complex sentences is that the clauses that make up a complex sentence are not grammatically equal to one another.

COORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

- Words such as and, or, and but that are used to join independent clauses to one another to form compound sentences are referred to as coordinating conjunctions. The coordinating conjunctions are:
  
  and
  or
  but

  Yet, nor and so, share many of the characteristics of coordinating conjunctions, but they are perhaps best seen as halfway between and, or and, but and conjuncts such as however, and therefore. Notice, for example, that so, nor and yet cannot be used to link subordinate clauses as can and in a sentence like

  I shook his hand when he arrived and when he left

  And notice also that so, nor and yet can be used with another conjunction as in

  He stormed angrily out the door and, so a very strange episode came to an end

- The order of the clauses in a compound sentence can be reversed without making the sentence ungrammatical although this often changes the meaning of the sentence. If the order of the clauses is changed, the conjunction will always remain as the first word of the second clause. For example

  The dog is on the log, but the cat is on the mat.

  Can be changed to

  The cat is on the mat, but the dog is on the log.

COMPLEX SENTENCES

- Not all sentences with more than one clause are compound sentences. There is another category — complex sentences. Complex sentences, which are more
varied, more complicated, and more difficult than compound sentences, will be the main subject matter of the remainder of this text.

As was pointed out above, in calling the clauses that make up a compound sentence ‘independent’, we indicate that they are of equal importance from a grammatical point of view. Similarly, when we say that a country is independent, we mean that, in some ways at least, it is as important as all other countries. By contrast, in a complex sentence, the clauses are not equal in grammatical importance. If there are two clauses in a complex sentence, one of them will be less important than the other because it will be part of the other one. Continuing with our analogy between sentences and countries, we can say that if a complex sentence is thought of as a country, then a dependent clause in that sentence is like a province or state of the country. In a complex sentence with two clauses, the less important clause is called the dependent clause, and the more important clause is called the main clause. Because the main clause contains the dependent clause it is equivalent to the complex sentence itself, so complex sentences are like simple sentences in that they are clauses as well as sentences. (Notice that compound sentences are not themselves clauses although they are made up of clauses.) Here is an example of a ‘complex sentence/clause’

*When the cat was on the mat, the dog was on the log.*

The dependent clause here is

*when the cat was on the mat*

**COMPOUND/COMPLEX SENTENCES**

In addition to compound and complex sentences there is another category, the compound/complex sentence. These sentences, which are not particularly important from a theoretical point of view, are simply ‘combinations’ of compound and complex.

*When the cat was on the mat, the dog was on the log, and, at the same time, the rat was in the hat.*

This sentence is compound because it contains two independent clauses

*when the cat was on the mat, the dog was on the log*

and

*and, at the same time, the rat was in the hat*

The sentence is also complex, however, because the first of the two independent clauses contains the dependent clause

*when the cat was on the mat*
NESTING

The term nesting is often used to describe the way in which dependent clauses are contained by independent ones. The idea is that one clause ‘sits’ inside another in the same way as a bird sits inside its nest. Dependent clauses can also nest inside other dependent clauses as, for example in

\[
\text{She said that the dog was on the log that she usually sits on herself.}
\]

Here the dependent clause

\[
\text{that she usually sits on}
\]

is nested inside the dependent clause

\[
\text{that the dog was on the log that she usually sits on}
\]

which is itself nested inside the entire complex sentence/clause

We can say that the complete complex sentence contains three levels of nesting. It is not at all uncommon for sentences to have four or five levels of nesting while still remaining perfectly straightforward and comprehensible.

DEPENDENT CLAUSES AS SENTENCE PARTS

Dependent clauses are contained in complex sentences in the same ordinary way as letters are contained in words and sentences are contained in paragraphs. But, beyond that, they are often contained in sentences in another more interesting and important way: Many dependent clauses are also sentence parts. In other words, when we are doing a ‘SVOCA analysis’ of a complex sentence, we will often find that its subject, its object, its complement, or its adverbial is itself a clause. For example, the object of the sentence

\[
\text{You’re won’t believe what I’m going to tell you}
\]

is the dependent clause

\[
\text{what I’m going to tell you}
\]

FUNCTIONAL CLASSIFICATION OF DEPENDENT CLAUSES

- Dependent clauses can be classified according to their ‘function’ within complex sentences — in other words according to what sentence parts they are or are associated with.
24 / Compound and Complex Sentences

- Clauses that act as subjects or objects of complex sentences are called noun clauses. Clauses that act as adverbials are called adverbial clauses.

- There is a third very important type of dependent clause, the adjective clause. Adjective clauses do not function as sentence parts but as parts of the noun phrases that are subjects and objects. For example, in the sentence,

  *The old, grey horse that was standing beside the barn had a sad look in its eyes*

  the noun phrase

  *the old, grey horse that was standing beside the barn*

  is the subject. The headword of this noun phrase is *horse*. The two adjectives *old* and *grey* give us information about the horse; in other words, they modify the word *horse*. In a similar way, the clause

  *that was standing beside the barn*

  modifies the headword and is therefore called an adjective clause.

  Noun phrases — and therefore adjective clauses — can also appear in adverbials. For example

  *The old, grey horse that was standing beside the barn had a sad look in its eyes when it saw the shotgun that the farmer was carrying.*

  Here, the adverbial clause

  *when it saw the shotgun that the farmer was carrying.*

  has as its object the noun phrase

  *the shotgun that the farmer was carrying*

  which itself contains the adjective clause

  *that the farmer was carrying*

CLAUSE INTRODUCERS

We are now in a position to speak in more detail about one of the eight types of word class listed in Chapter Two — clause introducers.

- In discussing compound sentences, we mentioned that they are formed from independent clauses joined together with ‘coordinating conjunctions’. These words are one sort of clause introducer. There is another important type of clause
introducer, subordination markers. These are used to connect dependent clauses to the main clauses and noun phrases that they are part of. (To say that one thing is ‘subordinate’ to another is to say, roughly, that it is dependent on that thing; dependent clauses can also be called ‘subordinate clauses’.) There are two important subgroups of subordination markers. The subordinating conjunctions such as *if, when, although,* and *that* are used with adverbial clauses and noun clauses; and the relative pronouns such as *that, who,* and *which,* are used to connect adjective clauses to the nouns they modify. These types of subordination marker will be discussed in detail later in these notes.

---

**exercise 3-A**

**DECIDE WHETHER THE FOLLOWING SENTENCES ARE SIMPLE, COMPOUND OR COMPLEX. **MARK ‘SIMP’, ‘CMPD’, OR ‘CPLX’ IN THE SPACE PROVIDED.

1. A family of baboons jumped from the rear window of a car. __________

2. The knife blades shine in the afternoon sunlight as the man in the flashy shirt pushes them deeper inside the metal hoops. ______

3. He rushes forward and then he dives head first through the treacherous hole. __________

4. An hour’s drive south of Budapest is Lake Balaton, which offers a sunny, uncrowded beach. __________

5. The Shakers died out, but they left behind some great furniture and interesting houses.__________

6. The island of New Guinea is one of the most intriguing destinations in the world. __________

7. About half the photosynthesis that removes carbon dioxide from the air occurs in the tropics. ______

8. The species is believed to be near extinction. __________

9. Many marchers stayed at the barricades into the early morning hours today. ______

10. Mr Nimro insists that he talked to Mr Squevel in 1979. __________
exercise 3-B


(1) I am not surprised by the dramatic increase in complaints by the public against the service provided by banks. __________

(2) Anti-government guerillas in Uganda have abducted a British ecologist and several other people in an attack on a remote game lodge. __________

(3) American troops in Somalia went on high alert after a Marine was killed in an ambush of a night patrol near Mogadishu airport. __________

(4) Two Japanese video game giants, Nintendo and Sega Enterprises, said games sold in Japan from next month would start carrying labels warning of the risk of epileptic fits. __________

(5) The software the two companies sell in Europe and the US already carries such warnings. __________

(6) In the Gaza Strip, the Israeli army killed three Palestinians in a clash with stone throwers, according to the Israeli army. __________

(7) The power struggle in Zaire between President Mobutu Sese Seko and his arch enemy, Prime Minister Etienne Tshisekedi, moved further towards confrontation when the interim parliament said President Mobutu was guilty of high treason. __________

(8) French politician, René Pleven, whose career began in 1940 when he joined General de Gaulle’s Free French in London and who then went on to become prime minister of the Fourth Republic twice, has died, aged 92. __________

(9) More than 50 people drowned when the Polish rail ferry Jan Heweliusz capsized in churning seas and winds of up to 100 mph in the Baltic off the German coast. __________

(10) Mrs Bhutto was surprised by the appointment but called it a ‘positive step’. __________
exercise 3 -C

EACH OF THE FOLLOWING SENTENCES CONTAINS A ‘NESTED CLAUSE’ — A DEPENDENT CLAUSE THAT IS CONTAINED BY ANOTHER DEPENDENT CLAUSE. MARK THE NESTED CLAUSES WITH PARENTHESES (“( )”) AND THE CLAUSES THAT CONTAIN THEM WITH BRACKETS (“{ }”).

(1) I’m surprised that he told you where the money is.

(2) When they bought the house that they’re living in now, interest rates were very high.

(3) The London-based Tibet Information Network says it has evidence that this almost medieval dungeon houses torture cults that strap nuns to wooden crosses.

(4) If you notice the little red light flashing when you turn on the ignition, you must fasten your seat belt.

(5) She’s the actress who played the leading role in the movie we saw last night.

(6) If the three satellites had been deployed as the designers intended, their electronic sensing devices would have provided valuable information.

(7) There is a rumour that the money he lost was borrowed from his mother.

(8) His only asset was a stove that he had purchased because he wanted to resell it.
FOUR

FINITE AND NON-FINITE CLAUSES

These are the terms that will be introduced in Chapter Four:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>finite verb phrase</th>
<th>-ing clause</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>non-finite verb phrase</td>
<td>past participle clause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>finite clause</td>
<td>abbreviated clause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>non-finite clause</td>
<td>dependent clause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>modal auxiliary</td>
<td>adverbial clause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>infinitive clause with to</td>
<td>noun clause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>infinitive clause without to</td>
<td>adjective clause</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FINITE AND NON-FINITE CLAUSES

• In part two we saw how clauses can be classified as adjective clauses, noun clauses and adverbial clauses depending on what role they play in the structure of the whole sentence — or clause — they belong to. In this section we will see how clauses can be classified in another way, according to their internal grammatical structure.

• All clauses can be classified as either finite or non-finite. The first thing that must be understood about this two-part distinction between finite and non-finite is that it cuts across the three-part distinction between adjective, noun, and adverbial clauses: There are finite and non-finite adjective clauses, finite and non-finite noun clauses, and finite and non-finite adverbial clauses. Together, the two distinctions give us six types of clause.

• To understand the distinction between finite and non-finite clauses, it is necessary first to understand the distinction between a finite verb phrase and a non-finite verb phrase:

  **Definition:** A finite verb phrase is one that contains either a present tense or a past tense verb.
A non-finite verb phrase is one that does not contain either a present tense or a past tense verb. (In other words, all the words in a non-finite verb phrase must be infinitives, past participles, or -ing forms.)

It is important to understand that, for a verb phrase to qualify as finite, it is not necessary that the main (or ‘lexical’) verb be a present tense or past tense form. It is sufficient that one of the auxiliary verbs be present or past tense. For example, the verb phrase in the clause

He has been acting like that all day.

qualifies as finite because it contains the present tense form has. By contrast, the verb phrase in the clause

having acted like that all day

is not a finite verb phrase because the first of the two verbs it contains is an -ing form and the second is a past participle. In the case of regular verbs such as act, the past tense form and the past participle are identical, but we can easily show that in this verb phrase acted is a past participle by substituting a verb like speak having a special past participle form, in which case we get the verb phrase

having spoken like that all day.

Modal auxiliaries such as can and may are regarded as present tense forms and ones such as might and could as past tense forms, and therefore any verb phrase containing a modal will be classified as finite.

Now that we have introduced non-finite clauses, we are forced to change the definition of clause that we gave in Part Two. There, we said that a clause was “a group of words with a subject and a verb phrase.” That definition provided a good starting point for our study of complex sentences but now we can see that it is not really accurate because, in non-finite clauses, the subject is often omitted. (It is still ‘there’ in the mind of the speaker or author — and in the mind of the listener or reader — but it is not actually spoken or written down.) In light of this important fact about non-finite clauses, we have to change our original definition of the word ‘clause’ to the following:

**Definition:** A clause is a group of words which has a subject and a verb phrase, or a group of words that must be analyzed as having a subject and a verb phrase.

There is an alternative way of explaining the distinction between finite and non-finite verb phrases. We can say that a finite verb phrase is a verb phrase that can be the verb phrase of a whole sentence — or, to put the same thing differently, one that can be the verb phrase of a main clause. For example, the finite verb phrase
is looking

can be used as the verb phase of the complete sentence (or of a dependent clause in a compound sentence.) For example:

*He is looking for the answer.*

But the non-finite verb phrase *looking*

cannot be used as the verb phrase of a complete sentence. It can only be used as the verb phrase of a *dependent clause* in a complex sentence such as

*L*ooking for the answer, he became fascinated with an even more interesting question.

TYPES OF NON–FINITE CLAUSE

There are four types of non-finite clause. Three of these can be further divided into two subdivisions according to whether or not a subject is present.

(1) Infinitive clauses with *to*:

*I want to tell you something.*

(2) Infinitive clauses without *to* (*‘bare infinitives’*)

*I heard him whisper in her ear.*

-this construction is possible with only a small number of verbs; all of these belong to one of two groups: verbs of perception such as *see,* and *hear* and causative verbs such as *make,* *help,* and *let."

(3) *-ing* clauses

*Forgetting her promise,* she let the truth slip out.

*He doesn’t like his daughter hanging around in places like that.*

(4) Past participle clauses

*The people injured in the riots* did not receive proper medical treatment.

*His head covered in bandages,* he made a humiliating apology.
When -ing clauses and past participle clauses contain subjects, the clause often begins with the preposition with. Rather than the previous sentence, for example, we would be more likely to find

*With his head covered in bandages, he made a humiliating apology.*

---

**exercise 4-A**

MARK THE ITALICIZED FINITE CLAUSES WITH ‘F’ AND THE ITALICIZED NON-FINITE CLAUSES WITH ‘NF’

1. Statistics Canada has found *what many people have long suspected.*
2. Officials were told *that the missing fish could number as many as 1.2 million.*
4. *When people survive a heart attack,* damage to the organ is often so great *that they eventually suffer another attack and die.*
5. Mr Fuller, *who spent fifteen days in jail awaiting trial,* received the longest sentence given to a participant in the riot.
6. *Emptying the mind before physical action* will improve success in sports.
7. The chemical appears to increase serotonin levels in the brain, *taking away the compulsive desire to place a bet.*
8. If you want to find out *what youth are doing,* go deeper.

---

**exercise 4-B**


1. This society is permeated with fear of *what went on in the past.*
2. Democratic institutions are only beginning *to emerge.*
3. You don’t have to get more than a few city blocks from the parliament *to see that no one has a very firm grasp on the basic rules anymore.*
4. There is no consensus on *how an economy should operate.*
5. His ministry wants *to bring Christ to the teachers and students of a school here.*
Zhulymsky sees the election and adoption of a new constitution as a political watershed that will define an irreversible step on the path to democracy and greater prosperity.

Other competing opposition voices include candidates supporting the parliamentary speaker, centrist Ivan Pliushch, and former prime minister Leonid Kuchma, who is left of center.

After having lost last fall's election, he finds himself the target of two government investigations.

Papendreou has had his own season of being dragged through the mud.

Bakoyianni insists everything was done according to the law.

exercise 4-C

FIND THE FINITE CLAUSES IN THE FOLLOWING SENTENCES. IF ONE NON-FINITE CLAUSE IS CONTAINED IN ANOTHER ONE, IT SHOULD BE DOUBLE UNDERLINED.

If Canadians pitch in and 'rat on' people cheating on their taxes, Ottawa could recover $3 billion a year from the underground economy.

People who are currently in the underground economy will suddenly realize that Revenue Canada may get a phone call.

Quebec will be in no hurry to push cigarette taxes back up even when smuggling has been brought under control.

A government aide said yesterday it will likely up for debate Tuesday.

The boy who made the first complaint later withdrew it.

I respect flags because I know what they mean.

I think that many people now realize that we can play an opposition role.

Peruta was brought from Donnaconna Penitentiary where he is serving his sentence.

They don't know how it is over there and how it will be.

They had been ordered deported after immigration officials rejected their claim.
exercise 4-D

FIND THE NON-FINITE CLAUSES IN THE FOLLOWING SENTENCES. IF ONE NON-FINITE CLAUSE IS CONTAINED IN ANOTHER ONE, IT SHOULD BE DOUBLE UNDERLINED.

(1) The fishermen rejected a government decision to extend a tax break to smaller fishing boats.

(2) Discovery and its crew landed safely in Florida yesterday, ending the first US space flight with a Russian Cosmonaut on board.

(3) The crew failed to accomplish one of the primary objectives of the mission — releasing a research satellite.

(4) Paula Jones, appearing at a news conference with others who have accused Clinton of sexual misdeeds, declined to specify what Clinton asked her to do.

(5) The revelation came as Bosnian Government and Serbian troops began surrendering heavy weapons yesterday.

(6) Developing self-control is one way to deal with the drug problem.

(7) The accused man insisted that they always joked around at work while handling cucumbers and bananas.

(8) Bhaduria resigned from the Liberal caucus after allegations he lied about having a law degree.

(9) He estimates that in two or three years his department will start recovering about 20 percent of the money now being lost to the underground economy.

(10) Last year a nurse left her job after dating a parolee.

(11) There’s finally a ray of hope for students battered by rising tuitions and big loans.

exercise 4-E

MARK THE NON-FINITE CLAUSES IN THE FOLLOWING SENTENCES WITH PARENTHESES (“( )”).

(1) Ms Campbell shot back yesterday, saying she is happy with her advisers.

(2) The union representing Air Canada ticket agents and customer-service employees filed for conciliation yesterday after contract talks broke down.

(3) Former BC cabinet minister Claude Richmond says he agonized over the decision before announcing yesterday he will seek the leadership of the Social Credit Party.
(4) Mr Smith fought hard for the change, arguing that Labour could not expect to win a British election until it got its own house in order.

(5) The party is committed to drastically overhauling the entire British political system, including disbanding the House of Lords.

(6) To justify his action, he pointed to the conduct of parliament during the past two years in frustrating his economic reform program.

(7) With Quebec now having control over immigration and seeking control over all manpower training in the province, Mr Manning did not explain how his proposed “New Federalism” would allocate these responsibilities.

(8) In a ruling that could expose an estimated 3,500 Ontario residents to criminal charges, a Divisional Court judge refused to issue an injunction extending an amnesty period during which owners of large clips could turn them in to police for destruction.

exercise 4-F


(1) An American combat plane, firing air-to-air missiles, shot down an Iraqi MiG fighter which intruded into the no-fly zone in southern Iraq. ________

(2) In Hong Kong’s fashionable district of Lan Kwai Fong, 20 people were killed when crowd celebrations went wrong. ________

(3) The 15,000 revellers were gripped by panic after a number of people fell to the ground. ________

(4) David Schoo and his wife Sharon, a well-to-do couple from Chicago, were charged with child cruelty after leaving their daughters, aged nine and four, alone at home while they spent Christmas on the beach at Acapulco, Mexico. ________

(5) Mr Lu stressed that there had been no improvement in relations with Britain. ________
(6) Brazil’s senate agreed last week by 76 votes to three to ban ex-president Fernando Collor de Mello from public office for eight years. ________

(7) Her father was a customs and excise officer who sent her to two Catholic schools although the family was Anglican. ________

(8) The crucial requirement was to register Volodya as the car’s new owner. ________
FIVE

ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

These are the terms that will be introduced in chapter five:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>adjective clause</th>
<th>possessive relative pronoun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>relative pronoun</td>
<td>adverbial relative pronoun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>relative clause</td>
<td>prepositional relative pronoun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>restrictive adjective clause</td>
<td>abbreviated adjective clause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>non-restrictive adjective clauses</td>
<td>sentential relative clause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>appositive clause</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Adjective Clauses

- Adjective clauses are *called* adjective clauses because they do the same job that single-word adjectives do: they modify nouns. In other words, they provide information about the referents of nouns, the things that the nouns name, or ‘refer’ to. There are, however, differences between single-word adjectives and adjective clauses. Most importantly, unlike single-word adjectives which almost always come in front of the noun, adjective clauses always *follow* the noun they modify.

- For two reasons, adjective clauses are of particular importance to the non-native speaker. In the first place, they are more numerous than the other types of dependent clause. Secondly, because of the complications of their structure, they frequently cause non-native speakers to make errors.

Relative Pronouns

**Pronouns or Clause Introducers?**

- The most common relative pronouns are *that, which, who, whom,* and *whose.* These words are used to introduce adjective clauses, to attach them to the nouns
they modify. Because of their clause-introducing function we will classify relative pronouns as clause introducers. The name ‘relative pronoun’ implies, of course, that these words are not clause introducers but pronouns — and indeed this is how they have traditionally been classified. This is a reasonable idea. In one important way relative pronouns are pronouns; we can say they have a ‘pronominal function’. They have this function because, like pronouns, they replace nouns. For example, in the sentence

*The woman who was in the next room heard the noise.*

the relative pronoun *who* replaces *woman* just as *she* replaces *woman* in the second of the two following sentences

*The woman was in the next room. She heard the noise.*

From our point of view, however, because we are mainly interested in the way clauses fit together to make complex sentences, it is the clause-introducing function of relative pronouns that is most important. So we will classify them as clause introducers while keeping the traditional label, *relative pronoun* and remembering the similarity that these words have to typical pronouns such as *he, it,* and *someone.*

Relative pronouns are called ‘relative’ because they are ‘relative’ to the nouns they replace; in other words, they cannot be understood without reference to these nouns. For the same reason, the clauses introduced by relative pronouns can be called relative clauses.

**RELATIVE PRONOUNS AS SUBJECTS AND OBJECTS**

* The relative pronouns, *that, which, who* and *whom* operate as either the subjects or objects of the clauses that contain them. They can do this because of their pronominal function. For example, in the sentence

*The treatment that was recommended turned out to be worse than the disease.*

the relative pronoun *that* is the subject of the adjective clause it introduces. And in the sentence

*Jack is the person whom they arrested.*

the relative pronoun, *whom,* is the object of the adjective clause.

Coordinating conjunctions, and subordinating conjunctions — clause introducers for noun and adverbial clauses — do not have the ability to operate as subjects or objects.
OMISSION OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS

- As was mentioned above, relative pronouns can sometimes be omitted. This is possible only when the relative pronoun is not the subject of the clause that contains it. For example, we can say,

  Jack is the person they arrested.

  but we cannot say

  Jack is the coward did it.

POSITION OF ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

- Whenever possible, an adjective clause should immediately follow the noun it modifies. The following sentence, although grammatical, failed to mean what its writer wanted it to mean because the adjective clause has been placed after the wrong noun.

  At the centre of the area, a car was placed on a raised platform that was more interesting than the others.

Sometimes it is permissible to place a prepositional phrase between an adjective clause and the noun it modifies:

  She wrote an essay about her trip that her teacher said was brilliant.

This sentence is acceptable as a modifier of essay only because the clause that her teacher said was brilliant does not make sense as a modifier of trip. The sentence

  She wrote an essay about a trip that was extremely interesting

is acceptable only if the adjective clause, that was extremely interesting, is meant to modify the noun that immediately precedes it, trip.

RESTRICTIVE AND NON-RESTRICTIVE ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

- Adjective clauses can be classified as either restrictive or non-restrictive. If an adjective clause is restrictive, then, without it, we would not know what the noun modified by the clause refers to. If an adjective clause is non-restrictive then, even without it, we would still know what the modified clause refers to. For example,

  After the play, the author, who had been completely unknown before that evening, was given a standing ovation.
The author whom I most admire is Danielle Steele.

Another way of making this point is to say that a non-restrictive adjective clause can be removed without changing the meaning of the sentence. To see the point of this definition, try removing the adjective clauses from the examples given above.

The terms ‘restrictive’ and ‘non-restrictive’ are the ones most commonly used to mark the distinction between these two kinds of adjective clause, but many others are found in grammar books. For example: ‘essential’ and ‘non-essential’; ‘defining’ and ‘non-defining’; ‘identifying’ and ‘adding’.

- Non-restrictive adjective clauses are set off from the rest of the sentence with commas. Restrictive adjective clauses are not set off with commas.

- Finite non-restrictive adjective clauses cannot begin with that or with the ‘zero’ relative pronoun. In other words the following sentence is unacceptable:

  My home town, that is located in a beautiful valley, is the place I love most.

There is a longstanding ‘prescriptive tradition’ to the effect that not only must which, who, and whom be used with non-restrictive adjective clauses, but that these relative pronouns should not be used with restrictive relative clauses. From a stylistic point of view there is certainly something to be said in favour of using the shorter, less noticeable that whenever possible; but it is not a grammatical error to use one of the ‘specialized’ relative pronouns to introduce a restrictive clause.

A CATALOGUE OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS

So far, we have mainly been talking about relative pronouns in a general way and, in our examples, using only the relative pronouns, that, and which. In this section, we will take a closer look at some other relative pronouns

‘WHO’ AND ‘WHOM’

- Who and whom are both used to refer to people. Who is used as the subject of an adjective clause, whom as the object. For example

  I hope they never find out who did this.

  The man whom they arrested was never seen again.

In speech, except in the most formal contexts, it is acceptable to use who as the object of an adjective clause, and, indeed, in informal speech, who is more commonly used as an object than is whom. In writing however — except perhaps in the most informal contexts — whom should always be used as the object of the adjective clause.
40 / Adjective Clauses

• The relative pronouns we have considered so far, *that*, *which*, *who* and *whom*, can be called central relative pronouns because of the centrally important role they play — as subjects or objects — in the structure of the adjective clauses they introduce. There are other kinds of relative pronoun, however. Most importantly, there is the possessive relative pronoun, *whose*. There is also a group of relative pronouns that can be called adverbial because they play an adverbial role in the adjective clauses they introduce. This adverbial group can be further subdivided into the special and prepositional relative pronouns.

**WHOSE: A POSSESSIVE RELATIVE PRONOUN**

*Whose* is used to indicate that the subject or the object of the adjective clause is possessed by the person or thing that the adjective clause modifies. As well as having a pronominal function like other relative pronouns, *whose* acts a determiner. It is always followed by a noun and its relation to this noun is similar to the relation of a possessive adjectives such as *my*, or *his* to the nouns that follow them.

One way to see how *whose* works is to take a sentence such as

*The man whose wife has such a loud voice just got out of hospital.*

and breaking it into two sentences:

*The man just got out of hospital. His wife has a loud voice.*

• If you have any doubt about whether or not *whose* can be used correctly in a particular sentence, try breaking the sentence down in this way. If one of the resulting sentences does not contain a possessive adjective then *whose* should not be used.

• Despite frequent claims to the contrary, there is nothing wrong with using *whose* in connection with an inanimate noun as long as it makes sense to think of the noun in question as possessing something.

*The cars, whose tires had already been removed, were then set on fire.*

Notice here that it *does* make sense to say of a car: *Its* tires were set on fire.

**THE AVERDIAL RELATIVE PRONOUNS: WHERE AND WHEN**

The following sentences give examples of the use of the special relative pronouns.

*The house where I was born burnt down recently.*

*Of course all this happened at a time when people took life less seriously than they do now.*
Where can be used only to replace nouns that refer to places, such as house, country, region. When can be used only to replace nouns that refer to times, such as time, year, period, era.

THE PREPOSITIONAL RELATIVE PRONOUNS

• The prepositional relative pronouns are formed by combining a preposition with one of the central relative pronouns.

The missing document, about which he claimed to know nothing, was found in his desk drawer.

The student to whom he made these remarks immediately reported the matter to the principal.

• Often it is possible to avoid the use of prepositional relative pronouns by rephrasing the entire sentence. For example, instead of saying

That’s the guy about whom I was telling you.

We can say:

That’s the guy (that) I was telling you about.

Rephrasings of this kind often result in smoother, clearer English, and when they do they are preferable. They are not always possible, however. For example

?The student (that) he made these remarks to immediately reported the matter to the principal. ?

while acceptable in informal speech, would not be advisable in formal, written English.

QUANTITATIVE RELATIVE PRONOUNS

• There is another important class made up of relative pronouns which include such quantitative expressions as some of, many of and none of. For example

His former business partners, several of whom are suing him, will be glad to hear this news.

Constructions of this sort always use who, whom or which — never that.
Sentences of this sort are more common in writing than in speech. In speech it would be more usual to split the complex sentence above into two simple ones and say, for example:

*His former business partners will be glad to hear the news. Several of them are suing him.*

**NON-FINITE ADJECTIVE CLAUSES**

**ABBREVIATED ADJECTIVE CLAUSES**

- In writing, it is important to be able to put as much information as possible into a single sentence — without losing either clarity or elegance. One way that writers of English achieve this goal is by using abbreviated adjective clauses. For example, compare the following two sentences:

  *Economists are predicting that Germany will soon suffer from two seemingly incompatible conditions — large scale labor shortages in the west and mass unemployment, perhaps reaching 40 to 50 percent in the east.*

  *Economists are predicting that Germany will soon suffer from two seemingly incompatible conditions — large scale labor shortages in the west and mass unemployment, which will perhaps reach 40 to 50 percent in the east.*

To sophisticated writers, and readers, of English the first of these sentences is just as comprehensible as the second; moreover, it is easier and more pleasant to read.

- The abbreviated adjective clause

  *perhaps reaching 40 to 50 percent in the east*

is obtained from the adjective clause

*which will perhaps reach 40 to 50 percent in the east*

by deleting the relative pronoun and the auxiliary verb and by changing the main verb from the simple present *reach* to the *-ing* form *reaching.*
To many American intellectuals, Western Europe seems home to the happiest of societies, well-functioning social democracies superbly prepared for the next century.

the reduced adjective clause

superbly prepared for the next century.

replaces the full adjective clause

which are superbly prepared for the next century.

- In this case the relative pronoun and the auxiliary verb have again been omitted, but here the main verb in both the full and the reduced versions is the past participle. This is because both the full adjective clause and the abbreviated version are in the passive voice.

This is the rule: When the full clause is in the active voice, the abbreviated clause will have an -ing form as its verb; when the full clause is in the passive voice, the reduced clause will have a past participle as its verb.

The verb phrases in abbreviated adjective clauses are non-finite. There verb phrases do not contain either a simple past or a simple present form.

TO-INFINITIVE ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

- There is another important type of non-finite adjective clause, which is formed with a to-infinitive. Here is an example

  I have a lot of things to do today

Although these clauses often have non-finite analogues they cannot be regarded as abbreviations of non-finite clauses in the way that -ing and -ed adjective clauses can. For example, the following sentence, while not perhaps completely ungrammatical is not good English

  I have a lot of things that I must do today

Moreover, even if we were to accept it, it would have a different meaning than the original sentence with the to-infinitive clause.

In order to get a sentence of equivalent meaning that is undoubtedly grammatical, we must change the main verb and the main subject:

  There are a lot of things that I must do today
but even then we cannot say that this is the only possible finite version of the original non-finite clause. The following would also be possible, for example

There are a lot of things that I want to do today

Here is another example of a to-infinitive adjective clause

In March, Mr Moi confronted the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund with a refusal to carry out their demands for changes aimed at liberalizing the economy, maintaining that they would plunge Kenya into chaos.

CLAUSES THAT CAN BE CONFUSED WITH ADJECTIVE CLAUSES

• There are two types of clause that have a striking superficial similarity to adjective clauses and can therefore be confused with them: sentential relative clauses and appositive clauses.

• Sentential relative clauses, like adjective clauses, are introduced by relative pronouns; and, once again as with adjective clauses, these relative pronouns operate as ‘sentence’ parts in the clauses that contain them. However, whereas adjective clauses modify a single noun, sentential relative clauses modify a whole sentence. Here is an example

His remarks made her even angrier, which was not what he had intended.

• Appositive clauses are clausal versions of the noun phrase appositives discussed in Chapter Two. Here is an example:

The fear that the fighting would spread to other parts of Europe proved to be unfounded.

The dependent clause here does not, as an adjective clause would, give information about the referent of the noun that it modifies; rather, it refers to the fear in another way, by stating its content — saying what it is.

• Sentential relative clauses have an adverbial function and will be dealt with in Chapter Seven. Appositive clauses are noun clauses and they will be dealt with in Chapter Six.
exercise 5-A

ARE THE FOLLOWING CLAUSES CORRECTLY CLASSIFIED? CIRCLE THE ANSWER.

(1) a non-restrictive clause.............YES NO

Lenders, who had invested months, sometimes years, of work in O & Y’s complex financings, inevitably gave in to his terms.

(2) a non-finite adjective clause.............YES NO

One of the most common questions I am asked by meeting planners is, “What can I do to make my meeting special?”

(3) a non-finite past-participle adjective clause.............YES NO

The 94-store chain, founded by Timothy Eaton, began as a single dry goods shop in Toronto in 1869.

(4) a nonfinite to-infinitive adjective clause.............YES NO

Last night Central Capital announced its intention to file for protection from its creditors.

exercise 5-B

THE BOLDED PASSAGES IN THE FOLLOWING SENTENCES ARE ADJECTIVE CLAUSES. UNDERLINE THE NOUNS THAT THEY MODIFY AND IN THE BLANK SPACES THAT FOLLOW INDICATED WHETHER THE CLAUSES ARE FINITE OR NON-FINITE (“F” OR “NF”) AND WHETHER THEY ARE RESTRICTIVE OR NON-RESTRICTIVE (“R” OR “NR”)

(1) A statement issued after General Rose met US Admiral Jeremy Boroda, NATO’s southern Europe commander who would be in charge of any air raid, spoke of possible strikes on Serbian and Bosnian governemtn positions.

(2) By Monday they had pulled back less than ten percent of the 315 tanks, artillery pieces, mortars and multiple-rocket launchers that Serb officers say General Rose asked them to give up.

(3) The handful of heavy weapons that the Bosnian government has given up as its side of the bargain have been grouped at a Sarajevo barracks watched by Ukrainian troops.
(4) More than 500 people have been killed and thousands made homeless across northern Ghana as ethnic fighting between the Konkombas and the Nanyumbas, which erupted on February 3, spread to seven districts.

(5) Late last year the Majlis gave the go-ahead for charges to be brought against Mr Hashemi, a move designed to take the broadcasting service out of the president’s hands.

(6) Non-governmental organisations, some of which work with Unita via Zaire, have taken over health care and distribution of UN emergency food in the 80 percent of the country where Unita prevents the government from working.

(7) The king warned that the Zulu nation would not be bound by South Africa’s new constitution, under which the first multi-racial elections will be held in April.

(8) The favourite to win the contract, the UK Lottery Foundation is headed by Virgin group chairman Richard Branson and former Tory cabinet minister Lord Young.

(9) More than half of the £4 billion worth of property stolen each year is being sold to finance the habits of drug users.

(10) The estimate of the amount of drug-related property crime is derived from a formula devised by the Greater Manchester police and Home Office statistics.

(11) That same evening the Algerian press issued a denial which seemed to shoot down yet another rumour.

(12) A 45-year-old on social benefit who spends his time getting drunk and is of no use to his family or to society should be excluded from medical care which should instead be given to active 70 year olds.
exercise 5-C

MARK THE FINITE ADJECTIVE CLAUSES IN THE FOLLOWING SENTENCES WITH SLASHES (“/ /”) AND THE NON-FINITE ADJECTIVE CLAUSES WITH DOUBLE ANGLES (“« »”).

(1) Armies that ruled much of the hemisphere barely a decade ago are shut in their barracks.

(2) The preliminary ruling, which will be followed by a final determination in early fall, was issued in response to complaints from American uranium producers.

(3) He has devised a kind of self-nominating process, rooted in appearances on television talk shows.

(4) The treaty, which was the product of nearly two weeks of intense negotiations in Nairobi earlier this month, is considered one of the two main achievements of the United Nations Conference.

(5) The Administration’s decision on the treaty preserving plants, animals and natural resources, known as the biological diversity treaty, is almost certain to be followed by Japan.

(6) The President offered support for the approach of don’t ask, don’t tell — the label given to a range of plans that would allow homosexuals to serve but leave limits on how open the could be about their sexuality.

(7) The President’s remarks on homosexuals in the military, which came in response to a question from a pastor who said he was worried about Christian values, seemed calculated to put some distance between himself and gay rights groups.

(8) One after another, Khmer Rouge trucks have rumbled down the unpaved streets of this rebel-held town this week, carrying hundreds of Cambodians who had been brought here on the order of the Maoist guerrillas with a single mission: to vote.

(9) “We agree with the elections now because Prince Sihanouk has come back,” said a 29-year-old farmer, her back curved after years spent hunched over rice paddies that are now the territory of the Khmer Rouge.

(10) After threatening to disrupt Cambodia’s first free election in a generation, the Khmer Rouge have surprised United Nations Officials by delivering thousands of Cambodians from territory under the rebel’s control to vote in at least three of the nine provinces in which they have a sizable presence although the guerillas officially oppose the balloting.
48 / Adjective Clauses

(11) Some violence this week has been attributed to the Khmer Rouge including an attack today on a mobile United Nations polling place in the northwest that wounded a Bangladeshi peacekeeping soldier and three Cambodians.

(12) The voters who were brought to cast ballots in this town, which is 205 miles northwest of Phnom Penh, near the Thai border, say they are being told by the Khmer Rouge to vote for the opposition party founded by Prince Sihanouk.

(13) The police today released 43 black militants arrested two days ago in a crackdown on the Pan Africanist Congress, conceding that they did not have enough evidence linking them to specific crimes.

(14) The latest international strategy for ending the Bosnian war is a minimalist plan of action that will create more problems than it solves.

(15) But it also triggered riots in the capital, described as the worst in Denmark’s peacetime history.

(16) Criticism that led to a destabilisation of society constituted ‘revolt’ and was unacceptable to Islam.

(17) The only situation in which disobedience was allowed was when the sovereign took a decision which was evil in the eyes of God.

exercise 5-D

MARK THE FINITE ADJECTIVE CLAUSES IN THE FOLLOWING SENTENCES WITH SLASHES (“/”) AND THE NON-FINITE ADJECTIVE CLAUSES WITH DOUBLE ANGLES (“« »”).

(1) In most places around the world a doctor who helps a terminally ill patient commit suicide could face criminal prosecution.

(2) Michigan has enacted a law making doctor-assisted suicide illegal.

(3) In their quest for knowledge, scientists will take advantage of anything that’s helpful, even a nuclear blast.

(4) Studies of the shock waves given off by a Chinese 66-megaton nuclear test have revealed a ‘continent’ 3,200 kilometers underground.
(5) What two scientists at the US Geological Survey found was a region 320 km across and 130 km deep that is denser than surrounding regions.

(6) The steep growth of mutual funds, which reached a record value of $1.7 trillion last year, began in earnest in 1989.

(7) Most of the enormous outflow wound up in professionally managed pools of securities, where returns of 25% or more are not uncommon.

(8) “All you need,” the song says “is love.” But government largesse is also helping Brazilians revive their long-standing affair with the Beetles. Not John, Paul, George and Ringo, but the beloved little machines built by Volkswagen that put millions of middle-class Brazilians on the road before the cars were phased out of production in 1986.

(9) The lines are really being drawn between those clergymen who support the government in everything and those who do not.

(10) In 1989, Jimmy lost his job as a high-steel construction worker in the US and, unable to find work, returned to Akwesasne, where he discovered the easy money to be made in smuggling cigarettes.

(11) His extraordinary financial success and a recent business problem he has encountered say much about what is happening in the lucrative world of tobacco smuggling.

(12) It’s a situation that is reminiscent of the Prohibition era, when liquor from Canada into the US in open and easy defiance of the law.

(13) Some parents, like Joyce Williams, 60 of Toronto, applaud the system for the education it has provided her eight children.

(14) We do not advocate a return to the rigid, stultifying teaching methods of the past where everything learned was by rote.

(15) The few animals used by the cosmetic industry are essential for the safety of consumers, she said.

(16) Mulroney said he liked the two deals his government had concocted, not because they were perfect but because they were good.
exercise 5-E

EACH OF THE FOLLOWING SENTENCES CONTAINS AN ERROR THAT IS CAUSED BY A LACK OF UNDERSTANDING OF ADJECTIVE CLAUSES. REWRITE THE SENTENCES CORRECTLY.

(1) The customers asked me if we had the beer what they wanted.

(2) The experience what I want to write about is learning English.

(3) French is my first language in which I am very articulate.

(4) In future, I will be more confident to apply for a job who requires a good knowledge of English.

(5) We had a neighbour that her son played soccer professionally.

(6) I always enjoy living in a spacious environment of which Hong Kong does not offer.

(7) When I look back on my life and think about the most exciting things ever happened to me, I have a hard time choosing one of them."

(8) The Tsar used to visit Poland what was a province of the empire.

(9) The company has enough surplus (8.4 million) to meet any deficiencies occur in 1991.

(10) One month later a man carried a long gun rushed into the company.

(11) In total there were five francophones versus twenty-five anglophones of which almost all of them were bilingual.

(12) To show their appreciation, the students prepared a homemade card to thank everybody who participated in the staff training which was appreciated by everyone.

(13) One morning she had a customer in her store named Ann with her son Sam.
SIX

NOUN CLAUSES

THESE ARE THE TERMS THAT WILL BE INTRODUCED IN CHAPTER SIX:

| subject noun clause | that -clause |
| object noun clause | interrogative noun clause |
| subject complement noun clause | relative noun clause |
| appositive noun clause | to infinitive noun clause |
| ‘object’ of preposition noun clause | -ing noun clause |
| ‘complement’ of adjective noun clause |

NOUN CLAUSES, ADJECTIVE CLAUSES, AND ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

• We saw in Chapter Three that the various kinds of dependent clause can be classified according to the role they play in the structure of whole sentences or clauses. In the case of the adverbial clauses we will be studying in Chapter Seven, there is a ‘one-to-one correspondence’ between clause type and sentence part: All adverbial clauses are adverbials. (This does not mean of course that they are all adverbials of complete sentences; many are adverbials of other clauses. As we have already seen, sentence parts could more accurately be referred to as ‘sentence/clause parts’.)

By contrast with adverbial clauses adjective clauses can never be complete sentence parts. They must always be parts of noun phrases — and these noun phrases may be either complete sentence parts or parts of sentence parts.

In terms of their correspondence to sentence parts, noun clauses can be seen as standing half way between adjective clauses or adverbial clauses: Sometimes they act as complete sentence parts; but sometimes they do not.

When they are acting as complete sentence parts, noun clauses will be either subjects, objects or complements. This is what we would expect because in simple sentences subjects, objects and complements must be either single-word nouns, or noun phrases. In other words there is some correspondence between noun clauses
and sentence parts, but the connection is not nearly as close as the connection between adverbial clauses and adverbials: This is because, as well as being subjects, or objects, or complements, noun clauses can also be appositives, ‘objects’ of prepositions, and ‘complements’ of adjectives.

NOUN CLAUSES AS SUBJECTS, OBJECTS, AND COMPLEMENTS

- In learning to recognize adjective clauses, it was necessary to get used to the idea of a structure — sometimes a very complicated one — doing the same thing as a single-word adjective. A similar problem must be faced in learning to recognize noun clauses. We are already familiar with the idea of the subject of a sentence or clause having more than a single word; we have seen how single-word subjects and objects are rare even in simple sentences. Still, it is a large jump from the idea of noun phrases — which at least cluster around a single headword — as subjects and objects to the idea of clauses themselves being the subjects and objects of sentences and clauses. We will approach this matter by considering a series of increasingly complicated sentences. First, a simple sentence with a single-word object

  *She collects shells.*

Next another simple sentence with a fairly complicated noun phrase as its object

  *She found a large shell with a crab inside it.*

In the first of these sentences, the single-word noun, *shell*, is the object of the sentence. In the second sentence, the noun phrase, *a large shell with a crab inside it*, is the object. Now consider the complex sentence

  *She believed that the shell was extremely valuable.*

Here the noun clause, *that the shell was extremely valuable*, is the object. Here is an example of a noun-clause subject

  *Where she found that shell remains a secret.*

And here is an example of a noun-clause subject complement.

  *Her worst fear was always that someone would steal her shells.*

THE SEMANTIC AND THE GRAMMATICAL VIEWS OF SUBJECTS AND OBJECTS

Perhaps one reason why the idea of noun-clause subjects and objects can be difficult is that we have ingrained in us from our school days the idea that subjects are the ‘things or persons’ that ‘do the action’ and objects are the ‘things or
persons’ that ‘receive the action’. This way of looking at things is useful because it helps to understand — without going into too much detail or theory — what subjects and objects are; but, at the same time it is misleading because it encourages us to think of subjects and objects as names of things. It encourages us, in other words, to think of subjects and objects as pieces of language that refer to something. When we acquire a deeper understanding of sentence structure and come to see that most subjects and objects are not single-word nouns but noun phrases, we can continue to think of subjects and objects as names. This remains possible even if the noun phrases are long and complicated. It makes just as much sense to see

*the delicately tapered, sumptuously colored shell in the cabinet beside the desk*

as the name of a thing as it does to see

*the shell*

in that way. Even a noun phrase that contains a clause such as

*the shell that she found on the beach*

can quite easily be seen as a name. When a subject or an object is a noun clause, however, it is not easy to think of it as a name. What thing, for example, does the noun clause object of the following sentence refer to?

*I don’t know why she finds shells so attractive.*

No one who has been trained to see grammatical objects simply as names will find it easy to identify the object of this sentence.

This traditional view of subjects and objects as names is a ‘semantic’ explanation of a grammatical category — comparable to the semantic explanations of word classes discussed in Chapter Two. As we saw there, the idea that word classes such as noun and verb can be regarded as the names of things and of actions is of limited use. But it is a useful idea. It is not so clear, on the other hand, that, once we get past the ‘beginners’ level, there is any point in talking about sentence parts such as subjects and objects as names. As we have pointed out several times, it is always important to keep meaning in mind when doing grammar, but there are times when concentrating on meaning can be dangerous. Perhaps this is one such place. Perhaps the best way to understand sentence structure is to ignore the question of what — if anything — subjects and objects name, and to concentrate on their grammatical characteristics. Perhaps it is easier to think of a clause as the subject or the object of a sentence if we think of subjects and objects not as names but as language structures that occupy certain positions in sentences.
NOUN CLAUSES AS APPositIVES, ‘OBJECTS’ OF PREPOSITIONS, AND ADJECTIVE ‘COMPLEMENTS’

The examples of noun clauses that we have looked at so far have been of these clauses playing their most important role as subjects and objects. Now we will consider three other ways that noun clauses can function in sentences: as appositives, as ‘objects’ of prepositions and as ‘complements’ of adjectives.

APPOSITIVE NOUN CLAUSES

We have already seen how the subjects of sentences and clauses can include noun-phrase appositives that simply sit beside the headword, and are set off with commas. Noun clauses also appear in this position as in the sentence

The idea that shells could feel pain came to obsess her.

Notice that, unlike appositive phrases, appositive noun clauses are not necessarily set off with commas. Whether they are or not depends on whether or not they are ‘restrictive’ or ‘non-restrictive’. (For an explanation of the terms ‘restrictive’ and ‘non-restrictive’, see page ??.) Here is an example of a non-restrictive appositive noun clause.

The only thing she wanted, to be left alone in peace with her shells, was the only thing he refused to give her.

The fact that both types of clause can be either restrictive or non-restrictive is not the only similarity between appositive noun clauses and adjective clauses. They are also alike in that they can both be introduced by the clause introducer, that, and in that they both must be understood with reference to a noun that they follow. Notice the superficial similarity between the appositive noun clause in

The story that she heard filled her with fear.

and an adjective clause like the one in

The story that the beach would be closed filled her with fear.

The difference can be described in this way: The adjective clause gives information about the story; it tells us what effect it had. The appositive clause tells us what the idea is; it states it or ‘puts it into words.’ We can also say that whereas the adjective clause and the noun it follows refer to different things, the appositive clause and the noun it follows refer to the same thing.

The two types of clause also differ in that finite appositive clauses can only be introduced by that whereas finite adjective clauses can be introduced by a wide variety of clause introducers including which and who. Moreover, the that that introduces appositive noun clauses cannot be either the subject or the object of the
Noun Clauses

55 / Noun Clauses

clause it introduces in the way that the clause introducers of adjective clauses usually can. It is also important to note that appositive clauses can only modify nouns that refer to things that can be put into word — nouns such as idea, story, report and theory.

NOUN-CLAUSE ‘OBJECTS’ OF PREPOSITIONS

• Prepositions are normally followed by noun phrases, but they can also be followed by noun clauses as in the following sentence

   No one said anything to me about her being interested in shells.

Noun clauses that function as objects of prepositions are always non-finite -ing clauses.

   The term ‘object of a preposition’ is a perhaps confusing from our point of view, given the importance we have placed of the idea of an ‘object’ as a sentence part. It is important to remember that ‘objects of prepositions’ are not objects of clauses or sentences — and indeed not sentence parts of any kind.

NOUN-CLAUSES AS ADJECTIVE COMPLEMENTS

• Noun clauses can also appear as adjective ‘complements’ in sentences such as

   I’m always afraid that she’s going to start talking about her shells.

or, to take a non-finite example, in a sentence such as

   I was eager to see her shells.

This use of noun clauses is different from all the others in that there is no comparable use of nouns or noun phrases. This fact raises the question of the legitimacy of calling structures like this noun clauses. Perhaps the best answer to this question would be simply to note that adjective complements of this sort have the structure of noun clauses — and to add to that the observation that there seems to be no better way to classify them.
The term ‘adjective complement’ is also unfortunate. Adjective complements are not, of course, sentence parts as subject complements and object complements are.

**Noun Clauses Classified According to Internal Structure**

- We have been looking at the way noun clauses can be classified according to their function in the structure of complex sentences. They can also be classified according to their internal grammatical form.

  Frequently, noun clauses of the same internal form can have different structural roles. For example, classified according to function, the first of the following noun clauses is a subject, the second an object. Classified according to internal form, they are both *that* clauses

  \[
  \text{That she identified the shell is certain.}
  \]

  \[
  \text{I know that she identified the shell.}
  \]

  Moreover, these sentence-structure roles could also be played by -\textit{ing} clauses, as in

  \[
  \text{Even as a child, looking for shells was her only pleasure.}
  \]

  and

  \[
  \text{She loves looking for shells.}
  \]

  Or by to infinitive clauses, as in

  \[
  \text{To distinguish between the shells was easy for her.}
  \]

  and

  \[
  \text{She planned to write a book about her shells.}
  \]

  Similarly, ‘interrogative clauses’ can be either subjects or objects. The clause in the following sentence is a subject

  \[
  \text{Why she loved the shell so much is hard to understand}
  \]

  and in the following sentence it is an object

  \[
  \text{She eventually forgot why she loved the shell so much}
  \]

  And the same is true of relative noun clauses:

  \[
  \text{What she was looking for is the most beautiful shell in the world.}
  \]
He was holding what looked like a gift.

It is not always easy to distinguish between interrogative and nominal relative noun clauses. On a semantic level the best we can say perhaps is that interrogative clauses are used when there is a question in the background: The sentences that contain them are concerned in one way or another with gaining knowledge, with finding out, with acquiring desired information. In the examples given above the background question would be: “Why did she love the shell so much?”

Semantically, relative noun clauses are characterized by the fact that there is no such gap of information. Often relative noun clauses are used when both speaker and listener know what is being referred to and could describe it in a more specific manner. For example I may tell you, I got what I wanted, when both you and I know that what I wanted was a pound of shrimp.

One good way of getting a grasp on the distinction between the two types of clause is to consider examples of ambiguous sentences where the ambiguity lies in whether the noun clause is interpreted as interrogative or relative. Take for example the sentence

I forgot what he asked for.

This sentence may be interpreted as meaning either that I know very well what he asked for but forgot to bring it — in which case the object is a relative noun clause. Or it may be interpreted as meaning that I don’t know any longer what is he asked for — in which case the object is an interrogative noun clause.

Only relative noun clauses can be concrete — that is to say only they can refer to a physical object like a table or chair. Therefore, given a sentence like

I paid for what she bought.

we know immediately that the object is a relative noun clause because the verb paid for cannot possibly take an abstract object.

On a more grammatical level there are several ways of distinguishing between the two types of clause: unlike interrogative relative clauses may take a plural verb when they are subjects as in

What friends he had are all dead now.

Moreover the compound clause introducers whatever, whenever, and whichever can be used in relative noun clauses but not in interrogative clauses.

There is also a possibility of changing the position of the prepositions when an interrogative clause is inside a prepositional phrase. For example

I don’t know on what day she’s coming.

can be changed to

I don’t know what day she’ll be coming on.

But this shift is not possible with relative nominal clauses. The preposition in

He finished what he was working on.

cannot be moved.
Another aspect of the grammatical distinction between interrogative and relative noun clauses is that the former but not the latter give rise to the common non-native error of incorrect use of subject/verb inversion. In sentences such as the following

\[ I \text{ don't know what time is it.} \]

the fact that a question word is used as a clause introducer and that there is, indeed, a question ‘in the background’ leads the non-native into the error of thinking that subject/verb inversion is correct. It would be extremely unusual, however, for a non-native speaker to make a comparable mistake with a relative noun clause and utter such a sentence as

\[ \text{What does he want is to get married} \]

**SUMMARY OF CLASSIFICATION OF NOUN CLAUSES**

In summary, nominal clauses can have five different types of internal grammatical structure. Three of these types are finite and two are non-finite.

**FINITE:**
- that-noun clauses
- interrogative noun clauses
- relative noun clauses

**NON-FINITE:**
- to-infinitive noun clauses
- -ing noun clauses

**REDUCTION OF NOUN CLAUSES**

As we have seen, noun clauses, like adjective clauses, can be either finite or non-finite. However, it is not possible to *reduce* a finite noun clause to a non-finite one in the way that finite adjective clauses can be reduced to non-finite adjective clauses. Usually, a particular sort of context requires a particular sort of noun clause. In other words, the grammatical form of the noun clause is normally determined by the associated verb or adjective. Compare, for example,

\[ \text{They suggested that she donate her shells to the museum.} \]

with

\[ \text{They asked her to donate her shells to the museum.} \]

The object of the first sentence is a finite noun clause, the object of the second sentence a non-finite noun clause. However, the object of the first sentence cannot be abbreviated to a non-finite clause — nor can the object of the second sentence be expanded into a finite clause. This is because the verb, *suggest* requires a *that*-clause as its subject and the verb, *ask*, requires a *to*-clause as its subject.
There are cases where the same verb can take two different types of noun clause as its object. For example, we can say either

*She started writing her book about shells.*

or

*She started to write her book about shells.*

This is only possible with certain verbs, however, and, in any case, it is not a matter of abbreviation but only a matter of replacing one sort of non-finite clause with another.

- One type of noun clause, the *that*-clause, *can* be systematically abbreviated in another way, however: When such a clause plays the role of object, the conjunction, *that*, can be removed. The example given above of an *that*-clause object could correctly be written:

*She believed the shell was extremely valuable.*

Care must be taken in omitting *that* from such sentences, however, because doing so sometimes leads to confusion. For example, omission of *that* would be a mistake in the sentence

*The general decided that on April 15 he would march toward Moscow.*

because without *that*, in

*The general decided on April 15 he would march toward Moscow.*

we cannot tell whether April 15 is the date the decision is made or the date the march will begin. Similarly, in

*Jerry believes that he is right and that he will win in the end*

the first *that* can be removed, but the second one must remain because, without it, the meaning of the sentence will be drastically changed. The sentence

*Jerry believes that he is right and he will win in the end*

compound. (It will seem that the it is the person writing the sentence, not Jerry himself, who believes that Jerry will win in the end.)
exercise 6-A

IN EACH OF THE FOLLOWING ITEMS THE DOUBLE-UNDERLINED WORDS MAKE UP EITHER AN ADJECTIVE CLAUSE OR A NOUN CLAUSE. INDICATE THE TYPE OF CLAUSE BY PLACING THE LETTERS ‘ADJ’ OR ‘NC’ IN THE BLANK SPACES PLACED AT THE BEGINNING OF EACH OF THE ITEMS.

(1)  ______ A cabdriver whose innocent stop at an automated teller led to the splashing of his face across the pages of two newspapers along with a description of him as a serial rape suspect has won a $400,000 settlement from Krenyow City and his bank.

(2)  ______ Police officials said the image appeared to show the suspect’s withdrawing money, using a bank card stolen from a rape victim.

(3)  ______ ______ His lawyer says that more than two years later Mr Shairton is still seeing a psychiatrist for depression and anxiety, which prevent him from driving his taxi full-time.

(4)  ______ Mr Shairton, who has four children, two of them in college and three grandchildren, said the money would be helpful.

(5)  ______ Taiwan rejected China’s request that the hi-jacker be immediately returned and detained him on charges of air piracy.

(6)  ______ The hijacker, armed with fruit knives and toothpaste tubes under his shirt that he said were explosives was identified as a Zhang Hai, a 27-year-old driver for the city government of Tangshan, in northeast China.

(7)  ______ Bosnian Army troops and United Nations forces tried to restore order in Vares today as Muslim soldiers continued looting the town.

(8)  ______ ______ Those who have lost everything tried to get back what they have lost.

(9)  ______ ______ Swedish peacekeepers trying to halt the looting were reinforced by French troops sent from Sarajevo about thirty miles to the south.

(10) ______ ______ ______ The new sanctions package, which the Security Council is expected to vote on early next week, will not take effect until a date to be set later this month and after the Russian parliamentary elections planned for December 12.
exercise 6-B

PUT THE FINITE NOUN CLAUSES IN THE FOLLOWING SENTENCES IN DOUBLE SLASHES (“// //”) AND PUT THE NON-FINITE NOUN CLAUSES IN DOUBLE ANGLES (“<< >>”).

IN THE FIRST BLANK SPACE AFTER EACH SENTENCE INDICATE WHAT ROLE THE CLAUSE PLAYS IN THE SENTENCE OR DEPENDENT CLAUSE THAT CONTAINS IT. USE ‘S’ FOR SUBJECTS, ‘O’ FOR OBJECTS, ‘C’ FOR COMPLEMENTS, ‘OP’ FOR OBJECTS OF PREPOSITIONS, ‘AP’ FOR APPositIVES, AND ‘CA’ FOR COMPLEMENTS OF ADJECTIVES.


(1) “If the idea is to go back in time,” quipped a governor, “I suggest an oxcart.”

(2) Officials will not know how widely the infection has spread until blood samples can be tested in the US.

(3) What two scientists at the US Geological survey found was a region 320 km across and 130 km deep that is denser than surrounding regions.

(4) Michael Wainwright claims he was admitted to Kurdistan by Iraqi guards while visiting Turkey.

(5) Through the camera lens, Bill Clinton looked relieved to be wrestling with a problem as relatively manageable as the economy.

(6) On Tuesday he proposed to reduce the White House staff by 350 people, which he said would satisfy his campaign promise of a 25% cut.

(7) The IAEA has warned the insular communist regime that this time it will bare its teeth and press for an unprecedented UN Security Council-backed ‘special inspection’ of two suspect buildings.

(8) Earlier this month he was charged with diverting at least $81 million from a Hyundai subsidiary to his campaign.
62 / Noun Clauses

exercise 6-C

PUT THE FINITE NOUN CLAUSES IN THE FOLLOWING SENTENCE IN DOUBLE SLASHES ("// //") AND PUT THE NON-FINITE NOUN CLAUSES IN DOUBLE ANGLES ("<< >>").

IN THE FIRST BLANK SPACE AFTER EACH SENTENCE INDICATE WHAT ROLE THE CLAUSE PLAYS IN THE SENTENCE OR DEPENDENT CLAUSE THAT CONTAINS IT. USE ‘S’ FOR SUBJECTS, ‘O’ FOR OBJECTS, ‘C’ FOR COMPLEMENTS, ‘OP’ FOR OBJECTS OF PREPOSITIONS, ‘AP’ FOR APPositives, AND ‘CA’ FOR COMPLEMENTS OF ADJECTIVES.


(1) The police today released 43 black militants arrested two days ago in a crackdown on the Pan Africanist Congress, conceding that they did not have enough evidence linking them to specific crimes. _______ _______

(2) His extraordinary financial success and a recent business problem he has encountered say much about what is happening in the lucrative world of tobacco smuggling. _______ _______

(3) The cabinet is discussing how to cut $2-billion from the public payroll. _______ _______

(4) The delay in meeting will allow the government and its advisers to firm up their plans. _______ _______

(5) Premier Bob Rae was uncertain about what the government should do next. _______ _______

(6) He complained that the union leaders had walked away from the negotiations without making counter offers. _______ _______

(7) The 1992 riots let the world know that the dream of a multiethnic paradise on the Pacific had collapsed. _______ _______

(8) One big mistake was trying to reach an agreement in two months. _______ _______ _______ _______
(9) It’s a textbook example of attempting to ignite a revolution. _______ _______

(10) The Security Council voted yesterday to send heavily armed troops to protect six Muslim enclaves in Bosnia Hercegovina. _______ _______

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table: exercise 6-D

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Exercise 6-D</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Each of the following sentences contains at least one error that is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caused by a lack of understanding of noun clauses. Find the errors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and rewrite the sentences correctly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1) Unfortunately he got fired because of the recession what was going on at</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2) Part of my job is have to compose some simple memos and letters.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3) When we are sick or suffering from some disease, the only thing we can</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>think of is go to the hospital.</td>
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<tr>
<td>(4) She did not have any choice except keeping the problem to herself because</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>if she'd told her husband what was happening at work he would have suspected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>her that she was the one who insisted on discussing sexual jokes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5) I couldn't believe it till I saw them how they had changed.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(6) Sexual harassment could also happen in a bar or on the street. It could</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>happen anywhere. It doesn't matter where. What it does matter is it shouldn't</td>
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<tr>
<td>happen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(7) I want everyone living on this planet feels happy.</td>
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<tr>
<td>(8) Scientists are working very hard to find out what are the causes of these</td>
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<tr>
<td>illnesses.</td>
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<tr>
<td>(9) As a young person I was taught how impressive could be changes in our</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>behaviour.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(10) The goal of this class is to improved grammatical accuracy in written</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and spoken English.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(11) I did not believe any of the stories until he asked me why that I did</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>not have any pictures of myself when I was a baby.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(12) My Uncle Tom heard that there was a new cancer medicine manufactured in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China but it was forbidden to import that medicine into Canada.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(13) If I closed my eyes the only thing I could see was someone was trying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to scare me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(14) I take ginseng often because it is considered very healthy and can give</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>me extra energy. Another important reason for taking it is it can slow down</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the aging process.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
SEVEN

ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

These are the terms that will be introduced in Chapter Seven:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adverbial Clause</th>
<th>Result/Purpose Clause</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subordinate Conjunction</td>
<td>Reason/Cause Clause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time Clause</td>
<td>Manner/Comparison Clause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Place Clause</td>
<td>Proportion Clause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concessive Clause</td>
<td>Verbless Clause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conditional Clause</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Adverbial clauses play the same role in sentences and clauses as do single-word adverbs and adverbial phrases. Consider the three following sentences:

  Later, a boat load of Rohingya refugees splashed up on the shore.

  In the morning, a boatload of Rohingya refugees splashed up on the shore.

  As the sun set behind the western banks of the Naf, a boatload of Rohingya refugees splashed up on shore.

In the first of these sentences a single-word adverbial gives information about the time of the refugees arrival on shore; in the second sentence the same job is done by a phrase, and in the third sentence by a complete clause.

Classification of Adverbial Clauses

- As we have seen, it is possible to sub-classify noun clauses according to the precise role they play in the sentence or clause that contains them. They generally play the role of nouns, but just as single-word nouns and noun phrases can do different things, so can noun clauses: Sometimes they are subjects, sometimes objects, or
complements, or appositives, or objects of prepositions. Adverbial clauses cannot be classified in this way because they all have the same, adverbial, function; they are all adverbials. Adverbial clauses can, however, be classified according to the sort of information they provide — in other words, according to their meaning.

For example, in

_They left the country after the king had been assassinated._

the adverbial clause is called a time clause because it gives information about the time. It tells *when* the king was assassinated. In the sentence

_The merchants left the country because they were afraid of being put in jail._

on the other hand this adverbial clause is called a *purpose clause* because it gives information about the merchants’ purpose in leaving.

- Finite adverbial clauses begin with clause introducers called **subordinating conjunctions**. Each type of adverbial clause has its own set of conjunctions. It is generally possible to identify a particular type of adverbial clause by looking for the conjunction that introduces it. But this ‘mechanical’ test does not always work because several conjunctions can be used to introduce more than one type of clause. The most important types of adverbial clause are time clauses, **place clauses**, **concessive clauses**, **conditional clauses**, **result/purpose clauses**, **manner/comparison clauses** and **proportion clauses**.

**TIME CLAUSES**

- Here are the important subordinating conjunctions used to introduce time clauses: *after, as, before, once, since, until, when, whenever, while, as long as, as soon as* and *by the time that*. Time clauses can appear either at the end or the beginning of a complex sentence. For example

  _After he had told her, he felt relieved._

  or:

  _She stared at her feet while he was talking to her.*_

  Notice that when the adverbial clause comes at the beginning of the sentence, a comma is used between the two clauses, but, when the adverbial clause comes at the end of the sentence, no comma is used.

  Notice also that in sentences such as

  _It’ll be interesting to see what she’s wearing when she arrives tomorrow._
the verb of the time clause is in the present even though the clause is about the future. Future tense verb forms are not used in sentences about the future.

Several of the subordinating conjunctions mentioned, above, *after, before, until, since,* and *while,* are also be used as prepositions to introduce prepositional adverbial phrases in such sentences as

*After supper, he felt tired.*

Moreover, as we shall see below, two of the subordinating conjunctions, *since* and *while,* can be used with different meanings to introduce other sorts of adverbial clause

Because of the difficulty that many non-native speakers have in using the present perfect and present perfect continuous correctly and other ‘perfect’ verb forms correctly, it is worth noting the connection between these verb phrases and the subordinating conjunction *since.* In a high percentage of the cases in which *since* is used in this way, the main verb of the sentence is in the present perfect or the present perfect continuous. For example

*S Since they made the decision to close the plant, employees have been protesting at the front gate.*

Sometimes the verb of the dependent clause is *also* in a perfect form. For example

*S Since the employees have been protesting, the management has refused to negotiate with them.*

In these examples, because they involve the present perfect and the present perfect continuous, we are concerned with a period of time that begins in the past and continues up to the present. But *since* can also be used in connection with the *past* perfect or the *past perfect continuous* to refer to a period of time that begins and *ends* in the past. For example

*S Since the employees had been protesting, the management had refused to negotiate with them.*

**PLACE CLAUSES**

- The most important subordinating conjunctions used to introduce place clauses are: *where* and *wherever.* For example:

  *Wherever she goes on holiday, she is disappointed*

  or

  *I want to go where no one has ever been before.*

  It is important to distinguish between adverbial *where* clauses such as this and adjectival *where*-clauses such as
The house where he was born burnt down long ago.

and noun where clauses such as

I don’t know where he was born.

CONCESSIVE CLAUSES

• Concessive subordinate conjunctions such as although, though, and even though are used to introduce information that somehow contrasts with or goes against the information given by the main subject and verb. For example,

Although he left his country many years ago, he still dreams of returning

Notice the similarity between concessive subordinating conjunctions and the coordinating concessive conjunction but. It is important to avoid the mistake of using both of these conjunctions to do the same job as in:

Although he left the country many years ago, but he still dreams of returning.

It is also important to notice that the concessive conjunction even though is just an emphatic version of although and though. Errors are often caused by a confusion between even though and the concessive subordinating conjunction even if. There is an important difference between

She’ll do it even though she doesn’t want to.

and

She’ll do it even if she doesn’t want to.

The first of these sentences could be paraphrased as

I know she doesn’t want to do it, but she’ll do it anyway.

and the second sentence could be paraphrased as

I don’t know whether or not she wants to do it, but I know that, however she feels about it, she’ll do it anyway.

CONDITION CLAUSES

• The most basic conjunctions of condition are if, unless, and whenever, and the most important of these is if.

• Condition clauses are descriptions of situations, which may — or would — make another description true. Complex sentences that include a conditional clause are traditionally referred to as conditionals. There are two basic types of conditional —
‘real’ and ‘unreal’. When a real conditional is used, the person making the statement remains neutral as to whether or not the condition is fulfilled. The following sentence is an example of a real conditional

*If the Cambodian People’s Party wins the election, there will again be war with the Khmer Rouge.*

Here, the person making the statement makes no commitment one way or the other on the question of whether or not the Cambodian People’s Party will, in fact, win the election. The statement is *neutral* on this matter. (It would perhaps be more accurate and more informative to describe statements like this as ‘neutral conditionals’ rather than as ‘real conditionals’.) Our example can be rewritten as an *unreal* conditional in the following way

*If the Cambodian People’s Party won the election, there would again be war with the Khmer Rouge.*

In choosing this form, the person making the statement expresses the belief that the Cambodian People’s Party is *not* going to win the election. Notice that in order to express the ‘unreality’ of the conditional the past tense of *win* is used in the conditional clause even though the statement is still about the future — and, for the main verb, *could*, the ‘past’ form of *can*, is used.

It is also possible to form *past* unreal conditionals. In conditionals of this kind, the *past perfect* is used in the dependent clause and the main verb phrase uses the ‘perfect infinitive’ — *have* as an auxiliary followed by the past participle. For example

*If the Cambodian People’s Party had won the election, there would again have been war with the Khmer Rouge.*

- In formal usage the ‘subjunctive were’ must be used in unreal conditionals. In other words, in a formal context

  *If I were rich, I’d be happy.*

is to be preferred to

*If I was rich, I’d be happy.*

In informal writing and in speech, either form is acceptable.

• Although *would* is the modal auxiliary most commonly used in the main verb of unreal conditionals, *could*, and *might* are also possible. The effect of using one of these conditionals is to lessen the degree of certainty about the connection between the two situations. For example in

*If the Cambodian People’s Party had won the election, there might again have been war with the Khmer Rouge.*
the person making the statement leaves open the possibility of the Cambodian People's Party having won the election and war with the Khmer Rouge still having been avoided.

- **Unless**, has the meaning of *if...not*. For example, instead of saying

  *If you do not answer before the phone rings ten times, we immediately call one of the help numbers you have listed.*

  we can say

  *Unless you answer before the phone rings ten times, we immediately call one of the help numbers you have listed.*

*Unless* is useful because, generally speaking, the elimination of negatives simplifies structure and increases clarity. *Unless* is generally used, however, only in real conditionals.

**RESULT/PURPOSE CLAUSES**

- The most important subordinating conjunctions in this category are *so (that)*, *in order to*, and *in order that*. *So (that)* is particularly important — and can be particularly confusing. It is used in sentences such as the following.

  *He left early so (that) he would be sure to arrive on time.*

  The word *that* is optional and is usually omitted, especially in informal speech

  The word *so* by itself is also used to show that one situation is the *result* of another, as in

  *I stayed up to watch a movie, so I've been tired all day.*

  Here, *so* is operating not as an abbreviated form of a subordinating conjunction but as a ‘marginal’ coordinating conjunction. (We cannot classify *so* as a basic coordinating conjunction because it is possible to place the coordinating conjunction *and* in front of *so* when it is used as it is used in the previous sentence.) Further evidence that *so* is working as a kind of coordinating conjunction when it is used to express result, is provided by the fact that, like other subordinating conjunctions *so (that)* — used to express purpose — can appear at the beginning of the two clauses it joins together rather than in the middle position. For example

  *So (that) he would be sure to arrive on time, he left early.*

  On the other hand, the following sentence is not correct

  *So I've been tired all day, I stayed up to watch a movie.*

  It is also necessary, incidentally, to distinguish between *so (that)* used as a subordinating conjunction of time and the clause introducer *so...(that)* used in sentences such as

  *I was so tired (that) I stayed home*
We will take up so...(that) when we discuss comparative clauses in Chapter Eight.

**REASON/CAUSE CLAUSES**

- The most important subordinating conjunctions used in this way are *because*, and *since*. *As* is also used.

- Clauses of this sort are used in sentences that give *explanations*. When we explain something by mentioning people’s desires or thoughts — as in,

  *I said it because I was angry*

we are giving reasons. When we explain without mentioning anyone’s thoughts as in

  *The plane crashed because it hit a flock of birds*

we are giving a cause. (Sometimes is is difficult to distinguish between reasons and causes, but this is not usually important.)

- The most important subordinating conjunctions in this category are *because*, *as*, and *since*. They have are more or less the same meaning. They could be substituted freely for one another in sentences such as the following.

  *Since the process leading to the disease may begin years before symptoms appear, researchers are able to identify those at risk by looking for antibodies.*

  *The search for therapies is focusing on substances such as insulin and nicotinamide because they are relatively harmless and have few side effects.*

There are differences, however. Although, like all adverbial clauses, clauses introduced with these subordinating conjunctions can appear either before or after the main verb. It is much more *common* however, for *since* and *as* clauses to appear at the beginning and for *because* clauses to appear at the end.

- Clauses beginning with *in case* are also used to give reasons in sentences like

  *I’m going to shut all the windows in case there’s a storm*

but *in case* is used to introduce a special sort of reason. We use it to explain actions that are done because we feel that there is a *possibility* of something happening that will have bad effects — and we want to guard against those bad
effects or to protect ourselves from them. The example just given could be paraphrased as follows

_I believe there’s a possibility of a storm. I’m afraid that a storm would damage things inside my house if the windows are open when it happens. Therefore, I’m going to close the windows._

**MANNER/COMPARISON CLAUSES**

The most important subordinating conjunctions in this category are _as_ and _as if_. (This is a third use of _as_ as a subordinating conjunction. We have already seen how it can be used to introduce time clauses and reason/cause clauses.) _As_ is used to express manner in sentences like this

_He came in the back door as I had asked him to._

This could be paraphrased as

_I asked him to come in the back door in a certain way. He came in the door in that way._

In informal contexts, _like_ is often used as to introduce clauses of manner. Instead of the sentence quoted above, we might say, for example

_He came in the back door like I had asked him to._

In formal contexts however, _like_ can only be used as a preposition as in

_Like a fool, he came in the back door_

_As if_ is used in sentences such as

_He’s talking about the party as if the whole thing were his idea._

This sentence could be paraphrased as

_The party is not his idea, but he’s the way he’s talking about it makes it seem that he thinks it is or that he wants other people to believe it is._
Notice that the ‘subjunctive were’ can be used with as if. It is appropriate here for the same reason as with ‘unreal’ conditionals: It indicates the ‘unreality’ of the party being his idea.

**PROPORTION CLAUSES**

- The most important subordinating conjunctions in this category are *as* and *the*. For example,

  **As I listened to him speak, I slowly came to like him.**

  The following is one of the possible paraphrases

  **At first I didn’t like him, but my opinion of him improved in proportion to the time I spent listening to him speak.**

  The same effect is possible with the *the*...

  **The more I listened to him, the more I liked him**

  Here is another example using the same construction

  **The fatter I get, the more I want to eat.**

  Notice that in these examples a comparative adjective appears in both clauses of each sentence. *The*...*the* can only be used when two such adjectives are present.

  It is perhaps not entirely satisfactory to classify sentences formed with *the*...*the* as complex because there is not really any reason for describing one clause as dependent and the other as independent. Still, since sentences formed in this way are obviously not either simple or compound, it seems best to regard *the*...*the* as an idiosyncratic —that is to say a rather unusual — subordinating conjunction.

  There are three other conjunctions, *inasmuch as*, *insofar as*, and *to the extent that* that, although quite formal, are worth mentioning. They are used in sentences such as

  **Insofar as any human being is a monster, Stalin was one.**

  This could be paraphrased as follows

  **No human being can be said to be completely monstrous, but Stalin came as close as anyone could.**

  or

  **The proportion of monstrousness to other qualities in Stalin’s personality was as high as it could possibly be.**
NON-FINITE ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

ABBREVIATED ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

• All of the examples of adverbial clauses we have looked at so far have been finite — but non-finite adverbial clauses are also common. The majority of these are abbreviated adverbial clauses. These clauses use some of the same conjunctions that are used to introduce the finite adverbial clauses we have been studying. We cannot, however, mechanically abbreviate adverbial clauses, as we can, more or less, mechanically abbreviate finite adjective clauses. Many common conjunctions — because is one — cannot be used with abbreviated clauses.

ABBREVIATED TIME CLAUSES

• Abbreviated -ing clauses can be formed with after, before, since, when(ever) and while. For example,

  After finishing his work, he collapsed.

Abbreviated -ed clauses can be formed with once, until, when(ever) and while. For example,

  While imprisoned, he wrote a book about word origins.

It is also possible to form so called ‘verbless adverbial clauses’ with subordinating conjunctions of time. For example

  Once out of jail, he led an easy life.

A verbless clause is a group of words that does not contain either a subject or a verb but which must be understood as implicitly containing these. In other words, in order to understand the words

  once out of jail

we must realize that they are an abbreviation of

  once he was out of jail

The fact that most non-finite clauses clauses do not have an explicit subject quickly required us to modify our original definition of clause to read: a group of words that has a subject and a verb — or that must be analyzed as having a subject and a verb. This definition also allows us to accept ‘verbless clauses’ — groups of words that do not have either an explicit subject or an explicit verb but which, if they are to be properly understood, must be analyzed as having both these. Of course, talking of ‘verbless clauses’ raises even more urgently than did the idea of clauses with implicit subjects the question of whether the line between clauses and phrases is becoming dangerously blurred.
In the example given above, the presence of the subordinating conjunction, *once*, lends plausibility to the idea that the group of words, *once out of jail*, should be thought of as a clause and this impression is strengthened by the presence of the preposition *out of* which, because it indicates movement, seems to suggest the presence of the subject and a verb. However, if *once* is removed and *out of* is changed to *in*, giving

\[ \text{In jail, he led an easy life.} \]

then the clausal interpretation becomes much less plausible. And in light of that it becomes difficult to argue that one of these two closely related constructions is a clause and the other a mere phrase. Against that, it can be pointed out that the fact that one sort of thing merges into another does not mean that there is not an important difference between the two things.

**• Abbreviated Concessive Clauses**

- *Although* and *though* can be used to form *-ing, -ed, and ‘verbless clauses’*. For example,

\[ \text{Though knowing the answer to the question, she resolutely maintained her silence.} \]

\[ \text{Although sentenced to life imprisonment, he left the courtroom smiling and waving to his friends.} \]

\[ \text{Even though knowing the truth, he ordered the execution to take place.} \]

\[ \text{Though cold and hungry, they struggled on without complaint.} \]

The emphasized words in the last item are another example of a verbless clause. In order to understand

\[ \text{though cold and hungry} \]

we must realize that it is an abbreviation of

\[ \text{though he was cold and hungry} \]

**Abbreviated Condition Clauses**

- All the conjunctions that can be used to form in this category can be used with abbreviated clauses.

\[ \text{If ordered before 10 p.m., your software will be delivered the following day.} \]
He is expected to be ready to report, *whenever required*.

*Unless otherwise informed*, please continue to make your payments to this address.

**ABBREVIATED CLAUSES OF REASON**

- Clauses of reason cannot be abbreviated. However, ‘supplementive clauses’ — non-finite clauses which have no clause introducers and which can be regarded as either adverbial or adjectival — provide a compact way of expressing information about reasons and causes in a non-finite clause. For example, instead of saying

  *Because he was tired of waiting, he picked up the phone.*

we can say

  *Tired of waiting, he picked up the phone.*

Supplementive clauses will be discussed in the next chapter.

**TO-INFINITIVE CLAUSES**

- There is one important type of non-finite adverbial clause which cannot be regarded as an abbreviation: the *to*-infinitive clause of purpose:

  *I arrived early* to do my xeroxing.

Clauses like this have approximately the same meaning as the finite clauses of purpose in such sentences as

  *I arrived early this morning because I wanted to do my xeroxing.*

or

  *I arrived early this morning so that I could do my xeroxing*.

But because it is impossible to connect the *to*-infinitive clause with any particular non-finite form, and because the meaning of the sentences containing them is not precisely the same as the meaning of the sentences containing the finite clauses, they are not really abbreviations of the finite clauses.

Despite their importance to-infinitive clauses cannot be put into the negative. In other words although we can say

  *I wore three sweaters to keep warm.*
we cannot say

*I wore three sweaters to not get cold.*

If we want a negative verb phrase, we must use a finite clause as in

*I wore three sweaters so I wouldn’t get cold.*

exercise 7-A

In each of the following items the double-underlined words make up either an adjective clause, a noun clause or an adverbial clause. Indicate the type of clause by placing the letters ‘ADJ’ or ‘NC’ in the blank spaces placed at the beginning of each of the items.

(1) A scowling black-clad youth with a fearsome haircut and clothes made of safety pins is stamping around in a pair of big black boots.

(2) Nearby a neat Japanese couple are discussing styles, while two young Dutch women in shorts and backpacks and several teenagers of both sexes browse the shelves.

(3) For Shelly’s customers, tourist or native, the one brand that counts carries a black-and-yellow tag at the heel.

(4) Mr Griggs, who has invested £3 million in DM Clothing, denies that the venture smacks of opportunism.

(5) The town has no electricity at night because there is no money for fuel for the diesel generators.

(6) The shark is attracted to the canoe with a coconut shell rattle shaken under the water.

(7) A trap is used to catch the fish.

(8) When conditions are right, this is the most effective method of fishing I have ever seen.

(9) In other cities demolishing buildings is a minor form of spectator sport.

(10) Along the casino-laden stretch of highway known as The Strip, it is an exorcism.

(11) Before the Dunes Hotel was dynamited into rubble last week, there occurred a spectacular fireworks display.
(12) This fall, more than 10,500 hotel rooms are to be added to what has become the world’s densest concentration of tourist facilities.

(13) Her argument is that government should treat pornography as action to be regulated.

(14) Society is made of words whose meanings the powerful control.

(15) MacKinnon reasons serenely as fanatics do within a closed circle of logic.

exercise 7-B

UNDERLINE THE ADVERBIAL CLAUSES. (THEY ARE ALL FINITE.) IN THE BLANK SPACE AFTER EACH ITEM, INDICATE THE CATEGORY TO WHICH THE CLAUSE BELONGS. USE THE FOLLOWING ABBREVIATIONS: T = TIME; P = PLACE; CN = CONCESSIVE; RS = RESULT/PURPOSE; IF = CONDITION; CS = REASON/CAUSE; MN = MANNER/COMPARISON; PR = PROPORTION.

(1) When I was a child, I was terrified of the dark. __________   __________

(2) As you get older, fear vanishes. __________   __________

(3) Because life with my mother hadn’t turned out how he had hoped, my father was always hesitant and uneasy. __________   __________

(4) While discretion about the hundreds of other candidates for the job has been scrupulously observed, Ms Eaton disclosed last week that they had included not only journalists and actors from both sides of the Atlantic but also a few ‘aristocrats’. __________   __________

(5) Though the famine has abated, peace remains elusive, and the new U.N. force in Somalia, UNOSOM II, will face continued trouble when it takes command on May 1. (a) __________   __________   (b) __________   __________

(6) If several hundred rebel insurgents suddenly decide to do battle in a wildlife preserve, is this considered guerrilla warfare or gorilla warfare? __________   __________

(7) It took until January of this year before the province brought in a rule requiring five minutes’ rest for every hour spent on a computer keyboard. __________   __________

(8) I’ve spoken to leading experts in the field whereas most patients get only a few minutes with their family doctor or a specialist. __________   __________

(9) Office workers have been using keyboards since the first typewriters were introduced in the 1870’s. __________   __________
78 / Adverbial Clauses

(10) Until the government confronts these issues, the problem will remain.

exercise 7-C

UNDERLINE THE ABBREVIATED (NON-FINITE) ADVERBIAL CLAUSES. IN THE BLANK SPACE AFTER EACH SENTENCE, INDICATE THE CATEGORY TO WHICH THE CLAUSE BELONGS. USE THE FOLLOWING ABBREVIATIONS: T = TIME; P = PLACE; CN = CONCESSION; RS = RESULT/PURPOSE; IF = CONDITION; CS = REASON/CAUSE; MN = MANNER/COMPARISON; PR = PROPORTION.

(1) After campaigning for four years against gridlock, pollution, driver’s aggression and accidents, the German press now wonders why people aren’t buying cars.

(2) The independent Unemployment Unit said the jobless total was 4,163,000 if calculated on the basis used before 1982.

(3) If adopted, the plan will permit a charming, civilised 21st century Seattle.

(4) After reading English at Oxford for two years without much enthusiasm Henry left the university without a degree, and went to work at a Birmingham factory.

(5) It is a standard conservative ploy to say that the states should do more because they are closer to the people, while at the same time failing to suggest where the states are to get the financial and intellectual wherewithal to carry out their greater responsibilities.

(6) Fred Gingell, the courtly interim Opposition Leader who has replaced Mr Wilson, denies that the Liberals performed poorly in the last legislative session, but he admitted they suffered from stage fright, as well as inexperience with the media, particularly when compared to the seasoned NDP members.

(7) While falling short of new Siberian giants, Ukrainian wells are big by standards of Alberta’s picked-over oilfields.

(8) After being bartered off to a new family, with little education, limited access to health care and no knowledge of birth control, young brides soon became young mothers.

(9) If unsigned by Ukraine and other independent republics (Belarus and Kazakhstan) that have nuclear weapons, this means the ambitions START-2 treaty won’t be worth the paper it’s written on.
exercise 7-D

EACH OF THE FOLLOWING ITEMS CONTAINS AN ERROR CAUSED BY A LACK OF UNDERSTANDING OF THE PRECISE MEANING OF A SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTION OR BY A IGNORANCE OF THE POSSIBLE FORMS OF ADVERBIAL CLAUSES. CORRECT THE ERRORS.

(1) I learned the English language in a hard way, by immersing myself completely in an English environment. I never really received or took any English courses after that I graduated from high school.

(2) She made a decision to take a risk even she knew there was no contact address for her to trace in the future.

(3) During the first few weeks, he felt that there was a war inside him every time when he took a tablet.

(4) Leora escapes and gets help from her friend, the Wizard, who tells her she must find a balloon and plant it under a tree in the courtyard, saying magic words.

(5) After saying the magic words, the tree begins to quiver and blossom with hundreds and hundreds of balloons that start floating in the air, filling the courtyard, the town and the whole country.

(6) We ask that this journey won't end before we will have dreamt.

exercise 7-E (Finite and non-finite clauses)


(1) When saber-toothed cats and other big animals died off about 10,000 years ago, the California condor retreated to the carrion-rich Pacific coast and survived.

(2) A Spanish priest recorded seeing one in 1602.

(3) Twenty-seven birds remained as genetic “founders” for a breeding program that has produced twenty-five additional birds, including the two freed last week.

(4) Since a condor’s wings are too large for much flapping, it soars skyward by jumping from its mountaintop nest into an updraft.

(5) On the ground, the birds need a spiraling thermal air current to take off.
(6) Condors find food in open flatlands where shrubbery will not hamper takeoffs.

(7) They used to live on cliff tops around California’ Central Valley and fly to lowlands where hunters shot deer and left “gut piles” full of fragments of toxic lead.

(8) Chicks raised in captivity have prospered at the San Diego and Los Angeles zoos.

(9) At least 30 of the 49 black-footed ferrets released in a Wyoming wilderness last fall have died.

(10) In Texas, reintroduced northern aplomado falcons were killed off by great horned owls that had moved into the falcon’s old territory.

(11) Captive breeding may destroy behaviors needed for survival.

(12) Zoo-bred golden lion tamarins dropped out of trees and ignored natural food after going back to the Brazilian jungle.

(13) The first red wolves reintroduced to a North Carolina refuge wandered into residential neighborhoods.

(14) Stillborn calves left on mountains might keep the birds from flying to flatland sources of toxic food.

(15) And moving the carrion around will force natural foraging behavior.

(16) Biologists assume that intensive care is temporary.

exercise 7-F (SVOCA Review)

Using the usual symbols, do a SVOCA analysis on the following sentences

(1) The murmuring began right after Nancy Kim opened the test booklet for her midterm biology exam at McGill University in Montreal.

(2) Soon it became a series of clear voices, uttering distinguishable words.

(3) As Ms. Kim strove to complete the multiple-choice test, she realized many of the 300 students were consulting each other on the answers.

(4) As she walked to the front of the room to hand in her booklet to the lone supervisor, one student leaned out and asked: “Wha’d’ya put for number 38?”

(5) Cheating, always a feature of university life, appears to be on the increase.

(6) A study at Rutgers University in New Brunswick, N.J., put the number of students who admit to some form of “academic dishonesty” at 80 per cent or higher.
(7) Although few have studied cheating in Canada, those who have done so believe it is just as widespread here.

(8) It has entered a high-tech mode, with programmable watches and calculators superseding “cheat sheets” or notes scrawled on the soles of sneakers.
THESE ARE THE TERMS THAT WILL BE INTRODUCED IN CHAPTER EIGHT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>comparative clause</th>
<th>sentential relative clause</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>comp-element</td>
<td>comment clause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ambiguous</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>supplementive clause</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>with</em> clause</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

COMPARATIVE CLAUSES

- Comparative clauses are used in connection with comparative adjectives and adverbs such as *more*.

In the examples below, these words, and the nouns they modify are printed in CAPS. The comparative clauses they are connected with are printed in bold.

MORE PEOPLE drink beer *than* wine

*I drink MORE BEER than you*

The words and phrases in caps can be called comparative elements, or comp-elements for short. It is helpful to think of these complex sentences as the result of joining two simple sentences. In the first sentence the two simple sentences would be

People drink wine

and

People drink beer
These sentences both refer to the people who participate in a particular activity do a particular thing — people who drink. In the complex sentence

More people drink beer than drink wine

the two simple sentences are joined together to make a comparison between the people who take part in one activity and the people who take part in the other.

The comp-element can be thought of as the common ground that connects the two sentences it is the comp-element that explains what sort of comparison is being made.

SENTECE FUNCTIONS OF THE COMP-ELEMENT

- Comparative clauses can be classified according to the role played by the comp-element. For example, in the sentence,

MORE RECORDINGS have been made of Vivaldi’s “Four Seasons” than of any other piece of classical music.

the comp-element is the subject, whereas in the sentence

You have LESS TIME than I do

it is the object. And in

We walked FARTHER than we had planned

it is an adverbial.

ELLIPSIS IN COMPARATIVE CLAUSES

- The following sentence is correct English

Edgar knows MORE ABOUT MUSIC than Dorothy knows about music.

but, although correct, it is not ordinary usage. Because the main verb and the verb in the comparative clause are the same, we normally omit the verb in the comparative clause and say instead

Edgar knows MORE ABOUT MUSIC than Dorothy does.

Abbreviation of this sort is a type of ellipsis — or abbreviation of clause structure. Ellipsis is a common feature when, as is often the case, the main clause and the comparative clause are similar in structure. Ellipsis of comparative clauses is often carried further: to produce sentences like:
Edgar knows MORE ABOUT MUSIC than Dorothy

Sentences of this sort are not only correct; they are also common and useful. They are, however, ambiguous: They have more than one possible meaning. The ambiguity of this sentence lies in the fact that, looking at it in isolation, we cannot be sure whether Edgar knows more about music than Dorothy knows about music or whether he knows more about music than he knows about Dorothy.

A sentence does not lose its value because it is ambiguous. The context — the preceding and following sentences and the situation in which the sentence is used — will almost always make it clear how it should be interpreted.

In the sentence we have just been looking at, everything but the subject of the comparative clause is ellipted. Here the subject is the ‘proper’ noun, Dorothy; but, often, in making this kind of sentence, we will want to use a pronoun. And then the question arises: Should we use a subject or an object pronoun? In other words, if we want to abbreviate

Edgar knows MORE ABOUT MUSIC than she knows about music.

which of the following is correct?

Edgar knows MORE ABOUT music than she.

or

Edgar knows more about music than her

There is a prescriptive tradition according to which the subject pronoun must be used if it is taking the place of the subject of the ellipted clause. (A ‘prescriptive tradition’ is an idea of grammarians and language teachers about how people should speak.) The defenders of this idea argue that it is logical to use a subject pronoun to replace the subject of an ellipted comparative clause. They also point out that, if a subject pronoun is used, it is possible to form distinguishable elliptical versions of pairs of sentences such as

He loves the cat more than she loves the cat

and

He loves the cat more than he loves his wife

If the prescriptive tradition that insists on a subject pronoun being used to replace a subject is followed, then the first of these sentences will be abbreviated as

He loves the cat more than she.
and the second as

*He loves the cat more than her.*

If the prescriptive tradition is not followed, both sentences will be abbreviated in the same way and the distinction will be lost.

Despite the logical case that can be made in its favour, however, the prescriptive tradition is generally ignored in speech, even by educated people. In writing, there is a strong tendency to use the subject pronoun to take the place of the subject of the complete clause, but even then, simply ending the sentence with a subject pronoun sounds overly formal to many people — and for this reason less extreme ellipses employing auxiliary verbs are often used. For example, it is possible to avoid both the impression of pomposity and the impression of carelessness by saying

*He loves the cat more than she does.*

THE FUNCTIONS OF *MORE* WITHIN THE COMP-ELEMENT

- It is worth noting that just as we can classify the different sentence roles that can be played by the comp-element, we can also classify the ways that the word *more* can function inside the comp-element. It can be a *quantifier* in such sentences as

  *I have *more* time now than before I retired.*

a *pronoun* head of a noun phrase in

*More of his books* had been damaged than he realized at first

or an *adverb* in

*She talked *more* than her husband.*

*More* is also used as an adverb when it is used to create comparative forms of multi-syllable adjectives as in

*She turned out to be far *more* interesting than her sister.*

and when it is used to create comparative adverbs as in

*She smiled even *more* sweetly than usual.*

OTHER COMPARATIVE EXPRESSIONS

In the comparative clauses we have looked at so far, the word *more* or the *-er* form of an adjective or adverb is used to form the comp-element. Other sorts of comp-elements are used to make other kinds of comparison.
She is as TALL as I am.

Other clause introducers enough and too are used to create clauses of sufficiency and clauses of excess:

- They had ENOUGH WATER to last for several days
- He is TOO OLD to do that sort of thing.

Notice that when too and enough are used to form the comp-element the comparative clause is a to-infinitive clause.

The structures so (+ ADJ) (that) and such (+ NOUNPHRASE) (that) are used to form clauses in which a comparison of sufficiency or excess is combined with the idea of result

I'm SO TIRED that I can't stand up.

She was saying SUCH TERRIBLE THINGS that I hung up.

**THE SENTENCE ROLE OF COMPARATIVE CLAUSES**

- Like adjective clauses, comparative clauses can never be entire sentence parts; the same thing can be said for the comp-elements to which the comparative clauses are attached. Together, however the comparative clause and the comp-element do make up a sentence part — a phrase in which the comp-element is seen as a head that is postmodified by the comparative clause. For example, the following sentence

She understands MORE ENGLISH than she did three months ago

is SVOCA-analyzed in the following way

[She] (understands) <more English than she did three months ago>.

The object of this sentence can be ‘internally’ analyzed as follows.

MORE ENGLISH {than she did three months ago}

where the caps indicate the ‘head’ and the brackets enclose the post-modifying comparative clause.

When the combination of comp-element and comparative clause is the subject of the sentence the comparative clause segment of the subject is separated from the comp-element and is placed at the end of the sentence. For example

FEWER ROBBERIES have occurred in the last twelve months than occurred during any other year since 1955.

is analyzed in the following way
[Fewer robberies] (have occurred) in the last twelve months [than during any other year since 1955].

SUPPLEMENTIVE CLAUSES

- In the last chapter we briefly mentioned supplementive clauses a sort of non-finite clause that can be regarded as either adverbial or adjectival. Here is an example

  **Dressed in a well-tailored grey suit, Gorbachev appeared relaxed and in good spirits as he chatted with McDougall**

A sentence like this can reasonably be thought of as resulting from the displacement of the non-finite non-restrictive adjective clause in

  **Gorbachev, dressed in a well-tailored grey suit, appeared relaxed and in good spirits as he chatted with McDougall**

It could also be argued, however, that the introductory clause is not adjectival at all, but is rather an adjunctive adverbial clause, giving information about how Gorbachev appeared. Certainly, this interpretation has the merit of fitting in well with the introductory position of the clause: Standard adverbial clauses often appear at the beginning of sentences but standard adjective clauses never do. There is a difficulty with the adverbial interpretation, however: It seems that if the non-finite clause is an adverbial clause, there should be some full adverbial clause of which it is the abbreviation, but it is not possible to find such a clause. For example

  **When he was dressed in a well-tailored grey suit, Gorbachev appeared relaxed and in good spirits as he chatted with McDougall**

has a very different meaning than the original sentence. The non-finite clause simply gives some extra information about the situation being described. The finite clause implies that Gorbachev’s good mood is closely connected with the fact that he is wearing a well-tailored suit and suggests that his spirits are probably going to decline as soon as he takes it off.

The best way to look at clauses of this sort is as devices for inserting extra, relevant information — ‘supplementing’ information — into sentences without making any definite connection between that information and any particular sentence part. Looking at these clauses in this way amounts to classifying them as disjunctive adverbials — adverbials that modify, not the verb phrase but the whole sentence. They differ from standard disjuncts in that they do not really provide information about the speaker’s or writer’s attitude toward the content of the sentence. However, they do something similar: They provide information that the speaker or
writer thinks will be useful or interesting to the listener or the reader. And, because they do not require either finite verbs or clause introducers, they do this economically: In the first place they are not as long as full adverbial or finite adjective clauses would be. Moreover their lack of attachment to a particular sentence part gives them a ‘floating’ quality that encourages readers and listeners to think of them as merely supplementive and thus enables writers and speakers to include worthwhile background without unduly distracting attention from the more essential information that is expressed in clauses that integrated in a more normal way into the SVOCA structure.

Here is another example

*Hurtling toward the ground at a speed of 25 feet per second and easily thrown off course by prevailing winds, their payloads may do them more harm than good.*

And another

*He leads a Spartan life in an apartment, supporting himself with welfare cheques and book proceeds.*

In each of these cases it is possible to imagine two other versions of the sentence — one where the supplementive clause is transformed into an adjective clause and the other where it becomes an adverbial clause.

**VERBLESS SUPPLEMENTIVE CLAUSES**

In the last chapter we discussed ‘verbless clauses’ — groups of words that contain neither an explicit subject nor an explicit verb. The ‘clauses’ discussed there at least began with a word that can play the role of a clause introducer — something that made it easier to regard them as clauses. There are constructions, however —*verbless supplementive clauses* — that can reasonably be interpreted as adverbial clauses even though they lack not only subjects and verbs but also clause introducers. Here is an example.

*In 1989, Jimmy lost his job as a high-steel construction worker in the US and, unable to find work, returned to Akwesasne, where he discovered the easy money to be made in smuggling cigarettes.*

**THE POSITION OF SUPPLEMENTIVE CLAUSES**

- Because of their superficial similarity to non-finite adjective clauses, supplementive clauses must be positioned with care. In the sentence
I saw some beautiful tulips walking down Avenue Road.

even though the supplementive clause is correctly formed and is in a position that is correctly occupied by adverbials, because it comes immediately after the noun tulips, there is an unavoidable temptation to interpret it as an abbreviated version of the finite adjective clause

that were walking down Avenue Road

To avoid sentences that invite this sort of absurd misinterpretation either a finite adverbial clause must be used as in

I saw some beautiful tulips while I was walking down Avenue Road.

or the supplementive clause must be repositioned as in

Walking down Avenue Road, I saw some beautiful tulips.

IMPLICIT SUBJECTS OF SUPPLEMENTIVE CLAUSES

• As the above examples show, supplementive clauses do not generally have explicit subjects. Being clauses, however, they do have implicit, or ‘understood’ subjects. In the following sentence, for example

Two lovers lie dead on the bank of Sarajevo’s Miljacka River, locked in a final embrace.

the understood subject of the supplementive clause, two lovers, is identical with the subject of the main clause. Native speakers of English expect that, when a supplementive clause is used, its subject will be the same as the subject of the larger clause of which it is a part. Grammarians sometimes speak of there being an attachment rule that should be followed when using supplementive clauses. When this rule is broken, the resulting sentences, while remaining grammatical, will have — or seem to have — a meaning other than the one intended. For example, if the sentence

Appearing on the balcony, the crowd cheered the president and his wife

cannot correctly be is used to describe a situation in which the president and his wife are on the balcony while the crowd stands on the street below.

SUPPLEMENTIVE WITH CLAUSES

• Supplementive clauses like the ones we have been looking at lack explicit subjects. Here is another example
Laughing loudly at her own joke, Beatrice left the room

As we have seen clauses like this are only possible when their ‘understood’ subject is the same as the subject of the whole sentence. This is the case in the example just given.

Supplementive clauses that do not have the same subject as the independent clause that contains them must contain an explicit subject. Sometimes it is possible simply to insert a subject as in

Her friends’ insults ringing in her ears, Beatrice left the room.

But it is generally a stylistic improvement to begin such a clause with the ‘clause introducer’ with as in

With her friends’ insults ringing in her ears, Beatrice left the room.

Often with is required in this sort of situation. For example we cannot say:

Sammy spending the night in the small room at the top of the stairs, his parents were once again able to enjoy their lives.

But

With Sammy once again living in the small room at the top of the stairs, his parents were once again able to enjoy their lives.

is perfectly correct.

It is also worth noting that with is commonly used to introduce post-modifying adjective phrases in such sentences such as

Do you know who lives in that funny-looking house with two chimneys?

or

The girl with the bad heart was absent again today

the emphasized words are closely related to the adjective clauses, that has two chimneys and who has a bad heart and this, in combination with the fact that it does not have its standard prepositional meaning, creates a temptation to say that with is here, too, operating as a conjunction. However, in keeping with our general principle that only structures that have bear some superficial evidence of SVOCA structure are to be classified as clauses, we will simply note the relationship and continue to regard these structures of this sort as prepositional phrases.
SENTENTIAL RELATIVE CLAUSES

- As we have seen, the clause introducers that introduce adjective clauses — and which, typically, function as the subjects or objects of these clauses — are referred to as ‘relative pronouns’ because of their pronominal relationship to the nouns that the adjective clauses modify. For similar reasons adjective clauses themselves are referred to as ‘relative clauses’ — as are the ‘nominal relative clauses’ that we discussed in Chapter Six. There is another category of relative clauses — sentential relative clauses — that are relative, not to a particular noun, but to a whole sentence and, sometimes, to more than one sentence. For example in

   A few months later, he decided that he would establish a newspaper, which was the biggest mistake he ever made.

the dependent clause is ‘relative’ not to the noun newspaper, but to the whole sentence.

   All sentential relative clauses are non-restrictive and must therefore be set off with commas.

   Most sentential relative clauses begin with which but they may also begin with other relative pronouns such as in which case, and whereupon.

   Some grammarians such as Betty Azar contend that sentential relative clauses should be avoided in formal writing, but scholarly descriptive grammarians such as Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartik regard this structure as standard.

COMMENT CLAUSES

- A comment clause is a clause that is put into a sentence in order to make a comment on some aspect of the sentence, on its reliability or its source for example:

   Three hours later police raided Dr Death’s home, looking for evidence, a TV station said, that would prove one of his patients changed his mind minutes before Dr Death helped him die.

From a grammatical point of view, clauses like this are interesting because, unlike any other sort of dependent clause, they could be removed from the context and stand as a complete sentence. It would only be necessary to add a capital and a period. Clauses like this are not difficult to use, but they must be used with care. (They are most commonly found in newspaper and magazine articles.)
exercise 8-A

Each of the following items contains at least one non-finite clause. Mark the supplementive clauses with double slashes (“// //”) and the other non-finite clauses with braces (“{ }”).

1. You should check all of the following information with your own financial adviser before committing any of your own cash.

2. A bill was introduced in the legislature this summer to permit user fees.

3. The four provinces sent 20 Liberals to Ottawa in the 1988 election, defying the Conservative tide in the rest of the country.

4. Then they socked Nova Scotians with stiff new taxes, hiking the provincial sales tax to 11 per cent.

5. Former Conservative Pat Nowlan is running a strong campaign as an independent, scaring both the old-line parties.

6. These findings are from a study comparing the impact of family life on male and female middle managers.

7. “Women are doing a lot more,” said Alison M. Konrad, a professor at Temple’s School of Business and Management, describing the results of her study.

8. Women may have to chose between stifling their ambition and working themselves to death.

exercise 8-B

Underline the supplementive clauses in the following sentences:

1. President Clinton today endorsed a compromise on ending the ban on homosexuals in the military, emphasizing that the Government should not “appear to be endorsing a gay life style.”

2. One after another, Khmer Rouge trucks have rumbled down the unpaved streets of this rebel-held town this week, carrying hundreds of Cambodians who had been brought here on the order of the Maoist guerrillas with a single mission: to vote.

3. “We agree with the elections now because Prince Sihanouk has come back,” said a 29-year-old farmer, her back curved after years spent hunched over rice paddies that are now the territory of the Khmer Rouge.

4. The police today released 43 black militants arrested two days ago in a crackdown on the Pan Africanist Congress, conceding that they did not have enough evidence linking them to specific crimes.
(5) Bosko Brekic and Admira Ismic, both 25, were shot dead last week trying to flee the besieged Bosnian capital to Serbia.

(6) Bosko is face-down on the pavement, right arm bent awkwardly behind him.

(7) Admira lies next to her lover, right arm across his back.

(8) Often shocked by the poor literacy skills of their own children, these parents have started to demand accountability on all fronts: in the classroom, at school boards and in government.

exercise 8-C

EACH OF THE FOLLOWING ITEMS CONTAINS AN IMPROPERLY FORMED COMPARATIVE CLAUSE. IDENTIFY AND CORRECT THE ERRORS.

(1) While struggling to get ahead in life by studying twice as hard, Alex did not realize what a lonely life he was leading. [first sentence in story]

(2) I heard my name mentioned on the radio; than I realized what kind of winner I was.

(3) Most of these feminists wish to be strong as men, especially emotionally.

(4) He was a very knowledgeable and smart person that I had never met at that time.

(5) His few closest friends had tried in vain to change that but Alex was unyielding.

(6) My brother is only a year and a half older than me.
FOCUS AND THEME

- In order to understand the types of sentence discussed in this chapter it is necessary to understand the ideas of focus and theme. The focus of a sentence, or a clause, is the point where the new, important information is provided. For example, in the second of the following sentences,

  *His wife has worked as a film censor all her life. She is an extremely interesting person.*

  the focus of the second sentence is the phrase

  *an extremely interesting woman*

- There is a natural tendency in English to position the point of focus at the *end* of the sentence or clause, and for this reason we can say that in English normal focus is *end-focus*. By stressing a particular word or syllable, it is possible to place the focus at some other point than the end. This is called contrastive focus. In the sentence we have just been considering, for example, we could have stressed the first word, saying

  *She is an extremely interesting person*
and in this way making it clear that we are saying that she is more interesting than her husband.

Although the focus of a sentence comes at the end of a sentence or clause, and, as we know, this final position is typically reserved for particular sorts of sentence part — objects, complements or adverbials — this does not mean that the idea of focus is a grammatical idea. When we talk about the focus of a sentence we are talking about its meaning — about its information content. Here as elsewhere there is a connection between grammar and meaning and this connection can be expressed by saying that the most important information in a sentence is usually contained in some sentence part other than the subject. That the idea of focus is not a grammatical idea — despite the connection between meaning and grammar — is shown by the fact that when ‘contrastive focus’ is employed, the focus of a sentence or clause can be shifted to the subject position.

* The theme, the part of the sentence that contains the already known, or ‘given’ information, is found at the beginning of a sentence or clause.

*The ousted Rulagarbian leader was convicted of embezzling public funds to purchase apartments and cars. He was sentenced to seven years in prison.*

In the second of these sentences the theme is the subject, *he*. The effect of putting a word or sentence in the final position of a sentence or clause — of giving it end-focus — is, as we have seen to, emphasize that important, new information is being provided. The effect of putting something in the thematic position is to emphasize the logical continuity or coherence of what is being said or written. In the example just given, for instance, the subject pronoun *he* — the theme — provides a connection with the previous sentence because it refers back to *the ousted Rulagarbian leader*. One way of putting this is to say that while new information is put in the final position of the clause, already given information is placed in the thematic position at the beginning of the clause.

Because subjects typically come at the beginning of statements, the theme of a statement is typically its subject. When, as frequently happens the subject of a statement is preceded by an adverbial, the subject is still considered to be the theme: If the sentence we have just been considering were changed to

*After a short trial, he was sentenced to seven years in prison.*

the theme would still be *he*.

*Although the theme of a sentence or clause is usually its subject, this is not always the case. For example in the question

*Which book did you prefer?*
the theme is not the subject, you, but the object, which book. And in a command like

Read this book.

the theme is the verb, read.

In the cases we have just considered an element other than the subject of a sentence occurs in the thematic position as the result of normal grammatical processes. Sometimes, however, normal grammatical practices can be overruled in order to allow an element other than the subject to be placed in the thematic position. This process is known as ‘thematic fronting’. Consider, for example the following sentences:

Because of her inexperience, she was unable to operate effectively under the extreme pressure of the situation. All these difficulties a professional cook could have overcome easily.

In the second sentence, in violation of normal English word order, the object has been placed at the beginning, before the subject. This unusual word order makes it possible to give end-focus to the important information and to put the given information in the thematic position. The same effect could have been achieved of course by using the passive voice and writing

All these difficulties could have been easily overcome by a professional cook.

But writers are often eager to avoid the passive because of its formality and often feel that variety of sentence structure is a virtue.

CLEFT SENTENCES

One way of summing up the above remarks on focus and theme would be to say that both these positions give a form of ‘prominence’ to the words or phrases that occupy them. End-focus emphasizes newness; the thematic position emphasizes connectedness with what has already been said or written. There is special type of sentence, called a cleft sentence that makes it possible to give both end-focus prominence and thematic prominence to the same information. Such sentences are best understood as varieties of straightforward statements such as the following

Jill drove a red Jaguar to work the next day.

From this ordinary statement — with the pattern S + V + A + A — it is possible to form four cleft sentences, each one of which gives double prominence to one or
another of the four sentence parts of the original statement. In order to emphasize the subject of the statement, for example, we can use the following cleft sentence.

*It was Jill who drove a red Jaguar to work the next day.*

The first thing that must be noted is that whereas the original statement is a simple sentence, the cleft sentence is complex. The single clause of the original sentence has been split, or cleft, in two. What has happened is that, in order to give both end-focus and thematic prominence to the information given by the subject of the original simple sentence, *Jill* has become both the subject of the complex sentence and the headword of its complement. All the rest of the information contained in the original simple sentence has been placed in a dependent clause.

*who drove a red Jaguar to work.*

Clauses of this kind have much in common with ordinary adjective clauses but they differ in significant ways: the *wh-* pronoun forms are rarely used, for example, and, unlike adjective clauses, the dependent clauses in cleft sentences can refer to adverbial clauses or phrases.

There are other differences that are worth noting: It is unusual to find the pronouns *whom* or *which* introducing the relative clause in a cleft sentence and the use of *whom* or *which* before a pronoun is not permitted.

Besides the cleft sentence given above, four other cleft sentences can be formed from our original simple statement, the first giving double prominence to the object of the original, the second to the adverbial of time, and the third to the adverbial of place.

*It was a red Jaguar that Jill drove to work the next day.*

*It was to work that Jill drove a red Jaguar the next day.*

*It was the next day that Jill drove a red Jaguar to work.*

When, for example, we use a cleft sentence to give double prominence to the object of a simple sentence we are doing something very similar to what we do when we use contrastive focus to emphasize a non-final element. If we say

*Jill drove a red Jaguar to work the next day.*

we imply that what we are mainly interested in communicating is that she drove that sort of car and not some other — and the first of the three cleft sentences above has the same effect.

Cleft sentences are special not only in the way they provide end focus but also in that they are not analyzable in terms of the SVOCA schema. For example, in the sentence
It was the bathroom that disgusted her.

The relative clause cannot be regarded as part of the noun phrase having the head word *bathroom* as it would be in such a sentence as

*The bathroom that disgusted her is on the second floor*

In the first sentence there is an entirely different relation between the word *bathroom* and the clause *that disgusted her* than there is in the second. If we regarded the clause in the first sentence as part of the noun phrase complement we would be misrepresenting the relationship between this cleft sentence and its 'standard version'.

*The bathroom disgusted her.*

**PSEUDO-CLEFT SENTENCES**

- There is another sort of sentence called a *pseudo-cleft sentence*, that is like the cleft sentence in that it provides a way of emphasizing distinction between the old and the new information in a sentence. For example, instead of using a cleft sentence such as

  *It was a red Jaguar that Jill drove to work the next day*

  we can use a pseudo-cleft sentence like the following:

  *What Jill drove to work the next day was a red Jaguar*

  Here, instead of consigning all the already-given information to a special sort of relative clause and ‘highlighting’ the new information by making it the referent of both the main subject and its complement, all the already-given information is placed a relative noun clause. And the new information is isolated in the complement. (Even though end focus is lost, the effect of this operation is preserved when the noun clause is placed at the end of the sentence as in

  *A red Jaguar was what Jill drove to work the next day.*

  - Pseudo-cleft sentences have a wider scope than cleft sentences in at least one way: It is possible to use them to focus on the verb phrase of a sentence. For example the sentence

    *What she does is work in a chicken factory.*

    focuses on the information contained the verb phrase of the standard sentence

    *She works in a chicken factory.*

  - It is also worth noting that pseudo-cleft sentences unlike, cleft sentences can, despite their specialness, be regarded as having a standard grammatical form S + V + C.
• We have already seen how there is a strong tendency in English for the new information contained in a sentence or clause to be placed in the final position; we can refer to this as ‘the principle of end-focus’. There is a comparable tendency to place the longer part of a sentence or clause at the end — ‘the principle of end-weight’.

The most important sort of postponement occurs when a lengthy noun-clause subject is postponed to the end of the sentence or clause. Constructions of this sort are extremely common in written English and it is important to understand how they work and to be able to employ them. Consider the following example

It is hard to understand how she could have treated her parents so badly.

This sentence is equivalent in meaning to another one

To understand how she could have treated her parents so badly is difficult.

The second sentence is much less likely to be spoken or written than the first because it would strike English speakers as awkward and ugly. Nevertheless, it is grammatically correct. Using the usual symbols we can analyze it in the following way

[To understand how she could have treated her parents so badly] (is) <difficult.>

The second sentence, although more normal, more comprehensible, and more elegant, is grammatically peculiar. It would have to be analyzed in the following way.

[It] (is) <hard> [to understand how she could have treated her parents so badly.]

This sentence has two subjects, the first one, a mere pronoun, in the normal subject position, and the second, tacked on to the end of the sentence, a lengthy noun clause. In accordance with the basic rules of English sentence structure, the pronoun is placed before the verb, and, in accordance with the principle of end weight, the long noun clause to which the pronoun refers is placed at the end of the sentence. The pronoun can be called the ‘anticipatory subject’ and the clause the ‘postponed subject’.

• Most commonly postponed noun clauses are to-infinitive clauses (as in the above example) or finite clauses as in

It is surprising that they are still speaking to her.
But -ing clauses are also often postponed. For example, although the sentence

*Getting her to see that she owed them an apology wasn’t easy.*

is perfectly acceptable, both grammatically and stylistically, the noun clause would often be postponed, especially in formal speech, giving

*It wasn’t easy getting her to see that she owed them an apology*

**DISCONTINUOUS NOUN PHRASES**

There is another important sort of postponement which does not involve the creation of a new clause but simply the splitting of a complex noun clause into two parts. For example, the sentence

*The theory that he had escaped through a tunnel came to be accepted.*

has as its subject a noun phrase whose headword, *theory*, is postmodified by the appositive nominal clause,

*that he had escaped through a tunnel*

The sentence is grammatical as it stands, but it can be stylistically improved by applying the principle of end weight, dividing the noun phrase and putting the postmodifying clause after the verb so the sentence becomes

*The theory came to be accepted that he had escaped through a tunnel.*

Although noun phrases with appositive postmodifying clauses are most commonly treated in this way, other sorts of discontinuous noun phrases occur as well. Take, for example

*An apartment was finally found which was big enough to accommodate his entire library*

where a postmodifying finite adjective clause is separated from the headword it modifies, or in

*An announcement will be made today concerning government funding for this program*

where a non-finite adjective clause is moved to the end of the sentence.
EXISTENTIAL SENTENCES

**THERE-INTRODUCED EXISTENTIAL SENTENCES**

- *Existential sentences* are common, useful statements like the following

  > There are a lot of things in life I still don't understand.

  > There’s half a bottle of beer in the fridge.

The special characteristic of this sort of statement is the way that the word ‘there’ is used. *There* as it is used in existential sentences plays the same role as the pronoun *it* in cleft sentences and in sentences where a noun-clause subject is ‘postponed’ to the end of the sentence. In short, the *there* in existential sentences is another example of an ‘anticipatory subject’. It can be described as a position-filler: It satisfies the requirement that something be placed before the verb in a well-formed English statement. It provides a way of creating a grammatical sentence that says simply that something *is*, or *exists* without actually putting any information into the subject position. English speakers prefer to leave the subject position empty of information in existential sentences because of their loyalty to the principle of end focus. Instead of using the second of the two sentences quoted above, it would be quite correct, and grammatically more straightforward to say

  > Half a bottle of beer is in the fridge.

Putting it in that way, however, means putting the important information in the thematic position, and, in order to avoid that, we begin the sentence with *there* — a word that conveys no information whatsoever.

*There*-introduced existential sentences like the ones we have been looking at are based on grammatically straightforward sentences which use the verb *to be*. However, it is possible, by using a somewhat more complicated construction to base *there*-introduced existential sentences on sentences that use other verbs. For example

  > An old man sat on the porch

  > There was an old man sitting on the porch

*There* is followed in the usual way by the very *to be* and the information given by the verb *to sit* in the original sentence is included in an adjective clause.
exercise 9A

FIND THE POSTPONED NOUN CLAUSE IN EACH OF THE FOLLOWING SENTENCES

(1) She says it doesn’t matter that she has enough love for both of us.

(2) It’s estimated that nearly two of every three people aged 65 and over have some degree of hearing impairment.
KEYS TO THE EXERCISES

exercise 1-A
(1) [The project] (will feature) <low-floor streetcars>.
(2) [The judge] (found) <Mr Cornacchia> <a thoroughly dishonest witness>.
(3) [Mr Topham] (is) in his office.
(4) [The jury] (overturned) <the finding of a provisional court>.
(5) [The police] (have arrested) <a suspect>.
(6) [A psychiatrist] (gave) <the man> <an anti-depressant drug>.
(7) [Most of the inspectors] (are) <retired police officers>.
(8) [The prime minister] (sat down).
(9) [The unarmed police officers] (seized) <ten tons of illegal drugs>.
(10) [He] (put) <his watch> in the drawer.

exercise 1-B
(1) [Early agrarian societies] (changed) <the landscape> on a major scale.
(2) [Almost all the world’s arable land] (had been cultivated) by the beginning of this century.
(3) By 4100 B.C. [humans] (had laid) <the foundation for one of the world’s earliest civilizations>.
(4) [They] (had irrigated) <the Euphrates River plain>.
(5) [They] (abandoned) <these lands> by 1700 B.C.
(6) [Their farming methods] (destroyed) <the soil>.
(7) [Contemporary transportation systems in some countries] (rival) <agriculture> as a consumer of land.
(8) [Rapid population increases] (drive) <the search for more productivity>.
(9) By burning coal [humans] (have altered) <the global flow of energy>.
(10) [Some scientists] (predict) <a catastrophic warming of the earth>.

exercise 1-C
(1) [Epilepsy surgery] (is becoming) <more popular>.
(2) [Ashkelon] (was) <the main seaport of the Philistines>.
(3) [A channel in the shallow grape-treading basin] (directs) <the liquid> into collecting areas.
In the next several weeks, [scientists] (are going to blast) <an 11-pound projectile> from a 155-foot long cannon into a California hill.

Light-gas guns] (resemble) <conventional guns> in many ways.

Cannibalism] (offers) <many advantages>.

Because of the curvature of the earth, [the sun’s path] (is not) at the same angle / everywhere on Earth.

[Colour] (places) <great demands> on a computer system.

[Changes of fashion] rarely (happen) in a neat or orderly manner.

[Part of the new importance of pants] (is) <related to the uncertainty about skirt hems>.

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exercise 1-D

(1) [Racism] (is) <a fact of life in Canada>.
(2) NOT SIMPLE Hundreds of former Newfoundlanders jammed (first verb) Toronto’s Nathan Phillips Square yesterday to fight (second verb) for fish.
(3) [My friend Louise] (lives) in an old downtown building.
(4) [An employee] (can claim) from the assets of a bankrupt firm.
(5) [The program] (will produce) <about 23,000 more jobs> through the creation of day care, space, public works and a non-profit home initiative.
(6) NOT SIMPLE Mulroney is asking (first verb) Bush to attend (second verb) the Rio summit.
(7) [The grand prize] (includes) <round-trip airfare and deluxe hotel accommodation>.
(8) [The outcome] (was) <predictable>.
(9) [He] (was knighted) for his services to the royal family.
(10) [The Hawaiian Islands] (have) <an air of unreachable beauty>.
(11) [We] (could hear) <his scream> through the door.

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exercise 2-A

(1) Humans N have V always ADV exploited V nature N
(2) We PRN have V always ADV thought V that CI the NI biosphere N was V infinitely ADV vast ADJ
(3) The NI moment N of PREP awakening N may V have V come V in PREP the NI 1980s N
(5) People N have V changed V the NI biosphere N.
(6) They PRN use V about PREP the ART energy N produced V by PREP plants N.
(7) Global ADJ population N stood V at PREP 2.5 billion N in PREP 1950 N.
(8) Until PREP the NI present N humans N have V always ADV ignored V the NI physical ADJ limits N on PREP their NI expansion N.
exercise 2-B

(1) [The recent ADJ elections in PREP Hong Kong] (have V produced V) <an encouraging ADJ result N.>

(2) [The riots N on PREP housing ADJ estates N in Tyneside last week] (had led to) 261 arrests N.

(3) [All criminal ADJ charges against PREP Oliver North] (were V dropped V on PREP Monday).

(4) In PREP the first two days of PREP ground ADJ fighting N, [three brigades of PREP the First Division] (destroyed) <Iraqi trenches> with earth movers N and ploughs N.

(5) [Construction ADJ unions in New York] (have V long ADV been criticized) for PREP their exclusion of racial ADJ minority groups N.

(6) For over 50 years [Barney] (has been helping V) <people> with PREP their hair ADJ and scalp problems N.

(7) [Cleo the NI Camel] now ADV (won’t eat) <anything PRN except PREP smoked salmon sandwiches>.

(8) [The panel] (will V meet) twice ADV during PREP the campaign N.

exercise 2-C

(1) The apparent unease {about the growing presence of Latinos also is reflected (in a torrent (of anti-immigration legislation introduced recently in Sacramento.)}

(2) Statistics Canada warned that the April decline may simply be a correction {of inflated job gains in March}.

(3) In his native Malaysia, he faces extortion charges alleging a series {of encounters (with lonely, wealthy women who said they were lured into hotel rooms, drugged, photographed nude, then blackmailed)}.

(4) The estimated cost {of developing the advanced robotic arms} have ballooned by nearly $138 million in the past three years.

(5) Because capital can move around the world (at the punch of a key) and workers are relatively tied to a place, the labor movement has lost power throughout the industrial world.

(6) The negotiations have made slow progress during the past two months {with attempts (by the Inkatha Freedom Party, homeland leaders, and the white right-wing parties) to block significant movement}.

(7) Each day, if the wind is not too strong, some of the Druze gather {at the place called “echo valley” outside Majdal Shams} to shout messages to their family and friends who stand several hundred meters away {on the Syrian side of the ceasefire line}.

(8) There are several reasons why the recruitment and organizing may not be as vigorous {in the rest of the country}.

exercise 2-D

(1) Belet Uen is a dusty crossroads in central Somalia.
Followed by a noisy group of kids, Mary entered a brush-hut encampment of 30,000 victims of drought, famine and war.

The only significant growth sector for low-skill workers will be the service industry.

A third of Quebeckers on welfare are under thirty.

During his six-month tenure as Education Minister, he also segregated men and women in the ministry and boys and girls in high schools.

The rift between the former allies was not resolved by President Yeltsin’s victory in the April referendum.

An outbreak of meningitis at the University of Connecticut has been classified as an epidemic.

The highly charged assassination case produced widely divergent interpretations of the evidence.

exercise 3-A

1. A family of baboons jumped from the rear window of a car.
2. The knife blades shine in the afternoon sunlight as the man in the flashy shirt pushes them deeper inside the metal hoops.
3. He rushes forward and then he dives head first through the treacherous hole.
4. An hour’s drive south of Budapest is Lake Balaton, which offers a sunny, uncrowded beach.
5. The Shakers died out, but they left behind some great furniture and interesting houses.
6. The island of New Guinea is one of the most intriguing destinations in the world.
7. About half the photosynthesis that removes carbon dioxide from the air occurs in the tropics.
8. The species is believed to be near extinction.
9. Many marchers stayed at the barricades into the early morning hours today.
10. Mr Nimro insists that he talked to Mr. Squevel in 1979.

exercise 3-B

1. I am not surprised by the dramatic increase in complaints by the public against the service provided by banks.
2. Anti-government guerillas in Uganda have abducted a British ecologist and several other people in an attack on a remote game lodge.
3. American troops in Somalia went on high alert after a Marine was killed in an ambush of a night patrol near Mogadishu airport.
4. Two Japanese video game giants, Nintendo and Sega Enterprises, said games sold in Japan from next month would start carrying labels warning of the risk of epileptic fits.
5. The software the two companies sell in Europe and the US already carries such warnings.
6. In the Gaza Strip, the Israeli army killed three Palestinians in a clash with stone throwers, according to the Israeli army.
7. The power struggle in Zaire between President Mobutu Sese Seko and his arch enemy, Prime Minister Etienne Tshisekedi, moved further towards confrontation when the interim parliament said President Mobutu was guilty of high treason.
8. French politician, René Pleven, whose career began in 1940 when he joined General de Gaulle’s Free French in London and who then went on to become prime minister of the Fourth Republic twice, has died, aged 92. CPLX

9. More than 50 people drowned when the Polish rail ferry Jan Heweliusz capsized in churning seas and winds of up to 100 mph in the Baltic off the German coast. CPLX

10. Mrs Bhutto was surprised by the appointment but called it a ‘positive step’. CMPD

exercise 3-C

1. I’m surprised {that he told you (where the money is)}.
2. {When they bought the house (that they’re living in now)}, interest rates were very high.
3. He got the job {because he went to school with the boss (when they were young)}.
4. {If you notice the little red light flashing (when you turn on the ignition)}, you have to fasten your seat belt.
5. She’s the actress {who played the leading role in the movie (we saw last night)}.
6. {If the three satellites had been deployed (as the designers intended)}, their electronic sensing devices would have provided valuable information.
7. There is a rumour {that the money (he lost) was borrowed from his mother}.
8. His only asset was a stove {that he had purchased (because he wanted to resell it)}.

exercise 4-A

1. Statistics Canada has found what many people have long suspected. F
2. Officials were told that the missing fish could number as many as 1.2 million. F
3. Of course, being an intellectual hockey player, NF doesn’t always help.
4. When people survive a heart attack, F damage to the organ is often so great that they eventually suffer another attack and die. F
5. Mr Fuller, who spent fifteen days in jail awaiting trial, F received the longest sentence given to a participant in the riot. NF t
6. Emptying the mind before physical action NF will improve success in sports.
7. The chemical appears to increase serotonin levels in the brain, taking away the compulsive desire to place a bet. NF
8. If you want to find out what youth are doing, F go deeper.

exercise 4-B

1. In a ruling that could expose an estimated 3,500 Ontario residents to criminal charges, a Divisional Court judge refused to issue an injunction extending an amnesty period during which owners of large clips could turn them in to police for destruction.
2. The union representing Air Canada ticket agents and customer-service employees filed for conciliation yesterday after contract talks broke down.
(3) Former BC cabinet minister Claude Richmond says he agonized over the decision before announcing yesterday he will seek the leadership of the Social Credit Party.

(4) Mr Smith fought hard for the change, arguing that Labour could not expect to win a British election until it got its own house in order.

(5) The party is committed to drastically overhauling the entire British political system, including disbanding the House of Lords.

(6) To justify his action, he pointed to the conduct of parliament during the past two years in frustrating his economic reform program.

(7) With Quebec now having control over immigration and seeking control over all manpower training in the province, Mr Manning did not explain how his proposed “New Federalism” would allocate these responsibilities.

(8) Ms Campbell shot back yesterday, saying she is happy with her advisers.

exercise 4-C

DEPENDENT CLAUSES THAT ARE NOT ENCLOSED IN OTHER DEPENDENT CLAUSES ARE IN BOLD IF THEY ARE FINITE AND IN ITALICS IF THEY ARE NON-FINITE. DEPENDENT CLAUSES THAT ARE CONTAINED IN OTHER DEPENDENT CLAUSES ARE MARKED WITH SOLID UNDERLINING IF THEY ARE FINITE AND WITH DOTTED UNDERLINING IF THEY ARE NON-FINITE.

(1) An American combat plane, firing air-to-air missiles, shot down an Iraqi MiG fighter which intruded into the no-fly zone in southern Iraq.

(2) In Hong Kong’s fashionable district of Lan Kwai Fong, 20 people were killed when crowd celebrations went wrong.

(3) The 15,000 revellers were gripped by panic after a number of people fell to the ground.

(4) David Schoo and his wife Sharon, a well-to-do couple from Chicago, were charged with child cruelty after leaving their daughters, aged nine and four, alone at home while they spent Christmas on the beach at Acapulco, Mexico.

(5) Mr Lu stressed that there had been no improvement in relations with Britain.

(6) Brazil’s senate agreed last week by 76 votes to three to ban ex-president Fernando Collor de Mello from public office for eight years.

(7) Her father was a customs and excise officer who sent her to two Catholic schools although the family was Anglican.

(8) The crucial requirement was to register Volodya as the car’s new owner.

exercise 5-A

1, Yes.  2, No.  3, Yes.

exercise 5-B

(1) The customers asked me if we had the beer that (or: Ø) they wanted.

- what is not a relative pronoun; it can only be used to introduce noun clauses

(2) The experience that I want to write about is learning English.

(3) French, in which I am very articulate, is my first language.
- the adjective clause was not placed after the noun it was intended to modify

(4) In future, I will be more confident about applying for a job that requires a good knowledge of English.

-who can only refer to people

(5) We had a neighbour whose son played soccer professionally.

-notice that when this sentence is broken up into two parts, a possessive pronoun is required: We had a neighbour. Her son played soccer professionally.

(6) I always enjoy living in a spacious environment, which Hong Kong does not offer.

- of which is not the correct relative pronoun to use here. (Compare: He had seven children, of which two were girls. = He had seven children. Two of them were girls.

and I always enjoy living in a spacious environment. Hong Kong does not offer a spacious environment. Notice that of does not appear in the ‘expansion’ of (6) ) The comma is required because this is a non-restrictive clause. (The negative verb in the clause forces this interpretation.)

(7) When I look back on my life and think about the most exciting things that ever happened to me, I have a hard time choosing one of them.

- subjects cannot be omitted from finite adjective clauses. The alternative of the non-finite clause ever happening to me is not acceptable because ever creates a ‘need’ for a past-tense or past participle main verb.

(8) The Tsar used to visit Poland that was a province of the empire.

-what cannot be used to introduce adjective clauses

(9) The company has enough surplus (8.4 million) to meet any deficiencies occurring in 1991.

-the adjective clause occurring in 1991 is an abbreviation of the active finite clause: which occurred in 1991

(10) One month later a man carrying a long gun rushed into the company.

-again, the -ing form is required because the finite clause of which the abbreviated form is being used here (who was carrying a long gun is in the active voice.)

(11) In total there were five francophones versus twenty-five anglophones of which almost all Ø were bilingual.

-here we have repetition of the adjective clause object as in The woman whom I saw her yesterday complicated by the fact that a prepositional relative clause has been used.

(12) To show their appreciation, the students prepared a homemade card to thank everybody who participated in the staff training, which was appreciated by everyone.

The clause which was appreciated by everyone is not an adjective clause at all but a sentential clause. It is not so much the card that is appreciated as the fact that the students prepared it.

(13) One morning, in her store, she had a customer named Ann with her son Sam.

The placement of the adverbial between the noun customer and its postmodification is clumsy and confusing. Notice also that in the corrected sentence the prepositional phrase with her son Sam must follow the non-finite adjective clause named Ann.

exercise 5-C

(1) Armies that ruled much of the hemisphere barely a decade ago are shut in their barracks.

(2) The preliminary ruling, which will be followed by a final determination in early fall, was issued in response to complaints from American uranium producers.
He has devised a kind of self-nominating process, rooted in appearances on television talk shows.

The treaty, which was the product of nearly two weeks of intense negotiations in Nairobi earlier this month, is considered one of the two main achievements of the United Nations Conference.

The Administration’s decision on the treaty preserving plants, animals and natural resources, known as the biological diversity treaty, is almost certain to be followed by Japan.

The President offered support for the approach of don’t ask, don’t tell — the label given to a range of plans that would allow homosexuals to serve but leave limits on how open they could be about their sexuality.

The President’s remarks on homosexuals in the military, which came in response to a question from a pastor who said he was worried about Christian values, seemed calculated to put some distance between himself and gay rights groups.

One after another, Khmer Rouge trucks have rumbled down the unpaved streets of this rebel-held town this week, carrying hundreds of Cambodians who had been brought here on the order of the Maoist guerrillas with a single mission: to vote.

“We agree with the elections now because Prince Sihanouk has come back,” said a 29-year-old farmer, her back curved after years spent hunched over rice paddies that are now the territory of the Khmer Rouge.

After threatening to disrupt Cambodia’s first free election in a generation, the Khmer Rouge have surprised United Nations Officials by delivering thousands of Cambodians who had been brought here on the order of the Maoist guerrillas with a single mission: to vote.

Some violence this week has been attributed to the Khmer Rouge including an attack today on a mobile United Nations polling place in the northwest that wounded a Bangladeshi peacekeeping soldier and three Cambodians.

The voters who were brought to cast ballots in this town, which is 205 miles northwest of Phnom Penh, near the Thai border, say they are being told by the Khmer Rouge to vote for the opposition party founded by Prince Sihanouk.

The police today released 43 black militants arrested two days ago in a crackdown on the Pan Africanist Congress, conceding that they did not have enough evidence linking them to specific crimes.

The latest international strategy for ending the Bosnian war is a minimalist plan of action that will create more problems than it solves.

But it also triggered riots in the capital, described as the worst in Denmark’s peacetime history.

Criticism that led to a destabilisation of society constituted ‘revolt’ and was unacceptable to Islam.

The only situation in which disobedience was allowed was when the sovereign took a decision which was evil in the eyes of God.

exercise 5-D

In most places around the world a doctor who helps a terminally ill patient commit suicide could face criminal prosecution.

Michigan has enacted a law making doctor-assisted suicide illegal.

In their quest for knowledge, scientists will take advantage of anything that’s helpful, even a nuclear blast.

Studies of the shock waves given off by a Chinese 66-megaton nuclear test have revealed a ‘continent’ 3,200 kilometers underground.
(5) What two scientists at the US Geological Survey found was a region 320 km across and 130 km deep /that is denser than surrounding regions./

(6) The steep growth of mutual funds, /which reached a record value of $1.7 trillion last year,/ began in earnest in 1989.

(7) Most of the enormous outflow wound up in professionally managed pools of securities, /where returns of 25% or more are not uncommon./

(8) “All you need,” the song says “is love.” But government largesse is also helping Brazilians revive their long-standing affair with the Beetles, Not John, Paul, George and Ringo, but the beloved little machines <<built by Volkswagen>> /that put millions of middle-class Brazilians on the road before the cars were phased out of production in 1986./

(9) The lines are really being drawn between those clergymen /who support the government in everything and those who do not/.

(10) In 1989, Jimmy lost his job as a high-steel construction worker in the US and, unable to find work, returned to Akwesasne, /where he discovered the easy money <<to be made in smuggling cigarettes.>>/

(11) His extraordinary financial success and a recent business problem /he has encountered/ say much about what is happening in the lucrative world of tobacco smuggling.

(12) It’s a situation /that is reminiscent of the Prohibition era, /when liquor from Canada into the US in open and easy defiance of the law.//

(13) Some parents, like Joyce Williams, 60 of Toronto, applaud the system for the education /it has provided her eight children./

(14) We do not advocate a return to the rigid, stultifying teaching methods of the past /where everything learned was by rote. /

(15) The few animals /used by the cosmetic industry are essential for the safety of consumers/, she said.

(16) Mulroney said he liked the two deals /his government had concocted/, not because they were perfect but because they were good.

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exercise 6-B

(1) “If the idea is <<to go back in time,>>” quipped a governor, “I suggest an oxcart.” C    TI

(2) Officials will not know //how widely the infection has spread// until blood samples can be tested in the US. O   NT

(3) //What two scientists at the US Geological survey found// was a region 320 km across and 130 km deep that is denser than surrounding regions S   NR

(4) Michael Wainwright claims //he was admitted to Kurdistan by Iraqi guards while visiting Turkey.// O   TH

(5) Through the camera lens, Bill Clinton looked relieved <<to be wrestling with a problem as relatively manageable as the economy.>> CA   TI

(6) On Tuesday he proposed <<to reduce the White House staff by 350 people,>> which he said would satisfy his campaign promise of a 25% cut. O   TI

(7) The IAEA has warned the insular communist regime //that this time it will bare its teeth and press for an unprecedented UN Security Council-backed ‘special inspection’ of two suspect buildings.// O (direct) TH

(8) Earlier this month he was charged with <<diverting at least $81 million from a Hyundai subsidiary to his campaign.>> O   ING
exercise 6-C

1. The police today released 43 black militants arrested two days ago in a crackdown on the Pan Africanist Congress, conceding //that they did not have enough evidence linking them to specific crimes.// O TH

2. His extraordinary financial success and a recent business problem he has encountered say much about //what is happening in the lucrative world of tobacco smuggling.// OP INT

3. The cabinet is discussing //how to cut $2-billion from the public payroll.// O INT

4. The delay in meeting will allow <<the government and its advisers to firm up their plans.>> O TI

5. Premier Bob Rae was uncertain about //what the government should do next//. OP INT

6. He complained //that the union leaders had walked away from the negotiations without <<making counter offers>>//. O TH; OP ING

7. The 1992 riots let the world know //that the dream of a multiethnic paradise on the Pacific had collapsed/. O TH

8. One big mistake was trying «to reach an agreement in two months». O TI

9. It's a textbook example of «attempting to ignite a revolution». OP ING

10. The Security Council voted yesterday «to send heavily armed troops to protect six Muslim enclaves in Bosnia Hercegovina». O TI

exercise 6-D

1. Unfortunately he got fired because of the recession that was going on at the time.
   *what* can only be used to introduce noun clauses. It is incorrectly used here to introduce an adjective clause

2. Part of my job is **having** to compose some simple memos and letters.
   *-ing* clauses are generally preferable as complements of the verb *to be.*

3. When we are sick or suffering from some disease, the only thing we can think of is **going** to the hospital.
   *-as in (2)*

4. She did not have any choice except keeping the problem to herself because if she'd told her husband what was happening at work he would have suspected Ø that she was the one who insisted on discussing sexual jokes.
   *the verb *to suspect* can be complemented by a noun clause (a *that* clause) but it cannot take an indirect object such as *her.* Moreover, the noun clause itself makes it quite clear who was suspected

5. I couldn't believe Ø till I saw them how they had changed.
   *the SVOCA analysis of the corrected sentence is: [I ] *(couldn't believe) till I saw them <how they had changed>*. In the incorrect version there were two objects. Notice that in the corrected version the adverbial clause comes between the verb and the object; this is a possible position for an adverbial only when the object is a noun clause.

6. Sexual harassment could also happen in a bar or on the street. It could happen anywhere. It doesn't matter where. What Ø does matter is it shouldn't happen.
what does matter is a ‘relative’ noun clause, closely related from the point of view of internal structure to adjective clauses.

(7) I want everyone living on this planet to feel happy.

The verb want can only be complemented by a to infinitive noun clause.

(8) Scientists are working very hard to find out what the causes of these illnesses are.

The order of the subject and the verb has incorrectly been inverted in an interrogative noun clause. These clauses are connected to questions and they begin with question words but there subjects and verbs are ordered in the normal way.

(9) As a young person I was taught how impressive changes in our behaviour could be.

See (8)

(10) The goal of this class is to improve grammatical accuracy in written and spoken English.

Carelessness — or a lack of understanding of basic verb phrase construction.

(11) I did not believe any of the stories until he asked me why Ø I did not have any pictures of myself when I was a baby.

Failure to realize that the ‘question word’ why works as a clause introducer with interrogative noun clauses.

(12) My Uncle Tom heard that there was a new cancer medicine manufactured in China but that it was forbidden to import that medicine into Canada.

That cannot be omitted here without changing the meaning of the sentence — making it seem as if Uncle Tom found out only at a later date that the medicine could not be imported into Canada.

(13) If I closed my eyes the only thing I could see was that someone was trying to scare me.

If there is a subject in a finite noun clause complement of the verb to be, the clause introducer that cannot be omitted.

(14) I take ginseng often because it is considered very healthy and can give me extra energy. Another important reason for taking it is that it can slow down the aging process.

See (13). This could also be corrected by making the noun clause non finite: Another important reason for taking it is slowing down the aging process. (See (2))

exercise 7-A

(1) ADJ; (2) ADV; (3) ADJ; (4) ADJ, N; (5) ADV; (6) ADJ; (7) ADV; (8) ADV, ADJ; (9) N; (10) ADJ; (11) ADV; (12) N

exercise 7-B

(1) When I was a child, I was terrified of the dark. T

(2) As you get older, fear vanishes. PR

(3) Because life with my mother hadn’t turned out how he had hoped, my father was always hesitant and uneasy. CS

(4) While discretion about the hundreds of other candidates for the job has been scrupulously observed, Ms Eaton disclosed last week that they had included not only journalists and actors from both sides of the Atlantic but also a few ‘aristocrats’. CN
Though the famine has abated, peace remains elusive, and the new U.N. force in Somalia, UNOSOM II, will face continued trouble when it takes command on May 1. (a) CN (b) T

If several hundred rebel insurgents suddenly decide to do battle in a wildlife preserve, is this considered guerrilla warfare or gorilla warfare? IF

It took until January of this year before the province brought in a rule requiring five minutes’ rest for every hour spent on a computer keyboard. T

I’ve spoken to leading experts in the field whereas most patients get only a few minutes with their family doctor or a specialist CN

Office workers have been using keyboards since the first typewriters were introduced in the 1870’s. T

Until the government confronts these issues, the problem will remain. T

exercise 7C

(1) After campaigning for four years against gridlock, pollution, driver’s aggression and accidents, the German press now wonders why people aren’t buying cars. T

(2) The independent Unemployment Unit said the jobless total was 4,163,000 if calculated on the basis used before 1982. IF

(3) If adopted, the plan will permit a charming, civilized 21st century Seattle. IF

(4) After reading English at Oxford for two years without much enthusiasm, Henry left the university without a degree, and went to work at a Birmingham factory. T

(5) It is a standard conservative ploy to say that the states should do more because they are closer to the people, while at the same time failing to suggest where the states are to get the financial and intellectual wherewithal to carry out their greater responsibilities. CN

(6) Fred Gingell, the courtly interim Opposition Leader who has replaced Mr Wilson, denies that the Liberals performed poorly in the last legislative session, but he admitted they suffered from stage fright, as well as inexperience with the media, particularly when compared to the seasoned NDP members. T

(7) While falling short of new Siberian giants, Ukrainian wells are big by standards of Alberta’s picked-over oilfields. CN

(8) After being bartered off to a new family, with little education, limited access to health care and no knowledge of birth control, young brides soon became young mothers. T

(9) If unsigned by Ukraine and other independent republics (Belarus and Kazakhstan) that have nuclear weapons, this means the ambitions START-2 treaty won’t be worth the paper it’s written on. IF

exercise 7-D

(1) I learned the English language in a hard way, by immersing myself completely in an English environment. I never really received or took any English courses after Ø I graduated from high school.

A failure to understand that after by itself works as a subordinating conjunction. (See number (11) in (6-D)

(2) She made a decision to take a risk even though she knew there was no contact address for her to trace in the future.
**115 / Other Types of Sentence**

*Even* can only be used to intensify *though* (and other subordinating conjunctions). It is not itself a conjunction.

3) During the first few weeks, he felt that there was a war inside him every time Ø he took a tablet.

*Every time* is, itself, a conjunction. The error could also be corrected by removing *every time* and keeping *when* (or, better, using *whenever*).  

4) Leora escapes and gets help from her friend, the Wizard, who tells her she must find a balloon and plant it under a tree in the courtyard, while she says magic words  

The non-finite adverbial clause is not possible here because the ‘interference’ of *tree* and *courtyard* obscure the fact that *she* is the intended understood subject.

5) After Laura says the magic words, the tree begins to quiver and blossom with hundreds and hundreds of balloons that start floating in the air, filling the courtyard, the town and the whole country.  

Here the non-finite, subjectless clause is impossible because the intended subject is not the same as the subject of the main clause (*the tree*) and, as a consequence it sounds as if it is the tree that has said the magic words.

6) We ask that this journey won’t end before we Ø have dreamt.  

The future cannot be used in time clauses.

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**exercise 7-E**

1) [When saber-toothed cats and other big animals died off about 10,000 years ago] the California condor retreated to the carrion-rich Pacific coast and survived. 

- the main clause of this sentence has a compound verb, *retreated . . . survived.*

2) A Spanish priest recorded *seeing one in 1602* N

3) Twenty-seven birds remained as genetic “founders” for a breeding program [that has produced twenty-five additional birds, including the two {freed last week} ADJ ADJ

4) [Since a condor’s wings are too large for much flapping] it soars skyward by {jumping from its mountaintop nest into an updraft} ADV N

5) On the ground, the birds need a spiraling thermal air current {to take off} ADV

6) Condors find food in open flatlands [where shrubbery will not hamper takeoffs] ADV

7) They used to live on cliff tops around California’ Central Valley and fly to lowlands [where hunters shot deer and left “gut piles” full of fragments of toxic lead] ADJ

- here the dependent clause has a compound verb, *shot . . . left*

8) Chicks {raised in captivity} have prospered at the San Diego and Los Angeles zoos. ADJ

9) At least 30 of the 49 black-footed ferrets {released in a Wyoming wilderness last fall} have died. ADJ

10) In Texas, reintroduced northern aplomado falcons were killed off by great horned owls [that had moved into the falcon’s old territory] ADJ

11) Captive breeding may destroy behaviors {needed for survival} ADJ

12) Zoo-bred golden lion tamarins dropped out of trees and ignored natural food {after going back to the Brazilian jungle} ADV

13) The first red wolves {reintroduced to a North Carolina refuge} wandered into residential neighborhoods. ADJ

14) Stillborn calves {left on mountains} might keep the birds from {flying to flatland sources of toxic food} ADJ N
And moving the carrion around will force natural foraging behavior. 

Biologists assume that intensive care is temporary. 

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exercise 7-F

(1) [The murmuring (began) right after Nancy Kim opened the test booklet for her midterm biology exam at McGill University in Montreal.]

(2) [Soon (it) (became) a series of clear voices, uttering distinguishable words].

(3) As Ms. Kim strove to complete the multiple-choice test, [she (realized) many of the 300 students were consulting each other on the answers.]

(4) As she walked to the front of the room to hand in her booklet to the lone supervisor, [one student (leaned out and asked): “Wha’d’ya put for number 38?”]

(5) [Cheating, always a feature of university life], (appears) to be on the increase.

(6) [A study at Rutgers University in New Brunswick, N.J., (put) the number of students who admit to some form of “academic dishonesty” at 80 per cent or higher.]

(7) Although few have studied cheating in Canada, [those who have done so] (believe) it is just as widespread here.

(8) [It] (has entered) a high-tech mode, with programmable watches and calculators superseding “cheat sheets” or notes scrawled on the soles of sneakers.