

12 Multi-Clause Sentences

KEY CONCEPTS

Multi-clause sentences: complex, compound, compound-complex

Recursion

Complex sentences

Finite and non-finite clauses

Coordination: compound, compound-complex sentences

Miscellaneous information-restructuring sentence types

INTRODUCTION

The discussion in this chapter depends on a distinction between sentences and clauses. Clauses, as we noted, are grammatical units comprising one subject and one predicate, and consequently, one main verb. Sentences are grammatical units comprising one or more clauses. An understanding of the ways in which clauses combine to form sentences is valuable to teachers helping students develop more sophisticated writing skills. Multi-clause sentences allow the integration of several propositions into a single grammatical unit. One hallmark of good style is an appropriate sequencing of simple and complex sentences. The ability to compose appropriately complex sentences can be fostered by clause-combining exercises.

MULTI-CLAUSE SENTENCES

The clauses that constitute multi-clause sentences can be combined either by coordination, subordination, or both, called complex, compound, and compound-complex sentences, respectively. The most inclusive clause in each sentence is its **main clause** (in light italics in the examples just below), which must be marked as either present or past tense, that is, it must be finite. A **subordinate** clause is grammatically dependent on some element in another clause; it may function as a subject, complement, or modifier in the higher clause.

A **complex** sentence contains one or more subordinate clauses (bolded), e.g., *Hofstetter believes **that he is being targeted by Homeland Security agents***. In **compound** or **coordinated** sentences, two or more clauses are brought together as grammatical equals, connected by a coordinating conjunction (bolded) to one another e.g., *Many people can identify parts of speech **but** they cannot justify their identification*. Because no clause in a compound sentence is subordinate to another (by definition), all the clauses in a compound sentence are main clauses.

Compound-complex sentences are a combination of complex and com-

pound sentences. They may consist of coordinated clauses (bolded) that are subordinate to another clause, e.g., *Edgeworth believed **that novels should have redeeming social value and that her writing might help improve social conditions***; or one or more of the coordinate clauses may include one or more subordinate clauses (bolded), e.g., *Compound-complex sentences consist of at least two coordinate clauses and at least one of those must contain a clause **which is subordinate to it***.

To orient ourselves, let's recall that in our chapter on Major Parts of Speech we distinguished between intransitive verbs (i.e., those that are incompatible with a direct object, such as *cought, laugh, lie*), transitive verbs (i.e., those that require a direct object, such as *bite, consume, transmit*), bi-transitive verbs (i.e., those that require a direct and an indirect object, such as *give, offer, send*), linking verbs (i.e., those that "link" a subject with a subject complement, such as *be, become, seem*), and object complement verbs (i.e., those that require both a direct object and a complement associated with that object, such as *consider, elect, name*). We revisited this subcategorization of verbs in our chapter on Phrases, where we dealt with the distinct VPs associated with each type. In our chapter on Basic Clause Patterns we added NP subjects to those VPs to create clauses built around each of these verb types. We illustrated objects with NPs, and complements with NPs and APs. In this chapter we substitute clauses for the NPs that functioned in the chapter on Basic Clause Patterns as subjects, direct objects, indirect objects, and subject and object complements. We will begin with subordinate **finite clauses** (clauses that are marked for either present or past tense) and move on to **non-finite** clauses (those that are not marked for present or past tense). Then we will continue the discussion we began in Phrases and Minor Parts of Speech on modifying clauses, including **relative clauses** (which are modifiers in NPs), and **adverbial clauses** (which modify Vs, VPs, and clauses). We wrap up this chapter with a brief discussion of a few sentence types that are designed to allow for alternative ways of presenting information in sentences.

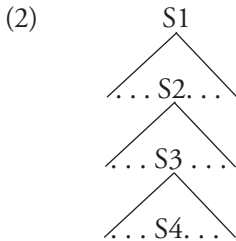
We begin with a brief overview of how one clause is included within another, technically known as **recursion**.

RECURSION

The possibility of creating multi-clause sentences depends on a characteristic of language called recursion. **Recursion** is the possibility of allowing a grammatical category to recur inside another instance of the same category, for example, an NP within an NP, or an S within an S, and so on.

- (1) a. She said something. (One clause)
 b. She said [that I don't know anything]. (Two clauses)
 c. She said [that I don't know [what I want]]. (Three clauses)
 d. She said [that I don't know [what I want [Bill to do]]]. (Four clauses)
 e. She said [that I don't know [what I want [Bill to do]]] . . .
 (Indefinite number of clauses)

We can represent this schematically as:



Recursion is one of the most important characteristics of natural language because it is the basis of language's open-endedness, its creativity.

Because one clause can be included (**embedded**) in another, a given sentence may have any number of clauses. The main clause is the one that is not embedded in any other clause. In all the sentences of (1), *She said X* is the main clause. All other clauses are subordinate. However, it should be clear from (2) that not all subordinate clauses are directly subordinate to the main clause—they may be subordinate to *other subordinate clauses*. In (2), S1 is the main clause and all the others are subordinate to it. However, only S2 is directly subordinate to S1; S3 is directly subordinate to S2, and S4 is directly subordinate to S3.

COMPLEX SENTENCES

In this section we will illustrate the range of functions of subordinate clauses using only finite clauses, that is, clauses that are marked as either past or present tense or that contain a modal.

Clauses that function in the nominal range

The subordinate clause in a complex sentence may function as its subject, direct object, indirect object, object of a preposition, or as a complement.

Clauses that function as subjects

Subordinate clauses can appear as subjects of main clauses:

- (3) a. *That students enjoy grammar* proves my point.
b. *That he fled* will convince the jury of his guilt.
c. *That this arrangement may not work out* is very upsetting.

We can apply our usual types of tests to show that these embedded clauses are subjects. We can replace them with ordinary NPs:

- (4) a. *This fact* proves my point.
b. *His flight* will convince the jury of his guilt.
c. *That possibility* is very upsetting.

The pronouns that appear in this position must be in the nominative case:

- (5) a. They prove my point.
b. *Them prove my point.

Notice that when the subject of a sentence is an embedded sentence, the verb of that sentence is singular; that is, sentential subjects such as those above are regarded as singular.

Exercise

1. Create five more sentences in which a clause functions as subject.
 2. Apply the NP and pronoun tests described just above to demonstrate that the subordinate clauses really are subjects.
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Clauses that function as direct objects

The italicized clauses in (6) are the direct objects of the higher verb:

- (6) a. John claims *he has earned his first million already*.
b. We believe *he exaggerates a great deal*.

We can demonstrate that the embedded structures in (6) (typically called **complement clauses**) are the direct objects of the verbs like *claim* and *believe* by using a number of tests. The first test is that NPs substitute for them:

- (7) a. John claims silly things.
 b. We believe his exaggerations.

We can also substitute accusative pronouns for them:

- (8) a. He claimed them.
 b. We believed them.

The embedded clauses bear the same grammatical relationship to the verbs of their sentences as the NPs that replace them, and pronouns that replace them must be in the accusative case. These are clearly direct object NPs, so the clauses they replace must also be direct objects.

We now introduce a slight complication to the pattern above. Sentences (6a,b) can be paraphrased as (9a,b) respectively:

- (9) a. John claims *that* he has earned his first million already.
 b. We believe *that* he exaggerates a great deal.

These sentences include *that* at the beginning of the embedded clause. Words that introduce clauses in this way have various names. Traditionally, as we saw in our chapter on Minor Parts of Speech, *that* (and similar words) has been called a **subordinating** conjunction. Because it introduces complement clauses, many linguists refer to it as a **complementizer**. Because the complementizer occurs in the COMP position, as we described in our chapter on Modifications of Basic Clause Patterns, it must be part of the subordinate clause, as shown by the fact that whenever we move a clause (italicized), its complementizer (bolded) must move too. Compare (6a) and (6b) with (10a) and (10b), respectively;

- (10) a. It is ***that*** *he has earned a million* that John claims.
 b. It is ***that*** *he exaggerates* that we believe.

If we leave the complementizer in its old position (italicized), the result is ungrammatical.

- (11) a. *It is he has earned a million that John claims *that*.
 b. *It is he exaggerates that we believe *that*.

When we move elements, we move entire phrases, not just parts of them. Sentences (10) and (11) show that the complementizer is an integral part of

an embedded sentence.

As we hope you remember from our chapter on Minor Parts of Speech, the complementizer *that* must be distinguished from the demonstrative pronoun *that*. The two words just happen to be spelled identically, but within the system of English grammar they function rather differently. The demonstrative *that* contrasts with *this*, *these* and *those*, with which it forms a subsystem within the grammar. The complementizer *that* does not contrast with the demonstratives. There are no sentences of English in which an embedded clause is introduced by *this* or *those*:

- (12) *We believe this/these/those he is a great grammarian.

The complementizer *that* is optional when the embedded clause is a direct object, though not when the embedded clause is the subject:

- (13) a. That he is a great grammarian is not widely known.
b. *He is a great grammarian is not widely known.

Exercise

From newspapers collect 10 sentences containing finite subordinate clauses introduced by the complementizer *that* and 10 more without *that*. Is *that* truly optional or does its presence or absence convey some meaning? You might consult Biber et al (2002: pp. 321ff.)

Further support for our claim that these embedded clauses are direct objects comes from the fact that they can be passivized, as is typical of object NPs:

- (14) a. That he has earned his first million already is claimed by John.
b. That he exaggerates is believed by many.

Exercise

1. Make up 5 new complex sentences with finite subordinate clauses as their direct objects.
2. Make a list of the tests for direct object clauses presented above. Using these tests, show that, in each of the sentences you constructed

in Exercise (1), each embedded clause is in fact the direct object.

Indirect question clauses, such as those italicized below, are another type of direct object clause. They are sentences in which the verb of the main clause names a questioning speech act, such as *ask*, *wonder*, and the like, and the subordinate clause is a *wh*- or *if*-clause with no subject-auxiliary inversion:

- (15) a. I wonder *who the culprit is*. [wh-clause]
 b. I asked him *whether he was ready to leave*. [*whether* clause]

These can be paraphrased as direct questions such as, “*Who is the culprit?*” *I wonder* and “*Are you ready to leave?*” *she asked*. Notice that subject-auxiliary inversion occurs in direct questions, but not in indirect questions.

Indirect questions must be distinguished from similar sentences with *wh*-clauses in direct object position such as:

- (16) I know *what the thief took*.

These cannot be paraphrased as direct questions, but can be paraphrased by expanding the *wh*-phrase into a full NP:

- (17) I know *which thing(s) the thief took*.

Exercise

Create another five sentences with finite indirect questions clauses in them. Show that your subordinate clauses really are indirect question clauses by rephrasing them as direct questions. Also, create or collect five direct questions and turn them into indirect questions. (Carter and McCarthy 2006 pp. 804-24 provide an excellent overview of the ways in which speech is represented in English discourses.)

Clauses that function as indirect objects

In (18) the italicized clause is the indirect object of *gave*:

- (18) We gave *whoever was there* a French pastry.

We can demonstrate that this indirect question is the IO of this sentence

by applying the usual tests—Pro-Sub and passive:

- (19) a. We gave *him* a French pastry.
b. *Whoever was there* was given a French pastry.

IO clauses are much more restricted than subject or direct object clauses. They seem to be restricted to clauses that refer to animate entities, which is not altogether surprising when we consider the typical semantic roles of the IO phrase, namely, Recipient or Beneficiary.

Exercise

1. Make up five new complex sentences with finite subordinate clauses as their IOs.
2. For each of the sentences you constructed in Exercise (1) show that the embedded clause is in fact an IO.

Clauses that function as objects of prepositions

Prepositions also may take sentential objects, most readily when they begin with *who(ever)* and similar words (20a-c). The following italicized clauses are the objects of the prepositions that precede them:

- (20) a. We gave the pastry to *whoever would eat it*.
b. We left the crumbs for *whichever birds came by*.
c. We slept in *what we had worn all day*.

We know that the clause is the object of the preposition that precedes it because if we substitute a pronoun for the clause it must be in its object form:

- (21) a. We gave the pastry to *her*.
b. We left the crumbs for *them*.

We can also isolate the entire prepositional phrase:

- (22) a. It was *to whoever would eat them* that we gave the pastries.
b. It was *to her* that we gave the pastries.

Exercise

1. Make up five new sentences with finite subordinate clauses as objects of prepositions.

 2. For each of the sentences you constructed in Exercise (1) show that your embedded clause is in fact the object of its preposition. Use the tests described in the discussion.
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Clauses that function as complements

Subordinate clauses also function as subject or object complements and as complements within NPs.

Subject complements:

Linking verbs often allow their subject complements to be expressed as clauses:

- (23) a. The proposal is *that we should teach language, not grammar*.
 b. The problem is *that it is not my phone*.
 c. The claim is *that analyses must be supported by arguments*.

Exercise

Create five more sentences containing finite subject complement clauses. Think of ways to demonstrate that the italicized clauses in (23a,b,c) really are subject complements.

Object complements:

Some verbs that take object complements allow those complements to be expressed as clauses:

- (24) a. She dyes her hair *whatever color her car is*.
 b. They elected her *whatever she wanted to be*.

Exercise

Create five more sentences containing finite object complement clauses. Think of ways to demonstrate that the italicized clauses in (24a,b) really are object complements.

Complements in NPs:

Certain classes of nouns take complements, which may be expressed as clauses:

- (25) a. The idea *that the Earth is only a few thousand years old* has been utterly disproved.
b. The claim *that genetics determines character* is intriguing.

Note the overlap between nouns that take complement clauses and nouns that can occur as the head of the subject of a sentence with a subject complement clause, e.g., *idea*. In fact, a NP with a complement clause can typically be rephrased as a subject complement sentence with a clausal complement; compare the subject of (25a) with *The idea is that the Earth is only a few thousand years old*.

Exercise

Create five more sentences containing NPs that contain complement clauses, like those in (25a,b). For each, provide evidence that your noun complement clauses really are noun complement clauses.

Clauses that function as modifiers

We turn now to clauses that function as modifiers of various elements in sentences. We begin with relative clauses (RCs), which occur in NPs and modify their heads, for example, *We all know the person **whom/that you spoke to***. Later we will deal with clauses that modify Vs, VPs, and other clauses, namely adverbial clauses.

Clauses that modify nouns (relative clauses)

Relative clauses (RCs) (also, but misleadingly, called **adjective clauses**), follow the head nouns they modify and may begin either with *that*, a wh-word such as *who* or *which*, a phrase with a wh-word in it, or no special word at all. Relative clauses must be divided into two types, **restrictive** and **non-restrictive** (or **appositive**) relatives. In written English, appositive relatives are separated from their head noun by a comma and end with another comma. Restrictive relatives are not set off by commas. The presence or absence of commas reflects a semantic difference between these two types, although there are formal differences between them too, which we deal with below. We begin by illustrating some of the variety of restrictive relatives.

- (26) a. The man *that we bought the boat from* skipped town.
 b. The man *who(m) we bought the boat from* skipped town.
 c. The man *from whom we bought the boat* skipped town.
 d. The man *whose boat we bought* skipped town.
 e. The man \emptyset *we bought the boat from* skipped town.

We want you to notice a number of features of these clauses. First, the finite RCs can be introduced by *that* (26a), a wh-word (26b), a phrase containing a wh-word (26c,d), or no introducer (\emptyset) at all (26e).

Second, each of the relative clauses has a “gap,” a position, which if the clause were rephrased as a complete sentence, would have to be filled. In the sentences in (27), we indicate the gap as *e*. In (27a) the part of the NP that is modified by the RC, *the man*, is interpreted as the subject of the RC, so the gap is in the RC subject position. In (27b) the part of the NP modified by the RC, *the boat*, is interpreted as the direct object of the RC, so that the gap is in the RC DO position; in (27c, d) the part of the NP modified by the RC, *the man*, is interpreted as the object of a preposition in the RC, so the gap occurs after the preposition in each case. This claim is supported by the fact that the preposition is not followed immediately by its object, indicating that the gap is the OP position.

- (27) a. The man that/who *e* sold us the boat skipped town. [Subject]
 b. The boat that/which/ \emptyset the man sold us *e* broke down. [Direct object]
 c. The man that/who/ \emptyset we sold the boat to *e* is very upset. [Object of preposition]
 d. The man that/who/ \emptyset we bought the boat from *e* skipped town. [Object of preposition]

Third, the wh-word is interpreted as **coreferential** with (i.e., referring to the same entity as) the head noun and any other modifiers of the NP that contains the RC. If we were to rephrase the relative clauses in (27) as independent sentences, we would replace the relative pronouns (where they occur) with the head noun and any modifiers, giving us:

- (28) a. *The man* sold us the boat.
 b. The man sold us *the boat*.
 c. We sold the boat to *the man*.
 d. We bought the boat from *the man*.

Fourth, if the RC contains a wh-phrase, then that phrase is coreferential with the gap in the RC. We indicate coreferentiality by identical subscripts:

- (29) a. [The man]_i whom_i we bought the boat from e_i skipped town.
 b. [The man]_i [from whom_i]_j we bought the boat e_j skipped town.

If there is no introducer, or if the introducer is *that*, then the head N and any modifiers is directly coreferential with the gap:

- (30) [The man]_i (that) we bought the boat from e_i skipped town.

Fifth, if the wh-word is the genitive *whose*, then the rest of the NP modified by *whose* must move to the COMP position along with *whose*.

- (31) a. The man *whose boat* we bought skipped town.
 b. *The man *whose* we bought *boat* skipped town.

Sixth, if the wh-word is governed by a preposition, then the preposition may or may not move to the front of the sentence with it, as in (32a,b).

- (32) a. The man *from whom* we bought the boat skipped town.
 b. The man *whom* we bought the boat *from* skipped town.

If the introducer of the relative is *that*, or if there is no introducer, then no movement of the preposition can take place, as the ungrammaticality of (33a,b) shows:

- (33) a. *The man from that we bought the boat skipped town.
 b. *The man from we bought the boat skipped town.

Some grammarians call both the wh-words and *that* relative pronouns. This appears to us to ignore differences between them such as the ones we just noted. We will therefore distinguish between wh-words, which are true pronouns, and *that*, which we have called a complementizer. *That*, as a complementizer, is morphologically invariant and appears only at the beginnings of subordinate clauses.

The restrictive relative clauses that we have been examining are typically interpreted as providing information necessary for identifying the referent of the entire NP. Another kind of relative clause, the **non-restrictive**, supplies extra information that is not considered necessary to identify the refer-

ent of the NP:

- (34) a. The claim, which is fully supported by the evidence, . . .
 b. The claim which is fully supported by the evidence . . .

The non-restrictive relative, (34a), refers to some claim and then adds the supplementary information that the claim is fully supported by the evidence. The reader/hearer is assumed to know which claim is being referred to without this extra information. The restrictive relative, (34b), refers to a claim that is assumed to be identifiable only by using the information in the relative clause to distinguish the intended claim from other claims.

One syntactic effect of this difference between restrictive and non-restrictive relatives is that the head of a non-restrictive, but generally not of a restrictive, may be a proper noun:

- (35) a. Bill, who is well known to all of us, will sing his favorite tune
 “Home on the Range.”
 b. *Bill who is well known to all of us will sing his favorite tune
 “Home on the Range.”

One explanation for this is that the referents of proper nouns are assumed to be identifiable by hearers/readers without extra information. Restrictive relatives, whose information is assumed to be essential for the identification of the referent, are therefore redundant with proper nouns. Non-restrictive relatives modifying proper nouns, whose information is assumed to be supplementary, are not redundant. We do, however, find sentences such as the following, which might be used in a situation in which there are several individuals called Bill. In that case the usual assumption associated with proper names may be suspended and the specific Bill being referred to can be identified by a restrictive clause:

- (36) The Bill who has the rose between his teeth . . .

We turn now to some formal differences between restrictive and non-restrictive relatives that we mentioned above. Restrictive relative clauses may be introduced by either a *wh*-word, *that*, or *zero*. Non-restrictive clauses may be introduced only by *wh*-words.

- (37) a. Mr. Pferdfeld, whom we have just met, . . .
 b. *Mr. Pferdfeld, that we have just met, . . .

c.*Mr. Pferdfeld, we have just met, . . .

Moreover, restrictive relative clauses may be moved away from the nouns they modify, but non-restrictives may not:

- (38) a. A man *who was from Iceland* came in.
b. A man came in *who was from Iceland*.
(39) a. Bill, *who was from Iceland*, came in.
b.*Bill came in, *who was from Iceland*.

We should also mention here, that other modifiers in NPs can be restrictive or non-restrictive, such as PPs.

- (40) a. Dell computers with touch-screen capability . . .
b. Dell computers, with touch-screen capability, . . .

So far we have described only full finite relative clauses. However, we also find **reduced relative clauses**:

(41) The man *standing near the entrance* is my father.

(41) can be interpreted as an elliptical version of (42):

(42) The man *who is standing near the entrance* is my father.

Reduction of this sort is common when the implied material is a wh-word and an inflected form of *be*, which as we saw before, is referred to as **whiz-deletion**.

Reduced relatives may also function as non-restrictive modifiers:

- (43) a. Astrid, standing near the entrance, was almost trampled in the rush.
b. Astrid, who was standing near the entrance, . . .

Exercise

1. Using (a) as a model, for each sentence below: (1) identify the relative clause; (2) determine whether a wh-word, *that*, or zero introduces the clause; (3) identify the expression modified by the clause; (4) locate the gap in the clause; (5) “normalize” the clause by expressing it as an independent sentence as in (28); and (6) identify the grammatical

function of the gap in the clause.

- a. [The one] (3) [(1)_{RC} that (2) I choose e (4)] will be rewarded. I choose the one (5). Direct object (6).
- b. The guy who brought the whoopie cushion will be disciplined.
- c. The person you give it to will just throw it away.
- d. Zelda bought the pink flamingo that Scott liked so much.
- e. Wanda asked the man she considered the main suspect where he had been on the night of the robbery.
- f. They laugh best who laugh last.

2. Using (a) as a model, combine the clauses in each of the following pairs of clauses so that one member of each pair becomes a full relative clause modifying a noun phrase in the other:

- a. The avocados taste delicious. The avocados came from California. *The avocados that came from California taste delicious. The avocados that taste delicious came from California.*
- b. I am writing a term paper. The term paper is taking me forever.
- c. The computer is acting up. My wife bought me the computer.
- d. The book is an excellent source of information. I got this idea from the book.
- e. The appendix provides answers to the questions. The appendix is at the end of the book.

3. If any of the full relative clauses you created in (2) can be reduced (e.g., by whiz-deletion), then do so, e.g., *The cheese which is from Wisconsin . . .*, *The cheese from Wisconsin . . .*

4. Each of the following sentences contains a relative clauses. Using (a) as an example, separate each sentence into two clauses, analogous to the pairs of clauses in Exercise (2):

- a. The clause that includes all the subordinate clauses in a sentence is the main clause. *The clause is a main clause; The clause includes all the subordinate clauses in a sentence.*
- b. We discuss a few sentence types that allow the rearrangement of phrases.
- c. An absolute construction is a construction that is grammatically set apart from the rest of the sentence.
- d. The constructions that we have been examining are restrictive relatives.
- e. The sentences whose properties we discussed are quite compli-

cated.

(Note: Clause-combining, as in exercise (2), and clause-decombining as in exercise (4), are valuable tools for teaching relative clauses. The technique can also be used with other multi-clause sentence types.)

5. The difference between written restrictive and non-restrictive relatives is indicated through punctuation. How is it indicated in speech?

6. In the following sentences identify each relative clause and indicate whether it can be restrictive or non-restrictive. (Punctuation has been omitted intentionally.) If a sentence can be either, discuss the difference of meaning. Punctuate each sentence according to your interpretations.

- a. Everyone who viewed the exhibit was satisfied.
 - b. The visitors who viewed the exhibit were satisfied.
 - c. Wendy who comes from Wyoming knows a lot about ranching.
 - d. I hit the brakes which caused the car to fishtail.
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Clauses that modify verbs (adverbial clauses)

Adverbial clauses are typically introduced by what have been traditionally called **subordinating adverbial conjunctions (SACs)** and generally fulfill the same functions as AdvPs, indicating such concepts as time, place, condition, cause, and purpose. They appear in the positions typical of AdvPs (initial, medial and final). Again we begin with finite adverbial clauses and return to non-finite ones later.

Time clauses

- (44)
- a. *After you left the party*, things really began to swing.
 - b. *As soon as the mailman came*, Terry ran to the door.
 - c. *Before Bush was elected*, there was more money for schools.
 - d. *Since the shuttle crashed*, NASA has been demoralised.
 - e. *When she died*, she left her pets \$1,000,000.

Place clauses

- (45)
- a. *Wherever you find cotton*, you will also find the boll weevil.
 - b. Double quotes should be used *only where they are appropriate*.

Cause clauses

- (46) a. *Because he hoped to elude his pursuers*, Fred continued his trek.
 b. *Because/since/as funding is scarce*, research is hampered.

Purpose clauses

- (47) a. We packed food for 6 meals *so (that) we could stay out overnight*.
 b. *In order that we could do well*, we formed study groups.

Result clauses

- (48) a. She was *so* stunned *that she could not speak*.
 b. The shooting star moved *so* quickly *that I almost missed it*.

Conditional clauses

Conditionals are particularly important for ESL students, and are included in all ESL textbooks. The subordinate clause (typically introduced by *if* or *when*) describes a condition that must be met if the situation in the main clause is to occur. Discussions of conditionals usually divide them into two major types, the **hypothetical** and the **real**.

The subordinate clause of a hypothetical conditional represents a situation that either cannot or is unlikely to be met (49a), while real conditions can be met (49b):

- (49) a. *If I were eight feet tall*, (then) my dunk shot would be better.
 b. *If I practice more*, my swing will improve.

Reduced adverbial clauses

Like relative clauses, some adverbial clauses may also be reduced by deleting a form of *be* and a pronominal subject that is coreferential with an NP in the higher clause, but leaving its SAC. (50a) illustrates a full finite adverbial and (50b) its reduction.

- (50) a. *While she was living in Africa*, Sheila learned Swahili.
 b. *While living in Africa*, Sheila learned Swahili.

Exercise

1. Make a list of 10 common subordinating conjunctions, for example,

until, once, whenever. Create or find at least one sentence that contains a subordinate adverbial clause introduced by each of these conjunctions.

2. Provide example sentences to demonstrate that adverbial clauses can, like AdvPs, appear in initial, medial, and final positions. Is one or more of these positions more common or natural? Does the status of the clause as finite or non-finite affect its potential to occupy various positions?

3. For each sentence you created or found for Exercise (1), identify the subordinate adverbial clause from the remainder and express it as a separate clause.

4. Using ten different SACs, create ten pairs of clauses that can be combined so that one member of the pair becomes a subordinate adverbial clause (e.g., *When Pavlov rang his bell; Pavlov's dogs salivated* can be combined as *When Pavlov rang his bell, his dogs salivated* or *Pavlov's dogs salivated when he rang his bell*).

5. In an authentic text (i.e., a magazine, book, journal, etc.), find ten adverbial clauses. For each clause say whether it is a time, place, cause, result, or conditional clause. For any conditional clauses you find, say whether they are hypothetical or real.

FINITE VS. NON-FINITE CLAUSES

Consider now the formal differences between the italicized clauses in the following sentences:

- (51) a. We think *the ghost appears at midnight*.
b. We want *the ghost to appear at midnight*.

We can see that both are clauses since each has a subject NP (*the ghost*) and a VP (*appears at midnight*). However, the italicized clause in (51a) is a finite clause: it is in the present tense, and its subject agrees with its verb. We could even include a modal in it:

- (52) We think *the ghost will appear at midnight*.

In contrast, the non-finite clauses like those in (51b) do not allow for agreement or modals:

- (53) a. *We want the ghost to *appears* at midnight.
 b. *We want the ghost *will* appear at midnight.
 c. *Oscar's *must* reading of the play . . .
 d. *The book *must* lying on the table . . .
 e. *The bones *must* gnawed by the dogs . . .

By the term *finite*, then, we mean that a clause is marked with a present or past tense inflection or includes a modal auxiliary. An easy way to spot a finite clause is to look at its first verb; if it is in the present or past tense or if it is a modal, then the clause is finite. Otherwise it is non-finite. Additionally, if a subordinate clause is, or can be, introduced by *that*, then it is finite.

Exercise

For each of the highlighted clauses below, determine whether it is finite or non-finite.

- a. Glen claims *that he is the world's greatest limerick poet*.
 b. Malcolm intends *to return to school in the fall*.
 c. *For us to win*, we must first qualify for the tournament.
 d. *To err* is human; *to forgive* is divine.
 e. *That the Earth is warming* is truly cause for alarm.
-

Non-finite clauses

Non-finite clauses are always subordinate. They fall into three categories—**gerunds**, **infinitives**, and **participles**.

Gerunds

Gerunds are almost complete clauses whose first verb is a Ving form and which always function as NPs, therefore as subjects, objects, or objects of prepositions:

- (54) a. *Giving grammar lectures* is always a challenge. [Subject]
 b. *Bill's leaving town* confirmed his guilt. [Subject]
 c. We encourage *discussing language*. [Direct object]
 d. We give *discussing language* our highest priority. [Indirect object]

- e. We give our highest priority to *discussing language*. [Prepositional object]

Gerunds can generally be paraphrased as finite clauses. For example, *Bill's leaving town* can be paraphrased as (55a,b, or c), among others:

- (55) a. Bill left town.
b. Bill will leave town.
c. Bill is leaving town.

The subject of the finite paraphrase (*Bill*) may show up as a genitive phrase (*Bill's*) in the gerund, although in many varieties of English (especially informal ones) it may be in the objective case:

- (56) I don't like *his/him* being out late at night.

The direct object of the finite paraphrase of a gerund may show up as the object of the preposition *of* in the gerund:

- (57) a. Oscar read the poem.
b. Oscar's reading *of* the poem.

Exercise

(a) Identify the entire gerund phrase in each of the following sentences, and (b) identify the grammatical role the gerund plays in the sentence in which it occurs.

- a. Parting is such sweet sorrow.
b. We anticipated their losing in the final.
c. The teacher had no objection to my leaving class early.
d. Higgins gave riding his best try.
e. My most pleasurable activity is hiking in the mountains.
f. They taught him skiing.
-
-

Infinitives

We will divide infinitives into **bare infinitives** (58a) and **to-infinitives** (58b, c):

- (58) a. I saw/heard/felt them *leave through the window*.

- b. I want them *to leave through the window*.
- c. *For them to leave through the window* would be insulting to our host.

The infinitives in (58a-c) are predicates and as such assign a semantic role to some NP. In these three examples, the infinitive predicates assign the role Agent to *them*. However, note that *them* is in the accusative rather than the nominative case and so seems also to be an object of the higher verbs in (58a, b) and of *for* in (58c).

In a bare infinitive, the verb appears in its uninflected form. This form of infinitival clause occurs after modals, with verbs of perception such as *see*, *hear*, and *feel*, and with other verbs such as *let*, *make*, and *do*.

- (59) a. She may/might/should/will/would/can/could/must *leave*.
- b. *Leave immediately* is what he should do.
- c. I saw *John take it*.
- d. I heard *Mehta conduct Beethoven's Ninth*.
- e. I felt *it move under my hand*.
- f. We let *him come in*.
- g. We made *her leave*.
- h. Do *come in*.

In a **to-infinitive**, the verb appears in its uninflected form after *to* (which is simply a marker of the infinitive, not a preposition):

- (60) a. *To leave now* would cause a lot of trouble.
- b. We want *to leave immediately*.
- c. The goal is *to leave as soon as possible*.
- d. We chose her *to be the next president*.
- e. The horse *to back* is Ashkenazy Anchovy.
- f. *To get there before dawn*, we must leave at 2 a.m.

The italicized parts are *to*-infinitival clauses.

To-infinitives function as subjects (60a), objects (60b), complements (60c-d), relative clauses (60e), and adverbials (60f).

Exercise

(a) Identify the entire infinitival phrase(s) in each of the following sentences; (b) for each infinitival you identify, say whether it is a bare

infinitive or a *to*-infinitive; and (c) identify the grammatical role the infinitival plays in the sentence in which it occurs.

- a. To err is human; to forgive is divine.
- b. Musselwhite intends to consider his options.
- c. Musselwhite's intention to consider his options has his boss worried.
- d. They felt the earth shake.
- e. To be or not to be is the question.

What complexities did you discover? How did you deal with them?

Participles

We distinguish two types of participles—Ving (a.k.a. present) participles and Ven (a.k.a. past) participles. Both act as noun modifiers. The first verb of a present participle is a Ving verb:

- (61) a. The book *lying on the table* is free to whoever wants it.
b. Anyone *hoping to get on the boat* must have a ticket.

The first verb of a past participle is in the Ven form:

- (62) The bones *gnawed by the dogs* are scattered throughout the yard.

Many participles can be paraphrased as full tensed clauses:

- (63) a. The book *which is lying on the table* . . .
b. Anyone *who is hoping to get on the boat* . . .
c. The bones *which were gnawed by the dogs* . . .

Participles may often be viewed as reductions of these full tensed clauses by whiz-deletion. However, when the verb of the participle is a state verb such as *resemble*, the present participle and a finite paraphrase are not so easily related:

- (64) a. A mountain resembling an elephant . . .
b.*A mountain which is resembling an elephant . . .
c. A mountain which resembles an elephant . . .

The participles we've discussed have all occurred after the noun they modify, just as relative clauses do. However, participles may occur to the left of the subject of the sentence in which they function (we'll call them **preposed** participles):

- (65) a. *Pressed by reporters*, the president acknowledged that the war was a fiasco.

In cases like (65a), the participle non-restrictively modifies the subject of the main clause (*the president*), as the paraphrases (65b and c) show:

- (65) b. The president, *pressed by reporters*, acknowledged that the war was a fiasco.
 c. The president, *who was pressed by reporters*, acknowledged that the war was a fiasco.

Alternatively, the participle phrase in (65a) can be paraphrased as a full or reduced adverbial clause:

- (65) d. *When (he was) pressed by reporters*, the president acknowledged that the war was a fiasco.

Sometimes, speakers (and more problematically, writers) will produce preposed participles that cannot be associated with the subject of the sentence to which they are attached:

- (66) *Pressed by reporters*, the war was acknowledged to be a fiasco.

When a preposed participle cannot easily be associated with an NP in the main clause, it may be difficult to interpret. Such difficult-to-interpret participles are referred to in style manuals and composition textbooks as **dangling participles**, which writers are advised to avoid.

In certain cases, often called **absolute constructions** (italicized), a participle may contain a subject (bolded):

- (67) a. ***All things** being equal*, we decided to take the train.
 b. ***His soul** riven by guilt*, Aaron plunged from the precipice.

The term **absolute** suggests a construction set apart from the rest of the sentence. An absolute modifies the entire sentence that follows it, much as an adverbial clause does.

Exercise

(a) Identify the entire participial phrase in each of the following sen-

tences; (b) for each participle you identify, say whether it is a Ving (present) or a Ven (past) participle; and (c) identify the expression modified by the participle.

- a. A miser parted from his money must surely be desperate.
 - b. The guy giving directions is as lost as everyone else.
 - c. His lead cut in half, Tiger redoubled his efforts.
 - d. Rejected by the publisher, Ashley consigned his manuscript to the flames.
 - e. Having been issued a second yellow card, Renoldo had to sit out the next game.
 - f. All being fair in love and war, chess players routinely try to distract their opponents.
 - g. Remaining students must register at the department office.
-
-

Auxiliary verbs in non-finite constructions

Except for modals, non-finite VPs may have a range of auxiliary verbs. A few of the possibilities are indicated below. (Note that the *first* auxiliary *never* carries a tense inflection.)

- (68) a. It is exhilarating *to have jumped* with a bungee cord. (Infinitive without subject)
- b. It is wonderful *for Wanda to be jumping* from a bungee cord. (Infinitive with *for-to* + subject)
- c. Egbert regrets *having jumped* from a bungee cord. (Gerund with out subject)
- d. *Waldo's being prevented* from bungee jumping relieved Wanda. (Passive gerund with subject)
- e. *Having consulted* the reputable sources, I then consulted my horoscope. (Present participle)
- f. *Having been advised*, I decided to face the bungee jump. (Present, perfect, passive participle)
- g. *My guru having been consulted*, I decided to face the bungee jump. (Absolute passive participle with subject)

One final matter pertaining to the forms of participial or reduced relative clauses: as these names suggest, the verb of the reduced relative clause is in participial form, either *-en* (past participial) or *-ing* (present participial) form, and elements of the clause are omitted. Consider:

- (69) a. People sentenced to life in prison . . .
 b. Anyone walking on the grass . . .

And compare them with:

- (70) a. People who are/were sentenced to life in prison . . .
 b. Anyone who is/was walking on the grass . . .

Clearly, the relative clauses in (69a/70a) are passives, and in (69a) the relative pronoun and the form of passive *be* are omitted. An analogous omission of *who is/was* occurs in (69b).

However, the terms past and present are misleading, as they suggest that participial clauses imply past or present time. The clauses are not in fact restricted to these interpretations:

- (71) People sentenced to life in prison from now on will have to pay for their keep if the proposed new law goes into effect.
 (72) Anyone walking on the grass at that time was subject to a stiff fine.

In (71) the past participial relative actually refers to a future time, *from now on*. In (72) the present participial relative refers to a past time, *at that time*. In short, the actual time reference of the reduced relatives is governed by elements other than their verbs.

COORDINATION

Compound sentences

Compound sentences are the result of combining clauses by coordinating them with one another. They are typically, though not necessarily, conjoined by the coordinating conjunctions *and*, *or*, or *but*.

- (73) a. The king is in his counting house and the queen is in her parlor.
 b. The police must charge you or they must release you.
 c. You must remain here but your partner may go.
 d. The TV is on; the beers are chilled; the teams are on the field; we're ready for action.

Compound-complex sentences

The sentences of (73) illustrate coordination of main clauses. However, subordinate clauses, both finite and non-finite, may also be coordinated:

- (74) a. We left *because we were tired* and *because the lecture was boring*.
(Conjoined finite adverbial clauses)
b. Alex wanted *to sing* and *to play the piano*.
(Conjoined *to*-infinitive complement clauses)
c. Anyone *who attends classes* and *who pays attention* should pass the course. (Conjoined relative clauses)
d. *Climbing Denali* and *winning the biathlon* were Meg's greatest accomplishments. (Conjoined gerunds functioning as subject)

Sentences like those in (74), which include coordinated subordinate clauses, are compound-complex sentences, as are sentences with coordinated main clauses, one or both of which contain at least one subordinate clause:

- (75) The king, *who doesn't like to be disturbed*, is in his counting house, and the queen, *who is much more sociable*, is in her parlor, *where she is surrounded by her sycophants*.

In (75) the coordinated main clauses are *The king is in his counting house* and *The queen is in her parlor*.

MISCELLANEOUS INFORMATION-RESTRUCTURING SENTENCE TYPES

In this section we describe sentence types with subordinate clauses that do not fit neatly in the categories above: **extraposition**, **NP-movement** (or **raising**), **tough-movement**, **cleft**, and **pseudo-cleft** constructions.

Extraposition

Clauses that are interpreted as subjects may occur not only in the main clause subject position but also at the right hand end of the main clause predicate. Compare the following pair:

- (76) a. *That Oscar writes poetry* upsets his parents.
b. It upsets his parents *that Oscar writes poetry*.

These two have essentially the same meanings. In both, the italicized clause

is interpreted as what upsets Oscar's parents, though in (76a) the clause appears as the subject of the main clause, whereas in (76b) that position is occupied by **expletive** (a.k.a. **empty, dummy**) *it* and the clause occurs at the end of the predicate. The rule that connects these two constructions is called **extraposition**, a name which suggests that the subject clause has been moved (-posed) outside (extra-) its normal position.

We have already exemplified another construction in which a clause is extraposed, but repeat our example here for convenience:

- (77) a. A man who was from Iceland came in.
 b. A man came in who was from Iceland.

Again, both sentences have identical meanings even though in (77b) the relative clause modifying *man* appears at the end of the predicate. The rule that links these two sentence types is called **extraposition from NP**.

One reason why English (and many other languages) allows extraposition and extraposition from NP is that clauses tend to be relatively long and so if they are not moved, they may disrupt the subject-predicate structure of the sentences in which they are subordinate. Sentences are generally somewhat easier to process (understand) when the clause has been extraposed. Another reason might be that while NPs require case marking, subordinate clauses do not, and so may be moved to positions that do not receive case.

Exercise

1. Apply extraposition to the following sentences:
 - a. That dictionaries have poetic qualities has often been proposed.
 - b. That we should carefully study Diamond's theories on the collapse of civilizations is abundantly clear.
 - c. That grammatical subjects are not always topics has been repeatedly shown.

 2. Reverse the extraposition in the following sentences:
 - a. It must be recalled that the earliest inhabitants of the Americas arrived from Siberia.
 - b. It is extremely likely that the researchers' claims are true.
 - c. It is utterly inconceivable that the press secretary would tell such an egregious lie.
-
-

NP movement (raising) clauses

Consider now the following two sentences with almost identical meanings:

- (78) a. It seems that Oscar has upset his parents.
b. Oscar seems to have upset his parents.

In both *Oscar* is interpreted as the subject of *has/have upset his parents*. However, in (78a) it occurs as the subject of the subordinate clause, whereas in (78b) it occurs as the subject of the higher verb *seem*. Note that the clause in (78a) is finite, whereas the clause in (78b) is non-finite. In fact, *Oscar* cannot occur as the subject of an infinitival clause after *seem*, *appear*, or *turn out*:

- (79) *It seems Oscar to have upset his parents.

In general, these verbs require that the phrase understood as the subject of their infinitival complements be moved (“raised”) to become the subject of the higher verb.

Tough movement

A similar (though by no means identical) movement may occur in sentences with adjectives such as *easy* or *hard* and NPs such as *a pain* or *a treat* (and many other expressions with similar meanings). These are often cutely called “*Tough* movement” sentences. *Tough* movement relates:

- (80) a. It is tough to live with Hilda.
b. Hilda is tough to live with *e*.

Note that (80b) ends with a preposition whose object, *Hilda*, is missing (indicated by *e*), or more accurately, displaced: it appears as the subject of the main clause. Note too that the main clause subject of (80a) is the expletive *it*. This *it* does not refer to anything and occupies a position that receives no semantic role (which is why it is an expletive or dummy). *Hilda*, on the other hand, receives its thematic role from the subordinate verb and preposition. It is as if *Hilda* had been moved from the position marked *e* in the subordinate clause into the higher subject around the adjective *tough*, hence the name *Tough* movement. As another example, compare *It is distressing to have to deal with wasps* and *Wasps are distressing to have to deal with*.

A very reasonable question to ask at this point would be: why does English maintain pairs of sentences such as (78a, b) and (80a, b) whose members have identical meanings? While we do not have a definitive answer, we

believe that the reason has to do with the discourse functions of subjects. Typically, though by no means always, subjects function as the topics of their sentences. Topics refer to the entities that the sentences are about. So (78b) is about Oscar in a way that (78a) is not; similarly, (80b) is about Hilda, whereas (80a) is not. We would use the (b) sentences of these pairs in discourse contexts slightly different from the contexts in which we would use the (a) versions.

We turn now to a pair of sentence types that have characteristics akin to finite relative clauses, the **it-cleft** and **pseudo-cleft** constructions.

It-clefting

The following is an *it*-cleft sentence, and we will refer to the phrase in square brackets as its **focus** and to the italicized clause simply as its **clause**:

(81) It was [Henry Ford] *who invented the assembly line*.

Clefts consist of an expletive *it* higher subject, a form of *be*, a focus phrase (which may be any phrase type except VP), and a clause that looks like (but actually isn't) a finite relative clause.

The clause is like a relative in that it may be introduced by a *wh*-word, *that*, or (in some cases) nothing at all:

(82) It was Henry Ford (*wholthat/zero*) invented the assembly line.

It also contains a “gap,” which is interpreted as if it were “filled” by the focus phrase, so that the clefts above mean in essence:

(83) Henry Ford invented the assembly line.

The fact that a cleft can be reduced in this way has led some grammarians to suggest that the focus was actually moved out of the clause into its position in the higher clause.

Cleft foci are often interpreted as contrasting with some other phrase. For example, you might use a cleft such as the ones above if you thought that the audience believed that Roger Smith invented the assembly line:

(84) It was Henry Ford, not Roger Smith, who invented the assembly line.

If the focus is a PP, then the sense of contrast may fade somewhat:

(85) It was in 1789 that the French Revolution broke out.

The construction here suggests something like *specifically in 1789*, but could also be used if a hearer believed that the French Revolution broke out in 1689 or 1799.

The clause of a cleft sentence is usually interpreted as known information, known either to the hearer or by people generally. It is not, however, assumed to be currently in the hearer's consciousness (Prince 1978).

Exercise

For each of the following *it*-cleft sentences, create a brief text into which it fits naturally.

- a. It is Obama who leads the delegate count.
- b. It is the few, the powerful, and the famous who shape our collective destiny.
- c. It is this level of production excellence that rescues Spielberg's movie from being merely a thriller.
- d. It is urban life that is associated with excitement, freedom, and diverse daily life.

Pseudo-clefting (wh-clefting)

Like *it*-clefts, pseudo-clefts "cleave" a sentence around a form of *be*:

(86) *What irritates me* is [the amount of sports on TV].

Again, we will refer to the italicized expression as the pseudo-cleft clause and to the bracketed phrase as its focus, which are linked by a form of *be*. The clause may begin only with the *wh*-word *what*:

- (87) a. *Who plays golf is Fred.
b. *Which ate the mouse was the cat.
c. *When I arrived was lunchtime.

And again, the basic meaning may be represented by a simpler sentence in which the focus phrase replaces *what*:

(88) The amount of sports on TV irritates me.

But just as clefts do not mean exactly what their non-cleft counterparts mean, neither do pseudo-clefts and their non-cleft counterparts. The clause of a pseudo-cleft represents information that the speaker assumes to be in the consciousness of the hearer at the time the sentence is uttered (Prince 1978).

Exercise

1. For each of the following pseudo-clefts, create a brief text into which it fits naturally.
 - a. What sets the US apart from all other countries is its venerable constitution.
 - b. What makes blogging special is that it allows individuals to rapidly express and disseminate their thoughts.
 - c. What must be remembered is that the effects of one's actions are never fully calculable.
 - d. What intrigues me is that morals are also subject to fashion.
 - e. What we must learn first is not that terrorists are uniquely evil but that all targeting of civilians is immoral.

2. In the following text, slightly adapted from Martha Grimes' novel *The Stargazy* (1998: 3), find at least one of each of the following: (a) a complex sentence; (b) a compound-complex sentence; (c) a relative clause; (d) an *it*-cleft sentence; (e) a pseudo-cleft sentence; (f) an extraposed sentence; (g) an NP movement sentence; (h) a *to*-infinitive clause; (i) an adverbial clause; (j) a Ving (present) participle; (k) a Ven (past) participle; and (l) a gerund. Be sure to identify the entire expression in each case.

That was how she felt now. She would have preferred the isolation not be a freezing one, but personal discomfort bothered her only insofar as it kept her from performing. She had trained herself to withstand any discomfort that could come along, discomforts of either body or mind. The mind was more difficult, being limitless. She raised her eyes for a moment to look up at the stars. In the course of her studies, she had read that what fueled the stars was the merging of atoms. Fusion science. What fascinated her was the notion that the amount of energy in was the amount of energy out. There was an equation: $Q=I$. And this, she had to imagine, was perfect balance, like that of the Alexander Column. It was perfect balance that she was after; it was all that she was after. She wanted to get to that point

where nothing resonated, where the past could not pretend to shape itself into the present, where planes had clear sharp edges to which nothing clung. People didn't come into it; they weren't part of the equation. What relationships she'd had had been brief and in her control, though her partners didn't seem aware of this. It was astonishing that people could be so easily hoodwinked, so easily led.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this chapter, we explored the major grammatical structures that enable English speakers to create sentences of infinite length and complexity. Despite the intricacy and variety they make possible, finite and non-finite subordinate clauses are individually fairly simple. Each has a rather limited set of formal properties, and we have had to add very few functions to describe their workings. But the process of embedding—of building structures within structures—multiplies the potential for variety exponentially. We have only scratched the surface of that potential. If you want to see some dramatic demonstrations, pick up a sonnet by Shakespeare, a poem by Dylan Thomas, or a piece of prose by Henry James, William Faulkner, or Virginia Woolf. Or pick up an essay that you yourself have written recently. You will probably amaze yourself with the complexity of your own language.

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GLOSSARY

ABSOLUTE CONSTRUCTION: subordinate expression with no explicit grammatical link to the clause it depends on.

ADJECTIVE CLAUSE: common misnomer for **RELATIVE CLAUSE**.

ADVERBIAL CLAUSE: clause that functions in the range of adverbials, viz. modifies verbs, verb phrases, and sentences.

APPOSITIVE: expression that adds non-restrictive information. See **NON-RESTRICTIVE RELATIVE CLAUSE**.

CLAUSE: grammatical unit comprising a subject and a predicate.

COMPLEX SENTENCE: sentence containing one or more **SUBORDINATE CLAUSES**.

COMPOUND SENTENCE: sentence consisting of two or more coordinate clauses. Also called a **COORDINATE SENTENCE**.

COMPOUND-COMPLEX SENTENCE: sentence that includes both coordinate and subordinate clauses.

DANGLING PARTICIPLE: **PARTICIPLE** occurring to the left of a main clause whose implied subject cannot be interpreted as coreferential with the main clause subject.

EMBEDDING: incorporation of one clause within another, as subject, object, complement or modifier, or more generally, the inclusion of one expression within another. See **RECURSION**.

EXPLETIVE *IT*: occurrences of *it* that are non-referential, e.g., in the subjects of sentences to which **EXTRAPOSITION** has applied.

EXTRAPOSITION: movement of a clausal subject to the end of its sentence and insertion of **EXPLETIVE *IT*** in the subject position.

EXTRAPOSITION FROM NP: movement of a relative clause out of its NP to the end of its sentence.

FINITE CLAUSE: clause marked for present or past tense. See **NON-FINITE CLAUSE**.

GERUND: noun phrase derived from a verb phrase or from a clause, whose first verb is Ving.

INDIRECT QUESTION: clause subordinate to a verb such as *ask*, *wonder*, in a sentence that can be rephrased as a direct question.

INFINITIVE: NON-FINITE CLAUSE (1) whose first verb is in its base (uninflected) form (bare infinitive), or (2) whose first verb is marked by the particle *to* (*to*-infinitive).

IT*-CLEFT SENTENCE:** complex sentence beginning with **EXPLETIVE *IT, followed by a form of *be*, then by a focused phrase, which is followed by a finite clause containing a gap of the same grammatical type as the focus phrase, in a position from which the focus phrase was ostensibly moved. Used to structurally highlight the focus phrase, often for purposes of contrast. See **PSEUDO-CLEFT SENTENCE**.

MAIN CLAUSE: clause to which any other clauses in a sentence are subordinate.

NON-FINITE CLAUSE: clause that is not marked for present or past tense (see **FINITE CLAUSE**); including **GERUNDS**, **INFINITIVES**, and **PARTICIPLES**.

NON-RESTRICTIVE RELATIVE CLAUSE: RELATIVE CLAUSE whose information is not necessary to the identification of the referent of the NP of which it is a part. See **RESTRICTIVE RELATIVE CLAUSE**.

NP MOVEMENT: (apparent) movement of an NP from the subject of a subordinate clause into the subject position of verbs such as *appear* and *seem*. Also called **RAISING**.

PARTICIPLE: type of **NON-FINITE CLAUSE**. See **PAST PARTICIPLE**, **PRESENT PARTICIPLE**.

PAST PARTICIPLE: type of **NON-FINITE CLAUSE** whose first verb is in its Ven (past participle) form and which functions as a modifier, typically in an NP.

PRESENT PARTICIPLE: type of **NON-FINITE CLAUSE** whose first verb is in its Ving (present participle) form and which functions as a modifier, typically in an NP.

PSEUDO-CLEFT SENTENCE: complex sentence whose subject consists of a wh-clause and whose main verb is a form of *be*, whose complement is a focused phrase that is coreferential with the wh-phrase in the subject clause. Used to structurally highlight the focus phrase, often for purposes of contrast. See **IT-CLEFT SENTENCE**.

RAISING: See **NP MOVEMENT**.

RECURSION: property of natural language that allows expressions to include expressions of the same type, e.g., clauses within clauses, thus creating the potential for infinitely long and infinitely many expressions. See **EMBEDDING**.

REDUCED RELATIVE CLAUSE: RELATIVE CLAUSE whose complementizer or wh-phrase, subject, and copula have been deleted.

RELATIVE CLAUSE: clausal modifier in an NP. See **NON-RESTRICTIVE RELATIVE CLAUSE**, **RESTRICTIVE RELATIVE CLAUSE**.

RESTRICTIVE RELATIVE CLAUSE: RELATIVE CLAUSE whose information is necessary for the identification of the referent of the NP of which it is a part. See **NON-RESTRICTIVE RELATIVE CLAUSE**.

SENTENCE: grammatical unit consisting of one or more **CLAUSES**.

SUBORDINATE CLAUSE: CLAUSE that is grammatically dependent on an element of another clause.

TOUGH MOVEMENT: (apparent) movement of an NP from a *to*-infinitival complement clause to the subject of a predicate such as *tough*, *easy*, *hard*, *a pain*, or *a treat*.

WH-CLEFT SENTENCE: See **PSEUDO-CLEFT SENTENCE**.

WHIZ-DELETION: deletion of wh-phrase or complementizer, subject, and copula from a modifying clause.