

cuadernos de la facultad

FACULTAD DE HISTORIA, GEOGRAFÍA Y LETRAS

C O L E C C I Ó N

**METODOLOGÍA
2000**

Nº 21

**COORDINATION AND
SUBORDINATION**

Pablo Corvalán Reyes



UNIVERSIDAD METROPOLITANA
DE CIENCIAS DE LA EDUCACIÓN

Proyecto:
Innovación y mejoramiento integral de la formación inicial de docentes

CUADERNOS DE LA FACULTAD

Colección
METODOLOGÍA
2001

Nº 21

COORDINATION AND
SUBORDINATION

Pablo Corvalán Reyes

FACULTAD DE HISTORIA, GEOGRAFÍA y LETRAS

PROYECTO:

*“Innovación y mejoramiento integral de la
Formación Inicial Docente”*

UNIVERSIDAD METROPOLITANA
DE CIENCIAS DE LA EDUCACIÓN

UNIVERSIDAD METROPOLITANA DE CIENCIAS DE LA EDUCACIÓN
FACULTAD DE HISTORIA, GEOGRAFÍA Y LETRAS

CUADERNOS DE LA FACULTAD

Decana: Carmen Balart Carmona

Secretaria Ejecutiva: Irma Céspedes Benítez

COMITÉ EDITORIAL

- | | |
|--------------------------------|--------------------------------------|
| • Carmen Balart Carmona | Departamento de Castellano |
| • Guillermo Bravo Acevedo | Departamento de Historia y Geografía |
| • Irma Céspedes Benítez | Departamento de Castellano |
| • Lenka Domic Kuscevic | Departamento de Historia y Geografía |
| • Samuel Fernández Saavedra | Departamento de Inglés |
| • Giuseppina Grammatico Amari | Centro de Estudios Clásicos |
| • Nelly Olguín Vilches | Departamento de Castellano |
| • Héctor Ortiz Lira | Departamento de Inglés |
| • Iván Salas Pinilla | Centro de Estudios Clásicos |
| • Silvia Vyhmeister Tzschabran | Departamento de Alemán |
| • René Zúñiga Hevia | Departamento de Francés |

La correspondencia debe dirigirse a la Secretaría Administrativa de la Facultad de Historia, Geografía y Letras, Avenida José Pedro Alessandri 774, Ñuñoa, Santiago de Chile.

Fono-Fax (56-2) 241 27 35. E-mail: cbalart@umce.cl – higelet@umce.cl

Impreso en LOM

2001

Diagramación: Eduardo Polanco Rumié

Se prohíbe toda reproducción total o parcial por cualquier medio escrito o electrónico sin autorización escrita del Decano de la Facultad de Historia, Geografía y Letras.

CONTENTS

	Page N°
PRESENTATION	5
ABBREVIATIONS USED	6
1. INTRODUCTION	7
2. COORDINATORS AND SUBORDINATORS	7
2.1 Coordinators	7
2.2 Subordinators	9
3. COORDINATION	11
3.1 Simple coordination	11
3.2 Complex coordination	12
3.3 Other types of coordination	13
3.4 Some problems in coordination analysis	14
4. SUBORDINATION	15
4.1 Nominal clauses	16
4.2 Adverbial clauses	18
4.3 Relative clauses	19
4.4 Comparative clauses	20
5. TAXONOMY	22
REFERENCES	24
EXERCISES	25
KEY TO EXERCISES	38

PRESENTATION

This booklet has been written for students taking an advanced English grammar course, especially at teacher-training college level. It provides a systematic treatment of both the theoretical and practical contents dealt with at UMCE in the first semester of English Grammar. Its focus is the compound and complex sentence, which are approached from the perspective of modern mainstream grammar, particularly the British school and the contributions by Quirk et al. (1985). The final part of the booklet contains a section of practice material designed for students to use the concepts in actual language samples and in that way develop their linguistic competence even further.

ABBREVIATIONS USED

A:	<i>adverbial</i>
AdjC:	<i>adjective complement</i>
AdvP:	<i>adverb phrase</i>
App:	<i>apposition</i>
C:	<i>complement</i>
NP:	<i>noun phrase</i>
O:	<i>object</i>
OC:	<i>object complement</i>
OD:	<i>direct object</i>
OI:	<i>indirect object</i>
PostM:	<i>post-modifier</i>
PP:	<i>prepositional phrase</i>
PrepC:	<i>prepositional complement (object of a preposition)</i>
S:	<i>subject</i>
SC:	<i>subject complement</i>
VP:	<i>verb phrase</i>

1. INTRODUCTION

In modern mainstream English grammar (see, for example, Leech *et al.* 1982, Huddleston 1984, Quirk *et al.* 1985, Greenbaum and Quirk 1990, Halliday 1994¹, Freeborn 1995, Greenbaum 1996, Biber *et al.* 1999), coordination and subordination are regarded as sentence phenomena. The *sentence*, as the highest rank unit in the grammatical hierarchy, is defined as consisting of one or more *clauses*, the category immediately below the sentence in the hierarchy. A sentence is *simple*, *compound* or *complex* according to the number of clauses it contains, and according to the relationship of interdependency between the clauses.

A sentence made up of a single clause is a *simple sentence*. When more clauses are linked, the resulting structure is no longer simple. The linking can take place at the same syntactic level, i.e. the clauses in question are of equal status and the relationship is *paratactic*. In this case, we speak of *coordination* and the resulting construction is a *compound sentence*. On the other hand, the linking can take place at different syntactic levels, i.e. the clauses in question are of unequal status and the relationship is *hypotactic*: one of the clauses dominates one or several other clauses, all of which are dependent. The dominant clause receives the name of *matrix* or *main clause*. A sentence of this type is referred to as a *complex sentence* and the phenomenon involved is *subordination*. A further category is commonly recognised where a sentence comprises both coordination and subordination, the resulting construction being a *compound-complex* sentence.

2. COORDINATORS AND SUBORDINATORS

Both phenomena, coordination and subordination, are usually identified by the presence of a linking item or *conjunction*. These will be discussed in what follows:

2.1 COORDINATORS

Coordination is identified by the presence of *coordinating conjunctions* or *coordinators* such as *and*, *or* and *but*² in *syndetic* coordination. Of these, *and* and *or* can join two or more clauses, and are therefore often referred to as *central coordinators*; *but* can only join two clauses. *Asyndetic* coordination occurs when a compound sentence has no explicit coordinator; in writing the comma or the semicolon assume the linking role. A coordinator can pair with an endorsing item to form correlative coordinators: *both ... and*, *either ... or*, *neither ... nor*, *not (only) ...but*.

¹ While Halliday's approach differs in various ways from the others listed above, his notion of *clause complex* may well be regarded as an equivalent of *sentence*.

² The status of *for*, *so*, *yet*, etc, as marginal coordinators will not be discussed here.

The coordinator *and* is associated to an additive meaning, i.e. the second clause can be regarded as an *addition* to the first clause:

The weather was very nice and everybody was having a good time. (= addition)

and can also carry other meanings, such as (*chronological*) *sequence*, *result* or *consequence*, *condition*, *concession*, *paraphrase*, *contrast*, and *comment* (see Quirk *et al.* 1985 and Greenbaum and Quirk 1990). These meanings are often reinforced by the presence of a conjunctive adverb, as is shown in the following examples:

I went into the room and (then) opened the windows. (= sequence)

He heard a shot and (therefore) phoned the police. (= result)

Overuse your credit cards and you will find yourself in debt. (= condition)

She studied very hard and (yet) failed. (= concession)

We came to an agreement and (similarly) we solved the conflict. (= paraphrase)

Peter is secretive and (on the contrary) David is open. (= contrast)

Charlie became addicted to gambling and that surprised no one. (= comment)

The coordinator *or* is associated to the meaning of *alternative*. In other words, as Greenbaum and Quirk (1990: 267) put it, the meaning of the first clause excludes the meaning of the second.

You have to study hard for this exam or you may fail. (= alternative)

Other meanings that can be conveyed by *or* are *inclusion* (which normally involves the addition of a further clause), *correction*, and *negative condition*.

You can have roast chicken or roast beef, or you can have both. (= inclusion)

There are no snakes in this canyon or at least our guide tells us so. (= correction)

We will be free or we will die. (= negative condition)

The coordinator *but* carries the meaning of *contrast/concession*:

Patrick lost a fortune in the stock market but he lives quite comfortably. (= contrast)

Sometimes *but* can also indicate positive paraphrase or reformulation, i.e., the second clause expresses in positive terms what the first clause expresses in negative terms: Jane did not waste her time before the exam, but (rather) studied very hard. (= positive paraphrase)

The endorsing items that pair with these coordinators to form correlative coordinators are simply regarded as emphasisers, i.e. *both...and* simply emphasises the additive meaning of *and*:

I want both your book and your pencil.

Either ...or simply emphasises the exclusive meaning of *or*:

You may wear the dress or the skirt.

Neither...or is the negative counterpart of *both...and*:

David neither loves Joan nor wants to marry her.

Not (only)...but does not emphasise the contrastive meaning of *but*. It rather conveys an additive meaning, similar to that of *both ...and* but as Quirk *et al.* put it, it 'distinguishes rather than equates the conjoins' (Quirk *et al.* 1985: 941).

She is not only tall but slim.

2.2 SUBORDINATORS

Subordination is normally recognised by the presence of *subordinating conjunctions* or *subordinators*. These comprise single word subordinators, e.g. *as, when, while, because,* etc.; multi-word subordinators: *in order that, supposing that, as far as* (cf. Halliday's nominal, verbal and adverbial conjunctions, Halliday 1994), and correlative subordinators *as ... so, as ... as, more ... than, the ... the*. Instances like *even if, the moment that, in spite of the fact that,* etc., which also fulfil a subordinating role, are regarded as borderline cases or marginal subordinators (Quirk *et al.* 1985). Subordination may also be signalled by other indicators, such as *wh-* elements, relative pronouns or the absence of a finite verb.

The following table displays samples of subordinators and their meanings:

MEANING	Subordinator
subsequent time	after, when, whenever
preceding time	after, before, until
adjacent time	as soon as, immediately, once, since
addition	besides, in addition to, not to mention
place	where, wherever, (when, once)
condition	if, unless, as (so) long as, assuming (that), in case, provided, on condition (that), providing (that), supposing
concession	although, even though, if, even if, in spite of, when
contrast	whereas, while
exception	except (that), excepting (that), save that
purpose	(in order) to, so as to, so (that)
reason	because, as, since, seeing that, in case
alternative	whether...or
proportion	the ... the
preference	rather than, sooner than
comparison	as if, (like)

Some of the examples given above are not always regarded as subordinators (see particularly Huddleston 1984). However, the position adopted in this booklet is that those elements (whether lexical or phrasal) which link a matrix clause to a subordinate clause (whether finite or non-finite) are regarded as subordinators (see below).

3. COORDINATION

Having discussed the meanings of both coordinating and subordinating conjunctions, this section will look into the characteristics of coordination and subordination as proposed in modern grammar. Coordination, as opposed to subordination, can link lesser constituents besides clauses. The following example exhibits coordination of NP's:

My brother and his daughter went to see Dinosaurus, the movie.

Ellipsis can be postulated in most cases of coordination, and therefore still regard these, though not in the surface, as compound sentences. Hence, a deeper analysis of the sentence above could be as follows:

My brother went to see Dinosaurus and his daughter went to see Dinosaurus.

However, to analyse all cases of below-the-clause coordination as instances of ellipsis would mean to postulate that all coordination is indeed coordination of clauses. Apart from yielding considerable complexity in some cases³, this analysis is regarded as unsatisfactory especially for a specific type of construction. Take Huddleston's example *Ed and Liz are an amiable pair*, where postulating corresponding clauses would render unacceptable clauses = * *Ed is an amiable pair*. Similar problems pose the following constructions: *John and Mary met, I have a black and white terrier, The main beneficiaries were Tom and Ed*. Instances of *combinatory coordination*, as Quirk *et al.* refer to the phrasal coordination of the types discussed by Huddleston, cannot be analysed as elliptical clauses.

Problems such as those encountered by Huddleston have made mainstream grammarians analyse coordination in terms of its surface structure. For this type of analysis, Quirk *et al.* propose the term *conjoin* to refer to the coordinated elements (cf. *coordinate terms*, Huddleston 1984) and *conjoint* for the resulting construction. Also, within this framework, Quirk *et al.* distinguish two main types of coordination: *simple* and *complex coordination*. Further types of coordination include *interpolated*, *pseudo-* and *quasi-coordination*.

3.1 SIMPLE COORDINATION

Simple coordination consists of the paratactic linking of single constituents that are parallel in meaning, in function and generally in form. This type of coordination occurs when a clause of a certain kind is coordinated with another of the same kind, e.g. a finite

³ Consider for instance working out the source of Huddleston's example *Ed, Jill and the kids are hoping to see both 'Hamlet' and 'Macbeth' when they are in London next June or July* (p. 386).

Quasi-coordination exhibits the opposite phenomenon from pseudo-coordination. In this case we find syntactic unity but semantic grouping. According to Quirk *et al.*, quasi coordination arises from the use of *quasi-coordinators* such as *as well as*, *as much as*, *rather than*, *more than*, which, in spite of their additive meaning, exhibit a syntactic behaviour that is typical of subordinating devices such as relative pronouns. Note that in the example below, while the subject of the sentence clearly implies two different entities, the form of the verb is singular.

My father, as well as my mother, is here today.

3.4 SOME PROBLEMS IN COORDINATION ANALYSIS

Huddleston (1984) recognises two problems in the description of coordinated constructions. They will be illustrated here with his own examples. The first concerns the classification of coordinated constructions or conjoiners as a whole. It is not clear to what grammatical class a conjoint should be assigned. For example, in the sentence *John and his brother are coming to lunch*, the conjoint *John and his brother* could be classified as an NP if we took the position that the whole belongs to the same class as its parts. However, this position falters with those instances in which conjoiners are made up of diverse class elements. In the following example an NP is linked to a PP, the form of the conjoint becoming unclear.

I saw him last week and on two earlier occasions

Even though these cases do not seem to be frequent (see Biber *et al.* 1999), a functional label is normally used in the analysis. Thus, the example would exhibit coordination of adverbials⁵.

The second problem refers to the analysis of the individual separate terms or conjoiners. It is clear that in *John and his brother are coming to lunch*, each conjoiner is analysed as a definite class element, namely NP's. However, in the sentence *He had found a Welsh and an Irish version of the legend*, the class of *an Irish* and *a Welsh* is not that clear at all. Note that the coordinated elements together are not constituents, say as NP's, AdjP, AdvP, etc. Similarly, in cases of complex-coordination like *Ed was a Canadian, but John an Australian* there is no distinct class to which the second conjoiner could be assigned. As mentioned above, a typical resort is to postulate ellipsis, i.e. such conjoiners can be seen as part of bigger constructions from which other elements have been removed, but this analysis meets the difficulties already discussed.

⁵ Another solution is to insist on the NP conjoint and state, for example, that PP's are in fact a kind of NP, as has been suggested within the scope of Case Grammar (see Fillmore 1968).

4. SUBORDINATION

Turning now to subordination, this phenomenon involves the linking of clauses at different syntactic levels. The dominating clause is the matrix or main clause and the dependent clause is the subordinate clause; the resulting structure is commonly referred to as the 'superordinate' clause. Except for the verb element, subordinate clauses can function, within the superordinate, as any of the elements of a simple sentence, i.e. they can perform the role of subject (S), object (O), complement (C)⁶, or adverbial (A). These cases are the most central kinds of subordination. In more peripheral instances, they can also function within these constituents as post-modifiers (PostM), prepositional complements (PC), adjective complements (AdjC), and apposition (App). The table on the following page shows subordinate clauses and the various functions they can perform within the superordinate.

Function	Example
S	<i>Travelling by plane is fantastic.</i>
O	<i>I didn't know <u>that you came by plane</u>.</i>
C	<i>The only thing I want is <u>to travel by plane</u>.</i>
A	<i><u>When I was on the plane</u>, one of the engines failed.</i>
PostM	<i>The man <u>who was on that plane</u> wants to talk to you.</i>
PC	<i>I am tired of <u>travelling by plane</u>.</i>
AdjC	<i>I am sure <u>that travelling by plane can be a nuisance</u>⁷.</i>
App	The news, <u>that the plane crashed</u> , came as a shock to me.

Subordinate clauses are classified in formal (structural) and functional terms. The structural classes of subordinate clauses are finite, non-finite (including infinitive and participle clauses) and verbless clauses. Examples follow:

Structural type	Example
Finite	<i>I forgot <u>that you were coming over last night</u>.</i>
Non-finite	<i><u>-ing clause</u> While visiting the ruins, she learnt about the tombs.</i>
	<i><u>-ed clause</u> Once sent to Germany, he started to take his duties seriously.</i>
	<i><u>to inf. clause</u> The issue is <u>to work more</u>.</i>
	<i><u>bare inf. clause</u> Rather than do it all by yourself, you should ask for help.</i>
Verbless	<i><u>While on holiday</u>, he met his girlfriend.</i>

On the basis of their potential function, Quirk *et al.* (1985) classify subordinate clauses as nominal, adverbial, relative and comparative clauses.

⁶ The term *predicative* is used instead of *complement* in Biber *et al.* (1999) following the American tradition.

⁷ The example displays layers of subordination where one subordinate clause is embedded into another that is subordinate as well.

4.1 NOMINAL CLAUSES

Nominal clauses, or complement clauses as they are referred to in Biber *et al.* (1999), typically function like NP's. They may take the role of subject, object, complement, apposition, and prepositional complement. On the basis of their structure and, especially, of the initial constituent, Quirk *et al.* identify the following types of nominal clauses (these are given below with examples in the various functions correspondingly underlined to illustrate them):

Nominal *that* clauses:

- S: *That she has already arrived is still unknown*
 O: *I didn't know that she had already arrived*
 SC: *It appears that she has already arrived*
 App: *The fact that she has already arrived makes me happy*
 AdjC: *I was so glad that she had already arrived*

Nominal *wh-* interrogative clauses:

- S: *Who arrived first is unknown.*
 OD: *I didn't know who arrived first.*
 SC: *The problem is who arrived first.*
 A: *My question, who arrived first, has not been answered.*
 AdjC: *I am not sure who arrived first.*
 PrepC: *I didn't know in which car she arrived. (or probably which car she arrived in)*

Nominal *yes no* interrogative clauses:

- S: *Whether she arrived is still unknown.*
 OD: *I wonder if she has arrived.*
 SC: *My problem is whether she has arrived.*
 App: *My question, whether she arrived, hasn't been answered.*
 PrepC: *It all depends on whether she has arrived.*

Nominal *yes no* and alternative clauses:

- S: *Whether she had arrived or whether she was still on the plane is unknown.*
 OD: *I didn't know whether she had arrived or whether she was still on the plane.*

Nominal exclamative clauses:

OD: *I remember what a nice trip you had.*

PrepC: *I wondered at what a nice trip you had.*

Nominal relative clauses:

S: *Whoever arrives late should come in silently.*

OD: *You should come whenever you want.*

OI: *She gave whoever arrived a candy.*

SC: *A cup of hot chocolate is what I want.*

O C: *You can call me whatever you like.*

App: *Mr Brown, who arrived late, is still at the gate.*

PrepC: *My vote goes to whichever candidate best represents my ideas.*

Nominal *to*-infinitive clauses:

S: *To arrive late is a fault.*

OD: *He likes to arrive late.*

SC: *Her fault was to arrive late.*

App: *Her fault, to arrive late, made me furious.*

AdjC: *It is not right to arrive late.*

Nominal *-ing* clauses:

S: *Arriving late is a common thing for her.*

OD: *I hate arriving late.*

SC: *Her only fault has always been arriving late.*

App: *Her habit, arriving late, is one of her characteristics.*

AdjC: *She is not responsible arriving late.*

PrepC: *I am responsible for arriving late.*

Nominal bare infinitive clauses:

S: *Arrive on time was my intention.*

SC: *My intention was arrive on time.*

OI: *She made me arrive on time.*

Nominal verbless clauses:

S: *Anyone late for our meetings will not be let in.*

4.2 ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

Adverbial clauses fulfil a modifying function similar to that performed by ‘adjuncts’ and ‘disjuncts’ (see Quirk *et al.* 1985). Because of the fact that their structure is variable and that their introductory conjunctions frequently overlap, adverbial clauses have been traditionally sub-classified according to a semantic point of view. The main classes of adverbial clauses are listed below.

Adverbial clauses of time

While she was exercising, the phone rang.

Adverbial clauses of place

She goes jogging wherever there is a park.

Adverbial clauses of condition

If I were you, I would get some more exercise.

Adverbial clauses of concession

Although I should do some exercise, I never get round to it.

Adverbial clauses of contrast

My wife likes exercising on Sunday morning, whereas I like reading the paper.

Adverbial clauses of reason

I never do much exercise because I am lazy.

Adverbial clauses of purpose

I should do some exercise in order to lose some weight.

Adverbial clauses of result

I did some exercise, so that I lost some weight.

Adverbial clauses of similarity

You have to do the exercises just as she told you to.

Adverbial clauses of comparison

You looked as if you had been doing some exercise.

Adverbial clauses of proportion

The more exercise you do, the better you will feel.

Adverbial clauses of preference

Rather than do exercise, she stays at home all the time.

Adverbial comment clauses

As you know, I have been doing some exercise lately.

Other classes of adverbial clauses include sentential relatives. These refer back to the predicate or predication of a clause, or to a whole clause or sentence, or even to a series of sentences.

I arrived late, which upset everyone.

A further type of adverbial clauses is identified by Quirk *et al.* (1985) and Biber *et al.* (1999) referred to in both as supplemptive clauses, which are non-finite clauses without a subordinator and which typically perform the function of adverbial. However, these will not be considered here as a separate group, as they can in fact be subsumed within one of the classes listed above.

Huddleston proposes the term ‘content clauses’ to embrace both nominal clauses and those introduced by words such as *because, before, unless*, etc, following a reasoning that these words are better regarded as prepositions and not as conjunctions. Thus, an adverbial clause such as *because I am lazy* would be regarded a PP introduced by the preposition head *because* and the clause *I am lazy* as the complement of the preposition. As content nominal clauses are optionally introduced by *that*, a similar analogy is established with clauses introduced by this enlarged class of prepositions. Some of its members with initial *because, before, unless*, etc. would take content clause complements without *that*, others, such as *except, in, in order*, would take one with *that*, while others again, such as *granted, provided, seeing* would take one with optional *that*. Huddleston’s view in this respect is challenged by the traditional approach to prepositions, which regards them as phrase-connecting devices, i.e. prepositions can only introduce phrases and not clauses; clauses are introduced by conjunctions.

4.3 RELATIVE CLAUSES

The class of relative clauses is less clearly defined than the preceding ones, as many of the so-called relative clauses belong to the nominal and adverbial classes. Huddleston makes this explicit.

[it] does not seem possible to give a set of defining properties shared by all relative clauses and distinguishing them from other kinds of syntactic constructions.
(Huddleston 1984: 393)

As nominal and sentential relatives have been dealt with above, I will refer here to what Quirk *et al.* refer to as *adnominal* relative clauses –or *adjectival* clauses in the American tradition (see Biber *et al.* 1999) –i.e. those functioning as post-modifiers within NP structure. As post-modification may be restrictive (providing relevant information for the identification of the antecedent), or non-restrictive (providing additional information about an antecedent that is already identified), relative clauses are classified as ‘restrictive’ and ‘non restrictive’ relative clauses. Other names frequently found in the literature are ‘defining’ and ‘non-defining’ relative clauses, respectively. Below is an example of each instance.

Restrictive Relative Clauses

The man who came the other day is here again

Non-restrictive Relative Clauses

Peter Harris, who came twice the other day, is here again.

The structure of restrictive relative clauses is commonly analysed as that of an embedded main clause with a ‘relative word’ (in most cases a pronoun) standing in place of the antecedent. The relative word is initial in the clause irrespective of its function. The role of the relative word is to relate the subordinate clause to the antecedent containing it. Note that, as Huddleston points out, “anaphors are not always semantically equivalent to a copy of their antecedent” (Huddleston 1984: 394). Such is the case of relative anaphors. In the example *I didn’t like the guy who spoke first*, the *guy* in question is identified by cataphoric reference, in this case by the relative clause following in discourse. Therefore, *who spoke first* is not equivalent to *the guy spoke first*. In the latter, we assume that the *guy* has already been identified by anaphoric reference in previous discourse. Huddleston concludes:

[The] fact that the subject-argument of “speak” in [the guy who spoke first] is understood as representing some guy will be handled by a semantic account of the anaphoric interpretation of *who*, not by deriving *who* syntactically by substitution for the *guy*. (Huddleston 1984: 395)

It is worth noting that Huddleston does not regard *that* as a further relative pronoun or adverb but as a conjunction, given the following evidence: a) It cannot function as complement of a fronted preposition. Thus *The chair that he was standing on* cannot be rewritten as **The chair on that he was standing*. b) *That* can be omitted, the same as the *that* of content or nominal clauses. c) As with content clauses, *that* is restricted to finite constructions. Thus, *He was looking for a box in which to store the letters* cannot be rewritten as **He was looking for a box in that to store the letters*.

Non-restrictive relatives, on the other hand, are not embedded as post-modifiers in NP constructions. They resemble paratactic constructions in that they are viewed as pieces of information that are independent from the matrix clause.

4.4 COMPARATIVE CLAUSES

Finally, comparative clauses have traditionally been analysed as instances of subordination. They consist of two propositions: the one expressed in the matrix clause compared with the one in the subordinate clause. Comparative clauses are regarded as structurally incomplete; i.e. they contain ellipsis. According to Quirk *et al.* they are classified as clauses of equivalence and non-equivalence (Huddleston’s equality or non-equality). Further categories are comparative clauses of sufficiency and excess.

Comparison of equivalence

Their son is as bright as their daughter (is).

Comparison of non-equivalence

Their son is brighter than their daughter (is).

Comparison of sufficiency

He is strong enough to lift that suitcase.

Comparison of excess

He was too bright not to know the answer.

Huddleston makes a contrast between scalar comparisons and non-scalar comparisons, a further dimension on the basis of which comparative clauses are classified. Scalar comparisons are concerned with degree or quantity where the scale allows, in principle, for three different relations between the terms. These are superior (*more ... than*), equal (*as ... as*) and inferior (*less ... than*). Non-scalar comparisons are concerned with quality or identity and do not have the superior / inferior distinction within comparisons of inequality.

He went to the same school as I did. (non-scalar comparison of equality)

He went to a different school than I did. (non-scalar comparison of inequality)

or

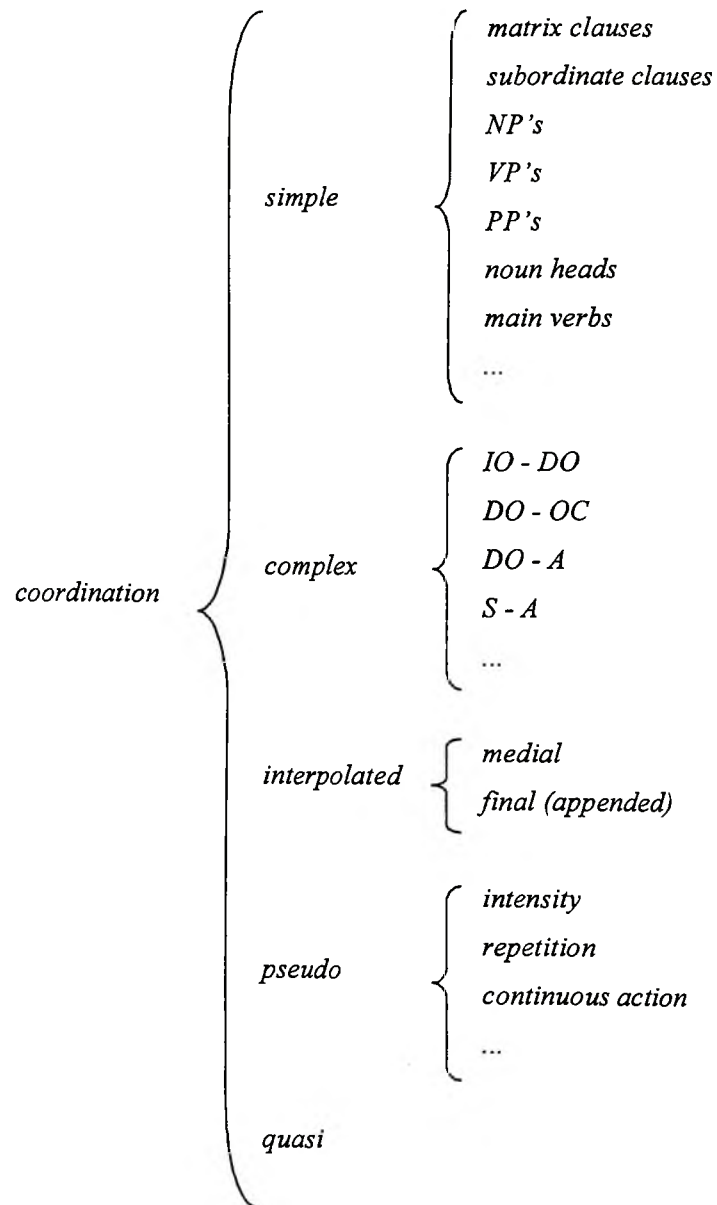
He went to a different school from the one I went to.

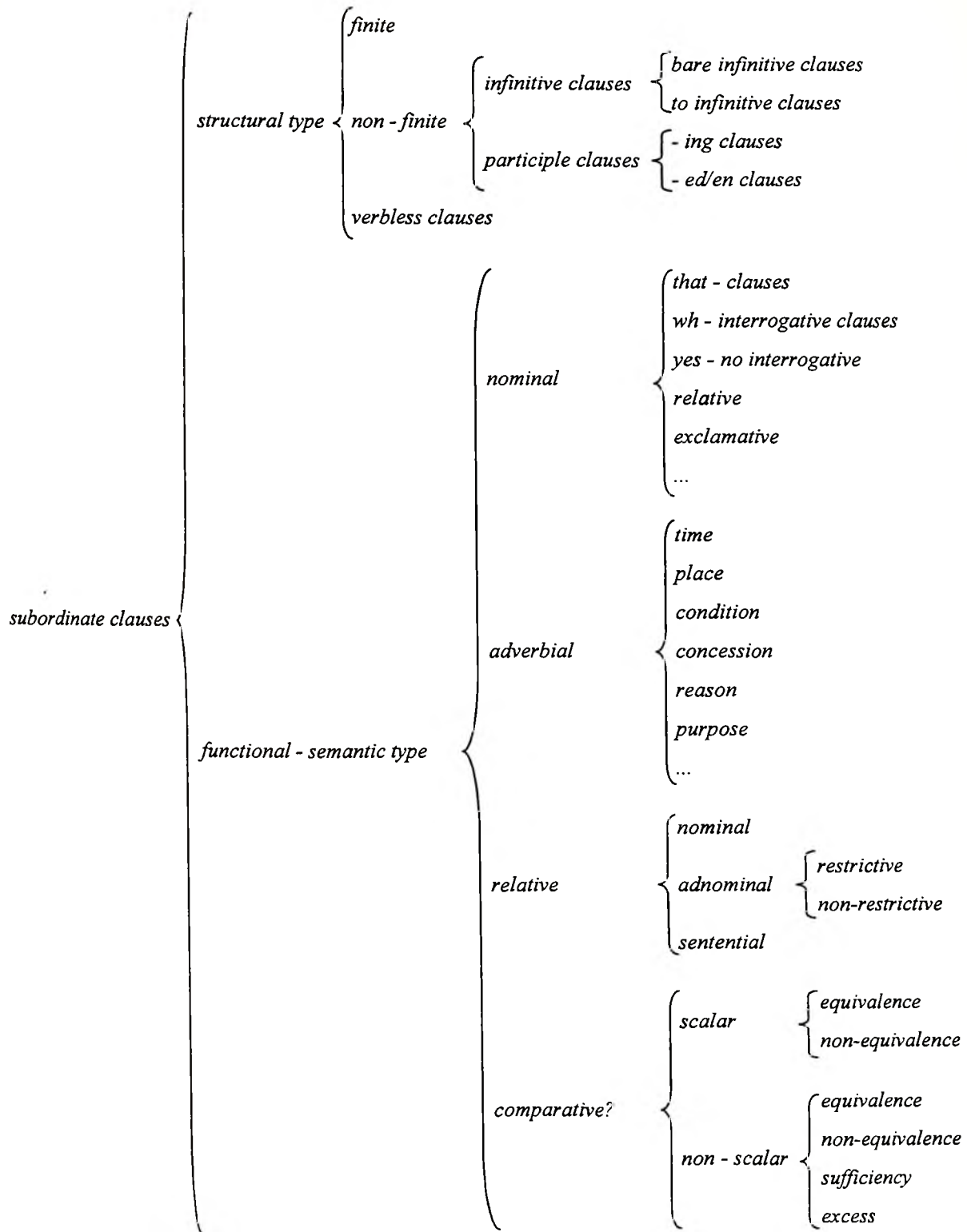
The status of comparative clauses as instances of subordination is debatable for a number of semantic and syntactic reasons. An alternative view is to regard them as instances of coordination, or possibly as instances of quasi-coordination. A brief summary of the reasons discussed in Corvalán (2000) questioning the subordinate condition of comparative clauses is presented below:

- a) the semantic weight of the propositions contained in the comparative construction has to be relatively equal in order to be compared;
- b) semantic dependency of the type found in comparative constructions occurs abundantly in coordination;
- c) there is no clear syntactic function for the comparative clause, as there is for other subordinate clauses;
- d) comparative clauses behave like conjoins as far as ellipsis is concerned; and
- e) comparative conjunctions behave syntactically more like coordinators than like subordinators.

The following illustrations display a tentative taxonomy of coordination and subordination as discussed in this booklet in schematic diagrams.

5. TAXONOMY





REFERENCES

- Biber, D., Johanson, S., Leech, G., Conrad, S. and Finegan, E.** (1999): *Longman grammar of spoken and written English*. Harlow, Pearson Education Limited.
- Corvalán, P.** (2000): 'Comparative constructions as instances of coordination' in *Humanidades y Traducción*, Serie 3, Vol 2, N° 1: 48-61, Santiago, Universidad Tecnológica Vicente Pérez Rosales.
- Freeborn, D.** (1995): *A course book in English grammar*. Houndmills, MacMillan Publishers Ltd., 1st ed. 1987.
- Fillmore, C.** (1968): 'The case for case' in E. Bach & R. Harms (eds.), *Universals in Linguistic Theory*. New York, Holt, Rinehart & Winston (1-88).
- Greenbaum, S.** (1996): *The Oxford English grammar*. Oxford, Oxford University Press.
- Greenbaum S. and R. Quirk** (1990): *A student's grammar of the English language*. Harlow, Longman Group UK Ltd.
- Halliday, M. A. K.** (1994): *An introduction to functional grammar*. London, Edward Arnold, 1st ed. 1984.
- Huddleston, R.** (1984): *Introduction to the grammar of English*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.
- Leech, G., Deuchar, M. and Hoogenraad, R.** (1982): *English grammar for today*. London, MacMillan Publishers Ltd.
- Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S., Leech, G. and Svartvik, J.** (1985): *A comprehensive grammar of the English language*. Harlow, Longman Group Ltd.

EXERCISES

A. State if the following sentences are simple, complex, compound, or compound-complex.

1. The story about the accident is definitely unbelievable.

2. You can either study or go out partying all night.

3. Whatever she bought, he would reject.

4. When the weather is fine, the children will go to the playground or the swimming pool.

5. She began to take things seriously but it was too late.

6. The house we bought had been refurbished twice.

7. Nobody understands how you could have done such a thing.

B. Indicate the use of the coordinators in the following compound sentences.

1. I passed the ball to Nick, and he scored the last goal before the match ended.

2. Mrs Johnson's son stole a bar of chocolate from the newsagent and was arrested.

3. Americans are said to be talkative, and the British are said to be reserved.

4. Nick killed his wife and was sentenced to death.

5. She behaved very well in class and was suspended.

6. Another one of those jokes and there will be trouble.

7. The English teacher always praises his pupils, and he gives a fat lot of good marks.

8. You can wait in the lounge or in the hall.

9. The computer is not working properly, or I might have made some kind of mistake.

10. Talk honestly to her, or you are not going to see her again.

11. Many of our teachers have never been to an English speaking country, but their English is excellent.

12. She is not only interested in literature, but has read the entire collection of the library.

C. Join the two sentences and create a compound sentence using appropriate correlative coordinators: *both ... and, either ... or, neither ... or, not (only) ... but.*

e.g.: Martin didn't like the party. Mary didn't like the party.

answer: *Neither Martin nor Mary liked the Party./ Both Martin and Mary didn't like the party.*

1. Teaching requires psychology. Teaching requires vocation.

2. A good teacher should not become aggressive. A good teacher should never hit his students.

3. The student was unable to give the correct answer. He was unable to hear the answer being whispered to him.

4. The institution of the school should be under constant examination. The institution of the school should be under constant reform.

5. Teachers should be at the forefront of school reform. Teachers should be agents of change.

6. Education can be seen as the reproduction of the establishment. Education can be seen as a process whereby the world is changed.

7. The teachers are wrong. Alternatively, the students are wrong.

D. In the following sentences, isolate the coordinator and the conjoins. Then state the type of coordination found:

e.g.: The food in Chile and in most Latin-American countries is quite tasty.

answer:

coordinator: *and*

conjoin 1: *in Chile*

conjoin 2: *in most Latin-American countries*

type of coordination: *simple coordination of prepositional phrases*

1. Students have to study and teachers should motivate them.

coordinator: _____

conjoin 1: _____

conjoin 2: _____

type of coordination: _____

2. It is said that teaching has to be improved and that extra effort needs to be made on the part of the students.

coordinator: _____

conjoin 1: _____

conjoin 2: _____

type of coordination: _____

3. She has done most of her homework and revised for her exams.

coordinator: _____

conjoin 1: _____

conjoin 2: _____

type of coordination: _____

4. Some students, as well as some teachers, don't give their best effort.

coordinator: _____

conjoin 1: _____

conjoin 2: _____

type of coordination: _____

5. His effort was eventually recognised and rewarded.

coordinator: _____

conjoin 1: _____

conjoin 2: _____

type of coordination: _____

6. This was his first and last position in his entire career.

coordinator: _____

conjoin 1: _____

conjoin 2: _____

type of coordination: _____

7. We'll never really understand or accept some rules at certain schools.

coordinator: _____

conjoin 1: _____

conjoin 2: _____

type of coordination: _____

8. Computers are a valuable resource and an essential tool for most teachers.

coordinator: _____

conjoin 1: _____

conjoin 2: _____

type of coordination: _____

9. A good teacher should be rated according to his students' actual progress and according to the effort he puts into teaching.

coordinator: _____

conjoin 1: _____

conjoin 2: _____

type of coordination: _____

10. While methodology is important, a good teacher is and will always be recognised despite the method he uses.

coordinator: _____

conjoin 1: _____

conjoin 2: _____

type of coordination: _____

11. A good and efficient library is fundamental to a school.

coordinator: _____

conjoin 1: _____

conjoin 2: _____

type of coordination: _____

12. Having read all this and having taken all the necessary precautions, students should not have any problems in their future career.

coordinator: _____

conjoin 1: _____

conjoin 2: _____

type of coordination: _____

- E.** In the following sentences, identify the subordinate clauses by underlining them. Then fill in the requested information.

e.g. That she always asked difficult questions was known to everyone.

Structural Type: *finite*

Functional Type: *nominal*

Subclass: *that clause*

Syntactic Function: *subject*

1. As the sun set behind the church, the trees suddenly became still.

Structural Type: _____

Functional Type: _____

Subclass: _____

Syntactic Function: _____

2. One afternoon I was sitting on the wall dividing our house from the churchyard.

Structural Type: _____

Functional Type: _____

Subclass: _____

Syntactic Function: _____

3. From that day on, I thought of the Roman remains that had been dug up under our house.

Structural Type: _____

Functional Type: _____

Subclass: _____

Syntactic Function: _____

4. Walking past the petrol station, you reach the off-licence.

Structural Type: _____

Functional Type: _____

Subclass: _____

Syntactic Function: _____

5. You'll find the road bends suddenly.

Structural Type: _____

Functional Type: _____

Subclass: _____

Syntactic Function: _____

6. We found the trail covered in foliage.

Structural Type: _____

Functional Type: _____

Subclass: _____

Syntactic Function: _____

7. I remember how convincing my father's arguments were.

Structural Type: _____

Functional Type: _____

Subclass: _____

Syntactic Function: _____

8. The truth is that I really liked her.

Structural Type: _____

Functional Type: _____

Subclass: _____

Syntactic Function: _____

9. The truth, that I really wanted to learn, suddenly dawned on my poor father.

Structural Type: _____

Functional Type: _____

Subclass: _____

Syntactic Function: _____

10. What is more, I felt ashamed of my childishness.

Structural Type: _____

Functional Type: _____

Subclass: _____

Syntactic Function: _____

11. My father was sure that I would overcome my fears.

Structural Type: _____

Functional Type: _____

Subclass: _____

Syntactic Function: _____

12. He strongly disapproved of what I had been doing.

Structural Type: _____

Functional Type: _____

Subclass: _____

Syntactic Function: _____

13. Now I often meet men who were once at school with me.

Structural Type: _____

Functional Type: _____

Subclass: _____

Syntactic Function: _____

14. Whenever I encounter one of them, I feel like an outsider.

Structural Type: _____

Functional Type: _____

Subclass: _____

Syntactic Function: _____

15. However, seeing George again has made me much more confident.

Structural Type: _____

Functional Type: _____

Subclass: _____

Syntactic Function: _____

16. Her decision has left him suffering painfully.

Structural Type: _____

Functional Type: _____

Subclass: _____

Syntactic Function: _____

17. What surprised me was his cowardliness.

Structural Type: _____

Functional Type: _____

Subclass: _____

Syntactic Function: _____

18. The equation is what really baffled me.

Structural Type: _____

Functional Type: _____

Subclass: _____

Syntactic Function: _____

19. The committee voted Mr McGregor to become Chief Executive.

Structural Type: _____

Functional Type: _____

Subclass: _____

Syntactic Function: _____

20. You should look for whatever help you can get.

Structural Type: _____

Functional Type: _____

Subclass: _____

Syntactic Function: _____

21. While at the university, I learnt the most important lesson in my life.

Structural Type: _____

Functional Type: _____

Subclass: _____

Syntactic Function: _____

22. Mr McGregor, who was kind enough to proof-read these notes, has spotted several misprints.

Structural Type: _____

Functional Type: _____

Subclass: _____

Syntactic Function: _____

F. Join the following matrix clauses to form compound sentences:

1. Mary wants that dog. That dog seems dangerous.

2. Alice wrote a letter to her grandparents. Alice has mailed it.

3. You can buy this black dress. You can buy that leather jacket.

4. The plot of the story sounds believable. The plot of the story sounds interesting.

5. Mary should have stayed in bed. Mary should have gone to the doctor.

6. My sister arrived the very last minute. My brother arrived on time.

G. Join the following clauses to form complex sentences containing nominal clauses.

1. I was not certain. In whose house am I?

2. She tasted something. I had cooked something.

3. I am responsible for something. I draw up the budget.

4. I want something. I want a seven in grammar.

5. I am wondering about something. Can you help me?

6. I remember something. I had a brilliant time at your party!

H. Join the following clauses to form complex sentences containing adverbial clauses.

1. You will find a white house. The road ends there.

2. I will go home. I have to go to the supermarket first.

3. I should have apologised for something. I left the address at home.

4. I washed the window. The window was dirty.

5. You fall down the stairs. You will certainly break a leg.

6. This story has been selected. It will be published in our school magazine.

I. Join the following clauses to form complex sentences containing relative clauses.

1. We have arrived at the hotel. We find the hotel very comfortable.

2. I don't like people. People drive fast.

3. Most people voted for the party. The party will not necessarily win the election.

4. Many people live in towns. Many people are deprived of a healthy environment.

5. The girl is going to marry Peter. The girl is an attractive brunette.

6. He admires Mrs Brown. This surprises me.

J. Join the following clauses to form complex sentences containing comparative clauses.

1. This road is crowded. The other one is not so crowded.

2. Isabel has many books. Her brother has many books too.

3. They worked. They are hungry enough.

4. He protested too much. He is not sincere.

5. The article was objective. I expected it would be not so objective.

6. James is not naughty. Peter is naughty.

Key to Exercises:**A**

1. simple
2. compound
3. complex
4. complex (or compound-complex if ellipsis is postulated)
5. compound-complex
6. simple
7. complex

B

1. sequence
2. result or consequence.
3. contrast
4. result or consequence
5. concession.
6. condition.
7. addition.
8. alternative.
9. correction.
10. (negative) condition.
11. concession.
12. positive reformulation or paraphrase.

C

1. Teaching requires both psychology and vocation.
2. A good teacher should neither become aggressive nor ever hit his students.
3. The student was unable to either give the correct answer or hear the answer being whispered to him.
4. The institution of the school should be not only under constant examination but also under constant reform.
5. Teachers should not only be at the forefront of school reform but also be agents of change.
6. Education can be seen as either the reproduction of the establishment or as a process whereby the world is changed.
7. Either the teachers or the students are wrong.

D

1. coordinator: and
conjoin 1: Students have to study
conjoin 2: teachers should motivate them
type of coordination: simple coordination of matrix clauses (or main clauses)

2. coordinator: and
 conjoin 1: that teaching has to be improved
 conjoin 2: that extra effort needs to be made on the part of the students
 type of coordination: simple coordination of subordinate clauses
3. coordinator: and
 conjoin 1: done most of her homework
 conjoin 2: revised for her exams
 type of coordination: simple coordination of predication
4. coordinator: and
 conjoin 1: is
 conjoin 2: will be
 type of coordination: simple coordination of verb phrases
5. coordinator: and
 conjoin 1: recognised
 conjoin 2: rewarded
 type of coordination: simple coordination of verb heads
6. coordinator: and
 conjoin 1: first
 conjoin 2: last
 type of coordination: simple coordination of determiners
7. coordinator: or
 conjoin 1: understand
 conjoin 2: accept
 type of coordination: simple coordination of verb heads (main verbs)
8. coordinator: and
 conjoin 1: a valuable resource
 conjoin 2: an essential tool
 type of coordination: simple coordination of NP's
9. coordinator: and
 conjoin 1: according to his students' actual progress
 conjoin 2: according to the effort he puts into teaching
 type of coordination: simple coordination of PP's
10. coordinator: and
 conjoin 1: is
 conjoin 2: will always be
 type of coordination: simple coordination of pre auxiliaries (pre-modifiers in VP)

11. coordinator: and
 conjoin 1: good
 conjoin 2: efficient
 type of coordination: simple coordination of adjectives (pre-modifiers in NP)
12. coordinator: and
 conjoin 1: Having read all this
 conjoin 2: having taken all the necessary precautions
 type of coordination: simple coordination of non-finite subordinate clauses

E

1. As the sun set behind the church, the trees suddenly became still.
 Structural Type: finite
 Functional Type: adverbial
 Subclass: time clause
 Syntactic Function: A
2. One afternoon I was sitting on the wall dividing our house from the churchyard.
 Structural Type: non-finite
 Functional Type: relative
 Subclass: restrictive
 Syntactic Function: PostM
3. From that day on, I thought of the Roman remains that had been dug up under our house.
 Structural Type: finite
 Functional Type: relative
 Subclass: restrictive
 Syntactic Function: PostM
4. Walking past the petrol station, you reach the off-licence.
 Structural Type: non-finite
 Functional Type: adverbial
 Subclass: place
 Syntactic Function: A
5. You'll find the road bends suddenly.
 Structural Type: finite
 Functional Type: nominal
 Subclass: that clause
 Syntactic Function: DO
6. We found the trail covered in foliage.
 Structural Type: non-finite
 Functional Type: nominal
 Subclass: ed-clause
 Syntactic Function: OC

7. I remember how convincing my father's arguments were.
 Structural Type: finite
 Functional Type: nominal
 Subclass: exclamative clause
 Syntactic Function: DO
8. The truth is that I really liked her.
 Structural Type: finite
 Functional Type: nominal
 Subclass: that clause
 Syntactic Function: SC
9. The truth, that I really wanted to learn, suddenly dawned on my poor father.
 Structural Type: finite
 Functional Type: nominal
 Subclass: that clause
 Syntactic Function: App
10. What is more, I felt ashamed of my childishness.
 Structural Type: finite
 Functional Type: adverbial
 Subclass: comment clause
 Syntactic Function: A
11. My father was sure that I would overcome my fears.
 Structural Type: finite
 Functional Type: nominal
 Subclass: that clause
 Syntactic Function: AdjC
12. He strongly disapproved of what I had been doing.
 Structural Type: finite
 Functional Type: nominal
 Subclass: relative
 Syntactic Function: PrepC
13. Now I often meet men who were once at school with me.
 Structural Type: finite
 Functional Type: relative
 Subclass: restrictive clause
 Syntactic Function: PostM
14. Whenever I encounter one of them, I feel like an outsider.
 Structural Type: finite
 Functional Type: adverbial
 Subclass: time clause
 Syntactic Function: A

15. However, seeing George again has made me much more confident.
 Structural Type: non-finite
 Functional Type: nominal
 Subclass: -ing clause
 Syntactic Function: S
16. Her decision has left him suffering painfully.
 Structural Type: non-finite
 Functional Type: nominal
 Subclass: -ing clause
 Syntactic Function: OC
17. What surprised me was his cowardliness.
 Structural Type: finite
 Functional Type: nominal
 Subclass: wh- interrogative clause
 Syntactic Function: S
18. The equation is what really baffled me.
 Structural Type: finite
 Functional Type: nominal
 Subclass: relative clause
 Syntactic Function: SC
19. The committee voted Mr McGregor to become Chief Executive.
 Structural Type: non-finite
 Functional Type: nominal
 Subclass: to infinitive clause
 Syntactic Function: OC
20. You should look for whatever help you can get.
 Structural Type: finite
 Functional Type: nominal
 Subclass: relative clause
 Syntactic Function: PrepC
21. While at the university, I learnt the most important lesson in my life.
 Structural Type: verbless
 Functional Type: adverbial
 Subclass: time
 Syntactic Function: A
22. Mr McGregor, who was so kind to proof-read these notes, has spotted several misprints.
 Structural Type: finite
 Functional Type: relative
 Subclass: non-restrictive
 Syntactic Function: PostM

F (answers can vary)

1. Mary wants that dog but it seems dangerous.
2. Alice wrote a letter to her grandparents and has mailed it.
3. You can buy this black dress or (you can buy) that leather jacket.
4. The plot of the story sounds believable and interesting.
5. Mary should have stayed in bed or gone to the doctor.
6. My sister arrived the very last minute but my brother arrived on time.

G (answers can vary)

1. I was not certain whose house I was in.
2. She tasted what I had cooked.
3. I am responsible for drawing up the budget
4. What I want is a seven in grammar.
5. I am wondering if you can help me.
6. I remember what a brilliant time I had at your party.

H (answers can vary)

1. You will find a white house where the road ends.
2. Before going home, I have to go to the supermarket.
3. I should have apologised after I left the address at home.
4. I washed the window because it was dirty.
5. If you fall down the stairs, you will certainly break a leg.
6. This story has been selected to be published in our school magazine.

I (answers can vary)

1. We have arrived at the hotel which we find very comfortable.
2. I don't like people who drive fast.
3. The party for which most people voted will not necessarily win the election.
4. Many people, who live in towns, are deprived of a healthy environment.
5. The girl who is going to marry Peter is an extremely attractive brunette.
6. He admires Mrs Brown, which surprises me.

J (answers can vary)

1. This road is less crowded than the other (is).
2. Isabel has as many books as her brother.
3. They worked enough to be hungry.
4. He protested too much to be sincere.
5. The article was more objective than I expected.
6. James is not as naughty as Peter.



CUADERNOS DE LA FACULTAD

COLECCIÓN METODOLOGÍA

- | | |
|----|---|
| 1 | <i>Estrategias para estimular la creatividad a través de la enseñanza de la lengua materna.</i> Carmen Balart C. e Irma Céspedes B. |
| 2 | <i>La transposition</i>
Olga M. Díaz |
| 3 | <i>Ortografía aplicada I: Ortografía acentual</i>
Teresa Ayala P. y Liliana Belmar B. |
| 4 | <i>Ortografía aplicada II: Ortografía literal</i>
Teresa Ayala P. y Liliana Belmar B. |
| 5 | <i>La problématique de l'orthographe. L'orthographe Niveau I</i>
Olga Dreyfus O. |
| 6 | <i>La dérivation</i>
Olga M. Díaz |
| 7 | <i>Écrivons... Des contes, des légendes, des nouvelles</i>
Olga M. Díaz |
| 8 | <i>Manual de materiales didácticos para la enseñanza de la Historia y Geografía a nivel Básico y Medio.</i> Silvia Cortés F. y Ana María Muñoz R. |
| 9 | <i>Redacción informativa</i>
Teresa Ayala P. y Liliana Belmar B. |
| 10 | <i>Aspectos morfosintácticos de la redacción</i>
Teresa Ayala P. y Liliana Belmar B. |
| 11 | <i>Cultura y lengua latina. Autores y antología</i>
Hernán Briones T. |
| 12 | <i>L'organisation phrastique à travers les relations logiques. Volume I</i>
Olga M. Díaz |
| 13 | <i>L'organisation phrastique à travers les relations logiques. Volume II</i>
Olga M. Díaz |

14	<i>Enfoque semiótico y didáctico de la publicidad</i> Teresa Ayala P.
15	<i>Français en Marche I</i> Olga M. Díaz
16	<i>Français en Marche II</i> Olga M. Díaz
17	<i>Français en Marche III</i> Olga M. Díaz
18	<i>Français en Marche IV</i> Olga M. Díaz
19	<i>Français en Marche V</i> Olga M. Díaz
20	<i>Français en Marche VI</i> Olga M. Díaz
21	<i>Coordination and subordination</i> Pablo Corvalán R.
