

Variety of the Structure of Some Significant Non-kernel Clauses

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Abstract

The current paper presents an in-depth analysis of a variety of non-kernel clauses in English. The structures discussed include interrogatives and negatives with their contrastive types and uses. It further takes up clausal combinations such as subordinates and coordinators with reference to their various functions. Moreover, a detailed exploration of thematic variation follows with particular regards to information structure. Such constructions deal with extrapositioning, existentials and clefts as to how these clauses take account of information packaging in a message, thereby combining syntactic functions to the semantic and pragmatic strategies.

Key Words: Linguistics, Syntax, Syntactic structures, English Grammar, Non-kernel clauses

Introduction

All languages of the world have a structure of their own, with English having a relatively fixed and restrictive word order. However, in the world of language *today*, grammar is rather descriptive than prescriptive. It is for this reason that sentences are now labelled in descriptive terminology as “grammatical/ungrammatical” or “well-formed/ill-formed” instead of being called “correct/incorrect”. (Radford, 1988:8) As a living organism, language is a constantly changing phenomenon and the factor behind this ongoing change is its communicative *use* in our lives. Thus, descriptive grammar, unlike prescriptive one, does not state how a language “*should be*” used but highlights the way “it is actually *used*” in daily life communication.

This study sets out to conduct a detailed analysis of an important aspect of English grammar: *the structure of non-kernel clauses*. The paper presents a selective variety of the structure of some significant non-kernel clauses. It is required to briefly define the term itself in contrast to the basic clause in English before moving onto its typological analysis.

Non-kernel Clauses

Non-kernel clauses are defined as

“clauses generated from kernel clauses by transformations”

Routledge Dictionary of Language and Linguistics

(Taylor and Francis. 1998)

The concept of kernel clause was first introduced in 1957 by an American linguist Z.S. Harris on the basis of Chomsky’s *Transformational Grammar*. He divided the total set of grammatical clauses in a particular language into two complementary subsets:

1. Kernel Clauses
2. Non-kernel Clauses

In Harris’s terminology, kernel clause is that minimal form of a clause which cannot further be fragmented; neither structurally nor semantically.

These are also termed basic clauses that form the syntactic core of a language and all other sentences can be derived from them by applying *transformational rules*. Thus, the idea of transformational derivations is based on kernel clauses which further produce non-kernel structures by means of optional transformations. In other words, whenever additional information is required in the basic structure of a clause, it is transformed into a non-basic/non-kernel clausal form with the help of grammatical devices used for reordering or inserting elements in the clause. Thus, non-kernel clauses, unlike the kernel ones, are *marked* in mood, voice, polarity and all the thematic systems of clause.

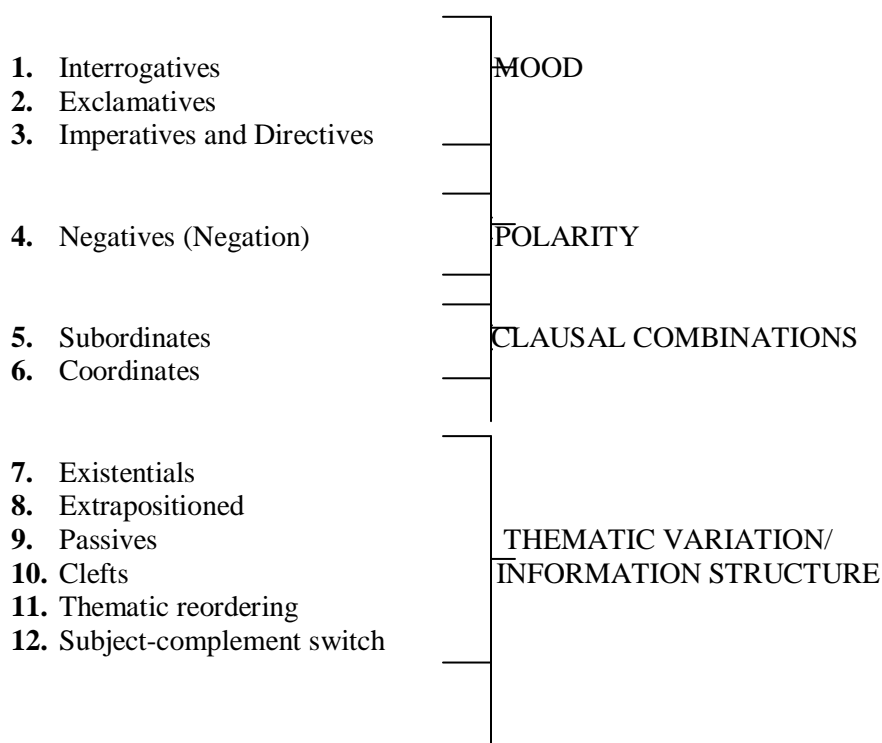
For example,

“The President called an urgent meeting” is a kernel clause that might be transformed into the non-kernel structures such as, “An urgent meeting was called by the President.” or “Did the President call an urgent meeting?”

Communicatively, the most important positions in a clause are the beginning and the end. And the non-kernel structure usually makes us bring an element to initial position or postpone information to the end of a clause, where it receives end focus.

Types of Non-kernel Clauses

Types of non-kernel clauses can be determined on the basis of being marked in mood, polarity, clausal combinations and thematic systems.



There is a range of variety available of the non-kernel clauses in English, as enlisted above. However, only a *selected* set of structures would be discussed in detail in the paper under work.

Interrogatives

There are two subclasses of interrogatives, containing different constructions that can be used to form interrogative clauses in English:

1. Open Interrogatives
2. Closed Interrogatives

The trees drawn below provide a diagrammatical representation of these basic types of interrogative clauses (in figure 1 & 2).

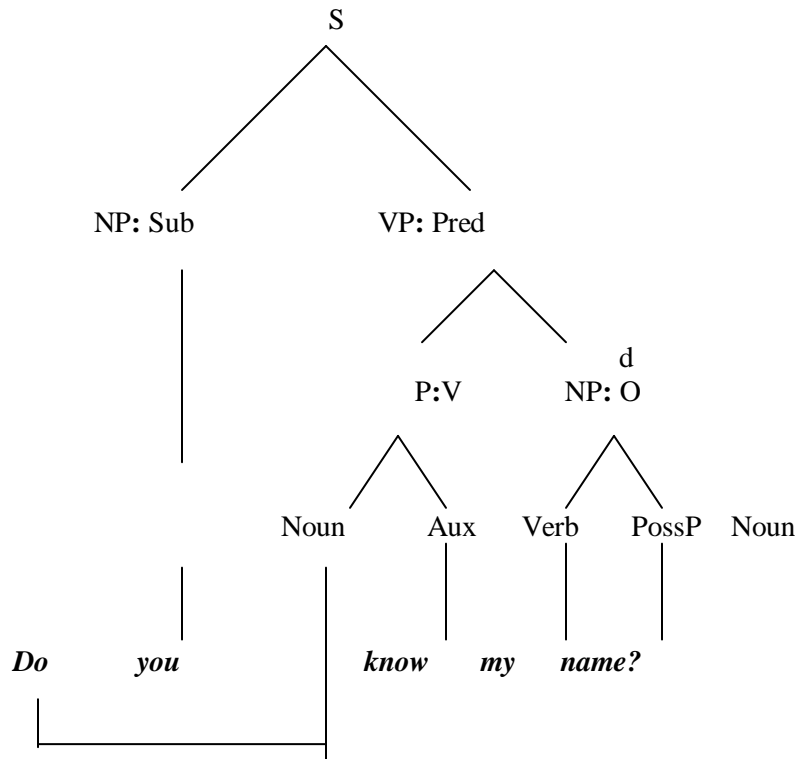


Figure 1: Closed Interrogative

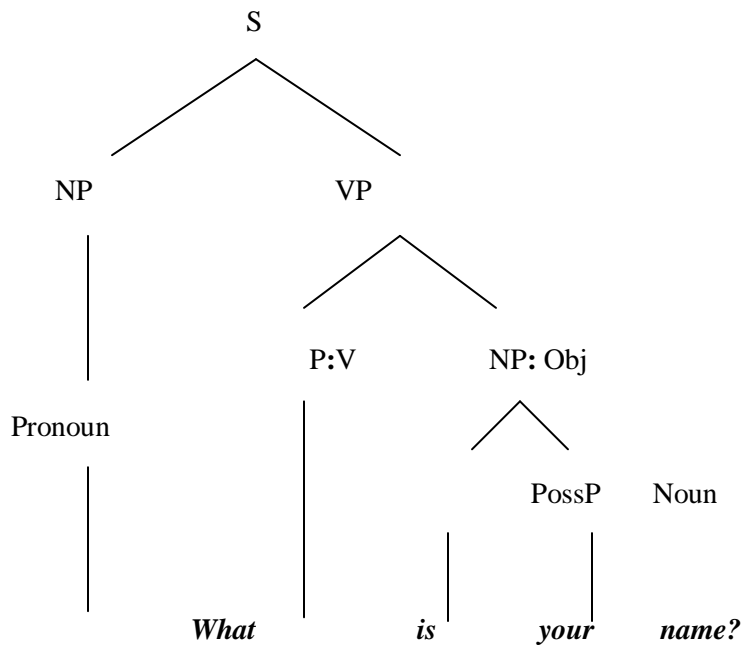


Figure 2: Open Interrogative

Subject-Auxiliary Inversion—Basic structure of Interrogatives:

The basic structure of interrogatives is formed by placing the auxiliary before the subject with a simultaneous movement of the subject to post-operator position. This repositioning of the elements is called “subject-auxiliary/subject-operator inversion”. The inversion is illustrated in the following pairs:

Declarative	Closed interrogative
Sarah is playing the piano.	Is Sarah playing the piano?
Charlie can't see.	Can't Charlie see?
George had headache.	Did George have headache?
Nancy hates political debates.	Does Nancy hate political debates?

Declarative	Open interrogative
They will leave home tomorrow.	When will they leave home?
She gave him someone’s passport.	Whose passport did she give him?
George did something.	What did George do?
Simon was hiding the books in the cupboard.	Where was Simon hiding the books?

If the clause does not already contain an auxiliary to invert with the subject then **dummy auxiliary “do”** is inserted before the subject to form interrogative.

*“...a process we have been calling do-support”
Aarts (1997:145)*

Closed Interrogatives:

Closed interrogatives, as explicit by the term itself, may only be answered by a limited range of responses that the set of possible answers is closed. In fact, the answers are often simply positive or negative. It is for this reason that these are usually referred to as “yes/no questions”. However, this term is not appropriate to be generalized for all closed interrogatives, because:

- i. Yes or no might not be the relevant answer for *every* closed interrogative. Such as;

*“Is she a teacher or a student?”
“Are you happy or dejected?”*

- ii. Secondly, the terms “interrogative” and “question” are syntactic and pragmatic/semantic respectively. Thus, closed *interrogatives* do not always function as *questions*, they might also be used to place requests or make exclamations:

Could you fill in the form please?

In order to resolve such issues, the set of “closed interrogatives” can further be classified into different *types*:

a) Polar and Alternative questions

Keeping in view the semantic/pragmatic function of “questions”, closed interrogatives can be divided into two types: *polar and alternative questions*.

Polar questions take yes/no answers and can be presented with either positive or negative polarity.

Does Jimmy want a steak for the dinner?

Doesn't Jimmy want a steak for the dinner?

On the contrary, **alternative questions** require an answer from the set of options presented in the question. Grammatically, these are clauses containing elements simply conjoined with *or* and the answer is expected to be chosen from one of the elements.

Does Jimmy want a steak or some rice for the dinner? [Coordinated NPs – implies wanting one of these]

Does he want to move to U.K. or stay here? [Coordinated clauses – implies doing one of these]

Like other conjoined clauses, alternative questions can also undergo **conjunction reduction** by omitting all but *contrasting information* in the second part. So the question:

Does Jimmy want a steak or does he want some rice for the dinner?

Is more likely to be reduced as:

Does Jimmy want a steak or some rice for the dinner?

Another, but less usual, example is that of polar-question stated in form of an alternative one. Such as;

Is she coming or isn't she coming?

Having undergone **conjunction reduction**:

Is she coming or isn't she?

Even after a **double reduction**:

Is she coming or not?

Sometimes coordination in clauses generates **ambiguity** in interrogative expressions. Thus, intonation helps determining which meaning is intended.

(If ↑ stands for rising intonation and ↓ for falling intonation in the following examples)

Should I get Jimmy a steak ↑ or some rice ↓ for the dinner? [Alternative question]

Should I get Jimmy a steak or some rice for the dinner ↑? [Polar question]

b) Interrogative Tag

One special type of closed interrogative is the *interrogative tag*, which has the structure of a closed interrogative clause, attached to any of the non-interrogatives: declarative, imperative or exclamative. It is formed with the omission of everything except for the operator verb and the subject.

Tag questions appear in two types:

- i. Reversed polarity tags
- ii. Constant polarity tags

In **reversed polarity**, the polarity of the tag is opposite to the polarity of the clause. So, if the clause is positive, the tag will be negative and vice versa. Reversed polarity tags are used to ask whether or to seek confirmation:

Sam likes hot chocolate, doesn't he? [Reversed polarity tag]

Constant polarity tags, on the contrary, have the same polarity value as the clause. So, a positive clause will have a positive tag. Constant polarity tags have an emotive meaning, indicating disapproval, surprise or the like.

Sam likes hot chocolate, does he? [Constant polarity tag]

“We may thus distinguish the two types of tag as ‘emotively-neutral’ (reversed polarity) versus ‘emotively-charged’ (constant-polarity).”

Huddleston (1988:139)

Open Interrogatives

Open interrogatives are so-named because the set of possible answers is, essentially, open. These are also called “*wh*-questions” because they involve one of the interrogative words: *who*, *whom*, *whose*, *what*, *which*, *when*, *where*, *why*, or *how*.

The *wh*-words belong to a number of different parts of speech, functioning differently in different linguistic contexts. Such as:

- i. **Determinatives:** (which, whose, what, as in “Which book did he recommend?”)
- ii. **Pronouns:** (who, whom, which, whose, what, as in “Who was he? / What is your name?”)
- iii. **Adverbs:** (where, when, why, how, as in “Where/When are you going?”)

Who, whom and whose are respectively nominative, accusative and genitive case forms of *who*. The accusative whom has grammatically and stylistically restricted uses. The basic use of interrogative words in the formation of open interrogatives is outlined underneath.

Who likes racing-car?

Racing-car is liked by whom?

Whose racing-car is that?

What does John like?

Which car does John like?

When does John ride the racing-car?

Where does John park the car?

Why is John so fond of racing-cars?

How does John drive his car?

It is possible to have more than one interrogative phrases or elements in a clause:

Who said what?

How many mistakes of which student did you point out?

Some significant types of open interrogatives are discussed below.

a) Deliberative questions

Usually answers to questions are given in form of simple declarative statements. However, there are questions to which *directives* are given as answers. This special class of questions constitutes an important type of open interrogatives. Such questions are referred to as “*deliberative question*”, usually involving a modal operator to form its structure. For instance:

Where should I place the papers?

The expected answer would be:

Place it on the table/ in the drawer/ on the shelf/ in the folder etc... (Directives)

b) Rhetorical questions

Mostly questions are asked to get an answer from the addressee, however, there’s a set of open interrogatives which are used by the questioner/speaker to generate a dramatic effect in his own speech, such as asking a question to address himself/ to grab the audience’s attention or to introduce a topic before starting to talk about it. For example:

What could be the major concerns of the author? I think a number of factors could be taken up...

Closed and Open Interrogatives

There are some types of questions that can function both as closed and open interrogatives.

a) Echo questions

Echo questions are used for confirmation or to express surprise on the speaker's previous utterance. They mirror the form and content of what has gone before. In this type of open interrogatives the interrogative phrase is never *fronted*, however, it is the intonation pattern which makes it a question.

Echo questions include both closed and open interrogatives with the closed ones being yes/no echoes and the others open echoes.

Construction	Stimulus	Echo question
Closed interrogative	Mary bought a cat.	Mary/She bought a cat?
Open interrogative	Mimi bought a lion.	Mimi/She bought what?/ Who bought a lion?

b) Negative questions

If the contracted form of “not” (n’t) is attached to an operator and the resultant operator is brought to the pre-subject position in a clause, the clause becomes a negative question.

Haven’t you baked some chocolate cookies?

In a highly formal use of negative question, the contracted form would not be attached to the operator and thus the operator alone would be inserted before the subject with “not” being placed at the post-subject position. Or in another case of formality, “not” is inserted after the operator and before the subject in the beginning of the clause. Such as:

Have you not baked some chocolate cookies?

Have not you baked some chocolate cookies?

Negative questions can function **both as closed and open interrogatives**. It is closed if the answer is simply “yes or no” but it becomes an open interrogative if some reason or explanation follows the yes/no element.

Haven’t you baked some chocolate cookies?

No! Because...

OR

Yes I have! But...

c) Interrogatives used as Directives

In many contexts interrogative form is applied to place a request or give directions and suggestions. Such as:

Construction	Request / Directive	Suggestion
Closed interrogative	Could you/ Would you come here?	Can I tell you something?
Open interrogative	Why don’t you make some coffee?	Why don’t you see a doctor?

Polarity

Another significant variety of non-kernel structure highlights a grammatical system of clause, termed “*Polarity*”, associated with positive and negative clauses. In English, kernel clauses are positive being unmarked while (non-kernel) negative clauses are explicitly marked with negative elements such as *no* and *not*. In a more specific fashion, negation strategies can be applied to negate particular constituents of a clause using derivational prefixes dis-, non-, in-, un- and other *negative polarity forms*.

Logical Negation

Every utterance in a language can be judged for its *truth value*, that it would either be *true* or *false*. The basic factor distinguishing negative utterances from positive ones is that of “logical negation”. The utterance which is logically negated to reverse its truth-value would be *negative*. In other words, a clause being marked as negative is logically *untrue/false*. For instance:

If

“Michelle is baking a chocolate cake.”

is *true* then

“Michelle is not baking a chocolate cake.”

would be *false*.

Dealing with the system of negation in clause, it is necessary to draw a distinction between two major *types of negation*.

1. Clausal
2. Sub-clausal

Clausal Negation

The usual technique of transforming an affirmative into negative is to insert a negative element (not/n't) between the auxiliary and the main verb. The type of negation in which *the whole clause* is syntactically marked with negative polarity is called *clausal negation*. This type of negation is classified into two kinds according to the place where the negation occurs.

- i. Verb Negation
- ii. Non-verb Negation

Verb Negation

Verb negation involves insertion of the word “not” or its contracted form *n't* in the clause. This process is called *analytic* verb negation if the particle “not” is inserted between the operator and the main verb as it is. However, attaching the contraction “*n't*” to the operator, to make it its part, would be *inflectional* verb negation for it yields an inflectional negative form such as *isn't/weren't/hasn't* etc.

They have not called out the names yet. (Analytic)

They haven't called out the names yet. (Inflectional)

If the corresponding positive does not contain an operator, **dummy do** is added to the clause. The only verb that doesn't need *do-support*, when it occurs without an operator, is *be*.

I don't (do not) think he's doing well. (Dummy do plus not/n't)

It wasn't (was not) a pleasant morning. (Be as main verb plus not/n't)

Negative imperatives always require *do-support*.

Don't take it for granted.

Don't make it fast

Don't smoke in here.

Non-verb Negation

Other possibilities to mark clausal negation involve negative elements other than *not* in a clause. This is called non-verbal negation for it doesn't require attaching the negator to the *verb*. There are two kinds of non-verbal markers of negation.

- **Absolute** negators include words/lexemes which are *morphologically* negative. Such as: no, never, none, nobody, no one, nothing, nowhere, nor, neither or *compounds* like: not even, not only, not much etc.
- **Approximate** negators include words which are negative in meaning but not in form (*semantically* negative). Such as: few, little, rarely, seldom, barely, hardly, scarcely etc.

Consider the following examples:

Absolute Negators	Approximate Negators
Mike said nothing in his defence not even a single word.	Mike spoke very little in his defence, hardly a couple of words.
Nancy never goes out, not even on Sundays.	Nancy rarely goes out, seldom on Sundays.

Sub-clausal Negation

Negation strategies that apply only to a particular word or phrase within the clause but leave the clause itself positive are called sub-clausal negation strategies. Negative derivational prefixes such as *dis-*, *non-*, *in-*, *un-*, and suffixes like *-less* help forming negative polarity words that are associated with sub-clausal negation.

It seems that an ordinary negative sentence is weaker than one in which the negative marking is part of another word or phrase.

Jacobs, R.A. (1995:265)

Sub-clausal Negation	Clausal Negation
He did nothing good .	He did nothing.
Not surprisingly , she won the game.	Surprisingly, she didn't win the game.
Kathy dislikes such talks.	Kathy doesn't like such talks.

Negation Tests

Since sub-clausal negation does not render a clause negative itself, thus two main tests are applied to determine whether a clause is positive or negative as a whole. These tests, referred to as "*negation tests*", are designed on the basis of contrasting syntactic properties of negative and positive clauses.

"These properties provide criteria for distinguishing between negative and positive clauses at language particular-level for English."

Huddleston (1988:143)

i) Interrogative Tags:

Emotively-neutral/ reversed polarity tags can be used to see whether or not a clause is negative.

Positive clauses take negative tags and negatives take positive tags:

Positive	Negative
Sarah has done a good job, hasn't she?	Sarah hasn't done a good job, has she?

ii) Extension

Clausal extension can also be applied to test negative polarity of a clause. In this process clauses are elliptically extended with the use of *cohesive adjuncts*.

a) So or Too VERSUS Neither/nor or Either

Positive clauses undergo *so or too* extension whereas negatives take *neither/nor or either*:

Positive clause	So or Too extension
Sarah has done a good job and	so has Mary/ Mary has too.

Negative clause	Neither/nor or either extension
Sarah hasn't done a good job and	neither has Mary /nor has Mary/ Mary hasn't either.

b) "not even" Extension

Only negative clauses can take a constituent introduced by "*not even*" in the clause.

For example:

*I haven't seen such swords before, **not even** in the museum. (Negative)*

*I like pigeons, ***not even** gray ones. (Positive)*

Double Negative

The clauses that contain double negation appear to be *syntactically* negative and *semantically* positive. The prescriptive grammar of Standard English does not allow such expressions. However, they can be used in different dialectical varieties of non-standard English.

The use of *two* negative items in a clause leaves it positive in meaning because the negators cancel each other out. Compare the following:

Double Negative = Positive
Kate is not watching no movie. = Kate is watching movie.
I didn't eat nothing . = I did eat/ ate something.

Negative Concord

There are languages allowing *negative concord* that two or more negative elements appear in agreement to each other. These are the languages in which multiple negation is found in clauses, such as French and Russian. In some of the dialects of non-standard English, negative concord is employed to reinforce the polarity of the clause.

In fact, there are certain contexts in which a double negative is acceptable in Standard English too. For instance:

David didn't do justice to his work, I don't believe that.

Mary isn't unreliable.

Non-affirmatives

There is variety of, *syntactically positive*, items that occur more freely in negative contexts. These items are called non-affirmative/non-assertive for being restricted to non-affirmative (negative) clauses in particular. In some of the literature available, these words have been referred to as *negative polarity forms*.

“Most of these forms, which have been called non-assertive forms, cannot occur in affirmative clauses unless heavily stressed. We refer to them as negative polarity forms.”

Jacobs, R.A. (1995:265)

The most frequent non-affirmatives are *any* and its various compounds (*anyone, anywhere, anybody, anything etc*), *ever, either, at all*, and words like *need and dare* only in their use as operators (needn't/ dare not...)

She doesn't have any money with her.

**She has any money with her.*

I don't like talk shows anymore.

**I like talk shows anymore.*

He doesn't take tea ever.

**He takes tea ever.*

The Scope of Negation

In the study of negative clauses, *semantic scope of negation* is a significant consideration.

Analysing the following examples in comparison to each other, it is identified that they differ in terms of the influence negation has on different *parts of the meaning*. Such influence is called *semantic scope of negation*.

1. Fredrick **deliberately** didn't give me the clues.
2. Fredrick didn't **deliberately** give me the clues.

In (1) *deliberately* falls **outside the scope** of negation thus the clause implies “It was deliberate on his part that Fredrick didn't give me the clue/ or (to put it other wise) His not giving me the clues had been done deliberately by Fredrick”. However, in (2) *deliberately* falls **within the scope** of negation, so it means that “It was *not deliberate* of Fredrick to give me the clues/ or Fredrick gave me the clues but he didn't do that *deliberately*.”

Prosodic Focus

An important factor interacting with the scope of negation is *marked information focus* which is achieved *prosodically* in an utterance. *Focus* is the phonological prominence that an item receives in the clause through stress and intonational variation.

Compare the following with reference to the words in capital:

1. *I didn't GO SHOPPING, because I had to attend a wedding.*
2. *I didn't go shopping, because I had to attend a WEDDING.*

In (1) because-clause falls outside the scope of negation that's why it suggests "Because I had to attend a wedding, I didn't go shopping." While in (2) because-clause falls within the scope of negation, thus suggests, "It's not that I had to attend a wedding I went shopping/ or I went shopping, but not because I had to attend a wedding."

Modal Operators—Form-Meaning Mismatch

It is possible for some of the *modal verbs* not to fall within the scope of negation in certain contexts. Such as:

He may not be in a hurry.

"**May**" in the clause above, expressing possibility, falls outside the scope of negation, thus implies "it is *possible* that he will not be in a hurry."

...very exceptionally even the verb itself may fall outside the scope of the negative. This mismatch between grammatical form and meaning is found only with a subset of the modal operators."

Huddleston (1988:148)

Clausal Combinations Subordination and Coordination

As words and phrases join together to form clauses; clauses can also combine as constituents of sentences. However, *sentence* is a less considered unit in modern grammar mainly because whenever it comes to *language* a linguist begins with the study of *sound* for sound/speech being the primary mode of communication in any language. So, when people speak, they do not speak *sentences*, they rather speak words, phrases or clauses. For instance:

I ate too much, couldn't stop myself, you know when it's about chocolate brownies how would one resist!

The first distinction, thus, ought to be drawn between *simple* and *multiple* clauses. Simple clause is the **main clause**. And multiple clauses exhibit clausal combinations analysed in terms of **complex** and **compound** sentences.

Main clause is the one that can stand alone on its own, expressing "a complete thought" in itself. Clauses in their combinations are sometimes placed in a *hierarchy*: the more significant and mandatory ones being the *main clauses*, while the less significant and discretionary ones being the *subordinate clauses*. The higher above the subordinate clause in the constituent hierarchy is the *superordinate clause*.

Complex sentence is the one that contains at least one dependent clause being subordinate to the main clause. In complex sentences main and subordinate clauses are linked together with a subordinator. Both main clause and subordinate clause differ in their syntactic structure.

Compound sentences, on the other hand, are the ones that consist of two or more clauses of the same syntactic structure. These clauses are all main clauses as each one of them can stand alone for being complete, syntactically as well as semantically, in itself. Such clauses are combined by a coordinating conjunction, and are thus called *coordinate clauses*.

Subordination versus Coordination:

In the light of above discussed, clausal combinations are mainly of two types: *subordination and coordination*. The essential difference between the two is as follows:

- **Subordinate clauses**, as dependents, can work only within a larger construction. Therefore, in **subordination**, clauses vary in their *syntactic status*, with the lower status subordinate clause being embedded within the structure of the higher status main clause.
- **In coordination**, however, clauses enjoy an equal status in their syntactic value with neither being more important than the other. None of coordinate clauses is contained within the other and thus each one of them is independent in its structure as well as meaning.

The major *distinguishing markers* between subordinate and coordinate clauses are subordinators, relative words, finite-nonfinite distinction, elliptical vs. non-elliptical structure and the distinct word- order of the two. The difference is clearly sketched out in the *tree-diagram representations* below (figure 3 & 4).

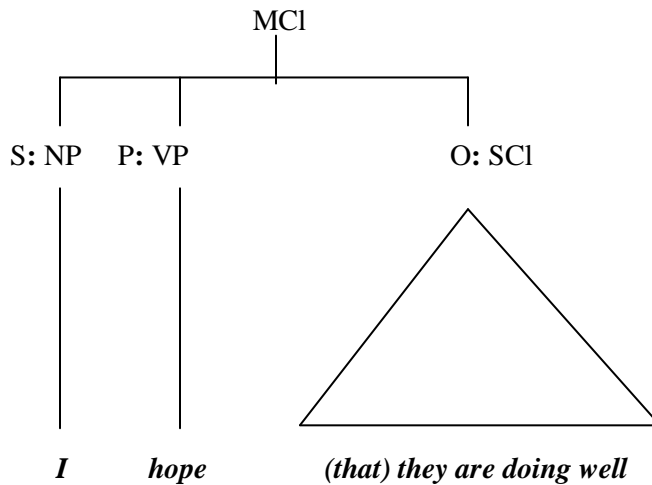


Figure 3: Subordinate clause

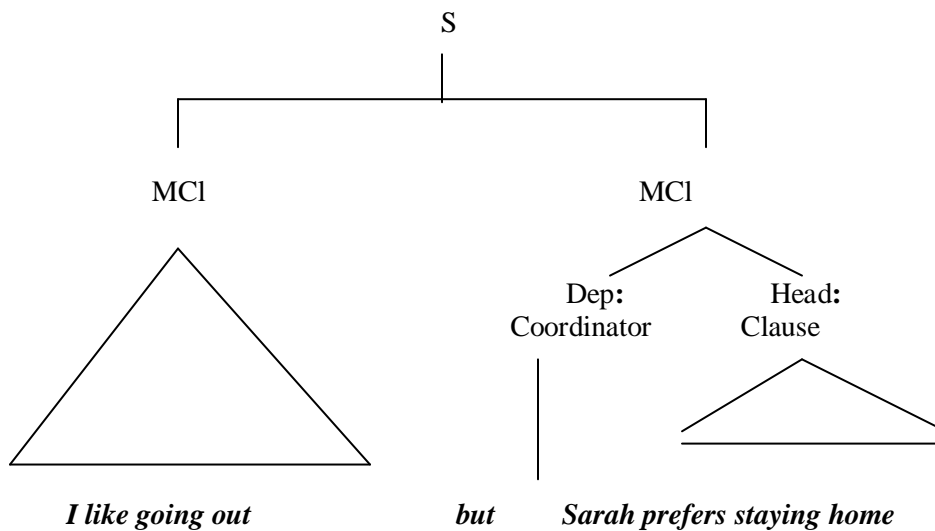


Figure 4: Coordinate clause

Subordination

Subordinate Clauses

Subordinate clauses being dependent in syntactic structure *usually* contain one of the three markers of their subordinate status:

- A Subordinator such as: *that, although, if, because* etc.
- A Relative word like *that, which, who*
- Non-finiteness (*To go early would be a better choice.*)

Types of Subordinate Clauses:

There are two major classes of subordinate clauses depending on the type of verb they contain: **1) finite and 2) non-finite subordinates** with finite subordinate clauses having four further divisions:

- i. Relative Clauses
- ii. Noun Clauses/ Content Clauses
- iii. Adverbial Clauses
- iv. Comparative Clauses

Another less significant category of subordinate clauses is that of *verbless clauses*. These types of subordination are discussed underneath.

i. Relative Clauses

Relative clauses contain a relative word with an anaphoric reference to its antecedent:

The pen is in the cupboard which you gave me last night.

So in the clause above *which*, a relative pronoun, is drawing an anaphoric relationship by referring back to the antecedent *pen*. For this very reason such clauses are termed “relative” as the relative word *relates* the relative clause to the antecedent expressed before.

Relative Word and Antecedent Agreement

Choice of relative word depends upon the type of antecedent it refers to. Antecedents of *who* and *whom* are normally human or human-like entities, while those of *which* are non-human and those of *when, where and why* are items denoting time, place and reason respectively. However, the relative words like *that and whose* are comparatively neutral in their choice of antecedent as they can be used for either type.

Types of Relative Clauses

There are two types of relative clauses:

- i. **Restrictive Relative Clause**
- ii. **Non-restrictive Relative Clause**

[Students] who are careless [need attention.] (Restrictive)

[Students,] who are careless, [need attention.] (Non-restrictive)

The basic contrast between the two is that of *prosody*, that the non-restrictive relative clauses are spoken with a separate intonation pattern, whereas restrictive relatives contain the same intonation as their antecedent. Secondly, in written form, non-restrictive relative is presented in parenthesis to mark it as extra/additional information in the clause, while restrictive relative is embedded in the larger construction as an integral part of the message. For instance in the example given above, restrictive relative implies that other sets of students are also available in the context out of which only “careless students” need attention. However, in non-restrictive relative only one set is available and thus it is obvious that careless students are being referred to, yet as supplementary or extra information it is provided in parenthetical form being secondary to the rest of the clause.

ii. Noun Clauses/ Content Clauses

Content clauses are also called *noun clause* for their capacity to function as NPs in form of subject, object or complement. Such clauses resemble main clauses in many ways as they can be classified in terms of clause types.

Declarative content clauses are formed with the subordinator *that*, which is usually optional except the case where the content clause is subject of the subordinate clause.

*I'm sure **that** my money is safe in the bank.*

***That** my money is safe in the bank is my belief.*

Interrogative content clauses are different from their main clause counterparts because:

The subject-operator-inversion rule normally applies to the main clause only.

Why are you upset? (Interrogative main clause)

I'd like to know why you are upset. (Interrogative content clause)

Secondly, in closed interrogative content clauses the subordinators *whether* and *if* are introduced unlike their main clause counterparts. Such as:

Are you going home?

*I inquired **whether/if** he was going home?*

With **exclamative** clauses there is no such considerable difference between main and subordinate expressions:

What a pretty face she is.

I can imagine what a pretty face she is.

iii. Adverbial Clauses

Adverbial clauses are given the status of subordinates for their use of *adverbs* as subordinators. The words that function as subordinators in such clauses are adverbs of time, place, reason, purpose, condition or concession, such as *when, where, because, so that, if, although* respectively.

For example:

*I went to a magical garden **where** there were red trees with golden leaves. The moment **when** I plucked a leaf from the tree **so that** I could bring it home, a monster appeared and snatched it back **because** he was the master of the garden. **Although** it was dead, I wish **if** I could keep the beautiful leaf with me.*

iv. Comparative Clauses

Comparative clauses, as suggested by the term itself, draw a comparison between two terms, with the help of subordinators **than** or **as**.

The preposition *than* correlates with adjectives, adverbs or determiners as their post-modifier. While, *as* is linked with a couple of other lexemes. For instance:

*She can drive faster **than** George.*

*I bought a suit same **as** yours.*

Elliptical Structure

One of the major characteristics of comparative clauses is its elliptical structure. In comparison between two factors the information which is obvious from the context is omitted in the clause. As in the examples given above it is obvious that she can drive *a speed* faster than *the speed George drives on*. Similarly, in the second example I bought a suit *which is same as your suit* is omitted yet understood.

Non-finite Clauses

Non-finite clauses are typical complements to the main clause. There are four kinds of non-finite clauses.

To-infinitival: These are the clauses that begin with the particle *to*. Such as:

[Jimmy tried] *to hit the ball so hard*.

To get a new car [is not a big deal nowadays].

Bare-infinitival: The bare-infinitival clauses are introduced by *base form* of verb:

[She helped] *remove the barrier*.

Present-participial/Gerund-infinitival: Here the non-finite clause contains a present participial at the beginning point. This present participial functioning as a noun is also referred to as *gerund* giving another name to the clause gerund-infinitival. For instance:

[I avoid] *talking much in formal gatherings*.

Past-participial: This type of non-finite has a past-participial verb form as the first verb in its VP construction. Such as:

[I had my hair] *trimmed*.

¹
Trimmed [hair look good].

Non-finite Classification

Non-finite clausal *classification* is made on two dimensions—form and function:

Form	Function
<p>Infinitival</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> To-infinitival Bare-infinitival 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Subject Object Predicative complement Catenative complement
<p>Participial</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Present Past 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Modifier Adjunct/ Peripheral dependent

Verbless Clauses

Another category of subordination which neither belongs to finite nor to non-finite subordinate clauses is that of verbless clause.

When hungry [the baby cries for food.]

[The man was hunting the birds] with his legs in the water.

Two significant features of the *verbless clauses* are:

a) Copula Deletion:

In both the examples given above the *verb be* is understood thus omitted: when he *is* hungry and his legs *were* in the water.

b) Complement to a Preposition:

Verbless clauses usually appear as complements to prepositions such as *with* and *for*.

Coordination

Whereas subordination is a relationship between elements that do not have the same syntactic status, coordination – as the name implies - is a relationship between elements that are of equivalent rank.

Collins, P. & Hollo, C. (2000:126)

Coordinate Clauses

Compound sentences, as mentioned earlier, contain two or more main clauses of an equal syntactic status, linked together with coordinators. These clauses are named *coordinate clauses* and the sequence of coordinated elements is referred to as “*coordination*”.

Types of Coordination

There are two major classifications:

1. Basic Coordination
2. Non-basic Coordination

Basic Coordination

Basic coordinators are: *And*, *Or* and *But*, with the help of which basic coordination is carried out. The coordinator has a closer affinity with the second clause than the one preceding, as reflected in the basic structure below.

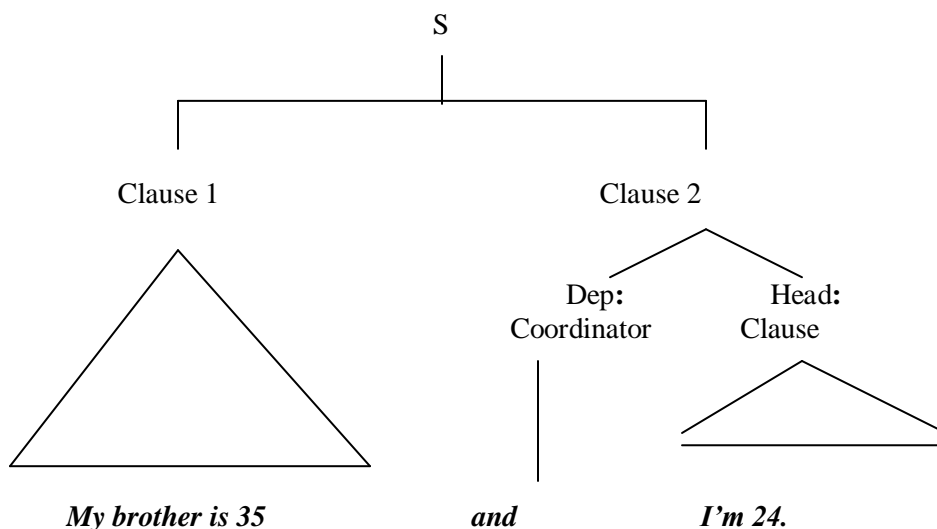


Figure 5: Basic Coordination

Two main *types of basic coordination* are named *syndetic* and *asyndetic* coordination.

i. Syndetic Coordination

Syndetic coordination is that when clauses, phrases or lexical items are combined together with a (basic) coordinating conjunction.

*It was raining **but** we didn't lose the track.*

Some *kinds of syndetic coordination* are as follows:

a) Layered Coordination

This type of coordination takes place when *two or more coordinators* are embedded in a compound sentence.

[Are you going to find a mechanic] or [trying to work it out yourself] and [fix it at home.]

[George or Mary] and [John or Nancy] will be the members of the club next time.

b) Joint Coordination

Joint coordination is the one that happens at phrase level. Here the coordinated elements are treated either distinctly or as a single entity.

Jim and Katherine scored well in exam.

Jim and Katherine scored good grades in exam.

c) Free Ellipsis in Coordination

In elliptical coordination, one of the coordinated elements undergoes omission of repetitive material.

I ordered cappuccino but my mom didn't.

I gifted Kate a doll and Kim a cat.

ii. Asyndetic or Unlinked Coordination

If main clauses are chained together without any coordinating marker (coordinator) between them, the sequence is called *unlinked or asyndetic coordination*.

I reached home late at night, everybody was asleep.

He lost the tickets, this caused him trouble.

Non basic Coordination

Huddleston (1988:203-205) identifies three kinds of non-basic coordination: discontinuity, bound ellipsis and restructuring.

i. Discontinuity

Discontinuity occurs when the second coordinate clause is placed in the middle of the subject and predicate of the first coordinate clause.

Basic Coordination	Discontinuity
The president dismissed him yesterday but the media couldn't cover the scene.	The president - but the media couldn't cover the scene - dismissed him yesterday.

ii. Bound Ellipsis

Bound ellipsis differs from free ellipsis for it not only omits repetitive material from the second clause but also introduces elements which are not present in the preceding clause. This makes it closer to *substitution* where lexical items are *replaced* with new ones. Usually it creates a *gap* in the middle of the second clause, having the verb omitted leaving behind the subject and at least one complement or adjunct.

*I have been to America, but **not** to **England**.*

*She bought a necklace and I a **ring**.*

iii. Restructuring

When a couple of clauses functioning as coordinative *pre-objects* are followed by a *non-coordinative object* in a clause, the arrangement is called *restructuring*. In such sentences non-coordinative object forms the immediate constituent of each of the pre-objects and is uttered with stressed intonation. Such as:

Pre-object 1

Pre-object 2

Non-coordinative object

|

|

|

Jenny had caught, and Sarah was planning to catch, the city bus to the downtown.

“The term ‘restructuring’ thus indicates a change from normal constituent structure—a change that is marked by the clear prosodic break...”

Huddleston (1988:205)

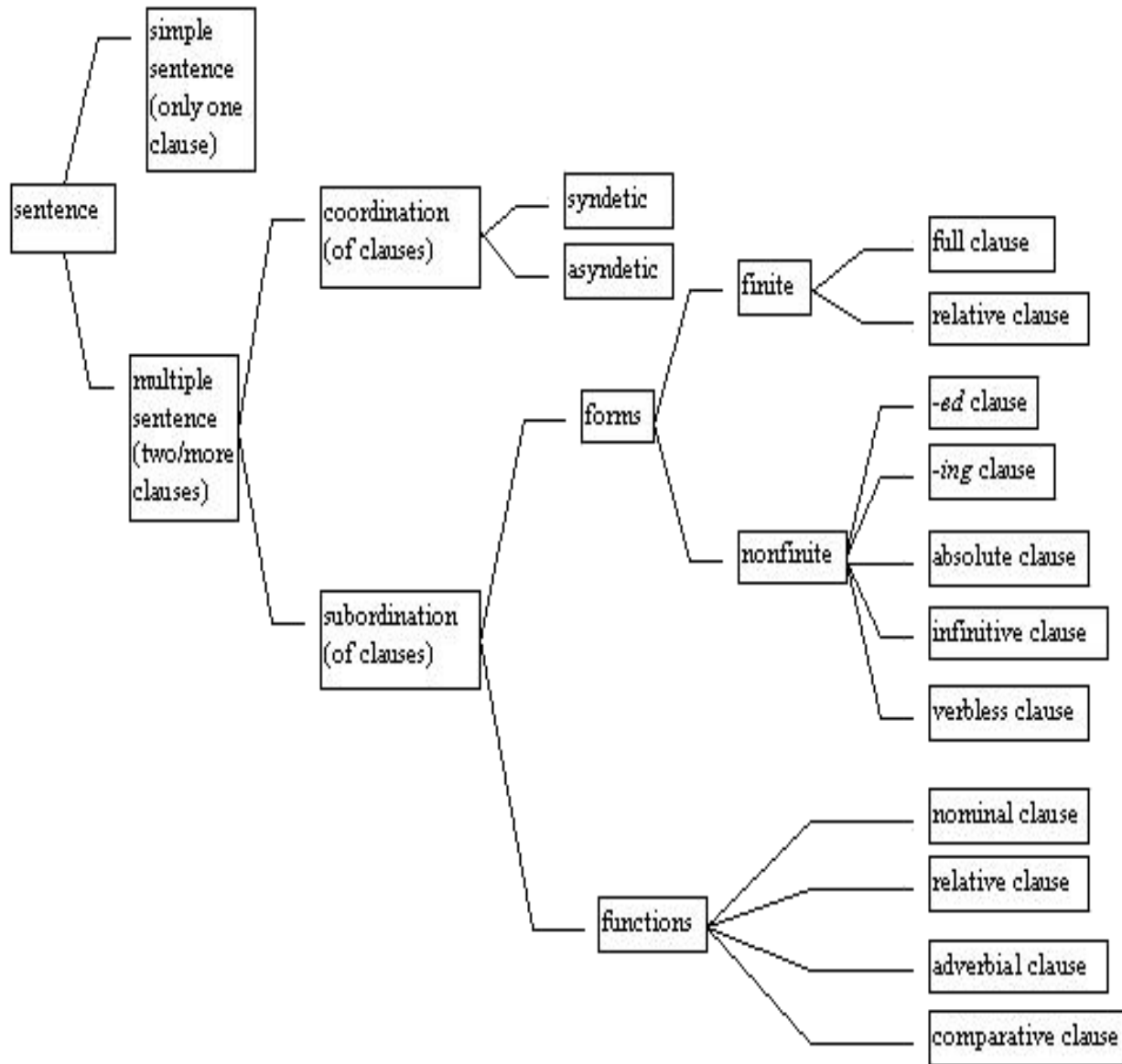


Figure 6: Subordination and Coordination—a diagrammatical representation

Kies, D. (1995)
Information Structure

One of the key sources of non-kernel structures is *information packaging* in a message. This conveniently happens with the spoken language, for speakers tend to focus upon particular constituents of a clause with the help of certain prosodic and syntactic devices in order to structure information in their utterance. This phenomenon is also known as *thematic variation*, as the kernel clause gets *marked* with variation in its thematic system in order to be transformed into a non-kernel construction.

When a speaker structures a message, the information is processed into units and ordered in such a way as to produce the kind of message that is desired. As well as variations produced by phonological means, several syntactic alternatives exist for arranging information into a series of alternative messages. These principal types of order variations in English depending upon a range of structural, semantic, pragmatic, and textual factors are a number of grammatical devices used for reordering the information in the message.

Rafajlovicova, R. (2002:2)

There is a variety of information structure available in English; however, its three significant types chosen for discussion in this article under non-kernel construction are enlisted below:

1. Extraposition
2. Existentials
3. Cleft Construction

Extraposition

If a subordinate clause is functioning as *subject* or *direct object* in main clause, the clause can be *thematically reordered* by taking the subordinate out and moving it towards the right of the predicate. Moreover, the dummy pronoun “*it*” is inserted in the position vacated by the subordinate clause. This move is referred to as *extraposition*, further classified into *subject* and *object* extrapositioning.

Types of Extraposition

Extrapositioning can take place in case of both finite and non-finite subordinates. Two main types of extraposition are discussed underneath.

i. Subject Extraposition

If the subordinate element occurring as *subject* of the main clause is extraposed by being shifted to the right of the predicate, the *shift* is called *subject extraposition*. The extraposed subordinate is replaced with *it* to take over the vacated *subject function*. Such as:

Finite Subordinate	Subject Extraposition
That he easily tamed the lion was surprising.	<i>It</i> was surprising that he easily tamed the lion.

Non-finite Subordinate (To-infinitival)	Subject Extraposition
To tame a lion easily would be surprising.	<i>It</i> would be surprising to tame a lion easily.

ii. Object Extraposition

Object extraposition mostly happens in complex transitive clauses where a subordinate clause appears as the direct object. This kind of extrapositioning is also known as *internal complement extraposition*, for the subordinate complement is being moved from an internal position towards the external right of the predicate.

Finite Subordinate	Object Extraposition
Everyone found that he easily tamed the lion surprising.	Everyone found <i>it</i> surprising that he easily tamed the lion.

Non-finite Subordinate (<i>To-infinitival</i>)	Object Extraposition
Everyone found being able to tame the lion surprising.	Everyone found <i>it</i> surprising being able to tame the lion.

Extrapositioning Strategy

Extrapositioning is a strategy that allows the information to process conveniently in a message. It helps us packing the information in such a way that the *heavier* more complex material appears late in the sentence for the information to be encoded and decoded in an easier fashion.

The informational motivation for extraposition is end-weight: the location of a longer and more complex constituent in final position makes the sentence easier to process.

Collins, P. & Hollo, C. (2000:139)

Existentials

Another technique used in non-kernel clauses for moving the subject to a post-verbal position in the main clause is applied in existential constructions. The move follows insertion of the dummy pronoun *there* in the subject position. As explicit from the name itself “existentials” are meant to provide information regarding existence or location of particular referents in a clause what Collins, P. and Hollo, C. (2000:139) call “propositions of existence”.

Basic clause	Existential clause
Sunshine was crossing through the windowpane.	<i>There</i> was sunshine crossing through the windowpane.

‘*There*’ is typically followed by the verb ‘*be*’, however, some other verbs such as *appear, arise, lie, seem, emerge, exist, occur, follow*, etc. can also be found with ‘*there*’. Such as:

There arises the major issue.

There lies the best solution.

There—Locative adverb VS. Dummy pronoun

Although historically being derived from the same origin, dummy *there* is clearly distinct from the locative *there* in its modern use. For instance:

There’s a big trouble there.

Function of the first *there* is that of a pronoun which is labelled as *dummy* for its being unstressed; neither carrying any meaning nor indicating a location.

Whereas the second *there* points towards the place of its referent, thus, is called a locative adverb. It is phonologically or prosodically different from dummy *there* for being stressed and semantically distinct for containing an identifiable meaning of its own.

At the language particular level, this is defined by the presence of dummy there as subject. At the general level, it is defined as a grammatically distinct construction including among its most salient uses the expression of existential propositions—propositions that such-and-such exists.

Huddleston (1988:182)

Types of Existentials

Types of existentials are determined on the basis of the *complement* that follows the ‘displaced subject’ in the main clause. This complement is referred to as “*extension*”.

i. Locative Complement Existentials

This type of existential contains an *extension* which specifies the location: place or time of the moved subject. Such as:

Basic clause	Locative complement
Some porridge is <i>in the plate</i> .	<i>There’s</i> some porridge <i>in the plate</i> .
Meeting is on Thursday.	<i>There’s</i> a meeting <i>on Thursday</i> .

ii. Predicative Complement Existentials

Predicative complement is usually an adjectival phrase that functions as a subjective predicative in the *extension* following the “displaced subject”. Such complements denote a state rather than indicating properties. For example:

Basic clause	Predicative complement
Some students were absent.	<i>There</i> were some students absent.

iii. Zero Complement / Bare Existentials

Here the existentials have no non-existential counterpart for they do not contain a complement.

Zero Complement
There is still hope.
There’s a lighthouse.

iv. Relative Clause Complement

In such existential constructions *extension*, after the moved subject, exhibits structure of a relative clause.

Basic clause	Relative clause complement
Some words have power to conquer nations.	<i>There</i> are words that have power to conquer nations.

v. Non-finite Clause Complement

If the ‘displaced subject’ follows a non-finite verb in the existential clause, the construction is called non-finite existential.

Basic clause	Non-finite clause complement
A big issue to be resolved.	<i>There’s</i> a big issue <i>to be resolved</i> .
Someone was knocking hard.	<i>There</i> was someone <i>knocking</i> hard.

Informational Motivation behind the Existentials

The strategy here is to delay the information by inserting before the subject a dummy pronoun *there* along with a *be*-verb. The existential constructions are meant to provide *new information* which is unknown to the listener/reader, thus the postponing of complex material aims at generating a dramatic effect in the clause.

Cleft Construction

Cleft construction is a variety of *non-kernel construction* in which kernel clause is divided – “*cleaved*” – into two parts. These types of clauses allow the speakers or writers to highlight one of the “*clefted*” parts by making the other part subordinate to the highlighted element. The subordinated clause in cleft constructions has a close affinity to relative clause for it begins with a relative pronoun. The cleft structure thus consists of two information units: the highlighted clause providing *foregrounded* information, while the other presenting *backgrounded* information which is presupposed or known by the listeners from the context.

As is often the case with non-kernel constructions, the structure of cleft clauses is somewhat problematic: it is not easy to see just where the relative clause belongs in the constituent hierarchy.

Huddleston (1988:185)

Types of Cleft Constructions

Cleft clauses can be divided into two typical types of structures: *it*-clefts and pseudo-clefts.

i. *It*-Clefts

Consider the following examples:

Bill hit the car with a ball.

It was Bill who hit the car with a ball.

It was the car that bill hit with a ball.

It was a ball that Bill hit the car with.

This type of clefts always start with “ *it* ” and are ,therefore, labelled as “*it*-clefts”. A skeleton structure is as follows:

It + form of *be* + focus + who/that...

As apparent from the structure itself, the clause contains a copula verb *be*, inserted right after “*it*”. The position following copula is referred to as *focus position* where the ‘element to be highlighted’ is placed. Thus, in *it*-clause *it* behaves as a subject, *be* as predicator and the focussed element as a predicative complement. The structure is graphically shown below.

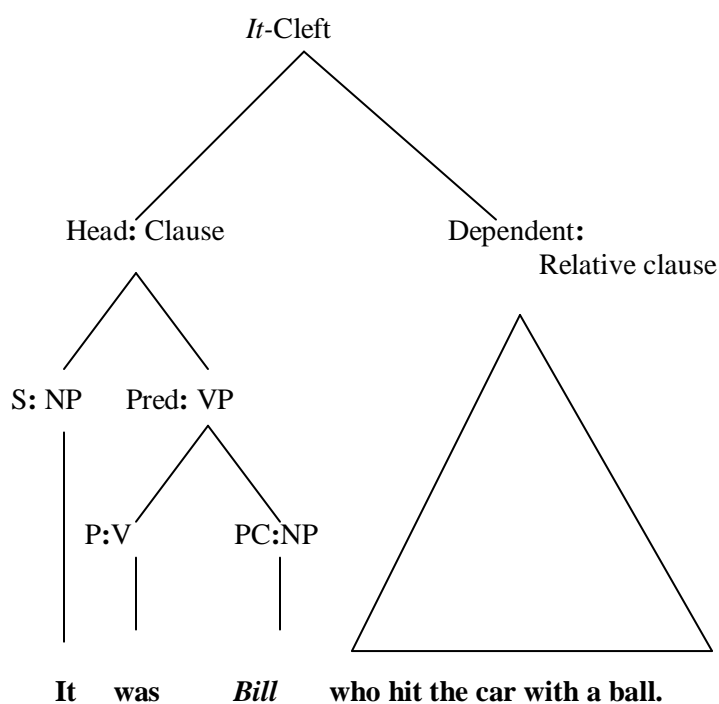


Figure 7: *It*-Cleft Construction

ii. Pseudo-Clefts/*Wh*-Clefts

“The term ‘pseudo-cleft’ suggests that despite the apparent resemblances to cleft sentences, they should not necessarily be described in the same way.”

Collins, P. & Hollo, C. (2000:143)

What Bill hit with a ball was *the car*.

What Bill did with a ball was *hit the car*.

What Bill hit the car with was *a ball*.

In pseudo-clefts, the highlighted element is moved towards the end of the sentence, with the relative clause and copula verb preceding it. Such constructions are also called *wh*-clefts for they always begin with a *wh*-pronoun: mostly “*what*”. The structure is outlined in the frame below.

Wh-item + ... + form of *be* + focus

In the head clause that follows the relative clause, copula functions as the main verb and the focussed element as an NP. A diagrammatical version is sketched under.

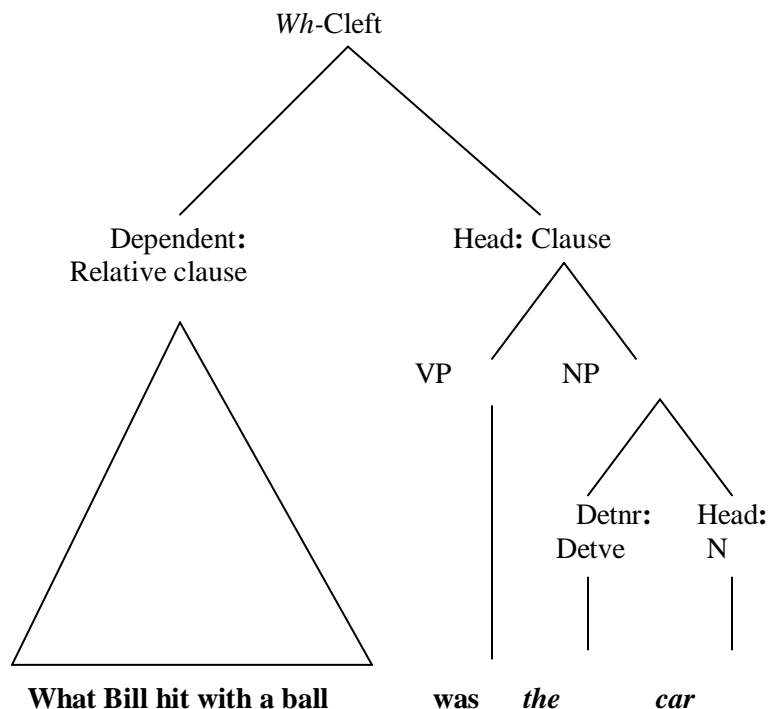


Figure 8: *Wh*-Cleft Construction

Conclusion

Thus, a detailed account of non-kernel structures in English highlights the degree of vastness in a language. Dealing with syntax at both language-particular and general levels, one gets to discover endless dimensions of language *use*. There appears to be a vast range of *markedness* in the study of clause, often overlapping with each other in their ambiguous expressions. Nevertheless, whenever it comes to a *descriptive* structural analysis of *clause*, this is the *communicative use* of language that marks clear breakups between different types of constructions along with their dynamic functions.

When, as linguists, we try to figure out the syntactic structure of a language, we rely on the judgements of native speakers to tell us whether our example sentences are possible or impossible. These GRAMMATICALITY JUDGEMENTS are the data of the science of linguistics. It doesn't matter that native speakers usually can't tell us why they feel that a particular sentence is good or bad: the very fact that they have these intuitions shows up the structural differences and similarities between sentences.

Tallerman, M. (1998:24-25)

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