

NON-DEFINING
INFORMATION

RELATIVE

RELATIVE

SKIRT

CLAUSES

SENTENCE DEFINING

CLAUSE

EXTRA MEANING
STARTS
RELEASED

NON-DEFINING

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION

FORMS AND FUNCTIONS OF THE ENGLISH CLAUSE
(EBS 282)

FOR COLLEGES OF EDUCATION (GHANA)

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PREFACE

This course guides students to develop the conceptual knowledge and analytical skills for an in-depth description of the English clause, with a focus on subordinate clauses. It examines the formal characteristics and functions of embedded (or downranked) clauses and the forms and meanings of hypotactic clauses (or non-embedded subordinate clauses). Students' knowledge of basic notions such as rank scale, rankshift/embedding, grammatical unit, grammatical class, and function will be consolidated and deepened.

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COURSE OUTLINE**SECOND SEMESTER, 2019/2020****Course: EBS 282: Forms and Functions of the English Clause****Credit Hours: 2****Course Description**

This course guides students to develop the conceptual knowledge and analytical skills for an in-depth description of the English clause, with a focus on subordinate clauses. It examines the formal characteristics and functions of embedded (or downranked) clauses and the forms and meanings of hypotactic clauses (or non-embedded subordinate clauses). Students' knowledge of basic notions such as rank scale, rankshift/embedding, grammatical unit, grammatical class, and function will be consolidated and deepened.

Course Content

Week	Topics	Suggested Readings
1-2	The English clause in relation to organising principles of grammar The English grammatical rank scale constituent relationship consist-of-relationship Rankshift (or embedding) ranking clauses downranked (or embedded) clauses	Thompson (2014: Ch. 2)
3	Basic concepts in grammatical analysis Grammatical unit/rank Grammatical class Grammatical function/element	Downing (2014: Unit 2)
4-5	Subordinate clauses and formal marking The finite subordinate clause The non-finite subordinate clause The verbless clause (i.e. finite subordinate clauses with elliptical elements)	Quirk & Greenbaum (1973, pp. 310-313) Downing (2014, pp. 12-13)
6-7	Forms and functions of nominal clauses (embedded clauses) <i>that</i> -nominal clause	Quirk & Greenbaum (1973, pp. 316-322)

	<p><i>wh</i>-nominal clause Nominal relative clause Infinitive nominal clause (to-infinitive and bare infinitive) <i>-ing</i>-nominal clause</p>	
8-10	<p>Relative clauses Form of the relative clause Restrictive relative clause (embedded subordinate clause) Non-restrictive relative clause (non-embedded subordinate clause) Factors determining the choice of the relative pronoun</p>	<p>Quirk & Greenbaum (1973, pp. 380-384)</p>
11-13	<p>Forms and meanings of adverbial clauses (ranking or non-embedded subordinate clauses) time condition reason purpose manner concession</p>	<p>Quirk & Greenbaum (1973, pp. 322-330) Downing (2014, pp. 262-266)</p>

Reading List

- Biber, D. & Leech, G. (1999). *Longman grammar of spoken and written English*. London: Longman.
- Downing, A. (2015). *English grammar: A university course*. London & New York: Routledge.
- Huddleston, R. & Pullum, G. (2006). Coordination and subordination. In B. Aarts & A. McMahon (eds.), *The handbook of English linguistics*. 198-219. Malden, MA, Oxford & Carlton: Blackwell.
- Quirk, R. & Greenbaum, S. (1973). *A university grammar of English*. Essex: Longman.
- Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S., Leech, G. & Svartvik, J. (1985). *A comprehensive grammar of the English language*. London: Longman.
- Thompson, G. (2014). *Introducing functional grammar* (3rd edn.). New York & London: Routledge.

WEEK 1: THE ENGLISH GRAMMATICAL RANK SCALE

OUTLINE OF LESSON

- ✓ What is rank?
- ✓ What is rank scale?
- ✓ **Relationship between grammatical units on the rank scale:**
 - consist-of relationship
 - constituent relationship

OBJECTIVES

By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to:

- ✓ define the terms rank and rank scale.
- ✓ explain the relationship that exists between the grammatical units on the rank scale.
- ✓ analyse clauses according to their constituent units.

REQUIRED READING

- Thompson, G. (2014). *Introducing functional grammar* (3rd edn.). New York & London: Routledge. **Chapter 2**

WHAT IS RANK?

The grammar of every language is made up of a finite set of units that realise the grammatical meanings in the language. These units are not of equal sizes; some realise larger units of meaning than others. We refer to each of these units as **a rank**. Larger units of meaning are normally realised by bigger ranks while smaller units of meaning are realised by smaller ranks. Across languages, we identify **one rank that tend to realise the largest grammatical meanings in the language**. This unit is the **clause**. It serves as the interface between grammar and discourse. Languages, however, differ in the number and nature of units lower than the clause. Other strata (or levels) of language such as phonology have their own ranks different from those of grammar.

The term 'rank' in grammar, therefore, refers to a distinct grammatical unit. We can use the terms 'unit' and 'rank' interchangeably.

The four grammatical units or ranks

English has four grammatical units or rank as follows:

- a) morpheme
- b) word
- c) phrase/group
- d) clause.

Each rank is dedicated to realizing particular grammatical meanings (e.g. systems and functions). E.g.

- a) grammatical systems such as tense, number, and person are normally realised at the rank of word.
- b) Functions such as Premodifier, Head, and Postmodifier are realised at group/phrase rank.
- c) systems such as transitivity and mood are realised at clause rank. Functions such as Subject, Predicator, Object, Adjunct, etc. are also realised at clause rank.
- d) morphemes are the basic resources that feed the meanings of the higher ranks. They have no systems of their own rank neither can they be analysed into structural elements. A morpheme is indivisible.

WHAT IS RANK SCALE?

A rank scale is the hierarchical arrangement of the grammatical units according to their size. The concept of rank scale is based on the assumption that grammatical constructions are not linear but rather hierarchical. Higher units consist of lower units.

Table 1: An analysis of a clause to show the hierarchical arrangements of units in the rank scale.

Rank	The	girls	are	playing	football
Clause	Subject		Finite	Predicator	Object
Group/phrase	Noun group		Verbal group		Noun group
Word	Determiner	Noun	Auxiliary	Main verb	Noun
Morpheme	The	girl-plural	present tense; plural	play-ing	Foot + ball

THE CLAUSE

The clause can be defined in terms of its **grammatical size** on the rank scale. It is the biggest/highest grammatical unit within which the lower units are found.

The clause is made up of at least one group/phrase.

The clause can be analysed into one or more clausal elements. Clausal elements are Subject, Predicator, Object, Complement, Adjunct.

Each clausal element is equivalent to a group/phrase.

Table 2: An analysis of a clause to show that clausal elements are equivalent to group/phrase

Rank	The dog	swallowed	the bone	→ <i>Clausal elements</i>
Clause	Subject	Predicator	Object	
Group/phrase	Noun group	Verbal group	Noun group	

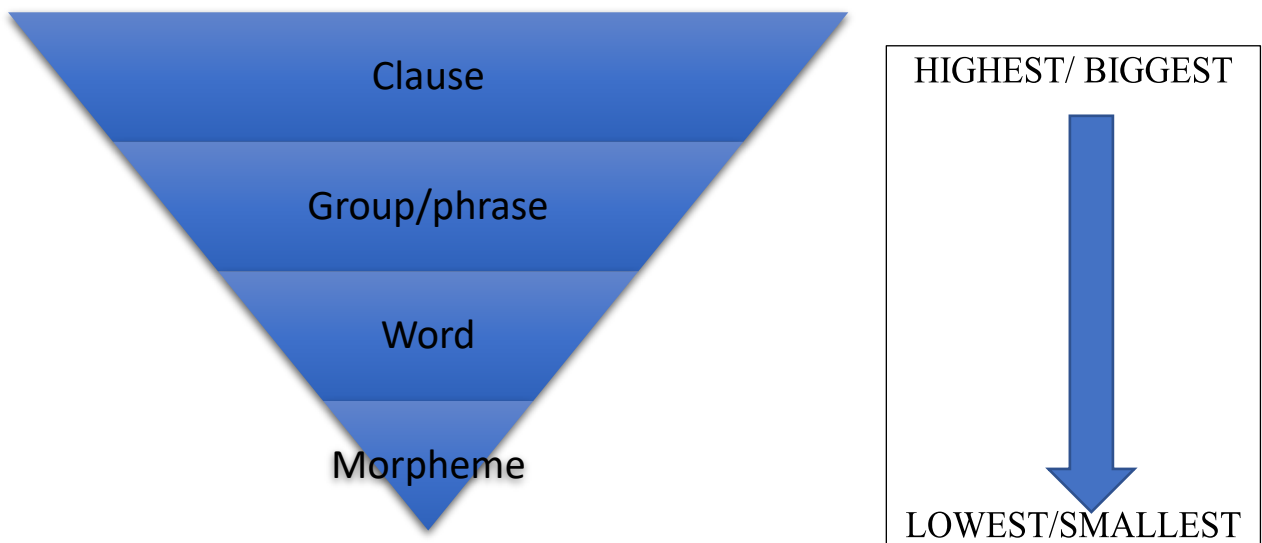


Figure 1: Diagrammatic Illustration of Rank and Rank Scale

THE GROUP/PHRASE

The phrase/group is the next grammatical rank or unit below clause.

The group/phrase functions within the clause. e.g. Functions such as Subject, Object, Complement, Adjunct are functions within the clause, and they correspond to groups/phrases.

Some grammarians of English make a distinction between **group** and **phrase**.

Group and phrase are different grammatical units of the same rank, i.e. they are equal in grammatical size. They both perform the same level of functions within the clause.

A group is an expanded word; the nucleus is a lexical word (e.g. *man*) expanded by the addition of modifiers (e.g. *A young handsome Ghanaian man*).

A phrase is a reduced (or contracted) clause; the nucleus is a preposition ('a minor verb'; e.g. *in*) with a participant realised by a noun group (*in the box*).

The phrase is therefore more complex than the group; the phrase normally embeds a group in its structure.

According to this analysis, English has only one class of phrase called the prepositional phrase and three or four major classes of group, including the noun group, verbal group, and adverbial group. The fourth group, the adjectival group is considered by others to be a reduced form of the noun group.

Table 3: Examples of groups as expanded words

Rank	a	beautiful	girl	} NOUN GROUP
Group/phrase	Premodifier	Premodifier	Head	
Word	Determiner	Adjective	Noun	
Rank	have	been	going	} VERBAL GROUP
Group/phrase	Premodifier	Premodifier	Head	
Word	Auxiliary	Auxiliary	Main verb	
Rank	very	very gracefully		} ADVERBIAL GROUP
Group/phrase	Premodifier	Head		
Word	Intensifier	Adverb		

Table 4: Example of the prepositional phrase as a reduced clause

Rank	The	boy	stood	<i>on</i>	<i>the burning deck</i>
Clause	Subject		Predicator	Adjunct	
Group/phrase	Noun group		Verbal group	Prepositional phrase	
			Minor predicator	Complement	
Word	Determiner	Noun	Verb	Preposition	Noun group

THE WORD

The word is the grammatical rank below the group/phrase.

The word performs functions within the group/phrase. e.g. Functions such as Premodifier, Head and Postmodifier are functions of the word within the group/phrase.

MORPHEME

Morpheme is the smallest grammatical unit or rank.

Morphemes realise grammatical functions or meanings within the word.

Morphemes cannot be analysed further into constituents.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN UNITS IN THE RANK SCALE

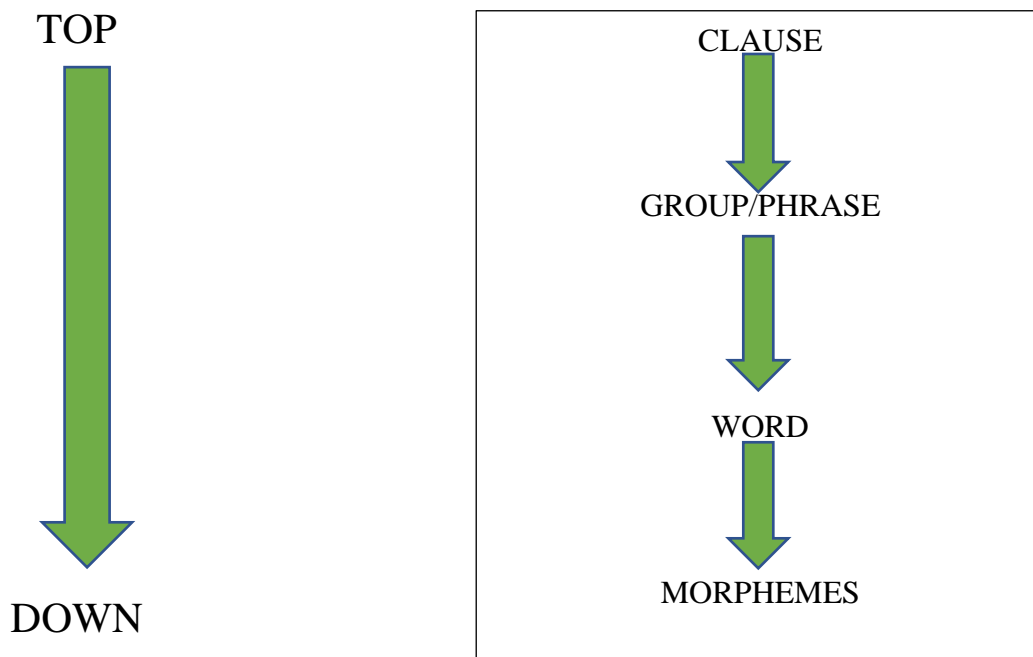
We can view the relationship between units in the rank scale from two points of view:

- a) Top-down – i.e. a consist-of relationship
- b) Bottom-up – i.e. a constituent relationship

The Top-down – i.e. a consist-of relationship

- A preceding rank normally consist of unit of the next lower rank.
- The clause which is the highest unit is made up of units below it on the rank scale.
- The rank scale is read from top to down.
- The **clause** consists of at least one **phrase or group** and the phrase at least one **word**.
The **word** also consists of at least one **morpheme**.
- Each unit must be a whole unit and a multiple of one or more units.

Figure 2: Diagrammatic illustration of Consist-of Relationship



Examples of Consist-of Relationship

Clause: The police had arrested the thief



Groups: Made up of three groups;



The police (**noun group**)
had arrested (**verbal group**)
the thief (**noun group**)

Words: the, police, had, arrested, the, thief



Are made up of 8 morphemes

Morphemes: *the* (**bound morpheme**) *Police* (**free morpheme**)

Had (*has + ed*) **free/bound morpheme**

Arrested (*arrest + ed*) **bound morpheme**

The (**bound morpheme**)

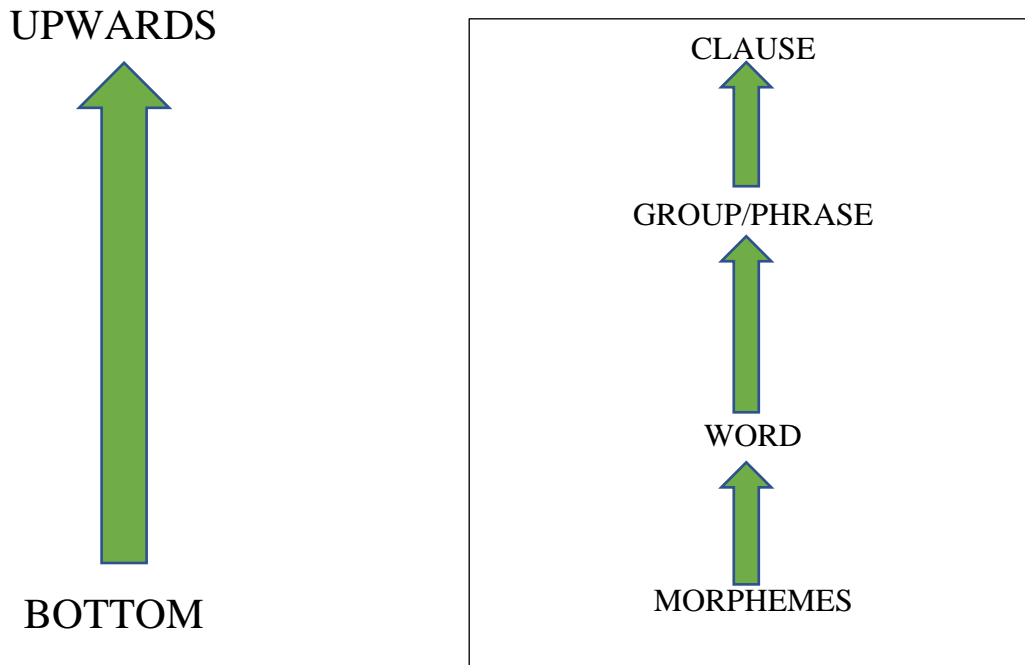
Thief (**free morpheme**)

The Bottom-up Relationship (Constituent)

- The constituent relationship shows that lower grammatical units serve as constituents of a unit immediately above it.

- The morpheme is the constituent of a word, the word is a constituent of the phrase, and the phrase is the constituent of the clause.
- Here, the rank scale is read bottom-up.

Figure 3: Diagrammatic Illustration of Constituent Relationship



SELF STUDY QUESTIONS

1. (a) Define rank in one sentence.
(b) How many ranks do we have in the grammar of English? Mention them.
2. (a) What is rank scale?
(b) Analyse the following clauses to show that it consists of lower grammatical ranks.

Use the box diagram shown in slide 12:

- i. The man has registered his name.
- ii. Freda had won the beauty contest.

WEEK 2: RANKSHIFT

OUTLINE OF LESSON

- ✓ Recap: Rank Scale
- ✓ Objectives
- ✓ Required Reading
- ✓ The Concept of Rankshift
- ✓ Ranking Clauses
- ✓ Rankshifted Clauses
- ✓ Summary
- ✓ Self-Study Questions

OBJECTIVES

At the end of the lesson, the student will be able to:

- ✓ explain the concept of rankshift. NTS 3i
- ✓ explain the differences between a ranking clause and a rankshifted clause. NTS 3e
- ✓ identify ranking and rankshifted clauses in texts. NTS 3j

REQUIRED READING

Thompson, G. (2014). *Introducing functional grammar* (3rd edn.). New York & London: Routledge. **Chapter 2**

RECAP: RANK SCALE

- The grammar of English is organized around four building blocks called grammatical units: morpheme, word, group/phrase, and clause.
- These units are related in a hierarchical order – i.e. on the one hand, a higher unit (e.g. a clause) **consists of** (or can be analysed into) units below it (viz. group, word, morpheme); on the other hand, a lower unit (e.g. a word) **constitutes** (or makes up) the unit immediately above it (e.g. group).
- The hierarchical arrangement of the grammatical units is called **rank scale**.
- For example, the **clause**; *The kids played football* can be analysed into lower units, using bracketing:
[The kids] [played] [football] – **groups**
[The] [kids] / [Played] / [football] – **words**

[The] [kid] [-s] [play] [-ed] [foot] [ball] – **morphemes**

- There is one clause, three groups, four words and seven morphemes.

RANKSHIFT

When we analyse language in use, it is often the case that a grammatical unit of a higher rank such as clause is a constituent of a lower rank such as group/phrase or even a constituent of a unit of the same rank (e.g. a clause functioning as a constituent of another clause). This phenomenon is referred to as **rankshift**.

Thompson (2014) describes rankshift as a “general principle that allows a unit to be expanded by the inclusion of another unit from a higher or, in some cases, the same rank” (Thompson, 2014).

Table 5: A rankshifted phrase

Rank	The	Policeman	[with the big Riffle]
Group/phrase	Premodifier	Head	Postmodifier
Word	Determiner	Noun	Prepositional phrase

The prepositional phrase *with the big rifle* functions as a **postmodifier** within a noun group.

Table 6: A rankshifted clause

Rank	The	Policeman	[[who came here]]
Group/phrase	Premodifier	Head	Postmodifier
Word	Determiner	Noun	Relative clause

- ❖ The relative clause *who came here* functions as postmodifier within a noun group. It modifies the noun head *policeman*.

Rank	What Jesus did at Bethany	was	a	miracle
Group/phrase	Subject	Predicator	Complement	
Word	Nominal clause	Verb	Noun group	

- ❖ The clause *What Jesus did at Bethany* functions as the Subject of another clause.

Rankshift is also referred to as downranking or embedding. Each of these alternative terms captures tell us something about rankshift:

The term *downranking* reflects the fact that it is higher grammatical units that shifts down to perform the functions of lower ranks. i.e. only clauses and groups/phrases rankshift.

The term *embedding* shows the *recursive* nature of rankshifted items. Units can be *expanded* by the inclusion of another unit from a higher or the same rank.

We use the three terms - rankshift, downranking and, embedding – interchangeably in this course.

Conventionally, we indicate rankshifted (or embedded) phrases/groups with single square brackets (1) and rankshifted (or embedded) clauses with double square brackets (2):

1. The table [*with carved legs*] is mine.
2. The tutor [[*who supervised me at teaching practice*]] was very supportive.

Embedding tends to be recursive, meaning that we can repeatedly embed items of the same rank within each other in a construction:

1. I live in Koase [of Asuogya [of the Wenchi Municipality [of the Bono Region [of Ghana [of West Africa]]]]].
2. I saw the man [[who beat the boy [[who ran after the puppy [[which bit the girl [[whose ...]]]]]]].

In principle there is no limit to the number of items that can occur in such recursive situations. The limit is determined by practical constraints.

It is natural that rankshift or embedding is associated with the higher grammatical units, namely the clause and group/phrase. They are larger in meaning and structurally are more expansive than the lower units.

RANKING CLAUSES

A ranking clause is a clause that performs the function or plays the role of a clause. It is a clause that has not rankshifted; it remains at its rank.

Examples of ranking clauses are:

- a) independent clauses
- b) non-restrictive relative clauses
- c) adverbial clauses

Examples of ranking clauses:

1. Ms. Newman, **who lives next door**, claims to be a millionaire.
2. I present to you captain Appiah, **who was the Black Star's captain during the world cup**.

Each sentence consists of two ranking clauses, an independent clause and a non-restrictive relative clause. The relative clause adds other information to the main clause.

Note that the relative clause is presented as a separate information unit, as the commas show – it is not a constituent of the main clause.

3. **After the fruit is harvested**, it is sold at the market.
4. She smiled sweetly at me, **wherever I met her**.

Each of the sentences here consists of two ranking clauses, one independent and one (dependent) adverbial clause.

Note that each clause in the two sentences is a separate information unit, indicated in writing by commas. Each ranking clause adds new meaning to the information flow in the sentence.

Features of Ranking Clause

A ranking clause has the following characteristics:

- It is typically uttered as separate intonation unit. In writing, it is often marked off with punctuation marks such as full stop, comma, or semicolon. A rank clause thus tends to be a separate information unit
- It is not a constituent within another construction. They contribute directly to the flow of discourse in text.
- A ranking clause may be independent or dependent.

RANKSHIFTED CLAUSES

Rankshifted clauses are also called downranked or embedded clauses.

They are clauses that assume functions within lower grammatical ranks, normally the group/phrase) or within other clauses. These lower level functions are typical of groups/phrases or words.

Examples of downranked clauses are:

- a) Restrictive relative clauses
- b) Nominal clauses

Table 7: Rankshifted clauses

Rank	The	dog	[[that has a white spot on its head]]	is	the	one	[[that bit me]]
Clause	Subject			Predicator	Complement		
Group/phrase	Noun group			Verbal group	Noun group		
Word	Determiner	Noun	Relative clause	Verb	Determiner	Noun	Relative clause

There are two rankshifted clauses here indicated by square brackets. These are restrictive relative clauses. They each serve as postmodifier in a noun group.

Rank	The	students	[[who have bad marks]]	won't	succeed
Clause	Subject			Predicator	
Group/phrase	Noun group			Verbal group	
Word	Determiner	Noun	Relative clause	Auxiliary	Main verb

*The **relative clause** marked in square brackets is rankshifted because it serves as postmodifier in a noun group. It is a constituent of a lower unit.*

Rank	I	wonder	[[what is making Tracy unhappy]]
Clause	Subject	Predicator	object
Group/phrase	Noun group	Verbal group	Noun group
Word	Pronoun	Verb	Nominal clause

The clause in square brackets is rankshifted. It functions as the Object in another clause, a function associated with noun (or nominal) groups.

SUMMARY

- ❖ This lesson has examined the concept of rankshift, ranking clauses and downranked clauses.
- ❖ It can be deduced from the discussion that:

- a) When a grammatical item (e.g. clause) is a constituent of a rank lower than itself (e.g. group) or of the same rank as the item, it is said that such as grammatical item has rankshifted.
- b) When a clause maintains its functional status as a clause, it is known as a ranking clause.
- c) When a clause performs a function lower than its rank (e.g. when it serves as a constituent of a group/phrase or another clause), then it is a downranked, or embedded, or rankshifted clause.

SELF-STUDY QUESTIONS

- 1. a) Define rankshift.
b) Give two (2) examples of your own to illustrate rankshift and explain these examples with the help of the box diagram.
- 2. Write down two differences between ranking clauses and rankshifted clauses and illustrate these with your own examples.

Identify the underlined clauses in the following sentences as a **ranking clause** or **downranked (embedded) clause**. **Explain your answers:**

- 1. The man who refused to wash his hand with alcohol-based sanitizer caught covid-19.
- 2. What the students need to know is the objective of this course.
- 3. Although he hasn't eaten for days as a result of the lockdown, he looks fit.
- 4. Jesus wept.
- 5. Donald Trump, who is the president of USA, is a twitter fan.

WEEK 3: BASIC CONCEPTS IN GRAMMATICAL ANALYSIS

OUTLINE OF LESSON

- ✓ Objectives
- ✓ Required Reading
- ✓ Introduction
- ✓ Grammatical unit
- ✓ Grammatical rank
- ✓ Grammatical class
- ✓ Grammatical function/element
- ✓ Summary
- ✓ Self-Study Questions

OBJECTIVES

By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to:

- ✓ Describe key concepts on which grammatical analysis is based, namely: grammatical unit, rank, grammatical class, and grammatical function/element.
- ✓ Identify the grammatical units, grammatical classes and grammatical functions of underlined constructions.

REQUIRED READING

Downing, A. (2015). *English grammar: A university course (3rd Ed)*. London & New York: Routledge. **Unit 2**

INTRODUCTION

This week's lesson focuses on the basic concepts on which our grammatical analysis is based. These concepts are **the grammatical units** which can be arranged by rank, the grammatical classes into which these units can be divided, and the grammatical elements of which they are composed.

GRAMMATICAL UNITS

A **unit** is “any sequence that constitutes a semantic whole and which has a recognised pattern that is repeated regularly in speech and writing” (Downing, 2015, p.11).

A grammatical unit, hence, conveys meaning and has identifiable grammar.

As we learnt in week 1, there are five (5) grammatical units in English, namely: **Clause, Group, Phrase, Word, Morpheme**. Each of these have a distinct grammatical pattern. E.g. a group has the structure: **(Premodifier) + Head (+Postmodifier)**; and a Phrase has the structure: **minor Predicator + Complement**.

See Example 1 below:

1. COVID-19 is an infectious disease.

The sequence above constitutes a grammatical unit called the **clause** and realises particular grammatical meanings in the language. As a clause, it has the grammatical elements Subject, Predicator and Complement as shown below:

COVID-19	is	an infectious disease
Subject	Predicator	Complement

GRAMMATICAL RANK

The term rank refers to the size of a grammatical unit – i.e. its position on the rank scale.

The idea of rank comes from the understanding that some grammatical units such as the clause are also composed of further units.

A unit that is a constitute of another unit is a lower rank and a unit consisting of other units is a higher rank.

Units on the Rank Scale

Table 8: Units on the Rank Scale

Rank/Unit	Number	Example					
Clause	One clause	<i>COVID-19 is an infectious disease</i>					
Group/phrase	Three groups	<i>COVID-19</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>an infectious disease</i>			
Word	Five words	<i>COVID-19</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>an</i>	<i>infectious</i>	<i>disease</i>	
Morphemes	Six morphemes	<i>COVID-19</i>	<i>is</i>	<i>an</i>	<i>infect</i>	<i>- ious</i>	<i>disease</i>

As indicated above, it can be noted that we can divide any meaningful unit at one rank into smaller units of a different kind at the rank below.

The **group** and **phrase** are of the same rank because they both get their function and meaning in the clause, and each has the word as its immediate constituent.

In the clause below, the noun group, verbal group and prepositional phrase perform equivalent functions of Subject, Predicator and Adjunct in the clause.

Rank/Unit	COVID-19	has been	on the rise
Clause	Subject	Predicator	Complement
Group/phrase	Noun group	Verbal group	Prepositional phrase

GRAMMATICAL CLASS

Every grammatical unit is made up of a number of classes.

We can analyse and assign members of a unit to a particular class based on the common characteristics of the items that make up the class. These characteristics can be identified in four ways:

- 1) their form,
- 2) their function,
- 3) their grammatical environment (position) in a construction, and
- 4) their meaning.

We can identify classes of word (as noun, verb, adjective, adverb, preposition, pronoun, determiner, and conjunction); classes of group/phrase (namely, noun group, verbal group, adverbial group, adjectival group, and prepositional phrase) and classes of clause (such as finite versus non-finite clauses, or independent versus dependent clauses)

Examples of Grammatical Class

We can analyse the clause:

The student was very often quite nervous during the interview; into its classes of group/phrase, and classes of word as follows.

- **Classes of group/phrase:** four classes of groups and a phrase:
 - (1) The student (**noun group**), (2) was (**verbal group**), (3) very often (**Adverbial group**), (4) quite nervous (**Adjectival group**), (5) during the interview (**Prepositional phrase**).
- **Classes of Word:** Ten (10) classes of words:
 - (1) the (**determiner**), (2) student (**noun**), (3) was (**verb**), (4) very (**adverb**), (5) often (**adverb**), (6) quite (**adverb**), (7) nervous (**adjective**), (8) during (**preposition**), (9) the (**determiner**), (10) interview (**noun**).

GRAMMATICAL FUNCTION/ELEMENT

- English grammar is organized not only in terms of classes of units, but also in terms of functions (Subject, Predicator, etc.).
- It is as a group/phrase that each unit functions in the clause. Grammatical function/element refers to the role played by a group/phrase in a particular clause.
- The major grammatical functions/elements in the clause give the abbreviation **SPOCA** – i.e. **S**ubject, **P**redicator, **O**bject, **C**omplement, and **A**djunct.
- The **Predicator (P)** is realised by a verbal group.
- The **Subject (S)** is realised by a noun group and is the element we are talking about in the clause.
- The **Object (O)** is realised by a noun group, and denotes the person or thing affected by the action or state denoted by the *P*.
- **Complement (C)** is realised by a noun group or an adjectival group and characterises or identifies the Subject or the Object.
- **Adjunct (A)** is realised by an adverbial group or a prepositional phrase, and tells us circumstances like *when, where, how* or *why* the event happens).
- **SPOCA** are functions within the clause and they correspond to groups/phrases.
- Compare these two sentences. How do they differ in meaning?
 - 1) The police attacked the armed robbers.
 - 2) The armed robbers attacked the police.

In sentence (1), the police are the ones doing the attacking, whereas, in sentence (2), the police are the ones being attacked.

It can be noted that the same **noun group**, the police, performs a different grammatical **function** in each sentence:

- 1) *The police attacked the armed robbers. [Subject]*
- 2) *The armed robbers attacked the police. [Object]*

Consider Example (3) below:

- 3) The student was very often quite nervous during the interview.

Based on each group/phrase in Example 3, we can distinguish the different grammatical functions/elements of the clause:

Types of group/phrase	<i>Nominal group (NG)</i>	<i>Verbal group (VG)</i>	<i>Adverbial group (Adv. G)</i>	<i>Adjectival group (Adj. G)</i>	<i>Prepositional phrase (Pp)</i>
	The student	was	very often	quite nervous	during the interview
Clause functions	Subject	Predicator	Adjunct	Complement	Adjunct

Identifying Grammatical Rank/Unit, Class, and Function of Underlined Constructions

Identify the grammatical rank/unit, class, and function of these underlined constructions

1. They waited outside for ages.
 - a. **Grammatical rank/unit:** Phrase
 - b. **Grammatical class:** Prepositional phrase
 - c. **Grammatical function:** Adjunct
2. I kept a copy of the letter in my desk.
 - a. **Grammatical rank/unit:** Group
 - b. **Grammatical class:** Noun group
 - c. **Grammatical function:** Object

SUMMARY

- ✓ The grammar of English is organized around four building blocks called grammatical units/ranks, namely: morpheme, word, group/phrase, and clause.
- ✓ Each grammatical rank/unit can further be divided into its further classes – e.g. finite clause, non-finite clause; noun group, verbal group, etc.
- ✓ Grammatical function/element refers to what the group/phrase does in the clause.
- ✓ Functions such as Subject, Predicator, Object, Adjunct, etc. are realised at clause rank.

SELF-STUDY QUESTIONS

1. Explain each of these concepts
 - a) Grammatical unit
 - b) Grammatical rank
 - c) Grammatical class
 - d) Grammatical function

2. Tell the grammatical unit/rank, grammatical class and grammatical function/element of these underlined constructions
 - a) In the end, the choice became pretty clear.
 - b) In the end, the choice became pretty clear.
 - c) One of his friends called a doctor.
 - d) The boss is in his office.
 - e) They left the country last week.

3. Label the functional constituents of these clauses:
 - a) She quickly realised her mistake.
 - b) They waited outside for ages.
 - c) The election campaign has started.
 - d) Many people are painting their houses white.
 - e) In the end, the choice became pretty clear.

4. “SPOCA are functions within the clause and they correspond to groups/phrases.” With appropriate illustrations, discuss this statement.

WEEK 4: CLASSES OF CLAUSES (1); FINITE & NON-FINITE CLAUSES

OUTLINE OF LESSON

- ✓ Objectives
- ✓ Required Reading
- ✓ Introduction: Structural characteristics of a clause
- ✓ Finite and non-finite clauses
- ✓ The finite clause
- ✓ The non-finite Clause
- ✓ Forms of the non-finite Clause
- ✓ Structural properties of the non-finite Clauses
- ✓ Summary
- ✓ Self-Study Questions

OBJECTIVES

At the end of the lesson, the student will be able to:

- ✓ identify the structural characteristics of a clause
- ✓ differentiate between finite and non-finite clauses
- ✓ discuss the forms of the non-finite clauses
- ✓ identify finite and non-finite clauses in sentences
- ✓ Construct at least four (4) sentences using finite and non-finite clauses

REQUIRED READING

Downing, A. (2015). *English Grammar: A University Course (3rd edn.)*. London & New York, NY: Routledge. Chapter 2, (2.4.1 Classes of clauses, A. Finite and non-finite clauses)

INTRODUCTION: STRUCTURAL CHARACTERISTICS OF A CLAUSES

In the previous weeks, we have defined the clause according to the rank scale, characterizing it as the highest grammatical rank and analyzable into lower ranks.

In terms of structure, we can define the clause as any construction which is analyzable into one or more *clausal elements* (e.g. Subject, Predicator, Object, etc.) and normally has a verbal group in its structure.

The following constructions are all clauses:

1. I am coming home.

2. To be a man
3. Flying aeroplanes

We can analyze them as follows:

1. I / am / coming / home. (**Subj. + Finite + Pred. + Adjunct**)
2. To be / a man. (**Predicator + Complement**)
3. Flying / aeroplanes. (**Predicator + Object**)

How many clauses are in the following text?

Identify each clause and write down your answers for discussion with your tutor:

“After finishing a raft of exercise focusing on clause-chunking, I realized that there isn’t a definite right or wrong analysis of English grammar. Different grammar can be used on different occasions. However, I did find out several principles that are commonly applied in clause-chunking.” (*from a Learning Journal by Ruby*)

CLASSES OF CLAUSES ACCORDING TO STRUCTURE

By analyzing structural characteristics of a clause (i.e. according to the form of the verb), we arrive at three main classes, namely:

1. finite clause,
2. non-finite clause, and
3. verbless clause.

This week’s lesson focuses on finite and non-finite clauses.

FINITE AND NON – FINITE CLAUSES

There are many class distinctions that can be made at the rank of a clause. One of these distinctions is between:

- a) Finite clause; and
- b) Non-finite clause.

It should be noted that the verbal element is central to the clause and the status of the clause (as finite or non-finite) is dependent on the form of the verb chosen.

THE FINITE CLAUSE

A finite clause is a main clause or a subordinate clause that has a finite verb.

A finite verb is a verb that indicates tense (i.e. past or present) or modality.

Consider the underlined clauses (where (1) is a main clause and (2) a subordinate clause) below:

1. She writes books.

(**Note:** the verb is present, and the subject *She* agrees in number with the verb *writes*. They are both third person singular)

2. He said that he loves me.

(**Note:** the verb “*loves*” is present, and the subject *he* agrees in number with the verb)

Examples of Finite Clauses

Examples of Finite clauses are underlined below

Main clauses

1. The fishermen are mending their net.
2. We dined at a cheap restaurant.
3. She must be feeling sick.
4. I was watching TV.

Subordinate clauses

5. That you don't like yoghurt surprises me.
6. I am sure that things will get better.
7. That is why I came here.

Please identify the finite verbs in the highlighted clauses for discussion with your tutor

THE NON – FINITE CLAUSE

Non-finite clauses have no finite verbs (i.e. no ‘tensed verb’ or no modal verb). That is, they are clauses that do not express person, tense, or modality.

In other words, they are clauses that do not indicate the past or present tense and/or number and modality.

FORMS OF NON – FINITE CLAUSE

Non-finite clauses manifest in four different ways depending on the form of the verb group:

1. To-infinitive clause
2. Bare infinitive clause
3. – ing participle clause
4. – ed or – en participle clause

The To – Infinitive Non – Finite Clause

With the to-infinitive clause, the verb comes after the word “to”. Examples are highlighted below:

1. They want **to hire a caravan**.
2. We wanted **to go to the seaside**.
3. John believes **the prisoner to be innocent**.
4. **Kids like to play on computers**.
5. **I am going to the cinema to watch a play**.

The –ing Participle Non – Finite Clause

The **-ing participle clause** is also called present participle clause.

In this clause, the verb ends in **-ing** and there is no tensed verb before the participle. Examples are highlighted below:

1. **Overtaking a moving vehicle** is more dangerous.
2. You are the only one capable of **solving the problem**.
3. I have a brother **living in Accra**.
4. We found Ann **sitting in the garden**.
5. **Eating his dinner**, he read through a magazine.

The –ed Participle Non – Finite Clause

The **-ed** or **-en** participle clause is also called past participle clause. In this clause, the past participle form of the verb is used. Examples are highlighted below:

1. **Excited by the news**, Dora shouted for joy.
2. **Supported by the World Bank**, Ghana overcame the COVID-19 pandemic.
3. **Trained as an acrobat since young**, she has amazed audiences with her superb skills.

NOTE: The verb form in the **-ed** or **-en** participle clause does not always end in **-ed** or **-en**. This is because some verbs are irregular.

Examples are highlighted below:

1. **Taken three times a day**, these pills should clear the rash.
2. **Given another chance**, he apologized for his misdeeds.
3. The invitations were sent, **written by hand**.

The Bare Infinitive Non – Finite Clause

With this type of non-finite clause, the verb is in its *bare form*. Examples are highlighted below:

1. Kyei helped her **carry her bags upstairs**.
2. Can you help him **do his homework**?
3. Nobody made me **do it**.
4. We didn't see them **walk in the street**.
5. All I did was **turn on the light**.

STRUCTURAL PROPERTIES OF NON – FINITE CLAUSE

The non-finite clauses:

- can appear with or without subject;
- can appear with or without a subordinator;
- do not contain modals;
- can take an auxiliary 'have' in the *-ing or infinitive forms* (e.g. *Having spoken to him, my friend accepted to go.*);
- can be in the passive form; and
- are usually embedded or non-embedded subordinate clauses.

SUMMARY

- ✓ The finite clauses have finite verb forms while the non-finite clauses have non-finite verb forms.
- ✓ A **finite** verb form typically inflects for tense or indicates modality while a **non-finite** verb form does not.
- ✓ There are four main types of non-finite clauses:
 1. **to-infinitive clause**
 2. **bare infinitive participle clause**
 3. **-ing participle clause**
 4. **-ed participle clause**

SELF – STUDY QUESTIONS

1. Name the three main classes of clauses according to the form of the verb.
2. With appropriate examples, distinguish between finite and non-finite clauses.
3. With appropriate illustrations, discuss the forms of non-finite clauses.

4. State whether the underlined expression is a finite or a non-finite clause:
- a) I had a farm in Hohoe at the foot of Mount Afadja.
 - b) We are taking an online class.
 - c) They arrived home to find that the house had been burgled.
 - d) Anyone knowing his whereabouts should contact the police.
 - e) I'm afraid asking for special consideration won't do any good.

WEEK 5: THE VERBLESS CLAUSE

OUTLINE OF LESSON

- ✓ Objectives
- ✓ Required Reading
- ✓ Introduction
- ✓ The Term Verbless Clause
- ✓ Structure of the Verbless Clause
- ✓ Features of the Verbless Clause
- ✓ Summary
- ✓ Self-study Questions

OBJECTIVES

By the end of the lesson, the student will be able to:

- ✓ explain a verbless clause. (NTS 2c)
- ✓ identify the structure of verbless clauses in context. (NTS 3e)
- ✓ construct at least *five* sentences using verbless clauses.
- ✓ state the features of verbless clauses.

REQUIRED READING

Downing, A. (2014). *English Grammar: A University Course. (3rd edn.)* London & New York: Routledge. Pages 12-13.

INTRODUCTION

In Week 4, we discussed finite and non-finite clauses.

Please have a quick review on the difference between finite and non-finite clauses before you proceed.

This week's lesson focuses on the verbless clause (i.e. clauses with elliptical elements, esp. the verbal group).

VERBLESS CLAUSE

A verbless clause is a clause which lacks a verb (and often a subject also). The omitted verb is typically a form of *be* and is recoverable from the situational or linguistic context. The verb element is not present but implied. An example is the underlined clause in the sentence below:

1. **Whether right or wrong**, he always comes off worst in arguments.

Here, the omitted verb can be recovered, as in: *Whether **he is** right or wrong ...*

2. Book your tickets well in advance, **whenever possible**.

The verb can be recovered, as in *whenever **it is** possible*.

Exercise:

Recover the omitted verb in the underlined verbless clause below:

While at University of Cape Coast, he was active in the society.

Verbless clauses can sometimes be treated as reduction of non-finite clauses. Consider the examples below:

1. **Too nervous to reply**, he stared at the floor.

In (1), the verbless clause, “too nervous to reply” can be expanded into the non-finite clause *Being too nervous to reply...*

2. **In police grips**, the students learnt their lessons.

In (2), the verbless clause, “In police grips” can be expanded into the non-finite clause *Being in police grips*

Sometimes the verbless clause can consist of just one lexical item. The other elements are ellipted. See (3) and (4) below. The corresponding full clauses are in brackets:

3. **Amazed**, he left the scene. (*Being amazed ...*)
4. **Hungry**, Mary ate the food with joy. (*Being hungry..., or As she was hungry ...*)

STRUCTURE OF THE VERBLESS CLAUSE

From the syntactic point of view, verbless clauses fall into **two** classes, namely: (1) independent and (2) dependent verbless clauses.

- Independent verbless clauses can stand on their own and make meaning. See the clauses highlighted in **red** below:

1. **Now to the business**. (*Now, **let's get down** to the business/Now let's return to the business*)
2. **Really delicious!** (***It is** really delicious/**it tastes** really delicious*)

- Dependent verbless clauses are part of a large syntactic unit. Examples are highlighted in **red** below. The corresponding full clauses are in brackets:

1. **If in doubt**, contact your local safety officer. (***If you are** in doubt ...*)

2. **Whenever possible**, the public should be informed about dangerous conditions on the roads. (*Whenever it is possible ...*)
3. **Once inside the building**, the police lost no time in arresting the thieves. (*Once they were inside the building ...*)

FEATURES OF THE VERBLESS CLAUSE

- It lacks a verbal element completely.
- Its meaning is dependent on the implied verbal element, which is often “**be**”.
- It has the meaning of a clause and can be analysed into one or more **clausal elements** such as Subject, Complement, Adjunct etc.
- It can be formed with one lexical item only.
- Note that the verbless clause can still be analysed into clausal elements. For example, each of the verbless clauses below are introduced by a conjunction and consist of only Adjunct:
 1. **If in doubt ...**
 2. **Whenever possible ...**
 3. **Once inside the building ...**

SUMMARY

- ✓ The English verbless clause is a clause whose verbal element (and often its Subject too) are ellipped.
- ✓ The ellipped verb element is typically a form of *be* and is recoverable from the situational or linguistic context.
- ✓ Verbless clauses can sometimes be treated as reduction of non-finite clauses.
- ✓ Verbless clauses can be analysed into clausal elements.

SELF-STUDY QUESTIONS

1. Underline the verbless clauses in the following sentences:
 - i. He learnt a great deal about electricity while in the army.
 - ii. Taken daily, vitamin pills can improve your health.
 - iii. Not very happy with the results, he said nothing to Ama.
 - iv. You have to come to our party next Sunday, whether busy or not.

2. Construct two (2) sentences and underline the verbless clause in each.
3. With examples, explain why the verbless clause is considered a clause although it has no verbal element in its structure.
4. Rewrite the highlighted verbless clauses into full clauses and identify their clausal elements:
 - i. **Afraid**, he ran away from the crime scene.
 - ii. **His duty completed**, he had three months' leave.
 - iii. **The long journey over**, we relaxed in the warm sunshine.
 - iv. **Whether here or not**, his application will have to be considered.

WEEK 6: NOMINAL CLAUSE (1); THE *THAT* NOMINAL CLAUSE

OUTLINE OF THE LESSON

- ✓ Introduction
- ✓ Objectives
- ✓ Required reading
- ✓ Key terms
- ✓ Defining nominal clauses
- ✓ Types of nominal clauses
- ✓ *that*-nominal clause
- ✓ form
- ✓ functions
- ✓ Summary
- ✓ Self-study questions and Class Project

OBJECTIVES

By the end of this lesson, the student will be able to:

- ✓ explain the term nominal clause.
- ✓ identify the types of nominal clauses.
- ✓ explain the form of the *that*-nominal clause.
- ✓ discuss the functions of the *that*-nominal clause.

REQUIRED READINGS

- ✓ Quirk, R. & Greenbaum, S. (1973). *A university grammar of English*. Essex: Longman. (pp. 316-322)
- ✓ Thompson, G. (2014). *Introducing functional grammar* (3rd ed.). New York & London: Routledge. (pp. 14-26)

INTRODUCTION

In Weeks 4 and 5, we examined classes of clauses based on their form or structure.

We arrived at three classes: finite, non-finite and verbless. We indicated that the distinctive character of the verbless clause is that its verbal element is ellipped.

In this and the following weeks, we will be examining types of clauses based on their functions.

A NOMINAL CLAUSE

A nominal clause is a rankshifted (or embedded) clause which performs functions normally associated with the noun group. We derive the word '**nominal**' from the word '**noun**'.

Can you recall some of the functions of the noun group? Please write two of them down in your notebook for discussion.

Table 9: Defining a Nominal Clause

What we know already	is not	important	now
Subject	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct
Nominal clause	Verbal group	Adjectival group	Adverbial group

Note: *What we know already* is a clause, and it functions as Subject within another clause. Since Subject is a function typically associated with the noun group, *what we know already* is a nominal clause in this context.

I	heard	that you passed the paper.
Subject	Predicator	Object
Noun group	Verbal group	Nominal clause

Note: *that you passed the paper* is a clause, and it functions as Object within another clause. Since Object is a function typically associated with the noun group, *that you passed the paper* is a nominal clause in this context.

Consider the examples explained in the tables again:

1. **What we know already** is not important now.
2. I heard **that you passed the paper**.

Can you explain why the constructions highlighted are clauses? Why will you say that they are rankshifted (or embedded)?

A nominal clause can be **finite** (1) or **non-finite** (2). Therefore, when you identify a nominal clause, you also have to state whether it is finite (1) or non-finite (2):

1. **What I ate** is not your concern.

2. **What to eat** is the problem now.

TYPES OF NOMINAL CLAUSES

We can identify five main types of nominal clauses in English, and they are distinguished based on their *form*. Note that they all share similar *functions*; that is why they are called nominal clauses:

- *that*-nominal clause
- *wh*-nominal clause
- nominal relative clause
- infinitive nominal clause
- bare-infinitive nominal clause
- *to*-infinitive nominal clause
- *-ing* nominal clause

This lesson focuses on the that-nominal clause.

THAT – NOMINAL CLAUSE

- The *that*-nominal clause is normally introduced by the subordinator *that*:
 1. **That they are good students** is true.
Subject *Finite/Pred.* *Complement*
 2. My fear is **that the semester will be a difficult one.**
Subject *Finite/Pred.* *Complement*
- The *that*-nominal clause is always a finite clause.

FUNCTIONS OF THE THAT-NOMINAL CLAUSE

that-nominal clauses can function as:

- Subject
- Object
- subject Complement
- Complement of an adjective

- **Subject**

that-nominal clauses are highlighted:

1. *That she is still alive* is a consolation.
2. *That the sun rises from the east* is a fact.
3. *That men are stronger than women* is arguable.
4. *That tramadol abuse is on the increase* is surprising.

- **Direct Object**

The *that*-nominal clause can function as direct object:

1. I believe *that he was wrong*.
2. We know *that help will come*.
3. She noted *that it was good to abstain*.
4. They observed *that they were being pampered*.

- **Subject Complement**

The *that*-nominal clause can also occur as (subject) Complement:

1. The theory is *that child development proceeds in stages*.
2. His facial expression seems *that he has been disappointed*.
3. The offence is *that she insulted the husband*.
4. It appears *that she left her book on the floor*.

- **Adjective Complement**

The *that* -nominal clause can function as an adjective Complement:

1. I'm sure *that things will improve*.
2. The man is hopeful *that he will get a job*.
3. They are happy *that we have come*.

ZERO THAT-NOMINAL CLAUSE

When the *that*-nominal clause is Object or adjective Complement, the conjunction *that* can *sometimes* be ellipted. In such instances, it is called **zero that-clause**.

Examples:

1. I know (*that*) **my redeemer lives**.
2. They told me (*that*) **my redeemer lives**.

3. It is clear (*that*) he is not coming.
4. I believe (*that*) **Covid-19 is real.**

Note: the brackets mean the conjunction “that” can be ellipped. Also note that we cannot omit *that* in: *I saw that he was leaving:*

I saw he was leaving.

SUMMARY

In this lesson, we have discussed that:

- ✓ Nominal clauses are typically rankshifted clauses that perform functions normally associated with the noun group. e.g. Subject, Object, etc.
- ✓ *that*-nominal clauses are introduced by the conjunction *that*.
- ✓ The conjunction *that* can **sometimes** be ellipped when the *that*-nominal clause is Object.
- ✓ *that*-nominal clauses perform the following functions: **Subject, (direct) Object, subject Complement, adjective Complement.**

SELF STUDY QUESTIONS

1. Identify the functions of the *that*-nominal clauses highlighted in the following sentences:
 - a) It is clear **that she’s not accepting her boyfriend back.**
 - b) This assumption, **that COVID-19 is a devilish disease,** is unfounded.
 - c) **That we must improve our personal hygiene in this period** is important.
 - d) I saw **that he was leaving the room.**
 - e) I know **he’s not a fool.**
 - f) The assertion **that all men all equal** is arguable.

CLASS PROJECT

Find out the circumstances in which the conjunction *that* can be ellipped in Object position and the circumstances in which it cannot be ellipped in Object position. You can compare examples in the reading materials and also consult the internet.

WEEK 7: NOMINAL CLAUSES (2): WH- & YES-NO INTERROGATIVE NOMINAL CLAUSES

OUTLINE OF THE LESSON

- ✓ Objectives
- ✓ Required reading
- ✓ Key terms
- ✓ Introduction
- ✓ Form and functions of:
 - *wh*-interrogative nominal clauses
 - Yes/No interrogative nominal clauses
- ✓ Summary
- ✓ Self study questions

OBJECTIVES

By the end of the lesson, the student will be able to:

- ✓ explain the form of the *wh*-interrogative nominal clause.
- ✓ discuss the functions of the *wh*-interrogative nominal clause.
- ✓ explain the form of the yes-no interrogative nominal clause.
- ✓ discuss the functions of the yes-no interrogative clause.

REQUIRED READINGS

- ✓ Quirk, R. & Greenbaum, S. (1973). *A University Grammar of English*. Essex: Longman. (pp. 317-319)
- ✓ Thompson, G. (2014). *Introducing functional grammar* (3rd ed.). New York & London: Routledge. (pp. 14-26)

WH-INTERROGATIVE NOMINAL CLAUSE

The *wh*-interrogative nominal clause is introduced by a *wh*-word.

Wh-words include: **‘what, who, which, how, when, why, where, etc.’**

FUNCTIONS OF THE WH-INT. NOMINAL CLAUSE

Wh-interrogative nominal clause can function as:

- Subject
- direct Object
- subject Complement
- prepositional Complement
- adjective Complement

- Subject

- a) ***What you say here*** will be an evidence against you in the courtroom.
- b) ***Why Obed slapped his friend*** still baffles my mind.
- c) ***How the commodity will sell*** depends on the packaging.

- Direct Object

- a) I knew ***what was on your mind.***
- b) Mercy confirmed ***why she took that decision***
- c) The guys wondered ***how they would cope with the online class.***
- d) The police questioned ***where Dede slept in the midst of the covid-19.***
- e) We can't imagine ***what made him do it.***

- Subject Complement

- a) Harmattan season is ***when all trees shed their leaves.***
- b) Mount Calvary was ***where the Saviour was crucified.***
- c) That's ***why most of you people are vulnerable.***
- d) My favourite past experience was ***when I swam in the sea for the first time.***
- e) This is ***what he said.***
- f) The problem is not ***who created the virus, but who will kill it.***

- Prepositional Complement

- a) I wrote about ***how Dela behaved towards me.***
- b) Ansah responded to ***what the media asked him.***
- c) Him lifting of the lockdown depends on ***how we practice social distancing.***
- d) The picnic took place at ***where the dog was killed.***

- e) No one was consulted on *who should have the crown*.

- **Adjectival Complement**

- a) I wasn't certain *whose house I was in*.
b) It was unfortunate *how Covid-19 swept through Accra*.
c) We were not sure *what made Osei reveal the secret*.

YES-NO INTERROGATIVE NOMINAL CLAUSE

The yes-no interrogative nominal clause is introduced by *if* or *whether*:

1. Do you know **if/whether the banks are open?**
2. I wonder **if/whether he doesn't expect too much from her.**

The yes-no interrogative clause can be in a form an alternative question with the structure *if/whether ... not*:

1. I don't know **whether it will rain or be sunny.**
2. I don't care **if your car breaks down or not.**

Only whether can be directly followed by or not:

1. I don't care *whether or not your car breaks down.* (correct)
2. *I don't care *if or not your car breaks down.* (wrong).

If cannot introduce a clause functioning as Subject:

1. **Whether it rains or not** doesn't concern me. (correct)
2. ***If it rains or not** doesn't concern me. (wrong).

FUNCTIONS OF THE YES-NO INT. NOM. CLAUSE

Yes-no interrogative clauses function as:

- Subject
- Object
- Complement
- adjective Complement

- **Subject**

Examples are highlighted below:

1. **Whether or not school reopens** doesn't change anything.
2. **Whether she divorced me or not** is not your concern.

If cannot introduce a clause functioning as Subject:

1. **Whether it rains or not** doesn't concern me. (correct)
2. ***If it rains or not** doesn't concern me. (wrong).

- **Direct Object**

Examples are highlighted below:

1. I don't know *if/whether he is in the room.*
2. We discussed *if/whether he should be allowed to run another term.*
3. I wonder *if/whether he reasons at all.*

- **Indirect Object**

Examples are highlighted below:

1. Efia asked me *if/whether I would be coming to her birthday party.*
2. The doctor questioned me *if/whether I had fever.*

- **Subject Complement**

Examples are highlighted below:

1. The question is *whether we will write our exams in school.*
2. The problem is *whether I will be allowed to write the paper without my ID card.*

- **Adjective Complement**

Examples are highlighted below:

1. I don't care *whether or not your car breaks down.*
2. I'm not sure *if/whether he will accept your explanation.*

SUMMARY

- ✓ This lesson examined two types of nominal clauses:
 1. Wh-interrogative nominal clause
 2. Yes-no interrogative nominal clause.
- ✓ The wh-interrogative nominal clause is introduced by a **wh-word**
- ✓ The *wh*-nominal clause performs the following functions: **Subject, direct Object, subject Complement, prepositional Complement, adjective Complement.**
- ✓ The yes-no interrogative nominal clause is introduced by *if* or *whether*

- ✓ The yes-no interrogative nominal clause performs the following functions: **Subject, direct Object, indirect Object, subject Complement, adjective Complement.**

SELF STUDY QUESTIONS

A. Identify the wh-interrogative nominal clauses in the following sentences and state their functions:

1. What we saw that day was very amazing.
2. The scare of covid-19 is why all students are at home.
3. I believed what Nana Yaa told me last night.
4. We talked about how we could support the covid-19 victims.

B. Provide your own examples to illustrate the following functions of the yes-no interrogative clause:

1. Subject
2. direct Object
3. indirect Object
4. subject Complement
5. adjective Complement

WEEK 8: FORMS AND FUNCTIONS OF NOMINAL CLAUSES; INFINITIVE

NOMINAL CLAUSE (TO-INFINITIVE AND BARE INFINITIVE) & -ING

NOMINAL CLAUSE

OUTLINE OF LESSON

- ✓ Objectives
- ✓ Required reading
- ✓ Key terms
- ✓ Introduction
- ✓ Non-finite nominal clause
 - Infinitive nominal clause (to-infinitive, bare infinitive)
 - -Ing participle clauses.
- ✓ Functions of the nominal infinitive, and -ing participle clauses
- ✓ Summary
- ✓ Self-study questions

LESSON OBJECTIVES

By the end of the lesson, the student should be able to:

- ✓ Identify the structure and functions of infinitive nominal clauses
- ✓ Analyse the structure and functions of -ing participle clauses
- ✓ Write **at least two** functions of to-infinitive, bare infinitive, and -ing participle clauses.
- ✓ Construct **at least three** sentences illustrating to-infinitive, bare infinitive, and -ing participle clauses.

REQUIRED READING

Quirk, R, & Greenbaum, S. (1973). *A University Grammar of English*. London: Longman. (page 316-322)

INTRODUCTION

In Week 6, we discussed the forms and functions of the *that*-nominal clause, *wh*-nominal clause, and the yes-no interrogative clause.

This lesson discusses the structure and functions of the *infinitive* (*to*-infinitive, and *bare* infinitive), and -ing participial nominal clauses. These clauses fall under the umbrella name, “**Non-Finite nominal Clauses.**”

NON-FINITE NOMINAL CLAUSE

A non-finite nominal clause is a clause whose verb element is a non-finite verb phrase.

Non-finite nominal clause includes, *to-infinitive* clause, *bare-infinitive* clause, *-ing* participle clause, and *ed/en* participle clause.

But in this lesson, the focus is on *to-infinitive*, *bare infinitive*, and *-ing* participle clauses

These nominal clauses can function as subject, subject complement, direct object, indirect object, object complement, and prepositional complement.

TO-INFINITIVE NOMINAL CLAUSES

To-infinitive nominal clauses are those that begin with “to-infinitive verb”. The *to-infinitive* clause is highlighted in the following.

1. She wants **to buy some stamps**.
2. He likes **to relax**.
3. **To marry a decent husband** is a blessing.
4. **To err** is human.
5. **To be a responsible person** is not easy.
6. **To succeed in life** demands hard work.

Functions of To-Infinitive Nominal Clauses

To-infinitive nominal clauses can act as:

- Subject
- direct object
- subject complement
- adjectival complement.

- Subject:

1. **To be a good man** is not simple.
2. **To say there is no afterlife** would mean a rejection of religion.
3. **To go out in this COVID-19 period** is suicidal.

- Direct object:

1. He likes **to be happy**.
2. We want **to study hard**.
3. Mary starts **to lace her shoes**.

4. We met **to discuss the issue**.
5. Dora married **to have children**.

- **Subject Complement**

1. Their plan is to escape from here.
2. The minister's first duty will be to stop inflation.
3. What we need to do is to go shopping.
4. He seems to be complaining.
5. She appears to be short.

- **Adjectival complement:**

1. I am glad **to help you**.
2. I will be happy **to help with the arrangements**.
3. The lady was excited **to offer a helping hand**.
4. He is afraid **to reveal the secret**.
5. Abu is too young **to join the army**.

BARE-INFINITIVE NOMINAL CLAUSES

Bare-infinitive clauses are those that begin with “bare-infinitive verbs”. The bare infinitive clause is highlighted in the following.

1. She made me **cry**.
2. **Turn off the tap** was what I did.
3. The driver made her **pay for the luggage**.

Functions of bare-infinitive nominal clauses

Bare - infinitive clauses can function as:

- Subject
- Subject complement
- Object complement

- **Subject:**

1. **Warn him** is the answer.
2. **Turn off the lights** was all I did.
3. **Have breakfast** is what I'll do first.
4. **Stop them** is the best option.

5. **Stay at home** prevents the disease.

- **Subject complement:**

1. My dream is **become a teacher**.
2. All I did was **turn on the lights**.
3. What the team did was **train hard**.
4. My instruction is **start work**.
5. The group's task was **edit slides**.

- **Object complement:**

1. Dora made me **cry**.
2. They helped her **pay for it**.
3. The pastor made the congregant **chew green grass**.
4. The painter made me **buy the yellow paint**.

THE –ING PARTICIPLE NOMINAL CLAUSES

The –ing participle nominal clause is also called the “**participial clause**”.

-Ing participle clauses are clauses that begin with “-ing-participle verb”.

1. **Telling lies** is wrong.
2. She enjoys **playing football**.
3. We like **going to church**.

Functions of the -ing participle nominal clauses

The –ing participle nominal clause can function as:

- Subject
- direct object
- subject complement
- prepositional complement
- adjective complement

- **Subject:**

1. **Teaching him** is a difficult task.
2. **Eating in class** is wrong.
3. **Smoking cigarettes** is harmful to your health.
4. **Driving in a busy street** is dangerous.

- **Direct object:**

1. I love **eating ice cream.**
2. I don't enjoy **reading novels.**
3. He likes **singing.**
4. Women prefer **using fashionable dresses.**
5. Some people like **driving in the night.**

- **Prepositional complement:**

1. I am tired of **working so hard.**
2. I'm fond of **fishing.**
3. I reminded him of **changing the script.**
4. Adwoa is afraid of **accepting his proposal.**

- **Adjective complement:**

1. I am ready **following him.**
2. I was surprised **seeing him.**
3. We are sure **finishing the work on time.**
4. He is always quick **responding to your mails.**

SUMMARY

- ✓ To-infinitive clauses are introduced by “to-infinitive verbs” while bare-infinitive clauses are introduced by “bare infinitive verbs” and -ing participle clauses by “-ing participle verbs”.
- ✓ The *to-infinitive* clause functions as subject, direct object, subject complement, and adjectival complement.
- ✓ The *bare-infinitive* clause functions as subject, subject complement and object complement.
- ✓ The *-ing participle* clause functions as subject, direct object, subject complement, prepositional complement and adjective complement.

SELF-STUDY QUESTIONS

1. What is the non-finite nominal clause?
2. Mention three (3) types of the non-finite nominal clause.
3. Construct two (2) sentences each under the following headings:

- a) *to*-infinitive clause.
 - b) *bare* infinitive clause.
 - c) *-ing* participle clause.
- A. Identify the functions of the clauses highlighted in the following sentences.
1. I am marvelled at **Aku leaving so late.**
 2. The last thing would be **to steal from someone.**
 3. The last thing would be **for Aku to steal from someone.**
 4. **Sleep throughout the night** is the only solution.
 5. I am tired of **being treated like a child.**
- B. Identify the functions (**subject, object, complement, etc.**) of the clauses highlighted in the following sentences.
1. **To be neutral in this situation** is bad.
 2. Your ambition, **to become a teacher**, needs motivation.
 3. I am eager **to meet the tutor.**
 4. They made her **pay for it.**
 5. **Exercising your body** fights the virus.
 6. Our responsibility is **turn off all electrical gadgets.**
 7. She is good at **training every morning.**
- C. Discuss the structure and functions of the *to*-infinitive nominal clauses.
- D. Discuss the structure and functions of the *bare*-infinitive nominal clauses.
- E. Discuss the structure and functions of the *-ing* participle clauses.

WEEK 9: RELATIVE CLAUSE

OUTLINE OF LESSON

- ✓ Objectives
- ✓ Required Readings
- ✓ Key words
- ✓ Introduction
- ✓ The relative clause
- ✓ Restrictive relative clause
- ✓ Non-restrictive relative clause
- ✓ Summary
- ✓ Self-study questions

OBJECTIVES

By the end of the lesson, the student will be able to:

- ✓ explain what a relative clause is.
- ✓ identify relative clauses.
- ✓ distinguish between restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses.
- ✓ explain the functions of relative clauses.

REQUIRED READINGS

Quirk & Greenbaum (1973, pp. 380-384)

INTRODUCTION

In Week 2, we distinguished between ranking and rankshifted/embedded clauses.

In Week 6, we noted that nominal clauses are always rankshifted or embedded clauses.

The relative clause presents a complex situation: while restrictive clauses are embedded/rankshifted, non-restrictive clauses are ranking clauses.

If you have forgotten what rankshifted clauses are, please revise your slides for Week 2 before you proceed.

THE RELATIVE CLAUSE

The relative clause is typically introduced by a relative pronoun (e.g. who, whose) or a conjunctive adverb (e.g. where, when, etc.). For convenience, we will use ‘relative pronoun’ to refer to both words like who, whose and words like where and when.

The relative pronoun normally has an antecedent, i.e. typically a noun that the pronoun has a backwards reference to.

Consider the examples below:

1. The **boy** who stole the watch has been arrested.
2. The **letter** that you wrote was full of errors.
3. The **lady** whose husband travelled has won the scholarship.

In the examples above, each of the clauses highlighted modifies the respective nouns preceding in (1) boy; (2) letter; and (3) lady.

List of relative pronouns

who
whom
whose
which
that

List of conjunctive adverbs in relative clauses

when
where
how

THE ZERO-THAT RELATIVE CLAUSE

When the relative pronoun functions as object in the relative clause, it can be ellipped. This instance of the that-relative clause is called **zero-that relative clause**.

In each of the following examples, that can be ellipped:

- a) The piano (**that**) we bought needs repairs.
- b) The piano we bought needs repairs.
- a) Here is the book (**that**) I borrowed.
- b) Here is the book I borrowed.

RELATIVE CLAUSES INTRODUCED BY CONJUNCTIVE ADVERBS

The antecedent is unique to a particular adverb e.g. **where** can occur with only nouns denoting **place**, **when** with those denoting **time** and **how** with **manner**:

1. I saw him at the place **where I went**.
2. I went to London, **where the Queen lives**.
3. I saw him at the time **when you came in**.
4. Nuro was born in 1983, **when there was so along famine in Ghana**.
5. I don't like the manner **how she talks to you**.

In restrictive relative clauses, the conjunctive adjunct is normally redundant with the antecedent and so is often ellipted. Compare the (a) and (b) sentences:

1. (a) I saw him at the place **where I went**.
(b) I saw him at the place I went.
2. (a) I saw him at the time **when you came in**.
(b) I saw him at the time you came in.
3. (a) I don't like the manner **how she talks to you**.
(b) I don't like the manner she talks to you.

TYPES OF RELATIVE CLAUSES

There are two main types of relative clauses:

1. Restrictive (or defining) relative clause
2. Non-restrictive (or non-defining) relative clause.

RESTRICTIVE RELATIVE CLAUSE

The restrictive relative clause:

- is a rankshifted clause that functions as a post-modifier (or Qualifier) to a noun group.
- identifies/restricts/limits its antecedent.
- cannot be removed from the construction without changing its meaning.
- has a common noun as its antecedent –the antecedent has no unique reference.

Examples of the restrictive relative clause:

1. Every student **who studies hard** passes his or her examinations.
2. The book **which I picked from the library** is very useful.

Compare these to:

3. Every student passes his or her examinations.
4. The book is very useful.

Can you explain in what way the relative clauses in (1) and (2) restrict the meaning of their antecedents?

Elliptical restrictive relative clause: There can be ellipsis of a subject relative pronoun together with the finite verb. E.g. ‘**who are**’ is ellipted in:

1. Students [[**not meeting the equivalent standard of the Undergraduate Degree LCR...**]] will be required to take degree LCR subjects ...

Compare it with the full relative clause below:

2. Students [[**who are not meeting the equivalent standard of the LCR**]] will be required to take additional LCR subjects.

FUNCTION OF RESTRICTIVE RELATIVE CLAUSE

The restrictive relative clause has one function only: it is a post-modifier or Qualifier to its antecedent. The antecedent can be Head of a Subject, Object or Complement noun group:

As a postmodifier to Subject

1. A camera **which has a solid-state image sensor** is a digital camera.
2. The students **who sat for the exams** are successful.

As a postmodifier to Object

1. Fifi married the woman **who sponsored him**.
2. We saw the place **where the gold is**.

As a postmodifier of Complement

1. My sister is the nurse **who trained abroad**.
2. He became the teacher **whom I admire**.

NON-RESTRICTIVE RELATIVE CLAUSE

The non-restrictive relative clause:

- is a ranking subordinate clause –i.e., it does not function as a constituent within the noun group nor the main clause.
- extends the information in the main clause by commenting on either the whole clause or an antecedent in the main clause.
- loosely attaches to the main clause –in speech, it is set off from the main clause as a separate intonation unit, indicated by pauses. In writing, it is set off by commas.
- typically has a proper noun or a noun with some unique reference as its antecedent.

Examples of the non-restrictive relative clause:

1. Kotoka International Airport, **which is located in Accra**, is the premier airport in Ghana.
2. Dr. Kwame Nkrumah, **who is Ghana's first president**, came from Nkroful.
3. Drug abuse, **which is the major cause of mental illness in the world**, is on the rise in Ghana.
4. She was born in 1983, **when there was so much hunger**.

Compare with:

1. Kotoka International Airport is the premier airport in Ghana.
2. Dr. Nkrumah came from Nkroful.
3. Drug abuse is on the rise in Ghana.
4. She was born in 1983.

Observe the use of non-restrictive relative clauses in a conversation between Queen Elizabeth and Lord Chamberlain in 2016 (*The bars indicate clause boundaries*):

Lord Chamberlain: ||| Can I present Commander Lucy D'Orsi, gold commander when the Chinese state visited. |||

Queen: Oh, bad luck.

Lord Chamberlain: ||| And who was seriously, seriously undermined by the Chinese, || but she managed to hold her own || and remain in command. ||| And her mother, Judith, || who's involved in child protection and social work. |||

Comments on the relative clauses in the Queen Elizabeth text

- Each relative clause extends the identity of the person being introduced to the Queen – i.e., it adds to rather than restricts the scope of the noun reference.
- The relative clauses allow intervening elements –note the long pause after Lord Chamberlain's first utterance and the intervening utterance by the Queen before the first relative clause.

Sentential relative clause – a non-restrictive relative clause that comments on a whole clause rather than just on a noun group – e.g.

||| I know how to identify clauses in a text now, || **which is a great achievement.** |||

The relative clause *which is a great achievement* comments on the whole of the preceding clause *I know how to identify clauses in a text now*.

Does the non-restrictive relative clause have a function?

No! The non-restrictive relative clause is **NOT** a constituent of the main clause. It is a subordinate clause which adds new information to the main clause. It is in this sense that it is a ranking clause.

SUMMARY

- ✓ A relative clause is introduced by a relative pronoun, which has an antecedent.
- ✓ There are two main types of relative clauses, namely:
 - i. restrictive clauses
 - ii. non-restrictive clauses
- ✓ A restrictive relative clause:
 - identifies/restricts/limits its antecedent.
 - is a rankshifted clause.
 - serves as a post-modifier or Qualifier to its antecedent.
- ✓ A non-restrictive relative clause:
 - provides additional information about the antecedent or the main clause.
 - is a ranking clause.

SELF-STUDY QUESTIONS

1. What is a relative clause?
2. Identify three differences between a restrictive and non-restrictive relative clause.
3. Identify the relative clause in each of the following sentences and indicate what type of relative clause it is:
 - a) The man I saw just left here.
 - b) They sold the mango that had rotten.
 - c) The pen, which got stolen, has been found.
 - d) Never despise a man who has been anointed.
 - e) The tomb where he laid is now empty.
 - f) Jumping, which is the best exercise, is hard to practise.
4. Give **four (4)** constructions to illustrate non-restrictive relative clauses.

WEEK 10: FACTORS DETERMINING THE CHOICE OF THE RELATIVE

PRONOUN

OUTLINE OF THE LESSON

- ✓ Objectives
- ✓ Required reading
- ✓ Introduction
- ✓ What are relative pronouns?
- ✓ Factors that determine the choice of relative pronouns in relative clauses
- ✓ Summary
- ✓ Self-study questions

OBJECTIVES

By the end of the lesson, the student will be able to:

1. define relative pronouns.
2. identify the factors that determine the choice of a relative pronoun in a relative clause.
3. use relative pronouns appropriately to construct relative clauses.

REQUIRED READING

Quirk, R., & Greenbaum, S. (1973). *A university grammar of English*. London: Longman.

Refer to pages 380-384

INTRODUCTION

In our previous lesson, we looked at relative clauses and the types were identified as restrictive and non-restrictive.

We also identified that relative clauses are introduced by relative pronouns (e.g. who, that) or conjunctive adverbs (i.e. where, when, how).

The present week focuses on the factors that determine the choice of the relative pronoun in relative clauses.

WHAT IS A RELATIVE PRONOUN?

A relative pronoun introduces a relative clause. Below are English relative pronouns:

- that

- whose
- which
- who
- Whom
- Zero-relative pronoun

Examples of Relative Pronouns in Constructions

- 1) This is the tree [[**which** my mother planted]].
- 2) The man [[**whom** you spoke to]] was my father.
- 3) This is the university [[**that** I attended]].
- 4) This is the building [[**which** I bought]].
- 5) The woman [[**whose** husband died]] has remarried.
- 6) The man [[**who** came here]] is my friend.

NOTE: Restrictive relative clauses are indicated by square brackets.

FACTORS DETERMINING THE CHOICE OF RELATIVE PRONOUNS

From the examples above, it is clear that each relative pronoun has a unique function in the sentence and that a different relative pronoun may not perform that function. This means that there are factors that must be considered for the choice of a particular relative pronoun.

With reference to the examples above, can you think of some of these factors?

You can write down your answers in your study book.

The choice of a relative pronoun is determined by:

1. The type of relative clause - i.e. restrictive or non-restrictive.
2. The function of the relative pronoun in the relative clause.
3. The context of situation: formal vs. informal
4. The verb “be” in the relative clause
5. The nature of the antecedent of the relative pronoun, i.e. whether it is human or non-human

(1) THE TYPE OF RELATIVE CLAUSE

The type of relative clause, being restrictive or non-restrictive, determines the choice of the relative pronoun.

- ▶ The relative pronouns **who**, **whom**, **which**, **whose** are used in **both** restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses:

1. We invited a man [[**who** is a scammer]]. (restrictive)
2. I interviewed Jimmy, **who** was troubled about the loss of his pet. (non-restrictive)
3. The mansion [[**which** I admire]] collapsed last night. (restrictive)
4. The lawyer married the mentally retarded woman, || **which** baffles my mind. (non-restrictive: sentential)
5. The individuals [[**whose** homes got flooded]] were relocated to the government hostel. (restrictive)
6. We met Lincoln, || **whose** uncle built the isolation facility. (non-restrictive)

Note: The bars (||) indicate the boundary between a non-restrictive relative clause and the main clause

► The relative pronoun “that” is used in only restrictive relative clauses:

1. (a) The man [[**that** is dead]] was my neighbour.
(b) *Mr. Wilson, that is dead, was my neighbour. (**wrong**)
1. (a) The vehicle [[**that** John stole]] has been found.
(b) *Mercedes Benz, that is an expensive car, is my favourite car. (**wrong**)

Note: by convention, an asterisk (*) against an example means the example is wrong.

(2) THE FUNCTION OF THE RELATIVE PRONOUN IN THE RELATIVE CLAUSE.

► **Subject: Who, which, and that** can be used as Subject of the relative clause:

- **Who** as subject:
 - People [[**who** visit me]] are mostly my friends.
 - Ekua, **who** works at DORSU, is looking for you.
- **Which** as Subject
 1. The dog [[**which** came here]] is my neighbour’s.
 2. The Cape Coast Castle, **which** was built by the British, is well fortified.
- **That** as Subject
 - The man [[**that** you work for]] is looking for you.
 - The dog [[**that** came here]] is my neighbour’s.

► When the relative pronoun is **Subject** of the relative clause, it cannot be ellipted. Consider the example below:

1. The boy [[**who** came first in the quiz]] was my good friend.

- ▶ The subject in the relative clause is the relative pronoun “Who”. Ellipting the relative pronoun in the relative clause will render the sentence ungrammatical:

*The boy came first in the quiz was my good friend.

- ▶ **Object:** *whom, which, and that* can be used as Object:

- **Whom** Object as:

1. The woman [[**whom** I met at the party]] comes from my hometown.
2. Paul, **whom** the teacher awarded, performed very well.

- **Which** as Object:

1. The car [[**which** I bought]] is a Toyota brand.
2. The Eifel Tower, **which** I have seen before, is a great monument.

- **That** as Object:

- People [[**that** I visit]] are mostly my friends.
- The man [[**that** you work for]] is looking for you.

- ▶ **Prepositional Complement:** *whom and which* are used as prepositional Complement:

- The dog [[which I gave the bone to]] is my friend’s pet.
- The bus [by which I came here] is very comfortable.
- The Registrar, to whom the letter was addressed, is the Secretary of Council.
- The woman [[through whom we sent the parcel to Angela]] lives in Hamele.

- ▶ **Possessive:** *whose* is used as the only possessive relative pronoun:

- The woman [[**whose** fish we bought]] is from Elmina.
- That car [[**whose** tire is burst]] is a Toyota brand.
- Mr. Mensah, **whose** daughter is in our school, has been elected Vice Chairman.

(3) CONTEXT OF SITUATION: FORMALITY

- ▶ In formal written English, it is considered inappropriate to use the zero-relative pronoun:

1. The chemist did not have the medication that I wanted. (formal)
2. The chemist did not have the medication I wanted. (informal)

NOTE: Thus, the use of the zero-relative pronoun is a marker of informality in written English.

- ▶ In **informal** English, especially in speech, we can use the pronoun **who**, instead of **whom** or **that**, as Object:

1. The woman [[**who** we saw at the bank]] is a distinguished business woman. **(informal)**
2. The man [[**whom** we saw at the bank]] is a distinguished businessman. **(formal)**

3. The woman [[**that** we saw at the bank]] is a distinguished business woman.
(very formal)

NOTE: **that** is the most formal and historically oldest of all the relative pronouns.

(4) THE VERB “*BE*” IN THE RELATIVE CLAUSE

When the verb in the relative clause is a form of the verb “*be*”, the pronoun is either “**that**” or **zero (∅) relative pronoun** as in:

1. Sam is no longer the man [[*that* he *was*]].
2. Sam is no longer the man [[*he was*]].

► The relative clause contains “was”, which is a form of the verb “be” so it requires the relative pronoun ‘that’, or a zero relative pronoun.

NB: Forms of the verb “**Be**” – **am, is, are, was, were**, etc.

(5) THE NATURE OF THE ANTECEDENT – i.e. AS HUMAN OR NON-HUMAN

- **Who/whom/that** is usually preferred when the antecedent refers to a person (human).
- **Whose/that** can be used for both *human and non-human* antecedents.
- **Which** is preferred when the antecedent is non-human.

Consider the examples below:

1. All the new students [[**who** reported yesterday]] have been duly registered.
2. This is Yukie, my lovely cat, || **whose** offspring was sold.
3. The shoe [[**which** Kwame wore]] became very dirty.
4. The food [[**that** my sister served]] was delicious.

SUMMARY

In summary, the choice of a relative pronoun is determined by:

1. The type of relative clause – restrictive or non-restrictive.
2. The function of the relative pronoun in the relative clause.
3. The context of situation: formal or informal.
4. The use of the verb “be” in the relative clause.
5. The nature of the antecedent of the relative pronoun, whether it is human or non-human.

SELF STUDY QUESTIONS

For each of the sentence below, (a) underline the relative clause, and (b) identify the function of the relative pronoun in the relative clause:

1. The opposition party lost one of their leaders recently, which is sad.
2. I have now seen the gentleman whom you were talking about.
3. The gift that he bought for me has been stolen.
4. The gentleman that entered the room appeared strange.
5. The girl who I met today was very lovely.
6. The one of whom I speak is greater than me.
7. I saw the boy whose mother came around.
8. She has a book which can give you all you need for your assignment.
9. The hoe which my Dad brought from the farm needs cleaning.
10. The teacher to whom you gave the money is the form mistress.

WEEK 11: OVERVIEW OF ADVERBIAL CLAUSES: FORMS AND MEANINGS

OUTLINE OF LESSON

- ✓ Objectives
- ✓ Readings
- ✓ Keywords
- ✓ Introduction
- ✓ Adverbial clause defined
- ✓ Form of the adverbial clause
- ✓ Position of the adverbial clause
- ✓ Types of adverbial clauses
- ✓ Conclusion
- ✓ Self-study questions

OBJECTIVES

By the end of the lesson, the student will be able to:

- a. define adverbial clause.
- b. identify the forms/types of adverbial clauses in discourse.
- c. explain the meanings of different adverbial clauses.
- d. use adverbial clauses in sentences.

READINGS

- **Required readings**
 - Quirk & Greenbaum (1973, pp.334-341)
 - Downing (2014, pp. 262-266)
- **Further readings**
 - Thompson, S.A., Longacre, R.E. & Hwang, S.J.J. (2007, pp. 237-300). Adverbial clauses (vol. 2). Available on ResearchGate
 - Wiredu, J. F. (1999, pp.38-46). Organised English structure. Accra: Academic Publications.
 - Wiredu, J. F. (1998, pp. 66-69). Organised English grammar. Accra: Academic Publications.

INTRODUCTION

Observe the answers to the question below:

When did you submit the assignment?

- A. yesterday
- B. after lunch
- C. before I ate lunch

Would you say that the answers are appropriate?

Yes! They are all correct and appropriate in spite of their different structures.

They all answer the question “when?”, which indicates time of submission of the assignment.

Read on!

We note that:

‘A’ is a word; an adverb of time (*yesterday*)

‘B’ is a prepositional phrase functioning as Adjunct (*after lunch*)

‘C’ is an adverbial clause of time (*before I ate lunch*)

Can you guess why ‘C’ is a clause?

Yes. Because it has its own Subject, ‘I’ and, a Finite/Predicator, ‘ate’, and an Object, ‘lunch’.

i.e. it can be analyzed into **clausal elements**.

So, the structure can be illustrated as follows:

Main clause (ranking clause)	Adverbial clause (ranking clause)
I submitted the assignment	before I ate lunch.

before	I	ate	lunch
subordinate conjunction	Subject	Finite/ Predicator	Object

Main clause	Adverbial clause (purpose)
John talked carefully	in order that he appears fair

in order that	he	appears	fair
Subordinate conjunction	subject	verb	complement

ADVERBIAL CLAUSE DEFINED

An adverbial clause, therefore:

- is a dependent/subordinate clause that enhances the meaning of the main clause.
- indicates the circumstance associated with the main clause e.g. time, place, condition, etc.
- is similar to adverbs which explains why it is called ‘adverbial’ clause.
- is a ranking clause because. i.e. unlike, adverbs, the adverbial clause does not function as a constituent of the main clause. It is a subordinate clause that enhances or modifies the meaning of the whole of the main clause.

FORM OF THE ADVERBIAL CLAUSE

The adverbial clause can either be:

- **a finite clause introduced by a subordinator.**
 - (1) He came to the world so that you may have life.
- **a non-finite clause without a subordinator.**
 - (2) He came to the world to give you life.
 - (3) I will come to your room, depending on the time.
- **a non-finite clause introduced by a subordinator.**
 - (4) He came to the world in order to give you life.

FORM OF THE ADVERBIAL CLAUSE – SUBORDINATORS

Simple conjunctions	Conjunctive groups	Complex conjunctions		
		Derived from verbs	Containing a noun	Adverbial
when, whenever, where, whenever, because, if, unless, until, while, as, though/ although	as if, as though, even if, even though, even when, soon after, no sooner ... than	Provided (that), granted (that), considering (that), seeing (that), supposing (that), so (that)	in case, to the extent that, in spite of the fact that	as/ so long as, as soon as, so/ as far as, as much as, inasmuch as, now that

POSITION OF THE ADVERBIAL CLAUSE

- The adverbial clause can occur in initial (1), medial (2), or final (3) position of the main clause. (The medial position is less frequent):
 - 1) When mangoes are ripe, they taste sweet.
 - 2) Mangoes taste sweet when they are ripe.
 - 3) Mangoes, when ripe, taste sweet.
- As in (3), the Subject and verbal unit in a finite adverbial clause can be ellipted so that the result is a verbless adverbial clause. Compare (3) with (4) below:
 - 4) Mangoes, when they are ripe, taste sweet.

TYPES OF ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

Adverbial clauses may describe how an action is done, the time of the action, place where an action takes place, how often an action is performed, or to what extent an action is carried or an attribute is perceived to be.

This situation gives rise to the various types of adverbial clauses

ADVERBIAL CLAUSE OF TIME

It indicates the time of an action and is introduced by subordinators such as **when, before, as soon as**, etc.

Main clause	Adverbial clause
I will go to school	when the restrictions are lifted.

Main clause (ranking clause)	Adverbial clause (ranking clause)
Dan, the aspiring MP, became upset	as soon as he saw the filling fee.

Adverbial clause (ranking)	Main clause (ranking)
Before he arrived,	We had already gone home.

ADVERBIAL CLAUSE OF MANNER

It answers the question 'how?' It is normally introduced by 'as'.

Adverbial clause	Main clause
As the president directed,	they closed down schools.

Main clause	Adverbial clause
Johnetta spoke	as her mother taught her to.

ADVERBIAL CLAUSE OF PLACE

It indicates the place where an action takes place and is normally introduced by **where** or **wherever**

Main clause	Adverbial clause
I will meet you	where the woman sells the waakye.

ADVERBIAL CLAUSE OF REASON

It gives reason or cause for an action and answers the question ‘why’?

It is introduced by **because, as, since, due to**, etc.

Adverbial clause	Main clause
Because it was raining,	I stayed at home.

ADVERBIAL CLAUSE OF CONCESSION

It shows contrast between two circumstances.

The main clause is surprising in the light of the dependent one.

The clause is introduced mainly by **though, although, even though**.

Adverbial clause (concession)	Main clause
Although Nora is only seven years old,	she can easily pass for ten.

Adverbial clause (concession)	Main clause
Though Awedoba left home early,	he missed the bus.

ADVERBIAL CLAUSE OF PURPOSE

This clause provides information about the expected result of an action.

The clause is usually introduced by **in order that, so that, so as to**

Main clause	Adverbial clause (purpose)
I went to hospital,	so that I could meet my doctor.

Main clause	Adverbial clause (purpose)
He studied hard,	in order that he could pass the exams.

ADVERBIAL CLAUSE OF CONDITION

It usually contains a particular condition which must be fulfilled before another action can take place.

It is mostly introduced by **'if'**.

Main clause	Adverbial clause (condition)
You will pass the exams,	If you study hard.

CONCLUSION

- The adverbial clause is a non-embedded subordinate clause that enhances the meaning of the main clause by indicating associated circumstances.
- The adverbial clause can be a finite clause introduced by a subordinator or a non-finite clause with or without a subordinator.
- A verbless adverbial clause is an elliptical finite adverbial clause.
- The adverbial clause can occur in initial, medial or final position in relation to the main clause.
- There are different types of adverbial clauses, depending on the subordinator used and the kind of meaning the clause indicates.

SELF-STUDY QUESTIONS

A. Identify the adverbial clauses in the sentences below and indicate their type.

1. When Ghana recorded the first covid-19 case, the President directed schools to be closed.
2. As the boys rushed into the road, the driver stopped the car.
3. In order to succeed in life, one must work hard.
4. If you come early, we will close early.
5. Though Jane is poor, she likes to shop in expensive shops.
6. The meeting was held where we met the last time.
7. I submitted the work late because I was unwell.
8. The boy ironed his shirt so he looks smart.
9. You will win the contest if you practise enough.
10. After the children slept, their mother washed the clothes.

B. Form one sentence for each of the following forms of adverbial clauses:

1. Time
2. Place
3. Reason
4. Purpose
5. Concession
6. Result
7. Condition