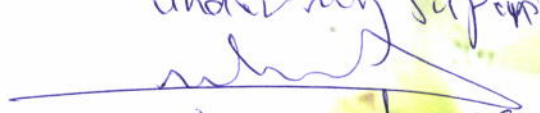University of Diyala

College of Education for Humanities

Department of English language

I certify that this paper has been done under my supervision

Mohammed essa

THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN

COORDINATION & SUBORDINATION

By:

Arshad R. Mahmood

&

Yousif A. Ahmed

Supervised by :

Asst. Inst. Mohammed E. Alwan

2016 A.D   1437 H

Dedication :

To ...

Our guide and spark of hope and light in our life –
the prophet and messenger "the peace and prayers of God
be upon him"

To ...

The pearls our life , our parents.

To ...

The sweetest figures , our brothers and sisters.

Acknowledgements :

We would like to thank **ALLAH** for his guidance and careness in our life.

Then…

Our thanks are also to all the members in English Department, especially our marvelous supervisor Asst. Inst. **Mohammed E. Alwan**.

Our thanks are also to our friends and colleagues.

Table of contents :

Introduction :

This research is primarily interested in investigating the general concept of coordination and subordination and shows the differences between the two terms. These terms are confusing in most of cases. They are found in different classifications and forms. In most languages of European origin, clauses can be joined together by conjunctions in the same ways. Generally speaking, clauses are divided into coordinate and subordinate.

Coordinate clause can stand alone by itself as an independent clause or separate sentence created by conjunctions as and, or, but, …. As in she was beautiful but modest. On the other hand, the subordinate clause cannot stand alone. This clause depends on the other elements for its meaning, so it is called dependent or subordinate sentence such kind of sentence can be identified by subordinator like after, though, since, because, … as in I will call him when I arrive.

1. What is a clause?

In older grammar, a clause is defined as a group of words containing a subject and a finite clause. Different definitions are given by different linguists all of them have related meaning. Bernard (1986: 170) defines a clause as a unit in sentence which is larger than just a word or phrase. Similarly, Chalker (1986: 239) states that it is convenient to widen the term "clause " to cover not only:

a. Finite clauses : although it was snowing, I went out.

But also :

b. Non-finite clause : when felling ill, I do not go out. And :

c. Verb less clauses : if possible ill, I do not go in the snow.

(Turton and Heaton, 1999: 370)

In general, Chalker (1986: ibid) adds that finite clauses can be both main and subordinate, but (b) non-finite and (c) verb less can only be subordinate. As for Buscemi et al (2004: 361) a clause has two types :

a. An independent (main) clause is the heart of a sentence, all sentences must contain at least one. This kind of sentences can stand alone as a sentence because it expresses a complete idea such as the thunder bloomed. The waiter is polite. Both of these independent clauses have subjects : thunder and waiter. Both have verbs: bloomed and is. Both express complete thoughts. Therefore, each is a sentence.

b. A dependent (subordinate) clause also contains a subject and verb. However it cannot stand alone as a sentence, for it does not express a complete idea such as when the thunder bloomed. Although the waiter is polite. These sentence cannot be left as they are we have to join these sentences to independent sentences (Buscemi et al, 2004: 362) complete their examples as : when the thunder

2

bloomed, the cat ran under the table. Although the waiter is polite, he does not get big tips.

2. Clause functions :

In terms of function i.e. what role they have in a sentence, Leech and Svartvik (1994: 251) comment that clause can be divided into main clauses and sub clauses (subordinate clauses) sub clauses are part of another clause. They also add that clause can also be divided into nominal clauses, adverbial clauses …. etc. The various functions of clauses are treated elsewhere.

a. Nominal clauses: i.e. that- clauses, interrogative clauses, ing-clauses and infinitive clauses function as subject, object, compliment, prepositional compliment, etc. In this example the first that clause function as a subject and the second as a n object:

1. That he gave a false name shows that he was doing something dishonest.

b. Relative clauses : i.e. modify clauses introduced by wh-pronoun or that (including "zero-that") usually modify of noun phrases. In this sentence the relative clause who live opposite our house modifies the noun phrase head family.

2. The family who live our house are French.

c. Comment clauses: function as sentence adverbials as in this sentence where to be honest equates with the adverb honestly.

3. To be honest, I am not sure what to do.

d. Comparative clauses : follow a comparative item such as more or less:

4. This year they have sold a lot more books than they usually do.

e. Adverbial clauses: have a large number of different meanings such as time :

5. I used to go to the theater whenever I had opportunity.

3. Clauses links :

Biber et al (1999: 134) point out that clauses can be linked to each other in a variety of ways, the principal types of structural links are coordinator, subordinators, and wh-words.

4. Co-ordination :

Crystal (1991: 84) O Grady et al (1997: 711) and Radford et al (2009: 134) suggest that co-ordination is a term used in grammatical analysis to refer to process or result of linking linguistic units which are usually equivalent syntactic states, e.g. series of clauses or phrases or words, in this respect, Crystal (ibid) distinguishes coordination from subordination or subordinate linkage, where (the units are not equivalent). He also illustrates that coordinate clauses in the sentence John walked and Mary ran. The marker of linkage is and which he call it a coordinating conjunction (or co- ordinator).

Bernard (1986: 176) and Turton and Heaton (1999: 370) point out that words such as (and, but , or) that link two parts of sentences, where each part is of the same status, e.g. and in, you are old, and your hair has become very white.

4.1 The use of co-ordinating conjunction :

Alexander (1997: 11) Murphy and Smalzer (2002: 222) offer the uses of these words as (and , but , or , so , because) are used to join two sentences and to make one longer sentence from shorter sentences:

4

1. Contrast : but , yet

8. He washed the car, but did not polish it.

2. Alternative either …. or, neither ….. nor

9. He speaks French or perhaps he understands it.

He either speaks French or understands it. (I am not sure which)

3. Result : so

10. He could not find his pen, so he wrote in pencil.

5. cause : for

11. We rarely stay in hotels, for we cannot afford it.

Quirk et al (ibid) states that coordinating conjunctions are explicit or present- and a syndetic coordination, as but could be supplied. Quirk gives these examples to explain the point. Slowly and stealthily, he crept toward his victim.

12. slowly, stealthily he crept towards his victim.

4.2 Coordination and compound sentence :

Alexander (1997: 10) considers coordinating conjunction as a way to form linking is compound sentences. He says that we often need to join ideas. This achieved by any of the following

  a. A semi- colon :

13. We fished all day; did not catch a thing.

  b. A semi colon followed by a connecting adverb.

14. We fished all day; however did not catch a thing.

  c. A coordinating conjunction (e.g. and, but, so, yet) is often preceded by a comma:

15. We fished all day, but did not catch a thing.

In a compound sentence, Alexander (ibid) Turton and Heatan (1999: 370) state that there is no single main clause with subordinate clause depending on it, all clauses are of equal importance and can stand on their own, they refer to clauses in a compound sentence as co-ordinate main clauses.

Turton and Heaton (ibid : 371) say that the coordinating conjunctions wich can be used to form compound sentences are : and, and then, but, nor, for, or, so , yet , either .... or , neither ..... nor, not only .... but (also/ as well / too).

Praniniskas (1975: 24) agrees with Alexander (ibid) that when two simple sentences are grammatically parallel and closely related in context, they are usually combined into a single compound sentence. He observes the following:

a. (And) joins two affirmative statements :

16. jack goes downtown on Saturday, and he goes to movies on Saturday night.

And do not join unrelated sentence like the following :

17. George is twenty. Mr. Allen is tall.

b. (But) joins contrastive patterns, affirmative and negative.

18. Bill does not like movies but he likes concerts.

4.3 Coordination of parts of clauses :

Coordination can be used to link parts of clauses (e.g. subject, verb, phrases, object) rather than whole clauses.

Leech and Svartivk (1994: 264) say that this case that can often be seen as cases of clauses coordination with repeated parts are omitted. For example this sentence :

19. Her mother needed a chat and some moral support.

Leech and Svartivk (ibid: 264) point out that this sentence can be expanded as:

20. Her mother needed a chat and her mother needed some moral support.

But in other cases we cannot reconstruct two complete clauses:

21. My closest friends are Peter and his wife.

He does not mean "my closest friend is Peter and my closest friend is his wife".

4.4 Type of coordination :

O Grady et al (1997: 222-223) and Akmajian et al (1995: 165) show types of coordination as the following :

1. Coordination of noun phrases :
   a. [the man] and [a child]
   b. [a boy] or [a girl]
2. Coordination of verb phrases:
   a. [go to the library] and [read a book]
   b. [go to the library] or [read a book]
3. Coordination of preposition phrases :
   a. [down the stairs] and [out the door]
   b. [in the drawer] or [under the disc]
4. Coordination of adjective phrases :
   a. [quite beautiful] and [very stingy]
   b. [quite wealthy] but [very stingy]
5. Coordination of sentences :
   a. [the man interred the building] and [the woman waited in the car]
   b. [the man interred the building] but [the woman waited in the car]

4.5 Coordination of clause elements :

Leech and Svartivk (1994: 265) state coordination within different clause elements, here some of them:

a. Subject:

22. social security and retirement plans will be important election issues.

b. Verb phrases:

23. many of lows need to studied and will have to be revised.

c. Compliments:

24. the lows are rather outmoded or totally inadequate and often ambiguous.

d. Adverbial:

25. you can wash this sweater by hand or in the washing machine.

Leech and Svartivk (ibid: 266) point out that coordination can also link phrase combination even where these do not occur next to one another in the sentence, as in (subject and verb phrase)

26. the papers say, and most people believe, that opposition party will win the next election. And (subject and compliment):

27. [Dr. Hogan's eyes behind his spectacts] were [friendly] and [his smile] [kind].

4.6 Coordination without conjunctions :

Chalker (1985:239) explains that co-ordinate clause may be related to each other without conjunction, since they lack coordinators.

Chalker (ibid) calls this structure (equal-status clauses). For example, he interprets the following pairs as a kind of apposition:

28. I do not like it: I don't like it.

29. It was bitterly cold: It was too cold.

30. She did not out : It was too cold.

Chalker (ibid) also commas that several clauses simply joined by commas, such as :

31. I came, I saw, I conquered.

When more than two items are coordinated. Leech and Svartivk (1994: 267) show the conjunction is normally omitted before each item except the last, in speed a rising tone in normally used on all items in the list except the last, in writing, a comma is usually used to separate all the items except the last two, but many writers put a comma also before and in such a list. Leech and Svartivk (ibid) go on to say that and is often omitted before the linking adverbs then, so and yet:

33. It was a small college. (and) yet most students love it.

Referring to Longman Dictionary Turton and Heaton (1999: 24) point out that and cannot be used between two adjectives that come before a noun unless they describe similar qualities as "red and green umbrella" (two colors) but in the following sentence and does not describe two qualities:

34. there is a beautiful old church in the center of the town.

4.7 Ellipsis of subject (and auxiliaries) coordination:

Quirk and Greenbaum (1973: 261) Murphy and Smalzer (2002) and Swan (1995:181) say that identical subjects of coordinated clauses are ellipted as in:

35. Peter ate cheese sandwich and (Peter) drank a glass of beer. If the subjects and the auxiliaries are identical, ellipsis of both is:

36. Mary has washed the dishes, (Mary has) dried them, and (Mary has) put them in the cupboard.

Quirk et al (1985:309) view subordination as a noun symmetrical relation, holding two clauses in such a way that one is a constitute or part of the other. Now compare the following relations:

1. [I like John] and   2. [John likes me]
1. [independent]   2. [independent]

With the subordination in :

1. [I like John] [because John likes me]
1. [subordinate or independent or main]
2. [subordinate or independent]

Quirk and Greenbaum (1973: 309) Leech and Svartivk (1994: 382)

And Aitcheson (1999 : 77-78) say that subordinate is a devise which enables us to organize multiple clause structures.

4.8 Non- finite clauses with co-ordinating meaning :

It has been suggested by Walker (1985: 242) that non- finite clauses are usually analyzed as subordinated, but sometimes (-ing clauses) to have more of coordinating meaning:

37. A plan has crashed on in internal flight, killing all 137 people on board.

Alexander (1997: 31) says that the coordinating conjunction and must be dropped when preset participle is used as in:

38. She lay awake all, recalled the events of the day.

In addition to that notice, Alexander (ibid) observes that present participle can be used `after the time conjunctions after, before, since, when and while. They cannot be used after the conjunctions as, as soon as, directly, until, etc.

39. since phoning you this morning, I have changed my plan.

We cannot use this conjunction when since = because.

On and in can be used to mean when and while.

40. On finding the front door open, I became suspicious.

(e.g. when/at the moment when I found ….)

(In while trying to open the car, I was trying …) (ibid)

5. Subordination :

5.1 What is subordination :

Chalker (1985: 12) Quirk et al (1980: 254) Alexander (1997: 12), Crystal (1991: 334), (2003: 443) explain subordination as " a term used in grammatical analysis to refer to the process or result of linking linguistic units so that they have different (syntactic status) one depends on the other, and usually, constituent of them in this respect, it is usually distinguished from co-ordinate linkage, where the units are (equivalent).

5.2 Subordination and complex sentence:

Many sentence, especially in written language are complex. Alexander (1997: 12) argues the sentence can be formed by linking simple sentences together, but elements together in complex sentence (unlike those of a compound sentence) are not of equal importance. Turton and Heaton (1999: 375) says that there is always one independent (or subordinate) elements. Alexander (ibid) notices that if subordinate clause removed from a sentence a main clauses can often stand in its own. As mentioned before, concerning the types of this kind of clauses, Chalker (1985: 240) says that subordinate clauses can be divided into the types by their functions as elements of structure :

    a. Adverbial

    b. Relative (or adjectival)

c. Nominal (noun)

Modern grammar does disagree with this, though it usually adds 4 comment clauses, and it sometimes separate comparison clauses from other types of adverbial clauses, however in traditional grammar, only adverb clauses and noun clauses are introduce by conjunctions, modern grammar groups all these types together as subordinate.

5.3 Types of subordinate clauses :

Dependent clauses of subordinate clauses are distinguished either by structural type, i.e. in term of elements they contain, or by function, i.e. the parts they play in the subordinate clause, analyzing by structural type, subordinate clauses are classified into three main clauses by Quirk et al (1985: 310) Chalker (1986: 239) Alexander (1997: 13)

a. Finite clauses :

41. Although it was snowing, I went out.

b. Non-finite clauses:

42. When the feeling ill, I do not go out.

43. When feeling ill, I do not go out.

c. Verb less clauses:

44. If possible, I do not go out.

Leech and Svartivk (1994: 383) point out that all above three types of clauses (finite, non-finite, and verb less) may themselves have sub clauses inside them. They explain their point in this example :

45. Having left before the letter arrived, he was surprise to find his wife the station. (finite clause)

5.4 Finite and non-finite clauses:

Finite clauses is described by Crystal (2003: 180) as a clause that always contains a subject as well as predicate, except in the case of the (compounds). This clause is (main clause) non-finite clause on the other hand, is a clause that can be constructed without a subject. This clause occur only (dependent clause).

There are four types of non-finite clause are distinguished by Quirk and Greenbaum (1973: 311)

a. Infinitive with to :

With subject : the best thing would be for you to tell everybody.

Without subject : the best thing would be to tell everybody.

b. Infinitive without to :

With subject : rather than John do it, I had prefer to give the job to Mary.

Without subject : All I did was hit him on the head.

c. Ing participle:

With subject: her aunt having left the room, I declared my passionate love for Celia.

Without subject: leaving the room, he tripped over.

d. Ed participle :

With subject: we left the room and went home, the job finished.

Without subject : covered with confusion, I left the room.

Quirk and Greenbaum (ibid) show that (when the subject of adverbial participial clauses is expressed, it is often introduced by with they give the following example to clarify the point:

46. with the tree [growing/grown] tall, we get more shade.

Leech and Svartivk (1994: 251) say that subordinate clauses are divided into : noun clauses, relative clauses ... etc.

Quirk et al (1985: 316-332) and Alexander (1997: 12-31)show that each type has various functions and subgroups.

a. Noun clauses : Alexander (1997:13) thinks that noun clause can be subject or object of verb, complement prepositional compliment, etc. as the following examples:

47. I know that the match will cancelled. (object).

48. That the match will be cancelled is now certain. (subject).

Noun clause, in fact derived from statement is usually that clauses (sometimes what-clauses) though the conjunction that is often omitted, as Alexander (ibid) points out through the following state:

49. Money does not grow on trees.

A subordinate clause beginning with that, as Turton and Heaton (1999: 375) argue does the job of noun or pronoun, etc. It should be noted that in modern linguistics the subordinate conjunction that or words like this are known as complementisers (c) or (comp) because one of the their most important uses is to introduce complement clause (O Grady et al, 1999: 708) Biber et al (1999: 1077), Aitchison (1999:78) Radford et al (2009: 135).

Noun clauses after the fact that and the idea that such as :

50. the fact that this personal makes snse should be recognized.

Alexander (1997: 14) and Biber et al (1999: 973).

Noun clauses after adjectives describing feeling (i.e. afraid, glad, happy, sorry) or certainly (i.e. certain, sure) can be followed by that (optional).

51. I am afraid that we have sold out of tickets.

5.5 Wh- Interrogative clauses :

Quirk et al (1985: 317) claims that wh- clause occurs in the whole range of functions available to that- clause, and acts as prepositional compliment as well as :

a. Subject : how the book will sell depends on its author.
b. Direct object : I cannot imagine what made him do it.
c. Subject compliment : the problem is not who will go, but who will stay.
d. Appositive : my original question, why he did it at all, has not been answered.
e. Adjectival compliment: I was not whose house I was in.
f. Prepositional compliment : no one was consulted on who should have the prize.

5.6 Noun clauses derived from questions :

Alexander (1997: 15) distinguishes by putting if or whether in front of the clauses and changing the word order to subject – predicate, subordinate noun clauses that can be used as subject after preposition, in the example, the subordinate clause is used as a subject :

51. whether he has signed the contract (or not) does not matter (if is not possible).

Relative clause is described by Swan (1995: 143) Turton and Heaton (1999: 374) as a descriptive clause usually beginning with that, who, whose, or whom, they distinguish two types of relative clauses an, identifying relative clause answer the question, which? And defines or identifies the preceding noun, as in :

53. the man who was crying a torch showed us to our seats.

The other type is non-identifying relative clause simply adds further information about the preceding noun as in :

54. the man, who was crying a torch, showed us to our seats.

It should be noted that Turton and Heaton (ibid) Crystal (2003: 395) Alexander (1997: 16) add that relative clauses without commas are called: defining or identifying relative clauses, with commas are called: non-defining, non- restrictive or non- identifying.

5.7 Adverbial clause :

Adverbial clause is an additional function for subordinate clause. Biber et al says that adverbial clauses are regularly marked by a subordinator indicating the relation to the main clause. Alexander (1997: 24) shows the difference between an adverb and adverbials in the examples:

55. I try hard, but I can never remember peoples name.
56. however I hard try, I can never remember peoples name.

Hard in the sentence (55) is an adverb, however, hard I try is an adverbial or adverb clause. Alexander gives the reason that this clause tells us something about (or modifying) can never remember.

Adverbs can often be identified by asking and answering the questions when? Where? How? Why? etc. and adverbial clauses can be identified in the same way.

Time : tell him as soon as he arrives (when)

Place : you can sit where you like (where)

Manner : he spoke as if he meant business (how)

Reason : he went to bed because he felt ill (why)

5.8 Comment clauses :

Comment clauses are loosely related to subordinate clause. Biber et al (1999: 197) in Longman Grammar clarifies that they are loosely connected to the main clause they normally lack the explicit link. Crystal (2005: 84) says that comment clauses are optional structure whose function is to add a parenthetic comment to another clause. Quirk et al (1985: 335) thinks that these clauses, in general, may occur initially or medially :

57. At that time, I believe, labor was cheap.

5.9 Subordinators :

Parrot (2000: 423) and Leech and Svartvik (1994: 384-387) point out the survey of subordinators and their meaning.

Time : after, as , as long as, until, when, before, since, while.

Place : in the same place as , where , wherever.

Reason : as , because, since.

Manner : as , if , as though.

Contrast : although , despite the fact that, even though, while.

Condition : as long as, given that, if , provided that, unless.

Purpose : in order that , so that

Result : so , so that

Parrot (ibid: 424) clarifies that there are some subordinators similar in meaning (e.g. because and since) but others are similar in meaning but not in interchangeable, while and although can be used to express contrast in the context of expressional opinions or making reservation, but when express general contrast, we can use although not while.

5.10 Choice between coordinators , subordinators and linking adverbials:

Leech and Svartvik (1994: 180-181) give distinctions about the terms (coordination, subordination, adverbials, links) as the following:

a. Coordination is often a looser connection than the others because its more vague and less emphatic. Its more characteristic of informal than in formal style.

b. Subordination tends to give a clause a less important part in the information conveyed by sentence, thus adverbial subordinate clause is often used when the information that clause is already known or expect by the hearer, as in:

58. they gave her something warm to wear and she went to change in bathroom, when she came back, the dinner was already on the table.

c. Adverbial links are often used to cannot longer stretches of language, perhaps whole sentences which themselves contain coordinate or subordinate as in :

59. In theory, most companies would like to double their profiles in your however, few could really handle it, and most companies would not even try.

Conclusions :

This research explains with two important parts in grammar, namely coordination and subordination in order to focus on the differences between them.

The research has come out with certain points that coordination is a process used to form two or more categories by the same types by using and, or, but, etc. Subordination that forms subordinate clause which is also called independent clause that contains a string of words by using subordinators as since, because, although, … etc. Such a clause cannot stand alone but usually forms a major part of a sentence.

Both coordination and subordination used for linking units, but for subordination, the unit is subordinated to the other. In addition, clauses begin with coordinator normally cannot be moved in front of the preceding clause without changing the relationship of clauses, on the other hand, subordinate clause has a flexible position in a sentence.

Finally, the research has concluded that the coordinators allow ellipsis of the subject of the clause they introduce if the subject has a reference with the preceding clause. Subordination, generally, does not allow ellipsis.

References :

Aitchison, J. (1999) Linguistics. London: Hodder and Stoughton.

Alexander, J. (1992) Longman English Grammar. London: Longman.

Biber, D. Johnson, S. Leech, G. Conrad, S. and Finegan, E. (1999) Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English. London: Longman.

Buscemi, S. Nicolai, A. Strugala, R. the Basics: A Rhetoric and Handbook (2004) 4th ed. Higher Education. Mc. Hill.

Crystal, J. (1991) A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics. 3rd ed. Oxford: Blackwell publisher LTD.

O Grady, W. Dobrovolisky, M. and Katamba, F. (1997) Contemporary Linguistics: An Introduction. 2nd ed. London: Longman.

Praniniskas, J. (1975) Rapid Review of English Grammar. London : Prentice Hall. Inc.

Quirk, R. Greenbaum, S. Leech, G. and Svartvik, J. (1985) A Comprehensive Grammar of English Language. London: London Group Limited.

----------------------------- (1973) A University Grammar of English. London Group Limited.

Radford, A. Martin, A. David. Herald, C. Andrew, S. (2009) Linguistics : An Introduction. 2nd ed. Cambridge : Cambridge University press.

Swan, J. (2005) Practical English Usage. Oxford: Oxford University press.

Thomas, A. and Martin, A. (1986) A Practical English Grammar. 4th ed. Oxford : Oxford University press.

Turnton, AD. And Heaton, JB. (1999) Longman Dictionary of Common Errors. London: Longman