

Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research

University of Misan

College of Basic Education

Department of English

**Clause Combination in English Grammar**

A research submitted to the council of English department, College of Basic Education at the University of Misan , a partial fulfillment to get B.A degree in English language

By

 **Maryam Shallan Mousa
&
Fatima Naeem Abd Manfi**

Supervised by:

**Asst. Inst. Ali Abdulhussein Chyad**

**2 0 2 5**

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

“اقْرَأْ بِاسْمِ رَبِّكَ الَّذِي خَلَقَ خَلَقَ الْإِنسَانَ مِنْ عَلَقٍ اقْرَأْ وَرَبُّكَ الْأَكْرَمُ الَّذِي عَلَّمَ بِالْقَلَمِ عَلَّمَ الْإِنسَانَ مَا لَمْ يَعْلَمْ”

(العلق: 1-5).

**Dedication**

To our family

This work is dedicated to you—our greatest supporters. Your love, patience, and encouragement have been the driving force behind everything we do.

Thank you for always believing in us and standing by our side through every step of this journey.

**Acknowledgement**

We would like to express our sincere gratitude to our supervisor ***Asst. Inst. Ali Abdulhussein Chyad*** for his guidance, support, and encouragement. His dedication and insightful advice have been invaluable in helping us complete this work. We are truly thankful for his mentorship and inspiration.

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Page Number | Subject**Table of Contents** |
| I | Title |
| II | Quranic Verse |
| III | Dedication |
| IV | Acknowledgment |
| V | Table Of Contents |
| 1 | Introduction |
| 2 | Chapter One: The Clause in English Grammar |
| 2 | 1.1 What is a clause? |
| 3 | 1.2 Clause Types |
| 4 | 1.3 Clause Patterns |
| 5 | 1.4 Clause Elements |
| 6 | Chapter Two: Clause Combination Constructions in English |
| 6 | 2.1 Subordination |
| 7 | 2.2 Coordination |
| 8 | 2.3 Disjuncts |
| 9 | 2.4 Relative Clauses |
| 10 | 2.5 Non-finite Clauses |
| 11 | Chapter Three: Conclusions |
| 13 | References |

**Introduction**

 Clauses, which contain a subject and predicate, can be combined to enhance clarity, add detail, or show relationships between ideas. This process is essential for effective communication, enabling speakers and writers to express nuanced meanings. clause combination involves integrating independent clauses (which can stand alone) and dependent clauses (which rely on a main clause) into cohesive structures (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, : 45).

 One method of combining clauses is coordination, where independent clauses are joined using coordinating conjunctions such as and, but, or or. For example, She laughed, and he smiled links two complete thoughts with and. (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005, : 123).

 Subordination involves embedding a dependent clause within a sentence using subordinating conjunctions like because, although, or when. For instance, Although it rained, the picnic continued shows a cause-effect relationshi: subordination adds layers of meaning, allowing writers to prioritize certain information (Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973, : 234).

 Relative clauses, introduced by pronouns such as who, which, or that, provide additional details about nouns. In The car that was parked outside is mine, the relative clause specifies which car is being discussed. the role of relative clauses in avoiding repetition while enriching descriptions (Swan, 2005, : 456).

 Other methods include using participles (Walking home, I saw a cat) or infinitives (She decided to leave). These structures, discussed by Carter and (Carter & McCarthy, 2006, : 78).

**Chapter One: The Clause in English Grammar**

**1.1 What is a Clause?**

 Defined as a group of words containing a subject and a predicate (a verb and any accompanying elements), clauses express a complete or partial thought. For instance, in the sentence “The cat sat on the mat,” the clause includes the subject “The cat” and the predicate “sat on the mat.” Clauses can function independently as simple sentences (“Rain fell”) or depend on another clause to convey full meaning (“When the sun set”). Huddleston and Pullum emphasize that clauses are central to sentence structure, as they combine meaning with grammatical organization (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005, : 233).

 Clauses vary in complexity. Independent clauses, such as “She smiled,” are complete in themselves, while dependent clauses, like “because he apologized,” rely on an independent clause to form a coherent statement. Widdowson notes that spoken English often uses shorter clauses for clarity, whereas written English may embed multiple clauses for elaboration For example, in “I left early, though I wanted to stay,” the dependent clause “though I wanted to stay” adds nuance to the main clause (Widdowson,1979, : 45 )

 The distinction between finite and non-finite clauses is also critical. Finite clauses contain verbs with tense, such as “She writes letters,” while non-finite clauses use infinitives or participles, as in “To succeed, you must practice” (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005, : 112).

 Clauses interact with punctuation, In “He laughed, and she cried,” the comma separates two independent clauses joined by “and.” (Swan, 2005, : 204)

**1.2 Clause Types**

 Clauses are classified by their structure and function. Independent clauses, or main clauses, stand alone as complete sentences. Examples include “Birds sing” and “Winter is cold.” These clauses express complete thoughts and require no additional context. Dependent clauses, however, depend on an independent clause for meaning. They often begin with subordinating conjunctions like “because,” “when,” or “if.” For instance, “I stayed indoors because it rained” combines an independent clause (“I stayed indoors”) with a dependent clause (“because it rained”) (Nelson & Greenbaum, 2009, : 45).

 Finite clauses contain verbs with tense, such as “They are leaving tomorrow,” while non-finite clauses lack tense and use infinitives or participles. Examples include “To err is human” (infinitive) and “Walking home, I saw a fox” (participle) (Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973, : 78).

 Interrogative clauses form questions, such as “Where did you go?” or “Is it raining?” These clauses invert subject-verb order or use question words like “how” or “why.” Relative clauses, introduced by “who,” “which,” or “that,” provide additional information about nouns. For example, “The car that crashed was blue” uses a defining relative clause to specify which car is discussed (Carter & McCarthy, 2006, : 132).

 Conditional clauses, beginning with “if” or “unless,” express hypothetical situations. In “If it rains, we’ll cancel,” the dependent clause “if it rains” sets a condition for the main clause. (Lobeck and Denham, 2013, :89)

**1.3 Clause Patterns**

1. Subject-Verb (S-V)

 - Example: “Dogs bark.” (Downing, 2006, : 74)

 - Common in imperative sentences: “Listen!” (Börjars & Burridge, 2010, : 112)

2. Subject-Verb-Object (S-V-O)

 - Example: “She baked cookies.” (Downing, 2006, : 74)

3. Subject-Verb-Complement (S-V-C)

 - The complement describes the subject.

 - Examples:

 - “He became a teacher.” (Börjars & Burridge, 2010, : 112)

 - “The cake smells delicious.” (Downing, 2006, :74)

4. Subject-Verb-Indirect Object-Direct Object (S-V-IO-DO)

 - Example: “She gave him a gift.” (Börjars & Burridge, 2010, : 112)

5. Subject-Verb-Object-Complement (S-V-O-C)

 - Example: “They elected her president.” (Downing, 2006, :74)

6. Extended Patterns with Adverbials

 - Adverbial of Manner:

 - Example: “He ran quickly” (S-V-A). (Börjars & Burridge, 2010, : 112)

 - Adverbial of Time:

 - Example: “She arrived at noon” (S-V-A). (Downing, 2006, : 74)

**1.4 Clause Elements**

 Clause elements are the functional components that construct meaning. The subject identifies who or what the clause is about, such as “Students” in “Students study.” The verb expresses action or state, e.g., “study” or “is.” Verbs determine the clause’s structure, requiring objects or complements. For example, “She gave” needs an object (“a book”) to complete its meaning (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, : 234).

 The object receives the action of a transitive verb. Direct objects, like “the ball” in “He kicked the ball,” answer “what?” Indirect objects, such as “her” in “I sent her a letter,” answer “to/for whom?” Complements complete the meaning of the subject or object. In “The soup tastes salty,” “salty” is a subject complement. In “They painted the house red,” “red” is an object complement (Nelson & Greenbaum, 2009, : 102).

 Adverbials modify verbs, adjectives, or entire clauses. They answer questions like “how?” (“carefully”), “when?” (“yesterday”), or “where?” (“there”). Adverbials can be single words, phrases, or clauses. For example, “She spoke softly” uses an adverb, while “He left after the show” uses a clause (Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973, : 121).

 Predeterminers and determiners specify nouns, as in “all the books” (“all” is a predeterminer, “the” a determiner). Postmodifiers follow nouns to add detail, such as “the man in the hat” (Lobeck & Denham, 2013, : 178).

**Chapter Two: Clause Combination Constructions in English**

**2.1 Subordination**

 Subordination involves linking clauses hierarchically, where one clause (the subordinate clause) depends on another (the main clause). Subordinate clauses are introduced by subordinating conjunctions like “because,” “when,” “if,” or “although,” and they cannot stand alone. For example, in “I stayed home because it rained,” the subordinate clause “because it rained” explains the reason for the main clause. Huddleston and Pullum categorize subordinate clauses into adverbial, noun, and relative clauses, each serving distinct functions. (Huddleston & Pullum, 2002, : 624).

 Adverbial clauses modify verbs, adjectives, or other clauses, answering questions like “why?” or “when?” For instance, “She left before the movie ended” uses “before the movie ended” to indicate time. Noun clauses act as subjects, objects, or complements, such as “What he said surprised me” (noun clause as subject). Relative clauses, introduced by “who,” “which,” or “that,” provide additional information about nouns, e.g., “The book that I borrowed is overdue.” (Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973, : 89).

 Subordination adds complexity and nuance. In “Although it was late, they continued working,” the subordinate clause “although it was late” contrasts with the main clause. Swan notes that subordinating conjunctions determine the relationship between clauses, such as cause (“since”), condition (“unless”), or concession (“even though”). Subordinate clauses also affect punctuation: commas separate introductory adverbial clauses, while relative clauses may use commas for non-restrictive information (“My brother, who lives in Paris, is a chef”). (Swan, 2005, : 210).

**2.2 Coordination**

 Coordination joins clauses of equal grammatical status using coordinating conjunctions (“and,” “but,” “or,” “so,” “yet,” “for,” “nor”). For example, “She laughed, and he cried” combines two independent clauses. Unlike subordination, coordination preserves the independence of each clause. Börjars and Burridge highlight that coordinated clauses often share similar structures, enhancing parallelism (Börjars & Burridge, 2010, : 145).

 Correlative conjunctions like “either...or,” “neither...nor,” and “both...and” also coordinate clauses: “Neither the teacher nor the students knew the answer.” Coordination can create compound sentences (“It rained, so we stayed indoors”) or compound predicates (“She sang and danced”). Swan and Walter emphasize that commas precede coordinating conjunctions in compound sentences (Swan & Walter, 2001, : 112).

 However, overusing coordination may lead to run-on sentences. For instance, “I woke up late I missed the bus” lacks a conjunction or punctuation, causing confusion. Carter and McCarthy suggest using semicolons for clarity in complex coordination: “She likes coffee; he prefers tea.” Coordination also allows stylistic flexibility, as in the proverb “Easy come, easy go,” where clauses are balanced for effect (Carter & McCarthy, 2006, : 178).

**2.3 Disjuncts**

 Disjuncts are adverbial clauses or phrases that comment on the entire sentence, expressing the speaker’s attitude or judgment. They often appear at the start or end of a sentence, separated by commas. Examples include “Fortunately, the flight was on time” and “To be honest, I don’t agree.” disjuncts can be classified as speech-act adverbials, evaluating the communication itself rather than the content (Lobeck & Denham, 2013, : 134(

 Disjuncts can modify tone or certainty. In “Clearly, the plan failed,” “clearly” signals the speaker’s confidence in the statement. They may also frame the context, such as “In my opinion, the movie was too long.” disjuncts are more common in written English, where precision and formality are valued (Widdowson, 1979, : 67)

 Some disjuncts function as parenthetical expressions, interrupting the main clause: “The project, to put it mildly, was challenging.” These clauses are often non-restrictive and can be omitted without altering the core meaning. misplaced disjuncts may cause ambiguity, as in “Surprisingly, the results were published last week” versus “The results were, surprisingly, published last week.” (Nelson & Greenbaum, 2009, : 123)

**2.4 Relative Clauses**

 Relative clauses provide additional information about a noun, introduced by relative pronouns (“who,” “which,” “that,” “whose”) or adverbs (“where,” “when”). They are either restrictive (defining) or non-restrictive (non-defining). A restrictive clause is essential to the sentence’s meaning: “The car that is parked outside is mine.” Non-restrictive clauses add extra detail and are set off by commas: “My car, which is red, needs repairs” (Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973, : 94).

 Relative pronouns vary by noun type. “Who” refers to people (“The woman who called is my aunt”), while “which” refers to things (“The book which I borrowed is excellent”). “That” is used in restrictive clauses for both people and things (“The man that I met was polite”). “Whose” indicates possession: “The student whose essay won is here” (Huddleston & Pullum, 2005, : 1024).

 Reduced relative clauses omit the relative pronoun and verb “to be” for conciseness: “The man standing there is my teacher” (instead of “The man who is standing there”). Swan noted that reduced clauses are common in informal contexts but may sound awkward in formal writing (Swan, 2005, : 231).

**2.5 Non-finite Clauses**

 Non-finite clauses lack a finite verb and instead use infinitives, gerunds, or participles. They depend on a main clause for meaning and often function as nouns, adjectives, or adverbs. For example, “To succeed, you must practice” uses an infinitive clause as an adverbial of purpose. Gerund clauses act as nouns: “Swimming is fun.” )Downing, 2006, : 89(

 Participial clauses modify nouns or verbs: “Walking home, I saw a deer” (adverbial) or “The man standing there is my uncle” (adjectival). Non-finite clauses are common in reduced structures. )Stageberg, 1957 : 76(

 Non-finite clauses also appear in passive constructions: “The letter to be signed is on the desk” (infinitive) or “The project, once completed, will launch next month” (past participle). Carter and McCarthy observe that non-finite clauses are prevalent in headlines (“President to visit Japan”) and instructions (“Please close the door”). However, ambiguous non-finite clauses can confuse readers, as in “While running, the rain started,” where the implied subject is unclear ) Carter & McCarthy, 2006, : 215) .

**Chapter Three: Conclusions**

Chapter One: Understanding Clauses

- Definition of a Clause:

 - A group of words containing a subject and a verb.

 - Can express a complete thought (independent clause) or rely on another clause (dependent clause).

- Types of Clauses:

 - Declarative Clause: Makes a statement.

 - Interrogative Clause: Asks a question.

 - Imperative Clause: Gives a command or request.

 - Exclamatory Clause: Expresses strong emotion.

- Common Clause Patterns:

 - Subject-Verb (SV): Basic structure with a subject and a verb.

 - Subject-Verb-Object (SVO): Includes an object that receives the action.

 - Subject-Verb-Complement (SVC): Includes a complement that describes or completes the subject.

Chapter Two: Combining Clauses for Complex Sentences

- Subordination:

 - Uses subordinating conjunctions like because, although, or if.

 - Links dependent clauses to main (independent) clauses, adding depth and detail.

- Coordination:

 - Joins equal clauses using coordinating conjunctions like and, but, or or.

 - Ensures balance between ideas.

- Disjuncts:

 - Words like however, therefore, or consequently clarify relationships between ideas.

- Relative Clauses:

 - Use relative pronouns like who, which, or that to add descriptive details.

- Non-Finite Clauses:

 - Include infinitives (to go) or participles (running, broken).

 - Allow concise expression without a subject.

**Refrences**

* Huddleston, R., & Pullum, G. K. (2002). The Cambridge grammar of the English language. Cambridge University Press.
* Widdowson, H. G. (1979). Spoken and written English. Oxford University Press.
* Huddleston, R., & Pullum, G. K. (2005). A student's introduction to English grammar. Cambridge University Press.
* Quirk, R., & Greenbaum, S. (1973). A university grammar of English. Longman.
* Nelson, G., & Greenbaum, S. (2009). An introduction to English grammar (3rd ed.). Routledge.
* Stageberg, N. C. (1957). An introductory English grammar. Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
* Carter, R., & McCarthy, M. (2006). Cambridge grammar of English: A comprehensive guide. Cambridge University Press.
* Börjars, K., & Burridge, K. (2010). Introducing English grammar (2nd ed.). Hodder Education.
* Lobeck, A., & Denham, K. (2013). Navigating English grammar: A guide for users. Wiley-Blackwell.
* Swan, M. (2005). Practical English usage (3rd ed.). Oxford University Press.
* Downing, A. (2006). English grammar: The basics. Routledge.
* Swan, M., & Walter, C. (2001). Essential grammar for teachers and students. Oxford University Press.