16. Clause combinations

In this section we will discuss a few of the grammaticalized multi-verb construction types of English.

16.1. Relative clauses

Relative clauses are clauses that are syntactically embedded within a noun phrase and which function to restrict the reference of the noun phrase (Keenan 1985). In English, relative clauses are formed by placing the restricting clause following the head, and separated from it by a relative pronoun, or the complementizer that 'que'. Determiners precede the head, since they apply to the whole noun phrase. The restricting clause contains a gap in the position of the relativized element ("R-element"). The relative pronoun or complementizer is obligatory only when the R-element is the grammatical subject of the relative clause; cf. 117 and 119. In the following examples, the head will be underlined, the restricting clause will be bracketed, and the gap will be indicated by the symbol Ø:

(117) DET HEAD RELPRO RESTRICTING CLAUSE
    The man who [ Ø went to Springfield ]
    DEF hombre REL:HUM ir:PAS a Springfield
    'el hombre que fué a Springfield'

(118) DET HEAD (REL PRO) RESTRICTING CLAUSE
    a woman (who(-m)) [ I know Ø ]
    INDEF mujer REL:HUM:NS 1SG conocer
    'una mujer a quien conozco'

(119) DET HEAD COMP RESTRICTING CLAUSE
    Some people that [ Ø live here ]
    algunas persona:PL que vivir:PL:NOPAS aquí
    'algunas personas que viven aquí.'

    When the R-element is an oblique argument within the restricting clause, the preposition that heads the R-element may optionally occur after the head rather than before the gap; e.g., compare 120a and b.:

(120) a. The house in which I live Ø.
    DEF casa en que 1SG vivir
    'La casa donde vivo.'
b. The **house** (which) I **live** in ∅. 'La casa donde vivo.'

DEF casa que 1SG vivir en

The following positions are accessible to relativization: Subject (e.g., 117, 119), direct object (e.g., 118), indirect objects (e.g., 121 below), obliques (e.g., 120), possessor (e.g., 122) and the object of a comparative (e.g., 123):

(121) the **girl** (who(m)) [I **gave** the book to ∅].

DEF niña REL:HUM 1SG dar:PAS DEF libro a

'La niña a quien le di el libro'

(122) the **boy** whose house [I **saw** ∅]

DEF niño REL:GEN casa 1SG ver:PAS

'El niño cuya casa vi'

(123) the **boy** who [John is bigger than ∅]

DEF niño REL:HUM Juán es mas:grande que

'el niño de lo cual Juán es más grande'

English thus allows relativization using the gap strategy for all positions on the noun phrase accessibility hierarchy of Keenan and Comrie (1977). This fact is consistent with the claim made by Keenan and Comrie that a language will allow relativization along a continuous segment of the hierarchy, beginning with the most relativizable grammatical role.

### 16.2. Serial verbs

English marginally employs serial verbs. All of the serial verb expressions in English involve a motion verb in the first position. Most serial verb constructions are fixed expressions:

(124) Run go get me a newspaper.

correr:IMP ir:IMP buscar:IMP 1SG:NN INDEF periódico

'Váyase rápido y búscame un periódico.'

This construction clearly involves serial verbs because: a) each verb must be of the same tense/aspect/mode and b) no adverbial or other elements can intervene between the verb stems:

(125) a. *Run went got me a newspaper.

b. *Run quickly go get me a newspaper.

c. *Run go to the store get me a newspaper.
16.3. Complement clauses

English exhibits several formally distinct types of complement clauses. We will describe three of these in terms of a continuum of finiteness. These three types along with a summary of their characteristic functions are the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Complement type:</th>
<th>Finiteness:</th>
<th>Function:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bare stem complements</td>
<td>Least finite</td>
<td>Highly manipulative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to complements</td>
<td>Most finite</td>
<td>Highly independent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This correlation between formal finiteness and functional independence is consistent with the observation made by Givón (1990:516) that complement clauses that are highly conceptually integrated with their matrix clauses tend to be formally dependent (non-finite), whereas those that are conceptually independent of their matrix verbs tend to be formally independent (finite).

English allows both subject and object complement clauses. to complements and that complements can function in the subject or object position. These will be illustrated in subsections 16.3.2 and 16.3.3 respectively. However, the emphasis in the following discussion will be on object complements.

16.3.1. Bare stem complements

Bare stem complements are used for highly manipulative verbs only. These normally cannot have the same subject as the matrix clause. This fact is understandable insofar as the notion of strong manipulation is not pragmatically compatible with self-directed activity (one normally does not 'manipulate' oneself). Also, bare stem complements have no independent tense/aspect (see the ungrammatical examples below). Because the reference of the subject and tense/aspect is so restricted, bare stem complements represent the least finite complement type of English. In the following examples the complement is underlined:

(126) They made him __________ dance. 'Le obligaron bailar.'

3PL hacer:PAS 3SG:MASC:NN bailar

*They made him will dance. (Independent tense disallowed)

*They made dance. (Same subject as matrix verb disallowed)

(127) Williams has ___ Joseph sing ___ the benediction.

Williams tener:NOPAS José cantar DEF bendición

'Williams hace que José cante la bendición.'
*Williams has Joseph sang the benediction. (Independent tense)

*Williams has sing the benediction. (Same subject)

If the subject of the complement verb is the same as that of the matrix verb, a reflexive pronoun must be used (see section 11):

(128) They made them-selves dance. 'Ellos se hicieron bailar.'

3PL hace:PAS 3PL-REFL bailar

16.3.2. To complements

Complements which we will term 'to complements' consist of the particle to plus the bare verb stem. This complement type is often used in the subject position:

(129) To err is human; to forgive is divine.

PART errar ser:NOPAS humano PART perdonar ser:NOPAS divino

'Errar es humano; perdonar es divino.'

Subject complements are often post-posed, with the dummy pronoun it 'INAN' remaining in the preverbal position:

(130) It bothers me to see him so upset.

INAN molestar:NOPAS:3SG 1SG:NN PART ver 3SG:MASC:NN tan ancioso

'Me molesta verlo tan ancioso.'

In object position, to complements are used with matrix verbs of manipulation that have a weaker conceptual bond to the complement, i.e., the manipulative act may be removed in physical or psychological space from the event expressed in the complement (Givón 1984:517), e.g., compel 'obligar', urge 'impulsar', and force 'forzar'. Complements of these verbs are just as non-finite as bare stem complements, since the subject cannot be the same as that of the matrix verb, and the complement cannot have independent tense/aspect:

(131) They force-d Tyler to resign his position.

3PL forzar-PAS Tyler PART renunciar 3SG:MASC:GEN puesto

'Forzaron a Tyler renunciar su puesto.'

*They forced Tyler to will resign his position. (Independent tense disallowed)

*They forced to resign their position (Same subject disallowed)
(132) Jenkins urge-d the Chaldean-s to depart.
    Jenkins impulsar-PAS DEF Caldeo-PL PART partir
    'Jenkins impulsó a los Caldeos partir.'

    *Jenkins urged the Chaldeans to have appeared. (Indep. aspect)

    *Jenkins urged to appear. (Same subject)

    To complements are also used with cognition, emotion and utterance verbs that imply that the subject has a strong intentional/emotive commitment to the realization of the event expressed in the complement, e.g., want 'querer', and hope 'esperar'. Complements of these verbs may have the same or a different subject from that of the matrix verb. Hence, we can say that the reference of the subject for to complements as a whole is less restricted than that of bare stem complements, and thus to complements are quantitatively more finite than bare stem complements.

    In the following examples, the first member of each pair illustrates a construction in which the subject of the complement is the same as the subject of the matrix verb, while the second illustrates a construction in which the subjects are different:

(133) a. They want to eat cheerio-s.
    3PL querer:NOPAS:PL PART comer cheerio-PL
    'Quieren comer los "cheerios".'

    b. They want Herman to eat cheerio-s.
    3PL querer:NOPAS:PL Hernán PART comer cheerio-PL
    'Quieren que Hernán come los "cheerios".'

(134) a. We expect to return someday.
    1PL esperar PART volver algún.día
    'Esperamos volver algún día.'

    b. We expect Nicolas to return someday.
    1PL esperar Nicolás PART volver algún.día
    'Esperamos que Nicolas volviera algún día.'

    Sometimes, additional morphology is needed when the subjects are different (exs. 135b and 136b):
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(135)  a. We are happy to announce our engagement.

1PL ser:NOPAS:PL feliz PART anunciar 1PL:GEN compromiso

'Nos alegra anunciar nuestro compromiso.'

b. We are happy for John to announce our engagement.

1PL ser:NOPAS:PL feliz para Juán PART anunciar 1PL:GEN compromiso

'Nos alegra que Juán anuncie nuestro compromiso.'

(136)  a. Mary is eager to please.

María ser:NOPAS:SG apremiante PART complacer

'María apremia complacer.'

b. Mary is eager for John to please her.

María ser:NOPAS:SG apremiante para Juán PART complacer 3SG:F:NN

'María apremia que Juán le complazca.'

16.3.3. That complements

That complements are the most finite complements of English. They are used with cognitive and emotive complement-taking verbs in which the subject exerts less intentional/emotional commitment to the realization of the event expressed in the complement, whether or not the two subjects are different. That complements are fully finite in that subject and tense/aspect are made explicit within the complement. This distinctive property of that complements often renders the presence of the complementizer, that, redundant, hence it is often omitted in discourse:

(137)  I believe (that) he did it.

1SG creer:NOPAS COMP 3SG hacer:PAS INAN

'Creo que él lo hizo.'

(138)  We suspect (that) they had arrive-d.

1PL sospechar:NOPAS COMP 3PL AUX:PERF llegar:PPAS

'Sospechamos que ellos habían llegado.'

(139)  Harrison expect-s (that) he will win.

Harrison esperar:NOPAS:3SG COMP 3SG AUX:FUT ganar

'Harrison espera ganar.'

These examples illustrate that tense/aspect and subject reference within the complement is independent of that of the matrix verb. In each example the tense/aspect
in the complement is different from that of the matrix verb. In 137 and 138 the subjects are different, whereas in 139 the subjects are the same.

That complements are also used with complement-taking verbs of utterance. Again, their finiteness renders the complementizer redundant:

(140) He said (that) he would come.
   3SG decir:PAS COMP 3SG AUX venir
   'Dijo que iba a venir.' (Same subject)

(141) Fritz suggest-ed (that) we arrive early.
   Fritz sugerir-PAS COMP 1PL llegar temprano
   'Fritz sugirió que llegaramos temprano.' (Different subject)

16.4. Adverbial clauses

Adverbial clauses in English are normally introduced by one of a special set of adverbial clause introducers. The most common of these introducers are the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Logical relations</th>
<th>Temporal relations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>because</td>
<td>after</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>although</td>
<td>before</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to</td>
<td>while</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>if</td>
<td>when</td>
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<td>porque</td>
<td>después</td>
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<tr>
<td>aunque</td>
<td>antes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONCESION</td>
<td>mientras</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>para</td>
<td>simultaneidad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONDITION</td>
<td>cuando</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>POSTERIORITY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ANTERIORITY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SIMULTANEITY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>OVERLAP</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition to these simple introducers there exists a potentially open class of complex adverbial clause introducers. Some common ones include:

(142) even though aunque
   in order to con el propósito de . . .
   in spite of the fact that no importa que . . .

etc.

Some adverbial clauses are not finite, but instead take non-finite verbs with the suffix -ing 'participio presente'. These adverbial clauses can either appear without an introducer (exs. 143 and 144) or they may be introduced by one of a limited set of prepositions (exs. 145 and 146) or adverbial clause introducers (exs. 147 and 148):

(143) She left, [ clos-ing the door behind her. ]
   3SG:F salir:PAS cerrar-PPRES DEF puerta atrás 3SG:F:NN
   'Ella salió, cerrando la puerta atrás.'
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(144) [ Look-ing up, ] I notice-d I was late.
     mirar-PPRES arriba 1SG notar-PAS 1SG ser:PAS:SG tarde
     'Mirando arriba, noté que estaba tarde.'

(145) Upon look-ing up, I notice-d I was late.
     al mirar-PPRES arriba 1SG notar-PAS 1SG ser:PAS:SG tarde
     'Al mirar arriba, noté que estaba tarde.'

(146) In prepar-ing these word-s, I ran across this article.
     en preparar-PPRES DEMO1:PL palabra-PL 1SG correr:PAS tras DEMO1 artículo
     'Al preparar estas palabras, encontré este artículo.'

(147) While prepar-ing these word-s, I ran across this article.
     mientras preparar-PPRES DEMO1:PL palabra-PL 1SG correr:PAS tras DEMO1 artículo
     'Mientras estaba preparando estas palabras, encontré este artículo.'

(148) After prepar-ing these words, I ran across this article.
     después preparar-PPRES DEMO1:PL palabra-PL 1SG correr:PAS tras DEMO1 artículo
     'Después de preparar estas palabras, encontré este artículo.'

16.5. Coordination

Coordination is accomplished by juxtaposing two fully independent clauses with one of a small set of conjunctive particles interposed. The conjunctive particles are and 'y', but 'pero' and or 'o':

(149) John made the salad and Sally made the desert.
     Juan hacer:PAS DEF ensalada y Sally hacer:PAS DEF postre
     'Juan hizo la ensalada y Saly hizo el postre.'

(150) John made the salad but Sally made the desert.
     Juan hacer:PAS DEF ensalada pero Sally hacer:PAS DEF postre
     'Juan hizo la ensalada pero Saly hizo el postre.'

Both examples 149 and 150 have the same propositional semantics – each conjoined clause is equally asserted to be true. The difference between the use of and vs. but may be dialectal or conditioned by discourse considerations. In any case, this is a matter for future investigation.
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When conjoining clauses, or indicates that one clause is asserted to be true and the other one possibly not true. It does not indicate which of the two clauses is asserted to be true:

(151) John made the salad or Sally made the desert.

\[ \text{Juán hacer:}\text{PAS DEF ensalada o Saly hacer:}\text{PAS DEF postre} \]

'Juán hizo la ensalada o sea Saly hizo el postre.'

The adverbial either reinforces the interpretation that only one of the conjoined clauses may be true:

(152) Either John made the salad or Sally made the desert.

\[ \text{o Juán hacer:}\text{PAS DEF ensalada o Saly hacer:}\text{PAS DEF postre} \]

'Juán hizo la ensalada o sea Saly hizo el postre.'