CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Subordination in Sentences

In order to get further information, idea, theories about subordinations in sentence and other dealing with the analyze and to give clearer and better understanding about the term, some books related to the subject matter will be used. Those books are *Meaning – Centered Grammar: An Introductory Text* by Craig Hancock (2005), and *Writing Academic English* by Alice Hoshima and Ann Houge (1999).

Subordination is way of combining sentences that makes one sentence more important than the other, (Patricia K. Warner. 2007: 141). Subordination in a sentence makes your main idea stand out. By putting the less important information in subordinate clause the writer alerts the reader to the main idea that is most important. Sentences that use subordination have a main clause or independent clause and one (or more) subordinate clauses or dependent clauses.

A sentence is a group of words that expresses a complete thought and you use it to communicate your ideas, (Oshima. 1999: 155). Every sentence is formed from one or more clauses. A sentence must contain a subject and a finite verb. A sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop, question mark, or exclamation mark.
There are basically four kinds of sentences in English:

1. Simple Sentence, consists a single of independent clause with no dependent clause. For example, *The kittens are adopted by the family.*

2. Compound Sentence, consists of multiple independent clauses with no dependent clauses. These clauses are joined together using conjunctions, punctuations or both. For example, *Bill walked into that room, but I can't find him.*

3. Complex Sentence, consists of one independent clause and at least one dependent clause. For example, *The teacher returned the homework after she noticed the error.*

4. Compound-complex Sentence, consists of multiple independent clauses, at least one of which has at least one dependent clause. For example, *He couldn't see Charlie, but when she was on the hilltop, she suddenly could hear him crying out.*

Clauses are the building blocks of sentences. A clause is a group of words that contains (at least) a subject and a verb. There are two kinds of clauses: *independent* and *dependent*. An independent clause contains a subject and a verb and expresses a complete thought. It can stand alone as a sentence. A dependent clause begins with a subordinator such as when, where, if, while, that, or who. A dependent clause does not express a complete thought and cannot stand alone as a sentence by itself.

Three groups of words are used to connect clauses (called clause connectors) in order to form different kinds of sentences, (Oshima. 1990: 154). They are:
1. Subordinators (subordinating conjunctions), like:

- what
- while
- as
- how
- unless
- when
- who
- as if
- if
- until
- whenever
- whom
- as soon as
- since
- etc.
- where
- whose
- because
- so that
- wherever
- after
- before
- that
- which
- although
- even though
- though

2. Coordinators (coordinating conjunctions), like:

- for
- nor
- or
- so
- and
- but
- yet

3. Conjunctive Adverbs, like:

- accordingly
- furthermore
- indeed
- moreover
- besides
- however
- instead
- nevertheless
- consequently
- in addition
- likewise
- nonetheless
- for example
- in contrast
- meanwhile

The connectors mentioned above are usually used in connecting complex sentence. Complex sentence, usually called subordinate sentence, contains one independent clause and at least one dependent clause. In a complex sentence, one idea is generally more important than the other one. The more important idea is placed in the independent clause, and the less
An important idea is placed in the dependent clause. According to Oshima (1990: 160), there are three kinds of dependent clauses: adverb clause, adjective clause, and noun clause.

### 2.2 Adverb Clause

An adverb clause is a subordinate clause which modifies a verb, an adjective, another adverb in the main clause, or an entire main clause. In this case, a special introductory word is added to a full subject-predicate structure.

A dependent adverb clause begins with an adverbial subordinators such as *when, while, after, since, until, as, although, though, because, now that, if, providing, seeing that, as…as, more(er)…that, whether (or not), as much as, where, no matter if, so…that, and same as*.

Examples:

1. *When we tripped on the ice*, he dropped all his books and lost his homework. *(with comma)*

2. People were eating a lot of protein *while they were living on farms*. *(no comma)*

3. *After he had explained the accident*, the teacher had mercy. *(with comma)*

There are two possible positions for an adverb clause: before or after the independent clause. Commas are used when the sentence starts with the dependent clause, means before the independent clause (sentence 1 and 3). No commas are necessary when the dependent clause comes in the middle or end of the sentence, means after the dependent clause (sentence 2).
2.2.1 Forms

A dependent adverb clause begins with an adverbial subordinators such as *when*, *while*, *after*, *since*, *until*, *as*, *although*, *though*, *because*, *now that*, *if*, *providing*, *seeing that*, *as...as*, *more(er)...that*, *whether (or not)*, *as much as*, *where*, *no matter if*, *so...that*, and *same as*.

An adverb clause can be composed by the following pattern:

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Subject + Verb + Noun + Subordinator + Subject + Verb + Noun
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or:

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Subordinator + Subject + Verb + Noun, + Subject + Verb + Noun
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Adverb clause can be grouped according to the type of relationship they express. They are clause of time, clause of place, clause of reason, clause of condition, clause of result, clause of concession, and clause of comparison.

a. Clause of Time

Time clause may be used to relate actions or situations that will occur at the same time or in a sequence in the future. In general, the focus of these sentences will be on the main clause. Most adverb clauses and phrases that express the time, come either before or after the main clause in a sentence.

Adverbial clause of time is introduced by such subordinators as *after*, *as*, *once*, *since*, *until*, *when*, *while*, like the examples below:

4. *After the baby finishes eating*, we’ll put her to bed.
5. As I was walking to the store, it began to snow again.

   In both of sentences above, the sentences referring to the future, the verb in the dependent clause can be in the simple. Subordinators *as* and *while* usually emphasize an action in progress.

6. *Once she goes to bed*, we may be able to relax a little.

7. She has been a good skier *since she was a child*.

8. You shouldn’t put her to bed *until her hair has dried*.

9. *When people had to hunt for food*, they had continued moderate exercise.

10. People were eating a lot of protein *while they were living on farms*.

   **b. Clause of Place**

   Adverbial clause of place is introduced mainly by *where* or *wherever*. Where is specific and wherever is nonspecific. The clause may indicate position or direction, like the examples below:

11. *Where the fire had been*, we saw nothing but blackened ruins (indicates position).

12. They went *wherever they could find work* (indicates direction)

   Several temporal subordinators may have primarily a place meaning in description of scenes, when the scenes are described dynamically in terms of movement from one place to another.

13. Take the right fork *when the road splits into two*.

14. The river continues winding *until it reaches a large lake*.

15. The building becomes narrower *as it rises higher*.

16. The road stops *just after it goes under a bridge*.
17. Once the mountains rise above the snow line, vegetation is sparse.

C. Clause of Reason

In general, clause of reason conveys a direct relationship with the matrix clause. The relationship may be that of cause and effect (the perception of an inherent objective connection), reason and consequence (the speaker’s inference of connection), motivation and result (the intention of an animate being that has a subsequent result), or circumstance and consequence (a combination of reason with a condition) that is assumed to be filled, like examples below:

18. He’s thin because he hasn’t eaten enough. (relationship of cause and effect)

19. She watered the flowers because they were dry. (relationship of reason and consequence)

20. You’ll help me because you’re my friend. (relationship of motivation and result)

21. Since the weather has improved, the game will be held as planned. (relationship of circumstance and consequence)

Clause of reason is most commonly introduced by the subordinators because and since. Other subordinators include as, for, seeing that, and now that.

Examples:

22. It will not be necessary to study that chapter because you have already read it.

23. I didn’t set my alarm on Friday night since I didn’t want to get up early on Saturday morning.
24. As Jane was the eldest, she looked after the others.

25. Much has been written about psychic phenomena, for they pose fascinating problems that have yet to be resolved.

26. Seeing that it is about the rain, we had better leave now.

27. Now that I was compelled to think about it, reading was something that just came to me.

   d. Clause of Condition

   In general, clause of condition conveys a direct condition in that the situation in the matrix clause is directly contingent on the situation in the conditional clause, as illustrated in the example below:

28. If you put the baby down, she’ll scream.

   From the 28th sentence above, the speaker intends the hearer to understand that the truth of the prediction ‘she’ll scream’ depends on the fulfillment of the condition of ‘your putting the baby down’

   The most common subordinators for conditional clause are if and unless, which are also used with nonfinite and verbless clause. Other conditional subordinators are restricted to finite clause, for examples: given that, on condition (that), provided (that), providing (that), whether or not, and no matter if / whether.

   e. Clause of Result

   Adverb clause of result is used to indicate the result of something that is stated in the independent clause. Result clause is introduced by the subordinators so that and so, like the examples below:

29. We paid him immediately, so (that) he left contented.

30. I took no notice of him, so (that) he flew into a rage.
The subordinators are used for purpose clause. But, because they are putative rather than factual, purpose clauses require a modal auxiliary:

31. We paid him immediately, so that he would leave contented.

The subordinator so is indistinguishable from the conjunct so in asyndetic coordination, but if and is inserted so is unambiguously the conjunct:

32. We paid him immediately, and so he left contented.

f. Clause of Concession

Adverbial clause of concession is used to express ideas or actions that are not expected. The information in the independent clause indicates the concession which is introduced by the subordinator although, though, or even though, like these examples:

33. Although I studied all night, I failed the test.

34. Though my father likes mountains and snow, I’m sure he will learn to like beaches and sand.

35. He’ll probably enjoy water skiing, even though he prefers to ski in snow.

A comma normally follows introductory clause and phrase. Commas are also used occasionally with although, even though, and though when they appear in the middle of a sentence.

g. Clause of Comparison

In a comparative construction, a proposition expressed in the matrix clause is compared with a proposition expressed in the subordinate clause. Words that are repeated in both clauses may be omitted in the subordinate clause, like these examples:
36. Jane is *as healthy as* her sister.

37. Jane is *healthier than* her sister.

Clause of comparison can be formed with comparative adjectives or adverbs and *than*. In speaking and sometimes in writing, the verb in the dependent clause is often changed to the corresponding auxiliary verb.

38. Susan runs fast, but Marina runs *faster than* Susan runs.

39. Marina runs *faster than* Susan does.

In speaking and sometimes in writing, the verb or the dependent clause itself is omitted entirely. The comparison is not stated; rather, it is implied.

40. Marina runs *faster*.

41. Susan is *slower*.

Positive adjectives and adverbs are used with *as...as*. In speaking and sometimes in writing, the verb in the dependent clause is often changed to the corresponding auxiliary verb.

42. We cannot run *as fast as* many animals can run.

43. We cannot run *as fast as* many animals can.

Nouns are often used with the *same...as*. In the speaking and sometimes in writing, the verb in the dependent clause is often changed to the corresponding auxiliary verb.

44. Amazingly, that lion ran *the same distance as* the cheetah did in the same time.

In speaking and sometimes in writing, the verb or the dependent clause itself is omitted entirely. The comparison is not stated; rather, it is implied.

45. We cannot run *as fast as* many animals.

According to Hancock (2005: 54), adverb clause of comparison may be divided into two types: *adverb clause of comparison of degree* and *adverb clause of comparison of manner*. 
a) Adverb Clause of Comparison of Degree

This kind of adverb refers to compare between equal or unequal things in a sentence. The subordinators used in this kind of adverb clause are given with their respective examples follows:

As…as

45. Gorillas, as well as people, walk on their hind legs.

More(er)...than

46. She is richer than she looks.

So...as

47. I’ve already invented a premonition and a big parcel, but so far as I can see one has to invent something something if one doesn’t want to sound suspicious.

Same…as

48. Elephant has the same weight as the baby whale does.

b) Adverb Clause of comparison of Manner

This kind adverb clause talks about someone’s behavior or the way something is done. The subordinators used in this kind of adverb clause are given with their respective examples as follows:
As

49. He looked inquiringly at the inspector *as the later advanced*.

As if

50. I don’t feel *as if had a friend in the world*.

2.2.2 Functions

Like adverbial prepositional phrases, adverbial subordinate clauses can convey a number of adverbial meanings. There are some functions of adverbial clause (Hancock. 2005: 2005):

1. Time Clause has two functions, there are:

   - Depending in large part on the subordinator, the time of the matrix clause may be previous to that of the adverbial clause (with subordinator *until*), simultaneous with it or establish two events as happening simultaneously (with subordinator *while*), or subsequent to it (subordinator *after*).

   Examples:

   51. I didn’t start my meal *until Adam arrived*.

   52. *While I work*, I play music.

   53. He felt better *after he had a short nap*.

   - The time relationship may also convey duration (subordinators *as long as*), recurrence (subordinator *whenever*), and relative proximity (subordinator *just after*).

   Examples:
54. I will stay as long as my money holds out.

55. My heart leaps whenever I see you.

2. Clause of place has function to indicate position and direction.

Examples:

56. He fished where the river deepens out. (indicates position)

57. They went wherever they could find work. (indicates direction)

3. Clause of reason has function to convey a direct relationship with the matrix clause.

Example: Since the weather has improved, the game will be held as planned.

4. Clause of condition convey a direct condition in that the situation in the matrix clause is directly contingent on the situation in the conditional clause.

Example: I will go if I am needed.

5. Clause of result are used for purposes clauses. But, because the subordinators (s that and so) are putative rather than factual, purpose clauses require a modalauxiliary.

Example: We paid him immediately, so (that) he would leave contented.

6. Clause of concession has function to indicate the situation in the matrix clause is contrary to what one might expect in view of the situation in the concessive clause.

Example: No goals were scored, although it was an exciting game.

7. Clause of comparison with subordinators as, as if, and as though can introduce Non-finite clauses.

Examples:

58. Fill in the application form as instructed.

59. You should discuss the company with him as though unaware that you were being considered for a job
2.3 Noun Clause

Noun clause is a dependent clause (subordinate clause) used as a noun. It can be a subject, object, or subject complement. When a subordinate clause assumes the grammatical function of a noun in a sentence, it is said to be a nominal clause. Like noun phrase, nominal clause can function as subject and complement as in 60 to 62:

60. *What I had for breakfast* gave me heartburn. (subject)
61. The students do not know *whether they attend the lecture or not*. (object)
62. The wonderful thing about English teacher is *that all get along so well*. (complement)

2.3.1 Forms

Subordinators which introduce noun clause can be interrogative words, like *what, when, where, why, how*, etc, question word “ever”, such as: *whatever, whenever, whomever, however*, etc, and also subordinator *whether / if*.

Subordinators question word (“wh-question”) is used to connect dependent clause and independent clause.

63. We know *how wrote the letter*. (direct object)
64. *Where we are going* is a secret. (subject)
65. This is *what I think*. (subject complement)

Sometimes the subordinator is used as the subject of the verb in the noun clause. Only *who, whoever, what, whatever, which, whichever*, can be used as the subject of the verb in the noun clause.

- whoever and whomever → mean any person
- wherever → means any place
- however → means any way
whichever and whatever → mean anything

whenever → mean any time

Examples:

66. Whenever you want to leave is fine with me. (subject)

67. She will name him whatever she wants to. (objective complement)

68. They will welcome whoever is there. (subject)

*Whether / if* – clauses are dependent noun clauses that are formed from yes/no questions and are introduced by the subordinator *whether* or *if*. An *whether/if* – clauses is composed of:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><em>Whether / if + subject+verb + complement</em></th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

*Whether* is usually preferred in formal English. It implies choice among alternatives rather than a strict *yes / no* decision:

69. I would like to know whether (or not) I need an appointment.

*If* is usually in conversational English and in formal English. It often implies there is a *yes / no* answer:

70. I asked if they had any job openings.

### 2.3.2 Functions

Like noun phrase, noun clause (nominal clause) may function as subject, object, complement, appositive, and prepositional complement.

But the occurrence of noun clauses is more limited than that of noun phrases, because semantically the clauses are normally abstract; they refer to such abstractions as events, facts, and ideas. The one exception is the nominal relative clause, which may refer to persons and things and may in fact be alternatively analyzed as noun phrase. Since indirect objects normally refer to persons, we can see why only the nominal relative clause can function as indirect object.
There are six (6) functions of noun clause, such as: direct object of transitive verb, indirect object of a transitive verb, object of position, subjective complement, objective complement, and as an apposition to a noun or pronoun, (George E. Wishon. 1980: 174).

2.4 Adjective Clause

Adjective clause is one of the three kinds of dependent clauses in English. It is also called “Relative Clause”. Adjective clause connects idea by using pronoun that is related to something previously mentioned. Manser (1980:3) explains that Adjective is a word that has function to modify noun or pronoun, and clause is a group of words that contain a marker or subject and verb.

So, from the definition above, adjective clause is a dependent clause that functions as adjective; it modifies noun. Adjective clause is usually introduced by relative pronoun and subordinate conjunction also known as marker such as who, whom, whose, which, that, when, where, and why.

The information in the adjective clause itself serves to modify the noun. The function of the objective clause is the same as that of the adjective and that is why this clause is called Adjective Clause. The real point here is that adjective in a noun phrase precede the noun whereas adjective clause follows the noun. Adjective clause describes or provides information about something or someone that we have usually already specified.

Sometimes we used adjective clause to identify thing (or human being) to distinguish them from the other similar things (or human being). Adjective clause usually follows whatever it qualifies. So it comes immediately after the subject or the object of the sentences. Adjective clause instead of being called relative clause is also known as Attribute Clause. Therefore, we can recognize adjective clause by looking at the signal word or the marker after the noun (subject or object).
2.4.1 Forms

The formula of pattern of adjective clause that is also called Relative Clause:

Relative Pronouns

The relative pronouns have a different function. It may be a subject or an object in its own clause, or it may replace a possessive word.

Relative Pronouns as Subjects

The pattern of relative clauses as subjects can be formed as:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Who</th>
<th>Whom</th>
<th>Which</th>
<th>Whose</th>
<th>When</th>
<th>Where</th>
<th>That</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
<td>+ verb + subject + verb</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. *Relative pronouns as subject for humans* as reflected in the following sentence:

71. He was a man *who was inordinately fond of the money*.

b. *Relative Pronouns as subject for things / nonhumans* are:

72. Certain facts have come to light *which are bound to show him up in a most unfavorable light*. 
Relative Adverbs

Adjective clause (relative clause) may also be introduced by the relative adverbs *when* and *where*. Relative adverbs refer to a time or a place, and they replace entire prepositional phrases like *on Sunday* and *in the city*.

Relative adverbs are composed of:

The relative adverbs which may introduce adjective clause are:

73. Accordingly she came to Exhampton and first to the three Crown, *where Mrs. Belling received her with great enthusiasm*.

2.4.2 Functions

There are two functions of adjective clause according to the meaning namely: restrictive relative clause and non-restrictive relative clause.

1. Restrictive relative clause

Restrictive relative clause is a clause that cannot be omitted from a sentence if the sentence is to keep its original meaning. Therefore, the restrictive relative clause has no commas around it.

The subordinator is optionally used in creating restrictive relative clause and it is often omitted if it functions as an object as illustrated in the example:

74. All the little man on the witness stand had that made him any better than his nearest neighbors did.
2. Non-restrictive relative clause

Non-restrictive relative clause is a clause that contains additional information which is not required to give the meaning of the sentence. Non-restrictive means unnecessary. Therefore, a non-restrictive relative clause is set off from the other clause by commas. The subordinator is obligatory used in forming non-restrictive relative clause when the subordinator functions as the subject of the clauses as reflected in the following sentence:

75. Atticus and my uncle, who went to school at home, knew everything.