Some Remarks on Non-Finite Clauses

Toshihiko UEMURA

Abstract

“Non-finite reduced relative clauses” and “non-finite present (or past) participle clauses” are discussed in this paper. Firstly, a brief survey is conducted to examine how these grammatical structures are dealt with in English textbooks for Japanese high school students and ESL grammar practice books, and then I discuss to what extent Japanese university students should learn these non-finite clause structures.

1. Introduction

Non-finite clauses are often found in various English texts as they are more compact and less explicit than finite clauses, and they have a varied range of syntactic roles. In this paper two types of non-finite clauses are discussed: non-finite reduced relative clauses and non-finite present (or past) particle clauses. The former is used to “define or identify the nouns, in the same way as we use identifying relative clauses,” and the latter “in similar ways to full adverbial clauses, expressing condition, reason, time relations, etc. (Swan, 2009, p. 381, p.383)

Following are sample sentences in which non-finite reduced relative clauses or non-finite present (or past) participle clauses appeared in authentic English novels. The non-finite clauses are italicized and parenthesized, and their verb forms are indicated in bold.

Non-finite Reduced Relative Clauses

(1) “Did he tell you I wrote him a letter [telling him where to shove it]?” (Barnes, 2012, p. 51)
(2) In a nation [exhausted from a decades-long battle with the guerrillas], this was a rare piece of good news. (Kirkpatrick, 2010, p.1)
(3) Morales didn’t even realize people [living outside Colombia] had joined the group.
   (Kirkpatrick, 2010, p.4)

Non-finite Present (or Past) Participle Clauses

(4) Some of my contemporaries did VSO, [departing to Africa], where they taught schoolkids and built mud walls… (Barnes, 2012, p.45)
(5) In interviews she recalled listening to a radio in the jungle on February 4, [surrounded by her FARC captors]. (Kirkpatrick, 2010, p.6)

In his Grammar for English Language Teachers, Parrott (2000) writes “Learners whose first languages are very different from English may have particular difficulty in recognising and understanding
Problems of comprehension are compound when the relative clause is reduced through ellipsis”. (pp.356-7) Also, he points out that both “non-finite past participle clauses” and “non-finite present participle clauses” are difficult syntactic structures for ESL learners:

Comprehension is a problem most of all when non-finite clauses occur in long, complex sentences, and when other clauses - finite or non-finite - are embedded within them. Often learners don’t recognise and understand the structure of the sentence. ... Past participle clauses often pose a particular problem of recognition. ... Present participle clauses are usually more easily recognised, although learners often still need to stop and consciously puzzle out how the information in these relates to the information in the respective main clauses. (ibid. p.370)

However, these non-finite clauses are often used as a “means of syntactic compression” in written prose. (Greenbaum and Quirk, 1990, p.286) These “supplementive clauses” can imply temporal, conditional, casual, concessive, or circumstantial relationships.”

Adverbial participle and verbless clauses without a subordinator are supplementive clauses: they do not signal specific logical relationships, but such relationships are generally clear from the context. The formal inexplicitness of supplementive clauses allows considerable flexibility in what we may wish them to convey. According to context, we may wish to imply temporal, conditional, casual, concessive, or circumstantial relationships. In short, the supplementive clause implies an accompanying circumstance to the situation described in the matrix clause. (ibid. p.328)

English learners should learn a rule of thumb: when a subject is not present in a non-finite clause, it is identical in reference to the subject of the main clause, and that if the implied subject is not identical with that of the main clause, they are violating the rule and producing unacceptable sentences. (cf. ibid. pp.327-328)

This does not apply to post-modification by non-finite clauses. The implied subject is the head of preceding noun phrase. As this non-finite post-modification can be substituted by the corresponding relative clause, it is also called as “a reduced relative clause.” This type of post-modification can be both restrictive and non-restrictive.

Although these two types of non-finite clauses are morphologically identical, they are syntactically and semantically different: The post-modification by a reduced relative clause is an intra-clause phenomenon, and the present (or past) participle functioning as non-finite adverbial clause is an inter-clause phenomenon.

In this research I set up two research questions: How are these grammatical structures taught in English textbooks for Japanese high school students? To what extent should these grammatical structures be acquired by Japanese university students?
2. English textbooks in Japan

Most Japanese learn English as their first foreign language. At school they use English textbooks authorized by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science & Technology in Japan (MEXT). To be accepted as school textbooks, all textbooks must follow the guideline specified in the Course of Study by MEXT. It was revised in 2009. Under the 2009 revision, the English subject, “English Communication I”, became a required subject for all senior high school students. The Course of Study for Senior High Schools says “when instructing English Communication I, all items listed in C. should be appropriately introduced by linking them effectively with language activities.”

2

C. Grammatical items
(a) Use of infinitives
(b) Use of relative pronouns
(c) Use of relative adverbs
(d) Use of auxiliary verbs
(e) The pronoun it in reference to noun phrases or noun clauses that follow
(f) Verbal tenses, etc.
(g) Subjunctive mood
(h) Participial construction (MEXT, 2009, Article 3)

As of October 2012, no “English Communication I” textbook has been published. Therefore, I used twelve high school English textbooks for reading which were authorized in 1999, and are still being used by high school students to examine how two types of non-finite clauses are used in MEXT-authorized English textbooks (See List 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Certified English textbooks for reading</th>
<th>Non-finite reduced relative clauses</th>
<th>Non-finite present (or past) participle clauses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Encounter Reading Course</em> L.8</td>
<td>#Given., #99*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Genius English Readings</em> L.12</td>
<td>#Living., #170</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Milestone English Reading</em> L.11</td>
<td>#... streams rushing...#125</td>
<td>#... bringing...#124; #... scratching...#125; #... thinking...#125; #... making...#126; #... laughing...#126; #... feeling...#127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>New Stage English Reading</em> Part 3.4</td>
<td>#... page headed...#138</td>
<td>#... laughing..., sitting..., going...#145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>One World English Reading</em> L.12</td>
<td>#... having..., ...#145</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Examined were the last chapters or lessons of English reading textbooks. In List 1, the beginning and the end of sentence are marked by #, and the places of non-finite clauses are shown by # V-ing /Vppt., # (as front position), # .., V-ing /Vppt., ...# (as mid position), and #.. V-ing/ Vppt...# (as end-position). (V-ing/ Vppt represents the verb forms of the present and past participles.) Numerals after # indicate the pages of the textbook in which the sentences with non-finite clauses were found.

An ad hoc investigation reveals that the non-finite present participle clauses appear in all reading textbooks except *Planet Blue Reading Navigator*, and that the reduced relative clauses occur in five reading textbooks. However, it is uncertain how high school English teachers are teaching these non-finite clause structures.

While the non-finite clause in (6) is easily identified as a non-finite present participle clause, the non-finite clause in (7) may cause a controversy: *Aborigines* in (7) can be interpreted as the head of this non-restrictive clause, or the implied subject of the present participle clause.

(6) The door closed and he lay still, [laughing to himself]. *(Milestone, p.126)*

(7) Aborigines, [searching for strong voices in their fight for equality], found in this

16-year-old champion a powerful new symbol for their cause. *(Polestar, p.119)*

Without changing meaning, the non-finite clause “searching for strong voices in their fight for equality” can be moved to initial position as in (7b). While Quirk, et al. (1985) regards this syntactic structure as “non-restrictive post-modification by non-finite clauses,” they also state that “this mobility in fact implies that non-finite non-restrictive clauses are equivocal between adnominal and adverbial roles.”

---

### List 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Textbook</th>
<th>Non-finite Clauses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>Orbit English Reading</em></td>
<td>#..., returning...#144; #..., bathing...#146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Planet Blue Reading Navigator</em></td>
<td>#... vehicle consisting...#62, #... skirt, called...#64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Polestar Reading Course</em></td>
<td>#..., searching*... #119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Prominence English Reading</em></td>
<td>#... volunteer working...#146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Sunshine Readings</em></td>
<td>#..., closing...#148, #..., holding...#148; #..., trying...#148; #..., hiding...#150; #..., waiting...#150; #..., trying...#152; #..., sitting...#152; #..., standing...#152; #..., holding...#149; looking...#150; reassuring...#156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Vivid Reading</em></td>
<td>#Amusing...#141; #Climbing...#141; #..., trying...#144; #..., pulling...#144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Voyager Reading Course</em></td>
<td>#Hearing...#161; #..., meaning...#164</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Alternative classification is possible. See below for further remarks.*
(7b) \textit{Searching for strong voices in their fight for equality}, Aborigines found in this 16-year-old champion a powerful new symbol for their cause.

Another grammatically indeterminate non-finite clause was found in Lesson 8 of Encounter Reading Course:

(8) \textit{Given a difficult job to do}, you decide whether you will say to yourself, “This is a difficult job, but I will do it and do it well.” (Encounter, p.99)

According to Quirk, et al. (1985), “Given a difficult job to do” in (8) can be classified either as prepositional phrase (“given” as preposition) or as non-finite clause (“given” as “participle”). (ibid. 9.3)

Incidentally, in Encounter Reading Course there are three (Gerunds) -ing forms functioning as subject or prepositional object:

(9) \textit{Discovering and fully exercising your freedom to choose your attitudes toward the challenges of life} will strongly affect your rate of success with happiness in life. (Encounter, p.99)

(10) \textit{Upon developing your spirit and exercising your freedom of choice of attitude}, responsibilities of life become easier to understand, accept, and fulfill. (Encounter, p.99)

As “English Reading” is a required subject for high school students who are attending non-vocational high schools, it is probable that many of them use one of these textbooks for reading. From List 1 I assume that the two types of non-finite clauses appear relatively frequently in the high school texts; thus the high school students can learn the basics of these grammatical structures.

3. Graded Readers

When rewriting authentic reading materials or writing from scratch for graded readers, from which level can (re)writers use the two types of non-finite clause? The Oxford Bookworms Graded Readers Syllabus does not specify the grade level. Neither “Guide to the Structural Grading of Macmillan Readers” nor “Penguin Readers Grading” indicate. However, as is discussed below, these non-finite structures were found in the Bookworm Level 6 books.

How are these used in the extensive reading texts? The first twenty pages of fifteen Oxford Bookworms Level 6 books were scanned to feed into English text analyzing software, WordSmith Tools 6 (WST6) to make a frequency-based word list, and to find the collocation patterns of the two non-finite clauses. (See List 3 for numbers of words and sentences in each book.)

When WST6 produces word frequency lists, it also provides basic lexical statistics such as the numbers of tokens (=running words), types (=distinct words), and sentences in the analyzed texts. In the fifteen Bookworm texts there were 96,285 tokens, 5,747 types and 7,961 sentences. While five past participles were used over 100 times in the fifteen texts, there is no present participle found over 100 times.
In frequency order, *said* appeared 717 times, *looked* 176 times, *asked* 168 times, and *told* 104 times. However, the present participle *looking* was found 96 times, and *smiling* 46 times.

**List 2. Words and Sentences in Oxford Bookworm Level 6 Books**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>files</th>
<th>tokens</th>
<th>types</th>
<th>sentences</th>
<th>tokens in sentence (mean)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AmCrimeStories</td>
<td>6076</td>
<td>1181</td>
<td>635</td>
<td>9.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BarchesterTowers</td>
<td>7451</td>
<td>1499</td>
<td>428</td>
<td>17.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ColdComfortFarm</td>
<td>6837</td>
<td>1550</td>
<td>506</td>
<td>13.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CryFreedom</td>
<td>6750</td>
<td>1319</td>
<td>617</td>
<td>10.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deadheads</td>
<td>5443</td>
<td>1160</td>
<td>563</td>
<td>9.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GazingStars</td>
<td>6094</td>
<td>1492</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>15.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JaneEyre</td>
<td>6098</td>
<td>1162</td>
<td>551</td>
<td>11.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JoyLuckClub</td>
<td>6978</td>
<td>1433</td>
<td>533</td>
<td>13.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meteor</td>
<td>5241</td>
<td>1128</td>
<td>486</td>
<td>10.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NightwithoutEnd</td>
<td>6238</td>
<td>1324</td>
<td>567</td>
<td>11.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OliverTwist</td>
<td>6405</td>
<td>1264</td>
<td>540</td>
<td>11.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pride&amp;Prejudice</td>
<td>6367</td>
<td>1295</td>
<td>438</td>
<td>14.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TessofdUrbervilles</td>
<td>6227</td>
<td>1243</td>
<td>635</td>
<td>9.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VanityFair</td>
<td>6650</td>
<td>1304</td>
<td>473</td>
<td>14.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WomaninWhite</td>
<td>7430</td>
<td>1303</td>
<td>594</td>
<td>12.51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The fifteen Bookworm texts reveal that there are more non-finite present (or past) participle clauses than non-finite reduced relative clauses. Examples (11) to (19) are quoted from the texts.

**Non-finite Reduced Relative Clauses**

(11) The history questions [asked by Miss Scatcherd] sounded very difficult ... (JaneEyre, p.15)
(12) It appeared to come from Mrs d’ Urberville, and offered Tess work [looking after chickens]. (TessofdUrbervilles, p.13)

**Non-finite Present (or Past) Participle Clauses**

(13) The proud man sank on his knees by the bedside, and, [taking the bishop’s hand in his own], prayed eagerly that his sins would be forgiven. (BarchesterTowers, p.2)
(14) I was waiting in an upstairs room, [crying and thinking bitterly about my parents’ promise]. (JoyLuckClub, p.22)
(15) One Saturday night she was in the town [looking for her companions] as it was time to go home, when she met Alec d’Urberville. (TessofdUrberville, p.18)

The present participle “looking” frequently co-occurred with “said” functioning as the main verb. (11 times out of 96 occurrences). (See (16) and (17).) “Smiling,” which appeared 46 times in the fifteen texts, was found with the main verb asked and said three times each. (See (18) and (19).)
(16) ‘What a lovely little boy!’ she said brightly, [looking at the baby], who was wearing blue clothes. (Deadheads, p.11)
(17) ‘OK. I’ll bandage you up in a minute,’ I said, [turning back to the stewardess and looking her straight in the eye]. (NightwithoutEnd, p.14)
(18) ‘And who is this one?’ Woods asked, [smiling down at the boy]’. (CryFreedom, p.7)
(19) ‘Surely she’s more sensible than that,’ said the doctor, [smiling at me].’ (JaneEyre, p.7)

Waring (2005) claims that “Massive exposure from Graded Readers provides opportunities for learners to meet new language as well as recycle and consolidate previously met language.” Although there are many instances of non-finite clauses in the fifteen Bookworm texts, they are far from enough to be regarded as “massive exposure.” Also, how many graded texts English learners should read seems much to do with the level of each English learner.

As the number of headwords and grammatical structures are graded, the English texts taken from the Bookworm Level 6 titles are expected to be the same in terms of readability. However, this is not the case. List 2 indicates that the mean of tokens in a sentence ranges from 9.67 to 17.41, and that of ColdComfortFarm is 13.51, which is a little higher than the mean score of 12.09. Yet, when it comes to the complex sentences, these in ColdComfortFarm tend to be longer and more complicated: compare (20) and (21) from ColdComfortFarm with (11) to (19) which were quoted from other Graded Reader texts.

(20) A pot full of coarse porridge hung over the fire, and, [looking moodily down into the pot], stood a tall young man whose riding-boots were splashed with mud, and whose rough shirt was open to the waist. (ColdComfortFarm, p.16)
(21) So I said, well, I wasn’t quite sure, but on the whole I liked [having everything very tidy and calm all round me], and [not being asked to do things], and [laughing at the kind of joke other people didn’t think at all funny], and [going for country walks], and [not being asked to express opinions about things (like love)]. (ColdComfortFarm, p.4)

The examined Bookworm Level 6 books are different in terms of the number of words in a sentence and the complexity of the clause. This means the readability or difficulty of each Level 6 text is not strictly controlled.

4. ESL/EFL Grammar Practice Books

English taught in Japanese universities varies from university to university, and it is almost impossible to figure out which textbooks are most widely used. Instead of researching the most popular English textbooks, intermediate- or advanced-level English grammar practice books are examined to investigate how the two types of non-finite clauses are described. Examined here are those published by American or British ESL publishing companies.
List 3. Two Types of Non-Finite Clauses in ESL/EFL Grammar Practice Books

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grammar practice books</th>
<th>Non-finite reduced relative clauses</th>
<th>Non-finite present (or past) participle clauses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Azar and Hagen (2009)</td>
<td>Ch.13 Adjective clauses: 13.11 Reducing adjective clauses to adjective phrases</td>
<td>Ch.18 Reduction of adverb clauses to modifying adverbial phrases: 18-3 Expressing the idea of “During the Same Time” in Modifying Adverbial Phrases; 18-4 Expressing Cause and Effect in Modifying Adverbial Phrases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Broukal (2010)</td>
<td>12 Adjective clauses: 12G Reduced adjective clauses</td>
<td>13 Adverb clauses: 13F Reduced adverb clauses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eastwood (2006) Intermediate (CEF B1-B2)</td>
<td>143 Relative clauses: participle and to-infinitive</td>
<td>75 Some structures with the -ing form</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hughes and Jones (2011) Level 3 Intermediate to Upper Intermediate (CEF B1-B2)</td>
<td>84 Reduced relative clauses</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Murphy and Smalzer (2009)</td>
<td>95 -ing and -ed phrases (the woman talking to Tom, the boy injured in the accident)</td>
<td>66 -ing phrases (Feeling tired, I went to bed early.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swan and Walter (2011) Intermediate (CEF B1-B2)</td>
<td>Sec.19 relatives: Reduced relative clauses</td>
<td>Sec. 17 Conjunctions: Clauses without conjunction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Swan and Walter (2011) Advanced (CEF C1-C2)</td>
<td>Sec. 15 adjective (relative) clauses: Reduced relative clauses</td>
<td>Sec. 14 Conjunctions, clauses and tenses: no conjunction</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While Hughes and Jones (2011) Level 2 does not have any unit or section of “reduced relative clauses,” Hughes and Jones (2011) Level 3 describes this grammatical structure in Unit 84. The former is a grammar practice book for “lower intermediate to intermediate” learners (CEF A2-B1), and the latter for “intermediate to upper intermediate” English learners (CEF B1-B2). Both Oxford English Grammar Course (Swan and Walters, 2011) and Oxford Practice Grammar (Eastwood, 2006) consist of three books: Basic (CEF A1-A2), Intermediate (B1-B2) and Advanced (C1-C2). All but Basic books by the Oxford University Press have sections dealing with the non-finite present and past participle clauses.

Most English grammar practice books deal with the two types of non-finite clauses. However, this is a tentative conclusion because List 3 is hardly an exhaustive list of all university-level grammar practice books for intermediate or advanced learners.

5. English Proficiency Test Preparation Textbooks

Many intermediate- and advanced-level English learners are taking English proficiency tests organized...
by the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) and by the Educational Testing Service (ETS). Examples (22) and (23) were quoted from the test resources provided by the IELTS organizer, the University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations. (Test 3 Reading Passage 2 “Disappearing Delta” in IELTS Examination Papers 5 and Top Tips for IELTS Academic, respectively.) (24) and (25) were taken from two TOEFL iBT preparation books published by Barron’s Educational Series, Inc. and Thomson ELT, respectively.

(22) The fertile land of the Nile delta is being eroded along Egypt’s Mediterranean coast at an astounding rate, [in some parts estimated at 100 metres per year]. In the past, land [scoured away from the coastline by the currents of the Mediterranean Sea] used to be replaced by sediment [brought down to the delta by the River Nile], but this is no longer happening. (University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations, 2006, p.67)

(23) At first glance, Cornelia Parker’s 1991 installation Cold Dark Matter: An Exploded View would seem to be the outcome of a destructive drive in the artist’s personality. On the contrary, she is fascinated by the way that change, even change of a violent nature, is a new beginning, an opportunity for something very different to emerge. Cold Dark Matter consists of a garden shed which Parker filled with objects, then asked the army to blow up. She suspended the resulting fragments in a room and lit them with a single bulb, [throwing sinister shadows on the walls]. The title is central to understanding the work, [alluding to the cold dark matter] which, in one version of the ‘big bang’ theory, led to the creation of the universe. (University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations, 2009, p.45)

(24) Probably Charlie Chaplin’s most important film is his comic masterpiece Modern Times, [made in 1936]. [Set in the Great Depression era], the film’s main concerns are those of millions of people at the time: unemployment, poverty, and economic oppression. ... (Rogers, 2007, p.746)

(25) As early as 1883, CPR (Canadian Pacific Railway) construction crews blasting through the rugged terrain of northern Ontario discovered copper and nickel deposits in the vicinity of Sudbury. ... In the same year, the federal government created the Yukon Territory, [administered by an appointed commissioner], in an effort to ward off the prospect of annexation to Alaska. ... the fast flowing rivers of the Shield and Cordilleras could readily be harnessed as sources of hydroelectric power, [replacing coal in the booming factories of central Canada] as well as in the evolving mining and pulp and paper industries. ... As the National Policy had intended, a growing agricultural population in the West increased the demand for eastern manufactured goods, [thereby giving rise to agricultural implements work, iron and steel foundries, machine shops, railway yards, textile mills, boot and shoe factories, and numerous smaller manufacturing enterprises that supplied consumer goods]. (Sharpe, 2010, pp.227-8)

These were chosen at random, and hardly represent genuine proficiency test texts. However, it is probable that the more IELTS and TOEFL test-takers do practice tests, the more these non-finite clause structures are found in the practice test texts.

When examining the Level 6 graded reader texts, we found that the sample sentences (20) and (21) from ColdComfortFarm are longer and more complex than its counterparts. The IELTS and TOEFL sample sentences (22) to (25) are equally or more complex than those two. Because of flexibility and compactness,
these participle-based syntactic structures are indispensable to natural and authentic English. In fact, Parrott (2000) states “If we compare a few pages of writing by learners and by native speakers, or a few minutes’ worth of their speech, we usually find that learners use non-finite clauses far less than native speakers.” (p.371)

These observations suggest that Japanese university students must get accustomed to many complex non-finite clauses with present or past participles so that they can easily read and write natural proficiency-level English.

6. Discussion

When teaching two types of non-finite clauses, English professionals have to draw their students’ attention to several linguistic distinctive features or peculiarities.

Firstly, although they are morphologically identical, they are syntactically different: while reduced relative clauses are found in the intra-clause position, non-finite present (or past) participle clauses are found in the inter-clause position. However, as is discussed in Section 2, this distinction becomes indistinct when the non-finite reduced relative clause is used non-restrictively. Here, (7) is again quoted as an example.

(7) Aborigines, [searching for strong voices in their fight for equality], found in this 16-year-old champion a powerful new symbol for their cause. (Polestar, p.119)

Secondly, non-finite clauses without subject must be carefully constructed, or, English learners might produce ungrammatical sentences with “dangling participles.” Sentence (26) is ungrammatical because the implied subject of non-finite clause is not “the fire alarm” but “I.” However, even though “he” in (27) is not the implied subject, (27) is acceptable. Here, [Stated bluntly] is regarded as “style disjunct.” Although dangling particles are referred to in all examined intermediate grammar practice books, they do not show when the rule of the implied subject of non-finite participle clause is relaxed.

(26) *[While sitting at my computer], the fire alarm went off. (Azar and Hagen, 2009,p.388)
(27) [Stated bluntly], he had no chance of winning. (Greenbaum and Quirk, 1990, p.326)

Thirdly, two participles in post-modification have different syntactic patterns of occurrence.

“Participle clauses are especially common in news and academic prose. In news and academic prose, ed-clauses are considerably more common than ing-clauses. Most ing-participles and passive verbs occur in participle clauses rather than relative clauses, even when relative clauses could be used. That is, a post-modifying participle clause is the expected choice wherever an ing-form or passive verb occurs in a post-modifying clause.” (Biber et al. 2002, pp.292-3)

Also, Biber et al. (1999) state that “many of the most common -ing verbs are stative in meaning” and “a full relative clause containing a finite progressive form is not truly an option.” In contrast, post-modification
with past participles can be replaced by a full relative clause with a passive verb. The preference for participle clauses is much to do with its compactness. (pp.631-2)

Japanese university students have to acquire how and when non-finite clauses with participles can be used in speech and writing. The detailed account of non-finite clauses in this section seems a kick-start for them to make their knowledge of non-finite clauses productive. However, it does not follow that they have to know how to analyze or classify them grammatically. Detailed and systematic analyses of non-finite clause phenomena are left for English professionals.

7. Conclusion

In this paper I examined two types of non-finite clauses with present or past participles: those in the intra-clause position functioning as a “reduced relative clause”, and those functioning as adverbial supplements to the main clause. My survey reveals that high school students can master the basics of these syntactic structures by learning high school English textbooks and reading the Oxford Bookworm Level 6 graded readers. However, Japanese students’ basic knowledge is not good enough to reading TOEFL iBT- or IELTS-level texts with ease. And it is too simple to understand naturally written or spoken English texts. Even the examined English grammar practice books for intermediate-level students were not good enough. Therefore, basing on the findings from corpus-based studies and grammatical analyses, three linguistic distinctiveness or peculiarities are proposed as keys to comprehending and producing sentences with non-finite participle clauses.

Notes

1. “Non-finite reduced relative clauses” are also referred to as “post-modification by -ing (or-ed) participle clauses” (Greenbaum and Quirk, 1990, p.372-3); “the relative clause reduced through ellipsis” (Parrott, 2000, p.356); “participle clauses as post-modifiers” (Biber et al., 2002, p.292); “gerund-participial clauses functioning as modifier in NP”, “past-participial clauses functioning as modifier in NP” (Huddleston and Pullum, 2005, p.212, p.213, p.214); “non-finite clauses functioning as reduced relative clauses” (Greenbaum and Nelson, 2009, p.113); “to-infinitivals functioning as modifier in NP”, or “non-finite relative clauses” (Aarts, 2011: p.199; Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p.574).

2. “Non-finite present (or past) participle clauses” are also called “-ing participle and -ed participle” (Greenbaum and Quirk, 1990, p.286); “non-finite present particle clause”, “non-finite past particle clause” (Parrott, 2000, p.370); “supplement clauses” (Biber et al., 2002, p.260); “non-finite clauses functioning as adjunct” (Huddleston and Pullum, 2005, p.207); “non-tensed verb phrases” (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p.305) or “non-finite clauses” (Carter and McCarthy, 2006, p.546); “adverbial clauses function as the adverbial element in sentence or clause structure” (Greenbaum and Nelson, 2009, p.113); “-ing participle clauses functioning as adjunct” (Aarts, 2011, p. 230); “past participle clauses functioning as adjunct” (Aarts, 2011, p.234).

of words that begins in a capital letter and ends in a full stop, and is typically used to express a state of affairs in the world.” When analyzing complex sentences, Aarts (2008, p.53) uses the terms “matrix (or superordinate) clause” and “subordinate clause.” Non-finite clauses are a subtype of subordinate clauses with non-finite verbs.

References


Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science & Technology in Japan. (2011). Senior High School Course of Study, Chapter 2 Section 8 Foreign languages (Provisional translation)


Waring, R. (2005). Getting the most out of your Readers


(ESL Grammar Practice Textbooks)


(IELTS and TOEFL Preparation Books)


(MECSST-Certified Senior High School Textbooks for the English Reading)


(Oxford Bookworms Level 6 Books)


**Paperback Novels**
