

## ON COMPLEMENT AND ADJUNCT CLAUSES IN ENGLISH FROM DISCOURSE PERSPECTIVE

*Abstract:* The paper aims to test the view put forward in Matthiessen/Thompson 1988, Verhagen 2005 and Langacker 2008 (among others) that there is an important difference between adjunct and complement clauses – whereas the former provide additional pieces of information and can be viewed as satellite discourse fragments with respect to the main clauses (which provide the skeleton of the discourse, determining its overall structure), the latter, though viewed as syntactically subordinate, actually present the basic discourse content. The paper attempts to do so by analysing a group of (stylistically varied) texts, thereby especially focusing on the contribution of the two given types of clauses to discourse. In addition, the implications of such analysis are also discussed in terms of their pedagogical implications.

*Key words:* adjunct/complement clauses, discourse, syntactically superordinate/subordinate, discourse superordinate/subordinate, intersubjective coordination

### 1. Introduction

This paper deals with one aspect of the link between syntax and discourse – an issue that has been given various degrees of prominence in different linguistic approaches.

It has a twofold aim. First of all, it attempts to test the views put forward in Matthiessen / Thompson 1988, Mann / Matthiessen / Thompson 1989, Verhagen 2005 and Langacker 2008 (among others) dealing with the difference between (finite) complement and adjunct clauses from discourse perspective. And secondly, it aims to discuss the pedagogical implications of such a distinction.

In this paper, complement clauses will be taken to mean all the (syntactically subordinate) clauses functioning as the DO (direct object), IO (indirect object), RO (retained object), SC (subject complement), OC (object complement), Cn (complement of the noun), Ca (complement of the adjective, and restrictive RelCIs (relative clauses). Adjunct clauses will be taken mean all the (syntactically subordinate) clauses functioning as the AM (adverbial modifier), SM (sentence modifier) and non-restrictive RelCI (for clause types see Quirk *et al.*, 1985: 1047–1076 *et passim*, Huddleston / Pullum, 2002: 853–945 *et passim*).

### 1.1. Theoretical Background

This part of the paper will primarily address the works of several authors coming from the fields of Functional and Cognitive linguistics (for delimiting the terms Cognitive Linguistics and Functional Linguistics and the relation between the two, the reader is referred to Nuyts, 2007: 543–565).

As far as works of the linguists from Functional Linguistics are concerned, the paper will first address Matthiessen / Thompson 1988 and Mann / Matthiessen / Thompson 1989. Within the given approach, the given linguists were primarily involved in the domain of discourse studies and are said to have developed Rhetorical Structure Theory (for an overview of the bibliography in the given theory, the reader is referred to <http://www.sfu.ca/rst/pdfs/rst-bib.pdf>, and for additional details on the work of the given linguists to Nuyts, 2005: 547).

All of them in the papers referred to above insist that there is a considerable distinction between complement and adjunct clauses, as defined above. Namely, they put forward the view that *complement* clauses are much more tightly integrated into their matrix clauses than adjunct ones, and that they are to be viewed as examples of “real” subordination or embedding. On the other hand, *adjunct* clauses are to be viewed as examples of a *hypotactic* relationship, namely the one in-between subordination and coordination (in this case the given authors refer to several works of the well-known functional linguist M. A. K. Halliday). A hypotactically connected (i.e. an adjunct) clause relates to its main clause as a satellite discourse fragment to its nucleus, the nuclei constituting the text’s main line. In that sense, the (syntactically) main clauses provide the skeleton of the discourse, determining its overall structure, whereas the hypotactic clauses provide appended, non-principal, additional pieces of information. In addition, the given resources point to the fact that the ideas of the given kind are not new, in which sense they refer to Wellander, E. (1947): *Riktig svenska*. Stockholm: Almqvist & Wiksell.

Thompson, 2002 and Diessel/Tomasello, 2001, while dealing with complementation in conversation and in children’s acquisition of complementation structures respectively, both challenge the (traditional) assumption that complement clauses should be viewed as instances of subordination of those clauses to the matrix clause. In that sense, they insist that the *complement clause* represents an *assessment of an object of attention*, whereas the *matrix clause* represents an *epistemic stance on that assessment, issue or claim*. For example, in a sentence such as *I believe that they are there already*, the complement clause *that they are there already* is taken to represent an assessment of an object of attention (in this case *they*), whereas the matrix clause *I believe* is considered to represent an epistemic stance on that assessment.

Langacker, who is a well-known representative of Cognitive Linguistics in general (and Cognitive Grammar in particular) presents two quite different views of the discourse role of complementation structures in his monographs coming from

different periods of his work. In that sense, he says that the profile<sup>1</sup> of a complement clause is overridden by that of the main clause (for example, a sentence such as *I know she left* can be said to designate the process of knowing, not of leaving) (Langacker, 1991: 436 et passim), which implies that is the the matrix, rather than the complement clause, that is more discourse-prominent. However, in his later books (such as Langacker, 2008: 418–419), he puts forward the view that, from a discourse perspective, *the content presented in subordinate clauses is often more important*, in which sense he gives this short discourse as an example: *There's something [you simply have to know]. It seems [that Gerald's trophy wife is really a transsexual]. I suppose [they'll get a divorce]. I am telling you because [he'll need a good lawyer]*. In other words, if one were to rely on matrix (and syntactically superordinate) clauses only (*There's something, It seems, I suppose, I am telling you*), one would see that the discourse, as it were, progresses almost nowhere. On the other hand, if one relied on the dependent (syntactically subordinate) clauses, one would get what could count as a relatively coherent discourse: *You simply have to know – Gerald's trophy wife is really a transsexual. They'll get a divorce. He'll need a good lawyer*. In that sense, this author concludes that this questions whether the clauses traditionally labelled as subordinate actually deserve that label. Namely, he adds, when it comes to conveying essential content, *it is often the so-called subordinate clause that plays the leading role*. Conversely, it is common for a ‘main’ clause to have a secondary function, such as indicating the status of that content (*It seems, I suppose...*) or managing the discourse interaction (*I am telling you because...*).

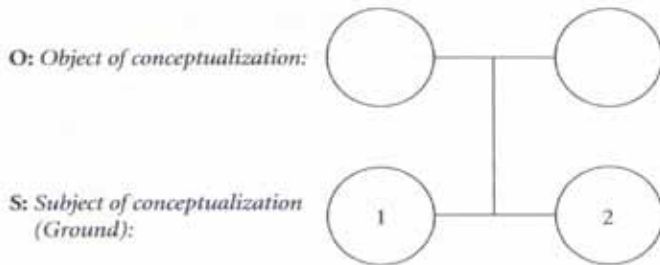
A. Verhagen (who can be considered a functional-cognitive linguist belonging to the European branch of Cognitive Linguistics – see Nuyts, 2005: 546), in Verhagen 2005, starts from the presented theoretical perspectives and extends them to written discourse. In that sense, and as it will be seen, he also introduces the concept of *intersubjectivity*, which is also quite important for our purposes in this paper.

Namely, he says that language use is intimately tied to the fundamental human ability to *coordinate cognitively with others* (*ibid.*, p. 8). That *cognitive coordination* for the speaker / writer means an attempt to *influence* somebody else's thoughts, attitudes and immediate behaviour, whereas for the addressee it means finding out what kind of influence it is that the speaker / writer is trying to exert and deciding to go with it or not (*ibid.*, p. 10). The default condition for ordinary expressions is they provide an argument for some conclusion, and this *argumentative orientation* is constant in the function of the expression, while its *information value* is more variable (*ibid.*). In that sense, this author claims, *ordinary linguistic communication is basically argumentative, not primarily informative* (*ibid.*, 22/23), human language is fundamentally a matter of regulating and assessing others, of mutual influencing, not of information exchange; in addition, grammatical elements and syntactic constructions in general, have systematic, conventional functions in the dimension of intersubjective coordination (*ibid.*, p. 9).

<sup>1</sup> For this author's definition of the concept of *profile*, see *ibid.*, 66–70 et passim.

In order to exemplify this, the given author gives the following example (among others): *There are seats in this room. But they are uncomfortable.* Namely, the second sentence here (*But they are uncomfortable*) shows that the first one (*There are seats in this room*) induces an addressee to make *positive* inferences about the degree of the comfort of the seats, which, in turn, can be proved if the first sentence were followed by either of the two following ones: *?And moreover, they are uncomfortable. ?But they are comfortable.* In this sense, the given author claims that this is an operation in the *dimension S* (i.e. the *subjective dimension*) of the *construal configuration*.

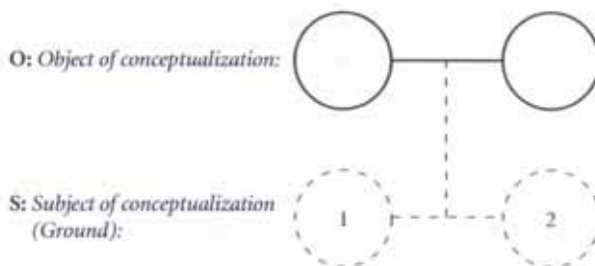
The diagram 1 below shows what the given author considers to be the *construal configuration* and its basic elements (*ibid.* p. 7)



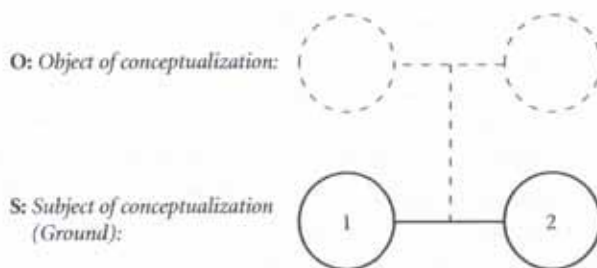
**Diagram 1.** The construal configuration and its basic elements

Even when an actual speaker / writer is absent, an addressee (numbered 2 in the diagram above) takes a linguistic utterance as having been intentionally produced as an instrument of communication by another human being (with the same basic cognitive capacities as the addressee) and thus always engages in cognitive coordination with another subject of conceptualization (numbered 1 in the diagram above). Along the same lines, even when the addressee is absent, a speaker / writer assumes that his / her utterance is in principle interpretable by somebody else sharing the knowledge of certain conventions. It is in that sense, as already stated above, that language use is intimately tied to the fundamental human ability to coordinate cognitively with others (*ibid.*, p. 7 / 8). That is what the “S-level” (at which there are two circles representing two subjects of cognitive coordination in the lower part of the diagram above) refers to. On the other hand, the “O-level” refers to an object of conceptualization that the speaker / writer and the addressee(s) actually cognitively coordinate about.

It can happen that certain utterances pertain primarily to the “O-level”, as in the sentence such as *John owns a horse*, whereas other utterances may focus entirely on the dimension of cognitive coordination between / among the subjects of conceptualization (“the S-level”), as when people say *Hi, Sorry, Hey*, or use other phatic expressions (in well-known Malinowski’s terms). The former case is represented in the diagram 2 below (in which the S-level, as the less important one, is given in dotted lines), whereas the latter case can be graphically represented as in the diagram 3 below, in which case it is the O-level, as the one that plays a lesser role in such utterance types, is given in dotted lines.



**Diagram 2.** The construal configuration in maximally ‘objective’ expressions (e.g. *John owns a horse*) (*ibid.*, p. 17)



**Diagram 3.** The construal configuration in maximally ‘subjective’ expressions (e.g. *Hi, Sorry, Hey*) (*ibid.*, p. 18)

In that sense, we now come to the point why the notions of cognitive coordination, the S-level and the O-level were discussed above at all, i.e. how they connect to the topic of this paper in the first place.

Namely, according to the given author, the primary function of matrix (also referred to as complement-taking / CT) clauses of complementation construction is at the S-level - they operate in the domain of intersubjective coordination, they provide specifications of perspectives rather than descriptions of events / situations (e.g. *I believe...*, *He thinks...*), and they invite an addressee to identify with a particular perspective on an object of conceptualization presented in the embedded clause (*ibid.*, p. 79).

Most importantly for our purposes in this paper, such clauses are taken *not* to present the main line of discourse. Namely, a CT clause is said to specify how to engage in cognitive coordination with another subject of conceptualization, but on its own it does not constitute a complete, relevant contribution to a discourse.

In that sense, generally speaking, complementation constructions are *not* structural devices to present one objectively construed event as subordinate to another, but *devices to invite an addressee to consider an object of conceptualization (presented in a complement clause) from a particular perspective in a particular way (as specified in the matrix clause / CT clause)*; they are directly and primarily related to mutual management and assessment (*ibid.*, p. 215). Along the same lines, *complementation*

*constructions instruct the addressee of an utterance to coordinate cognitively, in a way specified by the matrix clause, with another object of conceptualization in construing the object of conceptualization (represented by the main clause) and not that of representing an object of conceptualization (ibid., p. 109).* In addition, they can be viewed as general grammaticalized expressions for intersubjective coordination (*ibid.*) or a form of grammaticalization of a dimension of discourse structure that is orthogonal to its informational content, i.e. they pertain to intersubjective coordination of cognitive systems (*ibid.*, 97). That cognitive coordination can be *direct*, as when somebody says *I promise that...* (where the argumentative strength of the first-person, present-tense utterance is considered to be maximal), whereas in the example such as *John promised that...*, the argumentative strength of the third-person, past-tense utterance is weaker, so that the cognitive coordination between author and addressee can be considered to be more *indirect*. On the other hand, with *complement* clauses (rather than matrix / CT clauses), the discourse develops at the *O*-level.

In addition, the degree of integration into a matrix clause is higher for a complement than an adjunct clause. In other words, an adjunct clause is considered to be more loosely connected to its matrix clause, so that each of these, both the matrix and the adjunct clause, are taken to be separate discourse segments instead of specifying another dimension of a single segment (*ibid.*, p. 150 *et passim*).

In part 2 of this paper, as stated above, our task will (partially) be to test the views that have been presented here.

Before that, the corpus of the research will be briefly presented.

## 1.2. Corpus

The corpus of this paper consists of written texts that are stylistically varied and that were either retrieved from the internet or used in their "physical" form. The exact corpus resources used are as follows:

newspaper articles: <http://youthwork-magazine.co.uk/main/blogs/yuleblogfour>,  
<http://ezramagazine.cornell.edu/fall12/Faculty1.html>

a book of fiction: Baldacci, D. (1996): *Absolute Power*. New York: Warner Books. p. 1-42.

an academic monograph: Duffley, P. J. (1992): *The English Infinitive*. Harlow: Longman Group UK Ltd.

teaching materials (secondary source): Gear, J. / R. Gear (1996 [1993]): *Cambridge Preparation for the TEOFL Test*. Cambridge: CUP.

Approximately 250 pages of text were sampled from the given resources and analysed as presented in the part that follows – the one dealing with the method.

## 1.3. Method

For the analysis of the excerpted materials, the paper relies on the one adopted in Verhagen, 2005: 94–97 and 149–151. Namely, the clauses commonly analysed as subordinate (i.e. complement and adjunct clauses) were first separated from the matrix

clauses. Then the contribution of both of the types of subordinate ones, on the one hand, and of the matrix clauses, on the other hand, were analysed with respect to their role in providing coherence and the “overall progress” of the discourse. Naturally, there were always some parts of the texts excerpted that contained no complement or adjunct clauses and all (i.e. those where there were no syntactically complex / compound-complex sentences), but that consisted only of what can be taken to be syntactically independent clauses (making up simple or compound sentences). Naturally, as such clauses were also a part of the texts examined, their contribution to the coherence and the “overall progress” of the discourse was also taken into consideration.

## 2. Analysis

This part of the paper will analyse one of the texts sampled from the materials listed above and will do so along the lines presented.

The sample text below comes from Gear, J. / R. Gear, 1996 [1993]:61.

*It was once believed that being overweight was healthy, but nowadays few people subscribe to that view point. While many people are fighting the battle to lose weight, studies are being conducted concerning the appetite and how it is controlled by both emotional and biochemical factors. Some of conclusions of these studies may give insights into how to deal with weight problems. For example, when several hundred people were asked about their eating habits in times of stress, 44 percent said they reacted to stressful situations by eating. Further investigations with both humans and animals indicated that it is not food that relieves the tension but rather the act of chewing.*

*A test in which subjects were blindfolded showed that obese people have a keener sense of taste and crave more flavorful food than people who are not extremely overweight. When deprived of variety and intensity of tastes, obese people are rarely satisfied and consequently eat more to fulfil this need. Also, blood samples taken from people after they were shown a picture of food revealed that overweight people reacted with an increase in blood insulin, a chemical associated with appetite. This did not happen to average-weight people.*

*In another experiment, results showed that certain people have a specific, biologically-induced hunger for carbohydrates. When people eat carbohydrates, the level of serotonin, a neurotransmitter in the brain, rises. Enough serotonin produces a sense of satiation, and, as a result, their hunger for carbohydrates subsides.*

*Exercise has been recommended as an important part of a weight-loss program. However, it has been found that mild exercise, such as using the stairs instead of the elevator, is better in the long run than taking on a strenuous program, such as jogging, which many people find difficult to continue over long periods of time and which also increases appetite.*

The first part of the analysis carried out consisted of separating complement clauses (presented in the right column of Table 1 below) from the main clauses (presented in the left column of the same table) (for limitations of space, only a part of the text presented has been restructured in the given way), and exploring what

contribution each of them makes in providing coherence and the “overall progress” of the discourse. In that sense, the basic thing that can be concluded from the given data is that the given string of *syntactically superordinate* clauses (i.e. main clauses), when viewed from the given (*discourse*) perspective, can be said to constitute practically no semblance of any coherent discourse at all: *Further investigations with both humans and animals indicated / A test in which subjects were blindfolded showed / Also, blood samples taken from people after they were shown a picture of food revealed / In another experiment, results showed / However, it has been found (?)*.

On the other hand, when the *syntactically subordinate* (i.e. *dependent*) clauses only are taken into account, and when they are viewed from the same perspective, it can be concluded that it is they, rather than the syntactically main clauses, that present the basic content of the discourse, and that, generally speaking, it is they that constitute a more or less coherent piece of text: *[I]t is not food that relieves the tension but rather the act of chewing / obese people have a keener sense of taste and crave more flavorful food than people who are not extremely overweight / overweight people reacted with an increase in blood insulin, a chemical associated with appetite / certain people have a specific, biologically-induced hunger for carbohydrates / mild exercise, such as using the stairs instead of the elevator, is better in the long run than taking on a strenuous program, such as jogging, which many people find difficult to continue over long periods of time and which also increases appetite*

**Table 1.** A part of the sample text in which complement clauses have been separated from the rest of the text

MAIN CLAUSES	COMPLEMENT CLAUSES
Further investigations with both humans and animals indicated	(that) it is not food that relieves the tension but rather the act of chewing
A test in which subjects were blindfolded showed	(that) obese people have a keener sense of taste and crave more flavorful food than people who are not extremely overweight
Also, blood samples taken from people after they were shown a picture of food revealed	(that) overweight people reacted with an increase in blood insulin, a chemical associated with appetite
In another experiment, results showed	(that) certain people have a specific, biologically-induced hunger for carbohydrates
However, it has been found	(that) mild exercise, such as using the stairs instead of the elevator, is better in the long run than taking on a strenuous program, such as jogging, which many people find difficult to continue over long periods of time and which also increases appetite

Quite another thing can be observed when *adjunct* clauses (rather than complement ones) get separated from the rest of the same text, which constitutes the second major part of our analysis here. As it can be seen from Table 2 below, the adjunct clauses are now given in the right-hand column, whereas the remaining



part of the text – the main and subordinate clauses, as well as syntactically simple sentences, are presented in the left-hand column of the same table (once again, for limitations of space, only a part of the sample text presented above has been restructured in the given way). What can be observed now is that the text in the left-hand column provides the main part of the discourse – the one that is (relatively) coherent and that is indispensable for the ‘‘overall progress’’ of the discourse: *[T]he level of serotonin, a neurotransmitter in the brain, rises. Enough serotonin produces a sense of satiation, and, as a result, their hunger for carbohydrates subsides. Exercise has been recommended as an important part of a weight-loss program. However, it has been found that mild exercise, such as using the stairs instead of the elevator, is better in the long run than taking on a strenuous program, such as jogging.*

On the other hand, the adjunct clauses, as it can be seen, just provide additional pieces of information, and their sequence does not constitute any coherent piece of discourse: *When people eat carbohydrates, / which many people find difficult to continue over long periods of time and which also increases appetite (?).*

**Table 2.** A part of the sample text in which adjunct clauses have been separated from the rest of the text

MAIN CLAUSES (INCLUDING SYNTACTICALLY SIMPLE CLAUSES THAT REPRESENT SENTENCES) + COMPLEMENT CLAUSES	ADJUNCT (ADVERBIAL AND NON-RESTRICTIVE RELATIVE) CLAUSES
<p>the level of serotonin, a neurotransmitter in the brain, rises.</p> <p>Enough serotonin produces a sense of satiation, and, as a result, their hunger for carbohydrates subsides.</p> <p>Exercise has been recommended as an important part of a weight-loss program.</p> <p>However, it has been found that mild exercise, such as using the stairs instead of the elevator, is better in the long run than taking on a strenuous program, such as jogging.</p>	<p>When people eat carbohydrates,</p> <p>which many people find difficult to continue over long periods of time and which also increases appetite.</p>

### 3. Discussion and conclusions

The basic conclusion that can be reached from the given analysis is that the theoretical assumptions presented above are generally correct, i.e. that the analysis carried out in this paper generally corroborates the theoretical standpoints presented.

Namely, one can indeed claim that there is a considerable distinction between complement and adjunct clauses from discourse perspective.

On the one hand, *complement* clauses can be considered to be more tightly integrated into their matrix clauses than adjunct ones and to present the main line of discourse – the one developing at the *O*-level. In addition, the primary function of *matrix* clauses in the syntactic structures that contain a complement clause can indeed be said to operate at the *S*-level, i.e. in the domain of intersubjective coordination. They can be taken *not* to present the main line of discourse (they do not constitute a complete, relevant contribution to it); instead, they specify how one is to engage in cognitive coordination with another subject of conceptualization.

On the other hand, an *adjunct* clause can be considered to be more loosely connected to its matrix clause, so that each of these, *both the matrix and the adjunct clause*, are taken to be separate discourse segments instead of specifying another dimension of a single segment. In addition, the latter one (the adjunct clause) can indeed be said to relate to its main clause as a satellite discourse fragment to its nucleus, the nuclei constituting the text's main line. In that sense, the (syntactically) *main* clauses provide the skeleton of the discourse, determining its overall structure, whereas the hypotactic *adjunct* clauses provide additional pieces of information, and are thus not crucial in the "overall progress" of a discourse.

With this the paper concludes its first aim presented above – that of testing the views put forward in the literature dealt with above and briefly moves on to the second aim also given before – that of addressing the pedagogical implications of the given analysis, especially at an academic level.

To do so, we will here start with an observation made in Verhagen, 2005: 100 that the *S V DO* (subject / predicator / direct object) is too high a level of abstraction for a proper characterization of complementation constructions (i.e., to remind the reader once again, the constructions consisting of a main and a subordinate complement clause). Namely, the given author says that whereas it is indeed plausible to analyse a (syntactically simple) sentence such as *John owns a house* as consisting of the given functional elements (S V DO, each of which has been underlined in the given example), the same *cannot* and *should not* be applied to a sentence such as *I know that John owns a house*, which is also typically analysed as S V DO functionally (whereby, once again, each of the given functional elements has been underlined separately in the given example).

In that sense, the given author insists that using simplex clauses (such as *John owns a house*) as the structural model for the analysis of complementation constructions (as in *I know that John owns a house*) implies imposing the structure of an object of conceptualization on those constructions, which, in turn, obscures the fact that they (i.e. such syntactically complex constructions) serve to *link the intersubjective and objective dimensions* of linguistic communication. So, whereas simplex clauses (i.e. syntactically simple sentences) are primarily related to an *object* of conceptualization, the latter type of sentences do that as well (in the complement clause), *but also present an addressee as coordinating cognitively with an object of conceptualization* (in the matrix clause). In other words, the primary function of matrix clauses of complementation constructions is located at the *S*-level. They

provide specifications of perspectives rather than descriptions of events or situations, *and the grammatical roles of subject, object, and predicate from simplex clauses have no straightforward application in these (i.e. complementation) constructions, which have a function sui generis (ibid, p. 26, 27).*

In order to try to provide evidence for this, the given author gives, among others, the following examples. Firstly, he says that complement clauses can appear in environments in which a noun phrase or a pronoun is impossible – compare *He was afraid that he was not going to make it* and *\*He was afraid defeat; Experts warned that the profit would turn out to be lower and \*Experts warned a lower profit / \*Experts warned this (ibid, p. 82). In addition, one might add, prototypical transitive verbs (e.g. *make, build, give*) do not take complement clauses (compare: *He made a mess* and *\*He made that she be there on time*). Moreover, matrix clauses can behave like parentheticals (parts of sentences that can be placed in various positions in a sentence) – compare: *I'm not sure how he managed to do that* and *How he managed to do that, I'm not sure.**

The (both theoretical and pedagogical) point of such examples that both the given author and the author of this paper have just provided here, as well as of the entire analysis presented above, is that this may challenge the commonly made distinction between matrix and subordinate clauses, at least when they are viewed from discourse perspective.

In that sense, it is the opinion of the author of this paper that the distinction between superordinate and subordinate clauses, as well as the various distinctions among the subordinate clauses themselves (the nominal, the adjectival / relative and the adverbial ones) may be quite useful and quite appropriate ones *syntactically* speaking. However, in view of the *discourse* considerations presented above, these distinctions may actually be misleading, because, as it could be seen, the structures that are *syntactically superordinate* may be "discourse subordinate" (as it were), and structures that are *syntactically subordinate* (such as *complement* clauses) may be "discourse superordinate", but *need not* (as in the case of *adjunct* clauses). In short, the relation between the *syntactically* superordinate and subordinate clauses (and among the types of subordinate clauses themselves), in cases where that status is viewed against the background of the discourse they appear in, need not necessarily reflect their *discourse* status.

Therefore, it is a firm belief of the author of this paper that such considerations, i.e. such additional / alternative standpoints, that are usually not dealt with in syntax classes, should undoubtedly (and at least briefly) be presented to students, as such an approach could definitely enhance their knowledge of the given phenomena and make them more aware of the complex relations that can be found when one and the same linguistic material is viewed from two (or more) different linguistic disciplines, or, more generally, from two or more different angles.

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Владан Павловић

**О КЛАУЗАМА У ФУНКЦИЈИ АДЈУНКТА И  
КЛАУЗАМА У ФУНКЦИЈИ КОМПЛЕМЕНТА ИЗ  
ДИСКУРСНОГ УГЛА**

Резиме: У раду се тестира хипотеза која се представља у изворима Матисена/Томпсона (Matthiessen/Thompson, 1988), Верхагена (Verhagen, 2005) и Лангакера (Langacker, 2008, поред осталих) да постоји значајна разлика између клауза у функцији адјункта и клауза у функцији комплемента када се у обзир узме шири контекст у коме су оне употребљене. Наиме, у датим радовима износи се претпоставка да први тип клаузе служи да се њиме уведу додатне информације и да оне представљају „дискурсне фрагменте сателитског типа“ (*satellite discourse fragments*), за разлику од управних клауза, које чине скелет дискурса и одређују његову општу структуру. За разлику од тога, за други поменути тип клаузе, иако се он може сматрати синтаксички зависним, сматра се да се њиме изражава основни садржај дискурса. У том смислу, у раду се анализира група стилски различитих текстова, са акцентом на улози дата два типа клаузе у дискурсу. Уз то, закључци добијени таквом анализом разматрају се и из угла њиховог педагошког значаја.