



**MISCONCEPTIONS AND PROBLEMS IN THE
IRAQI EFL STUDENTS' USE OF VERBLESS
CLAUSES**

**2023
MASTER THESIS
ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE**

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Prepared as

Master Thesis

KARABUK

January 2023

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THESIS APPROVAL PAGE

I certify that, the thesis submitted by Muhannad Raad M. ALKADMI titled "MISCONCEPTIONS AND PROBLEMS IN THE IRAQI EFL STUDENTS' USE OF VERBLESS CLAUSES" is fully adequate in scope and quality as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts.

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This thesis is accepted by the examining committee with a unanimous vote in the department of English language and literature as a Master of Arts thesis in 18/01/2023

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Director of Institute of Graduate Programme

DECLARATION

I declare that this thesis's results from my work, and all information included, have been got and expounded under the academic rules and ethical policy specified by the institute. Besides, I declare that all the statements, results, and materials not original to this thesis have been cited and referenced literally.

Name Surname: Muhannad Raad M. ALKADMI

Signature:

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

Initially, I would like to thank my supervisor, Assoc. Prof. Dr. İrfan Tosuncuoğlu, for his support and advice on completing the thesis in the best scientific way. In addition, my supervisor added to me much information that I did not know before in writing the thesis. He was always ready to help me solve all the problems I faced during thesis writing.

I also extend my deepest gratitude to my family, who supported me in completing my study, especially my parents, wife, and brothers—ALLAH Almighty to protect them all.

Furthermore, I also thank all the friends who gave me advice and guidance and encouraged me morally.

ABSTRACT

The research focuses on English verbless clauses. Structures without a verb may be disassembled into clause parts. They often derive from finite or non-finite sentences. These are uncommon procedures that rely on the sentence's syntax. This research tests Iraqi EFL students' ability to detect and employ verbless sentences and convert them to finite or non-finite clauses and vice versa. Most Iraqi EFL students misunderstand verbless and nonverbal clauses and their usage. These learners struggle to transform verbless sentences into finite and non-finite clauses. Public opinion says pupils will do better at the perception extent than at the production extent, so they should.

Based on these predictions, a diagnostic exam was created and given to (50) 4th year Iraqi EFL university learners from the Department of English, College of Education, University of Imam Al Kadhum. After evaluating test takers' answers to each question, the researcher concluded: Iraqi EFL students have trouble identifying and creating verbless clauses since their rate of erroneous responses (57.50%) is larger than their right answers (42.50%) on the recognition level. On the production level, individuals have problems creating clauses without verbs since their accurate responses rate is lower (29.84 %). It shows that Iraqi EFL college students have trouble detecting and creating verbless clauses since their rate of inaccurate replies (70.16%) is larger than their rate of right answers (29.84 %) At the production level, they have greater problems creating sentences without verbs (29.84 percent). At the production level, 70.16 percent of inaccurate responses suggest that test-takers could not turn verbless sentences into finite or non-finite clauses and vice versa.

Keywords: English Verbless Clauses, Iraqi EFL students, Clause Elements, Syntactic Content, Finite and non-Finite Clauses, Recognizing and Producing Verbless Clauses.

ÖZ

Araştırma, sentetik bir kategori olarak İngilizcedeki fiilden bağımsız cümlelere odaklanmaktadır. Fiil içermeyen yapılar tümcelere ayrılabilir. Genellikle sonlu veya sonsuz cümlelerden türetilirler. Bunlar nadir sözdizimine bağlı eylemlerdir. Bu araştırma, Iraklı öğrencilerin sözel olmayan cümleleri belirleme ve kullanma ve bunları sonlu veya sonsuz cümlelere dönüştürme ve bunun tersini yapma becerilerini test edilmektedir. Yabancı dil olarak İngilizce'yi çoğu öğrenci yanlış anlamakta ve sözel olmayan ve sözel olmayan cümleleri kullanmaktadır. Bu durumda öğrenciler fiilsiz cümleleri sonlu ve sonsuz cümlelere dönüştürmekte zorlanırlar. Genel anlamda, öğrencilerin tanıma düzeyinin üretim düzeyinden daha iyi olduğunu bilinmektedir.

Bu tahminlere dayanarak, İmam El-Kadhim Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi'nin elli kişiden oluşan, dördüncü sınıf Iraklı öğrenci için bir tanı testi oluşturulmuş ve uygulanmıştır. Araştırmaya katılanların her soruya verdikleri cevapları değerlendirdikten sonra, İngilizce konuşan Iraklı öğrencilerin yanlış cevaplarının oranı (%57,50) doğru cevaplardan daha fazla olduğu için sözel olmayan cümleleri belirlemede ve kurmada sorun yaşadıkları sonucuna vardık. (%42,50). Üretim düzeyinde, doğru cevap oranının düşük olması (yüzde 29,84) nedeniyle bireyler fiilsiz cümle kurmakta zorlanmaktadırlar. Irak Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Üniversitesi öğrencilerinin, yanlış cevap yüzdesinin (%70.16) doğru cevap oranından (%29.84) daha yüksek olması nedeniyle sözel olmayan cümlelerin tespitinde ve oluşturulmasında sorun yaşadıkları görülmektedir. (29.84) yüzde. Üretim düzeyinde, yanlış cevapların %70,16'sı, sınava girenlerin sözsüz cümleleri sonlu veya sonsuz cümlelere çeviremediklerini ve bunun tersini göstermektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İngilizce Fiilsiz Cümleler, Iraklı EFL öğrencileri, Cümle Öğeleri, Sözdizimsel İçerik, Sonlu ve Sonlu Olmayan Cümleler, Fiil Cümleleri Tanıma ve Üretme.

ARCHIVE RECORD INFORMATION

Title of the Thesis	"Misconceptions and Problems in the Iraqi EFL Students' Use of Verbless Clauses"
Author of the Thesis	Muhannad Raad M. ALKADMI
Supervisor of the Thesis	Assoc. Prof. Dr. İrfan TOSUNCUOĞLU
Status of the Thesis	Master's Degree
Date of the Thesis	18/01/2023
Field of the Thesis	English Language and Literature
Place of the Thesis	KBU/LEE
Total Page Number	93
Keywords	English Verbless Clauses, Iraqi EFL students, Clause Elements, Syntactic Content, Finite and non-Finite Clauses, Recognizing and Producing Verbless Clauses.

ARŞİV KAYIT BİLGİLERİ

Tezin Adı	"Irak EFL Öğrencilerinin Fiilsiz Cümleleri Kullanımındaki Kavram Yanılgıları ve Sorunları"
Tezin Yazarı	Muhannad Raad M. ALKADMI
Tezin Danışmanı	Doç. Dr. İrfan TOSUNCUOĞLU
Tezin Derecesi	Yüksek Lisans
Tezin Tarihi	18/01/2023
Tezin Alanı	İngiliz Dili ve Edebiyatı
Tezin Yeri	KBU/LEE
Tezin Sayfa Sayısı	93
Anahtar Kelimeler	İngilizce Fiilsiz Cümleler, Iraklı EFL öğrencileri, Cümle Öğeleri, Sözdizimsel İçerik, Sonlu ve Sonlu Olmayan Cümleler, Fiil Cümleleri Tanıma ve Üretme.

ABBREVIATIONS

EFL : English as a Foreign Language

CED : Chambers English Dictionary

VP : Verb Phrase

VLCs : Verbless Clauses

NP : Noun Phrase

IBID : Ibidem (in the same place)

SUBJECT OF THE RESEARCH

"Misconceptions and Problems in the Iraqi EFL Students' Use of Verbless Clauses". Verbless clauses are those clauses which contain no verb element, and often also no subject. They are regarded as clauses because they function in certain ways, which make them equivalent to finite and non-finite clauses and because they can be analysed in terms of one or more clause elements.

PURPOSE AND IMPORTANCE OF THE RESEARCH

The aims of the study are basically the following:

1- Identifying the Iraqi EFL college students' presentation in recognizing and to perform and producing verb-less clauses.

2- Presenting material about verb-less clauses, which can help distinguish those clauses: their different types and their functions.

3- Suggest ways by which the finite and non-finite clauses into verb-less ones as they provide a means for compact information expression.

4- Finding out the causes of the students' errors so that some solutions are posited to help them overcome the problems they face using such clauses.

The findings of the present work are hoped to be useful in two aspects :

1- The study's theoretical aspect will provide up-to-date information about verbless clauses that can be advantageous for the researchers as it can pave the way for further investigation on this topic.

2- The practical aspect will have a pedagogical value to teachers in that it can provide insights into the problematic areas concerning verbless clauses that can be of use to them to help learners perform more effectively. The study can also be of some help to syllabus designers as it can serve as a basis for the preparation of remedial teaching programs.

METHOD OF THE RESEARCH

A survey was used as the study's method. And it can be defined as "the process of conducting research using surveys that researchers send to survey respondents. The data collected from surveys is then statistically analyzed to draw meaningful research conclusions".

Questions: The test of the study has four main questions on the examination.

HYPOTHESIS OF THE RESEARCH / RESEARCH PROBLEM

The Hypotheses

1- Most Iraqi EFL college students do not often distinguish verb-less clauses and their different types and functions.

2- Such learners face difficulties converting verb-less clauses to finite or non-finite ones and vice versa.

3- The students' achievement on the recognition level is usually expected to be higher and to a some extent better than their achievement on the production one.

Research Problem

In general, English language has three types of clauses; finite, non-finite, and verbless. The verbless clause, as the name implies, is an elliptical phrase construction that lacks a verb (it can usually be assumed). It frequently lacks a subject (the main clause subject or an existential, it can be assumed) but has other clause elements. It is frequently introduced with a subordinating conjunction:

1. The author apologizes where possible.
2. Those children can't be trusted to do the suitable thing. ((Hasselgård, 2003:3)
3. Unhappy with the results, she returned to work. (Quirk et al., 1985:425)

POPULATION AND SAMPLE (IF AVAILABLE)

The study's sample includes 50 participants from the Department of English at Imam Kadhum University College of Education's fourth-grade academic year (2020–2021). About 72% of the overall student population is represented in the sample. They are Iraqi Arabic native speakers with a comparable EFL background, with an average age of twenty–two years.

SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS / DIFFICULTIES

The study targets students of the Collage of Education in the department of English in their final stage in Imam Al Kadhum University, during the academic year (2020–2021). The researcher would select fourth-year students to administer the exam because the subject under consideration was taught in their third year of study.

Additionally, they are the most advanced university students. The researcher chose this university because it has an English department. The study started during the pandemic, so it was very difficult to move from one place to another. The chosen university is in the same town.

1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the study's introduction. It is divided into eight sections. The study's context is laid out in the opening section. Here, the study's focus on non-finite clauses is substantiated. Problem framing is addressed in the second half. The results of the survey are presented in this section. The definition of the problem is the third step in the research process, and this is where the parameters of the investigation are laid out. The study's goals should be stated as the final component. "The study's benefits" can be found in the fifth section, labelled "benefits." There is also a glossary of words that explains the terms used in research.

1.1. Study Background

English language students who are going to be responsible for teaching the language for other intermediate and secondary students, should have the ability to comprehend and recognize almost all fields of the educational system and the English language as a subject matter. They should take care of all language elements; i.e the element of linguistic that involves the levels of grammar as well as of pronunciation, and also the level that develops vocabulary skills. However, it is necessary to check whether the graduated students are able to cope well with the four main skills of language learning; Listening, Speaking, Reading and writing are, and to what extent do they apply and do well with these skills in order to help their students to learn better language.

One of the problems with learning a new language is that you have to learn grammar. So many things should be learned by people who want to be teachers. Non-finite clauses are one of the things they should learn about. These clauses are considered to be more complex than ones that aren't, according to certain. Student-teachers are projected to have scientific abilities in the classification of certain ideas that are regarded as problems when applying clauses from the finite or non -finite types, rather than simple sentences. Their knowledge of the both types of clauses is highly needed in this respect.

According to the author's experience, non-finite clauses are challenging since their syntactic duties are complicated. Well-known examples of the non-finite clauses

are the adverbial clause, the adjective clauses, and the wide noun clauses. They are also known as nominal or noun clauses. Furthermore, some rules are not followed, yet pupils believe they are all the same. Those complexities make it hard for the students to learn. The learners are going to neglect most of the parts of the non-finite clauses like and especially the subject, tense indicators, and to some extent the modal verbs (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1985: 311). Non-finite clauses are problematic for students to learn because of these things. They get mixed up when they write them.

A clause is a statement that has at least one thing (predicate) that goes with it, whether the clauses are declarations or not, and one that can be used to bind the main clause to other subordinate clauses (or conjunctions). Clauses are divided into finite, non-finite, and verbless clauses. Brian Backman (2008, 42) states that a complex sentence can be seen as a sentence that has at least two ideas linked together in one way or another and becomes one sentence. So, it has two components one of which subordinates the main one. The complex sentence gives more effectiveness to the two ideas if compared to separate ideas alone. The complex sentence shows the kind of relation that gathers the two sentences. Whereas, a complicated sentence is inseparable sentence, because the subordinate clause cannot stand alone as a complete form unless it is connected to the idea of the main clause. Feigenbaum (1985: 209). Noun phrases can be exchanged, changed, or replaced by adverbials in subordinate clauses in the main sentence, according to Close (1977: 42).

However, a subordinate or dependent sentence, according to Feigenbaum, takes the form of a general noun, an adjective or also an adverb (1985: 211). Depending on the grammatical purpose; they provide, subordinate clauses can be categorized as adjective clauses, adverbial clauses, or nominal clauses (also known as noun clauses). Clauses that include adjectives, such as a noun, are described in greater detail by an adjectival phrase. The subordinate clause of this kind is identified as a related clause (Azar, 1989: 238). Clauses that describe a verb are referred to as adverbial clauses.

(*) I communicated .my appreciation to. The man who helped me. (Azar, 1989: 238).

Adjective clauses are classified into two types: defining clauses and non-defining clauses. A defining clause is one in which an adjective phrase gives crucial

details and aids in describing the antecedent (Graver, 1981: 121). As a result, there is no need for commas between the prototype and the adjective clause. As an example,

I met a doctor who is very kind (which doctor)

The girl who wears a red hat is Jill. (which Jill) (Mary W NG, 2002, 259).

Meanwhile, the non-finite adjective clauses are these kinds of adjective clauses that are not part of a noun's frame of reference. They should contain commas to separate nouns and verbs, Swan (1988: 527). The non-defining adjective clause are used when the noun is clear. Additional details in the adjective clause that does not define. This kind of adjective clause is also called a non-restrictive clause and it is the comma that differentiate the two types (Singh, 2019, 129) Here are some examples:

Samar, who was adjudged the man of the match today, is a promising cricketer.

Tokyo, where the 2020 Olympics are to be held, is the capital of Japan. (Singh, 2019, 129)

According to Graver (1981: 176), there are two main branches of adverbial clauses that match to the elements that the kind of adverbial presents, namely sentences of location and time as well as sentences of manner and degree as well as sentences of cause and condition as well as concession and intention. Clauses of this type include the following.

Adverbial clause of a location, such as "They had to take a house where they could as little as they possibly could". This kind of clauses are always finite since they locate the matrix close situation by relating it to the place where it applies. (Häcker, 1999, 52-53) . Of time like in "When I met last year, you were married to Angela."

Clause of manner: She looks as if she is going to be sick.

Clause of degree: Peter is faster than I am.

Clause of cause: He took the money because he needed some.

Clause of condition: If you take that road, you will have to pay a toll.

Clause of concession: Even if it was deeply cold in winter, we opened the windows at night to get fresh air.

Clause of result: you must arrange that matchsticks so that they form a hexagon (Jackson, 2005: 56)

Another sort of phrase is the noun clause, which fulfils the same function as a noun. Clauses containing nouns can serve one of the following functions. It could be either an object (direct or indirect), a subject, an appositive that gives extra information about the noun, a complement that might be prepositional one (Dwyer, 2006: 140) . Additionally, the noun clause is categorized according to the structure of the sentence from which it originates: declarations, questions, demands, and exclamations.

In general, a clause is composed of a distinctive predicate, a subject (if one exists), and any clausal modifiers and/or subordinating conjunctions that link it to the rest of other clauses in a sentences. Clauses are divided structurally into three categories: finite, non-finite, and verbless. Non-finite and verbless sentences are systems that lack finite verbs yet resemble finite clauses intuitively. This chapter discusses these three categories of clauses, their meanings, and the forms and functions of non-finite and verbless clauses, with a particular emphasis on the latter due to the study's primary objective. Additionally, the chapter explores several of the functions that verbless sentences are intended to function.

1.1.1. Finite Clauses

Finite clauses are those in which the verb phrase's first word (henceforth VP) is finite (Leech and Svartvik, 1975:213). The word "finite" derives from the Latin word "finitus," which means "limited" or "bounded" (William and Robert, 1989:731). Consequently, a finite verb is "limited" by person, number, tense, and mood properties. He makes..., We remember..., He has done..., She will post. (Alexander, 1988:2; Cook and Newson, 1997:51)

The main clause, as in (1), is always finite, but often subordinate clauses, as in (2), are also finite clauses:

(1) She was removed from college. (Hasselgard, 2003, p. 7)

(2) a- I said that I would leave. (This is the direct object)

b- You can contact me when she leaves the building. (Adverbial) adverbial adverb

c- Marvin has a thing for the lady who is assisting him with his idea. (Adds a feminine modifier to the noun woman). (Jonathanson, 1999, p.1)

1.1.2. Non-Finite Clauses

When a clause has parts of a verb that are not finished it becomes a non-finite clause (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1985: 310). A phrase that is non-finite is actually made up uniquely of a non-finite verb form (Quirk et al., 1992: 149). All clauses that their structure do not terminate in a tense are going to be non-finite verbs like for instance the ed/ing participle, the bare infinitive, to infinitive. Because the naked infinitive is rarely employed in sentences, it has no place in the study. There are no tense or mood rules for non-finite verb sentences, Quirk et al. (1992: 995) say. They cannot be used with the main subject of the sentence.

(Quirk et al., 1992: 149) stated that the non-finite. verb forms are the alone can be used in the non-finite clauses. This group of words is made up of words like "to-infinitive," "bare," "ing," and "ed." These words are not finite. Because bare infinitives are not used very often in sentences, they are not used in this study.

Looking at the statement, it is clear that most major sentences are finite, while clauses that are subordinate to them are going to be either non-finite or finite. A clause cannot constitute the main element of a sentence if it is not the final one. To. put it another way, they are frequently encountered within major clauses. Non-finite clauses differ from finite clauses as a result of this. Non-finite clauses are commonly used as subordinate clauses. In contrast, finite clauses will appear in both the main and subordinate clauses.

The following examples exhibit non-finite clauses.

I expected her to go.

In this sentence, there are two lexical verbs; *expected* and *go*, which means that we have two clauses. "*her to go*" is the non-finite clause that is going to be the object of the verb *expected* and it can be rephrased by means of a finite clause as in "*I*

expected that she would go". The verb "would" expresses uncertainty because the infinitive implies something uncertain or will happen in the near future perhaps. Other examples of the non-finite clauses: (Gelderen , 2010: 149-150) .

- (1) Walking round rural roads, he was bothered by the traffic lights.
- (2) Kidnapped last night, he is in central Asia right now.
- (3) To walk in the superstition mountains will be nice.

As demonstrated in the preceding examples, non-finite clauses are always subordinate to their main clauses.

1.1.3. Verbless Clauses

They are known as verbless clauses because they contain no verbs. Nonfinite clauses had to be generated in the exam and despite the sentences being grammatically correct, they were incorrect. An example of this is shown in the following dialogue:

- (1) Who teaches Linguistics at the university? Question directed to the student.
- (2) Mrs Stella, a teacher of Linguistics at the university, (students' answer)
- (3) Mrs Stella, teaching linguistics at the university, (intended answer)

It is critical to assess students' ability to employ non-finite clauses throughout the study. Students enrolled in the English Education Study Program should develop this competence. The study can determine whether or not pupils can use non-finite clauses. The study was conducted on students in their fourth year in the English department. It was based on the idea that they had studied non-finite clauses thoroughly in Structure V. They must be able to grasp and utilize the word correctly to use the non-finite clause correctly. People who teach Structure V, which has non-finite sentences, should take note of what the researcher said.

1.2. The Problem of the Study

In general, English language has three types of clauses; finite, non-finite, and verbless. The verbless clause, as the name implies, is an elliptical phrase construction that lacks a verb (it can usually be assumed). It frequently lacks a subject (the main

clause subject or an existential, it can be assumed) but has other clause elements. It is frequently introduced with a subordinating conjunction:

(1)The author apologizes where possible.

(2)Those children can't be trusted to do the suitable thing. ((Hasselgård, 2003:3)

(3)Unhappy with the results, she returned to work. (Quirk et al., 1985:425)

Most Iraqi EFL college students may lack knowledge about verbless clauses. Even though the word verbless refers to the absence of the verb element in the clause, many students are unaware of identifying such clauses. Also, most of them may ignore the fact that those clauses, like other types of clauses, can have various functions in the sentence:

(4) He was standing with his back to the wall. (object of the preposition)

(5) He was lying their unconscious. (free predicative) (Johannesson, 1999:6)

(6) He was educated as a protestant. (adverbial) (Quirk et al., 1972:351)

The problem with the above sentences is that the verbless clause is minimized to a single complement's minimum parts. In this case, the students may recognize it only as an adverb phrase or an adjective phrase that is a direct constituent of the main clause.

However, a verbless clause is also possible to expand to a complete clause (i.e., a finite one) or a non-finite one by filling in the required predicate material:

(7) (As he is / Being) a foolish young man, he acts without thinking. (Chalker, 1984:250)

(8)He supposes (that) I'll be in his downtown office at 12. / me to be) me in his office at 12. ((Wekker and Haegeman, 1985:94)

Such a process is expected to be difficult for the students to maintain. The same thing is expected to be true concerning reducing finite and non-finite clauses to verbless ones (see examples (7 and 8) above).

1.3. Aims of the Study

In connection with the preceding statements, the aims of the study are basically the following:

(1) Identifying the Iraqi EFL college students' presentation in recognizing and to perform and producing verb-less clauses.

(2) Presenting material about verb-less clauses, which can help distinguish those clauses: their different types and their functions.

(3) Suggest ways by which the finite and non-finite clauses into verb-less ones as they provide a means for compact information expression.

(4) Finding out the causes of the students' errors so that some solutions are posited to help them overcome the problems they face using such clauses.

1.4. The Hypotheses

Because of the primary aims, the study is going to hypothesize that:

(1) Most Iraqi EFL college students do not often distinguish verb-less clauses and their different types and functions.

(2) Such learners face difficulties converting verb-less clauses to finite or non-finite ones and vice versa.

(3) The students' achievement on the recognition level is usually expected to be higher and to a some extent better than their achievement on the production one.

1.5. Research Questions:

(1) To what extent are Iraqi EFL students able to differentiate between verbless clauses and their various functions?

(2) To what extent do Iraqi EFL students understand verbless clauses?

(3) How well do Iraqi EFL students produce Verbless Clauses concerning their other accomplishments?

1.6. Procedures

For fulfilling the objectives of this study, the following steps are to be followed:

1. Presenting, as far as possible, a comprehensive description of English verb-less clauses in particular and the two classes of finite and non-finite clauses, in general, depending on the literature available in the field. This description describes how verb-less clauses can be derived from finite and non-finite ones and vice versa.

2. Select samples of Iraqi EFL college students as a subject for administering a test to identify the complications they may face when using verb-less clauses. And to assess the extent to which they can change those clauses to finite and non-finite ones and vice versa.

3. Analyzing the test results would give conclusions, and pedagogical recommendations would be given.

1.7. Limitation of the Study

The study targets students of the Collage of Education in the department of English in their final stage in Imam Al Kadhum University, during the academic year (2020–2021). The researcher would select fourth-year students to administer the exam because the subject under consideration was taught in their third year of study. Additionally, they are the most advanced university students. They are going to be teachers of English in the near future and they are going to teach the English language for the Iraqi learners in the secondary stages. So, it becomes a crucial matter to measure the degree of recognition and production of the kinds of the verbless clauses for the fourth year college students and to see the main problems and suggested solutions for them.

1.8. The Study's Value

The researcher believes that as a result of the study, readers, particularly students participating in the program of English language education study, will have a great knowledge to help them understand the non-finite clauses. This could be

beneficial for the learners since books of grammar most of them, do not present adequately treatment to the non-finite phrases. This study may provide adequate explanations for these themes and assist readers in broadening their horizons. The outcomes of this study are believed to be beneficial in two ways:

1. The study's theoretical aspect will provide up-to-date information about verb-less clauses, which can be advantageous for the researchers as it can pave the way for further investigation on this topic.

2. The studies practical side is going to have pedagogical significance to teachers. It can deliver perceptions into the major problematic regions concerning verb-less clauses, which can be of use to them to assist learners produce and recognize them in a more effective way. The study can be of a great help for the authors and writers of syllabus as it can support the whole process of teaching the foreign language by presenting basic remedies for the problems in the teaching programs.

1.8.1. Terminology

This section defines several terms used throughout the study. It is necessary to describe them because they are the research's keywords. The following terms apply:

1.8.2. Clauses that are Non-Finite and Finite

Non-finite verb phrases are used as verb elements in non-finite clauses to describe clauses that do not have a clear ending. They are these types of verb phrases which are entirely composed of non-finite verb patterns (they do not have an ending). Such verbs like the infinitive with to, bare infinitive, -ing /ed participle, are all infinitive. These are some non-finite verbs. Because it is rarely used in sentences in the real world, it was decided not to use the bare infinitive to introduce non-finite clauses in the study. Since they have neither mood nor tense, the non-finite verb clauses are argued to be incapable to help as subjects of the main clauses. This implies that non-finite clauses cannot take the task of major clauses in the sentence. The Non-finite clauses, as opposed to those that do not, contain non-finite verb forms as verb elements. (Pieter de Haan, 1989, 63-65)

1.8.3. Clauses of Subordination

According to Christofaro, 2003, cited in Jackie Nordstrom 2010, a subordinate clause is a constituent in another clause. In the English language, subordination can be expressed in many forms that reflect the deranking nature of the subordinate clause. It has a lack of expression of one or several verbal functional categories and a use of special markers not used in independent clauses. (Nordstrom, 2010 ,91). It may take the form of an adverb, a noun-, adjective equivalent. In this study, the subordinate clause can take the form of one of the following categories; types: "noun clauses, adjective clauses, and adverbial clauses". A mistake is defined as "a material variation from a native speaker's mature grammar, reflecting the learner's inter language skill" (Brown, 1994: 205). In other words, a mistake happens as a result of a data gap. Errors, from another hand can be defined as the passages in spoken or written language that violates grammatical rules. Individuals sometimes discriminate between errors and blunders. Therefore, errors are a systematic representation of a learner's second language development and thus they can help teachers and learners discover how far the learners of the language has progressed. A mistake, from another hand, is defined by many scholars to be the problem that occurs when a well-known system is not used correctly. Mistakes are said to be of no significance to the process of language learning and it is hard to make a distinction between errors and mistakes. (Hall, 2017, 24).

Furthermore, Brown (1994: 205) describes mistakes as faults in speech output, such as pauses and tongue slips. It is, in fact, deciding whether a deviation is a mistake or an error can be difficult. However, the research doesn't make any distinction between the two terms of There is no distinction made in this study between both blunders or errors. It regards "errors" to be the learners' own responses that are illogical and that break the norms of the non-finite forms, regardless if they are mistakes or they are just true errors.

1.8.4. Mastery

According to Fries (1948: 3), the foreign language is going to be mastered only when a person first masters the sound system, that is, when he can perceive and

generate understandable streams of speech, and then develops an instinctive habit of using the grammatical tools or basic arrangements of the expressions and utterances. The study places a premium on the second mastery criterion, which is the capacity to develop structural devices. This demonstrates that the individual is capable of constructing a suitable phrase. In this context, "mastery" means understanding and being able to use non-finite clauses in right way in a given sentence.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

An English clause is seen to have one predicate, a subject (if there is any), and is distinguished by having a modifier or a conjunction subordinator that connects it to the remain of the sentence or clauses. Clauses can be classified structurally into three distinct categories: the finite, the non-finite clause, and the verbless clause. Both the non-finite and verbless clauses encompass structures that lack finite verbs yet are intuitively connected to finite sentences. This chapter discusses these three categories of clauses, their meanings, and the forms and purposes of non-finite and verbless clauses, with an emphasis on verbless clauses because they are the primary focus of the study. Additionally, the chapter discusses some of the functions that verbless sentences are designed to perform.

It is said that the real purpose behind the complex sentence is to link more than one idea into a true more logical sentence. A complex sentence is seen to have two or more clauses, each with its subject. (Brian Backman, 2008, 44) This means that a complex sentence consists of two components: the main clause and the subordinate clause, both of which are parts of the same phrase. Because a subordinate clause cannot stand alone and must be connected to the main sentence, this cannot occur. If Feigenbaum (1985: 209) is true, this cannot occur.

Despite her exhaustion, she ascended to the third story (Feigenbaum, 1985: 210).

Although she was exhausted, this is the subordinate clause. As a result, it is incapable of standing on its own.

What is said earlier about the subordinate clause maintains that it is capable of substituting for a noun phrase, modifying it, or replacing an adverbial in the main sentence. Furthermore, a subordinate phrase may consist of a noun, an adverb, or a word. That is the assertion made by Feigenbaum (1985: 211). The three sorts of subordinate clauses are adjectival, adverbial, and the ultimate form, a noun clause or a noun clause.

2.2.1. Clauses with Adverbs

Adjective clauses, alternatively referred to as related clauses. They are subordinating the clauses that describe, identify, or offer additional ideas and information about a noun. Additionally, they are referred to as relative clauses (Azar, 1989:238). When writing about a noun, an adjective clause is used. Adjective clauses are those that provide information about the noun.

(1) The man who saw the crime is under the police protection now. (Ann Raimés, 1998. 296).

(2) Her loud noise made everyone wake up (ibid).

The clause " who saw the crime " gives information about who the subject of the sentence is, which is the man. The adjective clause "Her loud noise" helps explain the sentence better.

There are rules for adjective clauses, and they say that the clauses should be as close to their antecedent or the noun they refer to as possible. Close (1977: 51) states that it will make it easier to figure out what the writer meant. Thus, the adj. is used.

2.2. Finite Clauses

Finite clauses are known to have a finite introduces the verb phrase (henceforth VP). (Leech and Svartvik, 1975:213).

The term "finite" comes from Latin "finitus" which means "limited", "bounded" (Chambers English Dictionary (Michael Donald Kirby 1988:731). Thus a finite verb is "limited" by a person's properties, number, tense, and mood. Finite clauses can contain a modal auxiliary, the subject, whether given or understood, should agree in number and person with the first element of the verb sequence, and (if a pronoun), it will be in the subjective case: He makes..., We know..., He has finished..., She will write. (Huddleston, 1976:66; Davies, 1968:122; Alexander, 1988:2; Cook and Newson, 1997:51). The main clause is always finite, as in (1), but like in (2), many subordinate clauses are finite clauses as well:

(1) She was sent away to school. (Hasselgård, 2003:7)

(2) a- I said that I might go. (Direct object)

b- When she leaves the house, you should call me. (Adverbial)

c- Mary likes the man who is assisting her with the science project. (Modifies the noun man) (Johannesson, 1999:1)

In fact, finite and non-finite verb phrases are decided by the status of the verb in a sentence. The individual verbs inside a finite verb phrase vary in status. In a given sentence, if there is more than one verb, only the first one is going to be finite and the others are going to be non -finite verbs. Actually, the main verb is always in a non-finite form when attached by an auxiliary like for instance:

(1) My wife has fed the dog.

(2) My wife will feed the dog. (Fenn, 2022, 299).

In the first sentence, the main verb is a past participle and in the second it is the infinitive. Whereas, as a whole, the verb phrases in both sentences are finite.

Important to know that all sentences have to contain at least one finite verb phrase, and in simple sentences the verb phrase is always finite. In complex sentences, however, the verb phrases in the subordinating clause can be either finite or non-finite. And it is always being finite in the matrix verb phrase, like for example;

(1) He didn't know whether to admit being drunk or not

Matrix clause [He didn't know]= finite

Subordinate clause 1 (od) [whether to admit] = non-finite

Subordinate clause 2 (od) [being drunk] = non-finite

2.3. Non-finite Clauses

What distinguishes a finite clause from a non- finite clause is that the non-finite clauses usually have non-finite verbs that show neither tense nor mood and are usually used in the subordinating pattern of clauses. However, the time referred to can be understood from the background of the main clause. The non-finite clause is often used especially when the subject is the same in both clauses, the main and the subordinate one. The kind of the non-finite verbs are the ed/ing participle, the infinitive with to and the bare infinitive. Since they cannot be the subject of the main clause, the non-finite

clauses cannot be main clauses. Look at the distinction between these sentences:
(Huddleston, et al. 2005 :36)

- | | | |
|--|---|--------------------|
| (2) It is rare [for her to bring her own food] . non-finite. | } | Non-finite clauses |
| (3) She regrets [bringing her own food] | | |
| (4) This is the food [brought by my sister] | | |
| (5) She brings her own food (primary form) | } | Finite clauses |
| (6) Bring your own food (imperative) | | |
| (7) We insist [that she bring her own food] (subjunctive) | | |

They are, in other words, inexorably related to the key statements. As a result, non-finite clauses are distinct from finite clauses in that they always function as subordinate clauses. Finite clauses, on the other hand, could be both primary and secondary. The statement shows that major sentences are always finite, whereas clauses that are subordinate might be either finite or non-finite. As a result, Any of the three different kinds of subordinate clauses: adjective, adverbial, and noun clauses. might be non-finite or endless.

These are instances of non-finite clause:

Since leaving to other city, Judy has made a lot of new friends.
 (Azar, 1989: 316).

We can see the distant mountains covered with ice. (close, 1977 : 88)

The non-finite clause is distinguished because the first verb in the VP does not mark tense or agreement. As shown by the ungrammaticality of walks in (3) below; it cannot be a modal auxiliary; and its subject (if there is one) is never in a subjective case (Nesfield and Wood, 1964:7; Stageberg, 1971:225).

Thus (4. b) with nominative, he is not:

(3) * For him to walk in the superstitions is nice.

(4) a- We would like him to stay.

b- * We would like him to stay. (Galasso, 2003:58)

However, tense, aspect, and mood are known from the context referred to in the main clause, as in (5). In contrast, semi-auxiliaries like *have*, *be*, *do*, etc are able to express modality in a given non-finite clause, as in (6):

(5) a- The first man to speak was our local vicar.

b- The first man to speak gets a free lunch. (Elsness, 2003:3)

(6) We are to meet his father at the weekend. (Chalker, 1984:147)

The linear order of those clause elements that are present is fixed. In this respect, state that it corresponds to the main declarative clauses' basic structures. It is illustrated in the following example, which shows the analysis of a non-finite clause with its corresponding finite clause:

(7) Bringing [V] her own food [Od], she didn't mind.

~ She [S] brings [V] her own food [Od]. (Huddleston, et al. 2005 ,36)

Subordinate clauses can be non-finite ones, but as (8) shows, a non-finite clause by itself cannot be a complete sentence:

(8) *Him to go (Gelderen, 2000: 57)

2.3.1. Forms of Non-finite Clauses

Infinitives, participles, and gerunds are the three forms of non-finite clauses

The term "infinitive" comes from Latin "infinitivus," which consists of "in" meaning "not" and "finire" meaning "to limit." It is used to express the idea without a person or number. (Landau , 1989: 595).

The VP of an infinitive clause contains the main verb's infinitive form, either a bare infinitive consisting of the untensed stem of a lexical verb without *to* (*write*) or a *to*-infinitive. (Brown and Miller, 1982:162; Burton-Roberts, 1986:252). Also, it can take different aspects or any mixture of the progressive aspect (*to be writing*), perfective aspect (*to have written*), passive voice (*to be written*).

(9) a- It's nice to be sitting here with you. (Progressive) (Swan, 1996:259)

b- I am happy to have been George's friend. (perfect) (Close,1975:78)

c- The manager wanted us to have been cleaning the all building to the end of the shift.

(perfect progressive)

d- I need my peers to honour me for my excellent findings. (active)

e- There's a lot of work to be done. (passive) (Swan, 1996:260)

An infinitive clause can appear with a subject (10. a, c and d) or without it (10. b). In both cases, the subject is either a noun or it can take the form of a pronoun in the objective case:

(10) a- I have never seen you eat asparagus. (Carnie, 2021:223)

b- What I did was hit her on the face.

c- I want Sally to sign my yearbook.

d- The most important thing would be for you to tell the truth.

(Greenbaum and Quirk, 1990:286)

A Participle clause is that clause whose verb in its verb phrase is a participle. The term "participle" comes from the Latin "participium," which means "sharing" (The Concise Oxford Dictionary, Judy Pearsall 1999:1039). They are of two classes; the –ing present participle and the –ed past or pastor participles as in (11. a) and pastor –ed participles, as in (11. b) :

(11) a- Having read the textbook, he was ready for the final test.

b- Captured yesterday, he is in custody today. (Gelderen, 2000:56)

Present participle clauses can be used to describe permanent characteristics (12. a), to say what the status of someone/something is or was doing at a specific time (12. b and c), or to explain the action which follows (12.d):

(12) a- We loved their **singing**. (we loved)

b-We were very delighted at Mary **being** granted the reward. (we were delighted)

c- He was woken up by a rooster crowning. (the rooster was crowning)

(Murphy, 1985:186)

d- Opening the drawer, he took out a pistol.

The present participle can express the second action when it is part or a result of the first one.

* She went out, slamming the door.

-He fired, wounding one of the bandits.

Moreover, it can be used in sentences to replace the use of as, because, since and so on to help explain the action that follows.

(1) Fearing that the police would know him, he never went out at night. (as he feared)

It is worth to say that the use of the present participle at the beginning of sentences will give the meaning of "as he is or as he was"

(2) Being a student of history, he was naturally interested in museums. (because, as he was) (Prakash , 2022, 178

Quirk et al. (1985:1263) and Burton-Roberts (1986:254) indicate that-ing participles cannot be regarded as progressive since there are verbs called stative, such as know and own, which can appear in non-finite -ing participles but cannot have the progressive in the finite VP:

(13) a- * He was owning this mangrove swamp.

b- Owning this mangrove swamp meant nothing to him.

Like infinitives, the VP of an -ing clause can appear in various aspects and voices:

(14) a-Crossing the street, he was knocked down by a car. (active) (Häcker, 1999:39)

b- Despite having taken off his shoes, he made a noise. (perfect)

(Chalker, 1984:250)

c- The workers were very exhausted, having been digging for along time. (progressive perfective) (Johannesson, 1999:3)

d- Having been chomped twice, the postman rejected to deliver our letters unless we tied up the dog strongly. (perfect passive) (Thomson and Martinet, 1986:243).

The–ing clause subject might be left unexpressed (15. a). If it is expressed, it can have the form of possessive determiner/genitive of head of a noun phrase (henceforth NP) (15. b), an object form of personal pronoun (15. c), or it can be introduced by a preposition (15.d):

(15) a- Standing on the church tower, we could see the whole village below us.

(Eckersley and Eckersley, 1960:240)

b- He felt his heart beating widely.

c - In two minutes, he made them all laughing. (Zandvoort, 1966:33)

d- With the people getting impatient, the chairman shortened his boring speech. (Yang, 2022: 131)

However, –ed participles, unlike –ing clauses, admit very little variation. They have a resemblance with the passive form since they have the passive sense and can have an agent expression:

(16) The boy failed the test, transmitted to another school.

Usually –ed participles have no subject, but they can have one that differs from the subject found in the main clause:

(17) Covered with confusion, they apologized abjectly. (Yang ,2022: 131)

The third type of non-finite clause is the gerundive one. The term "gerund" comes from the Latin "gerundium," derived from "gerere," which means "to bear" (Landau, CED, 1989:595). Gerund, In such clauses, is going to be the first verb in the VP, and with no exception, gerunds are always end with –ing form. The gerund has no subject. It might be deleted or, or acted in the objective or possessive cases:

(18) a- It was no good trying to calm him.

b- It was no good for his wife/her trying to calm him. (Zandvoort, 1966:31)

The gerund is indistinguishable in form from the present participle, but some grammarians, such as Nesfield and Wood (1964:74); Brown and Miller (1982:68); Huddleston (1988:40) and Crystal (1991: 279) show their distinction in nature in that the gerund functions as a noun, whereas the participle functions as an adjective:

(19) a- Working in these conditions is a pleasure. (gerund: subject) (Eckersley and Eckersley, 1960:243)

b- I saw many touching pictures. (-ing participle: adjective) (Azar, 1999:297)

Gerunds can perform in most sentences and in different voices and aspects.

(20) a- They were accused of having ignored the environment. (perfect) (Azar, 2000:10)

b- She remembers being taken to the theatre when she was a child. (passive) (Thomson and Martinet: 1986:233)

c- I appreciate having been told the news. (perfect passive) (Azar, 1999:331)

The negative form for the non-finite clauses mentioned earlier can be done by placing "not" or "never" before the non-finite verb:

(21) a- Not having a telephone can save you a great deal of Never trouble.

b- Though never defeated in battle, they finally surrendered.

c- He stood all night so as not to lose his place in the queue. (Close, 1975:100)

2.3.2. Functions of Non-finite Clause

Its position in the sentence determines the function of a non-finite clause in the sentence. It can be nominal, adjectival, or adverbial.

Nominal to-infinitive clauses can act as nouns. Therefore, they may have the function of a subject, an object, or an object of a preposition, a subject complement, an object complement, an appositive, or an adjective complementation.

(22) a- To be alone can be very sad. (subject)

b- I asked him to leave the room. (object) (Bruti, 2003: 20)

c- They saw him about to make a terrible mistake. (object of a preposition)
(Close, 1977:212)

d- His aim is to win. (subject complement) (Close, 1977:12)

e- He considers them to be intelligent. (object complement)

f- Your ambition to become a farmer requires hard work. (appositive)

g- I am eager to meet her. (adjectival complementation) (Voigt and Germer, 2001:2)

It is necessary to mention that if the infinitive clause has the function of a subject in the sentence, it should come at the beginning of the clause . (23. a). It can also be extra posed and linked to the subject position by the preparatory subject, as in (23. b) :

(23) a- For me to be writing a book on this subject was an irrational act.

b- It was an irrational act for me to be writing a book on this subject. (Wekker and Haegeman, 1985:161)

The nominal bare infinitive clause, alternatively, can function as a subject complement (24.a), subject in a pseudo-cleft sentence (24.b), object complement (24.c), or object of a preposition (24.d)

(24) a- The outcome of the meeting is confirm a fair pension for everyone.

b- Shutting down the system was my last problem.

c- He made me see the all operation on TV.

d- He did everything but shave his bear off. (Greenbaum and Quirk, 1990:313)

The infinitive clause, as adjectival, can be used to modify nouns as shown in the following examples:

(25) a- They have no desire to leave the party.

b- There was no time to waste. (Stageberg, 1971:227)

c- He has the ability to read. (Collins Cobuild English Grammar, 1990:134)

Besides, the infinitive clause may be used to modify pronouns which are either relative pronouns or indefinite ones:

(26) a- A nice place at which to have a meal in the pub round the corner. (Quirk. et al., 1985:1266)

b- There's nothing for the cats to eat. (Swan, 1996:265)

Adverbially, the infinitive clause can modify the whole sentence, the verb, or the adjective:

(27) a- To be honest, I didn't enjoy it. (Chalker, 1984:189)

b- The program took three years to make. (Huddleston, 1984:392)

c- They are keen to stress shopping as a family activity. (Hasselgård, 2003:1)

An infinitive clause may be used to convey various semantic clause relations. In such cases, conjunction like for instance "so as, in order, as if" may or may not precede it:

(28) a- He built a big house in order to have enough rooms for his family (purpose) (Azar, 1999:326)

b- He isn't so unworldly as to despise money. (result)

c- To see him, you'd never think he was 20. (condition) (Chalker, 1984:250)

d- I'd sooner pay than do any of these things. (preference) (Lario, 2001:3)

e- It was too heavy to lift. (degree) (Villalón, 1997:20)

f- I opened the door at night only to find out that the dog was scratching it. (time) (Hudson. 1998:45)

Nominal participle clauses can occupy only the syntactic position of the subject, usually preceded by the and followed by a plural verb:

(29) All the wounded were removed to Station A; the dying was carried on to Station B. (Ibid)

The participle refers to a category of people as "a total group in a particular context" (Chalker, 1984:183).

It explains the plural status of the verbs in the above example.

The participles are equivalent to adjective clauses when they are used to post modify nouns. As such, they may often be considered as "reduced relative clauses

(30) a- The man who is riding the Ford is my boss. The man riding the Ford is my boss. (Villalón, 1997:19)

b- They can have the cakes which are leftover from yesterday. They can have the cakes left over from yesterday. (Garside et al., 1998:11)

According to Collins Cobuild English Grammar (1990:134), the difference between a present and a past participle clause used as a post modifier is that the former can indicate that something is doing something. In contrast, the latter can be used to show that something/someone has been produced or affected by an action:

(31) a- He gestured towards the house cards lying on the table.

b- I read a story written by a nine-year-old girl. (ibid.)

Adverbial participle clauses can modify the whole sentence, the adjective, or the verb:

(32) a- Reflecting on my past, I wondered if I had made the right choices. (Hasselgård, 2003:1)

b- She was still busy writing letters. (Elsness, 2003:7)

c- John started building a house last year. (ibid, 2003:27)

Furthermore, participle clauses can convey various semantic roles under their relation to main clauses:

(33) a- Feeling angry, he shouted to them. (reason) (Quirk, 1968:202)

b- You lock the door by turning the key twice to the left. (Manner)

c- Although invited, I won't go. (contrast) (Close, 1975:92)

d- I wear it when cycling in the country. (time) (Mathews, 1981:52)

e- The sentence is ambiguous and taken out of context. (contingency)
(Quirk et al., 1985:1086)

f- The players will be more active if encouraged repeatedly.
(condition) (ibid. :1090)

g- He bent down as if lightning his shoelaces. (Comparison) (ibid. :1110)

Since a gerund is a kind of noun, a gerundive clause can exhibit the function of nouns in the sentence as a subject of the sentence, an object, the object of a preposition, appositive, subject complement, or adjective complement. Like:

(34) a- Swimming in the lake is not allowed. (subject) (Kies, 1995:4)

b- He likes talking. (object) (Brown and Miller 1982:162)

c- I did it without thinking. (object of a preposition) (Chalker, 1984:217)

d- His ambition, winning the men's singles, was well deserved. (appositive)
(ibid. :146)

e- To keep money that you have found is stealing. (subject complement) (Ibid:243)

f- He has a few pictures that are well worth looking at.
(adjective complement) (Chalker,1984:26)

Chalker (1984:147) and Elsness (2003:4) show the difference between the gerundive and infinitival clauses in that the former tends to refer to entities whose existence and actuality are already established, i.e., "backwards-looking" or general. The latter, on the other hand, tends to refer to potential, hypothetical situations, which are imagined rather than seen as facts, i.e., "forward-looking":

(35) a- Saying such a thing was an insult to their intelligence.

b- To say such a thing would be an insult to their intelligence.

The adjectival function of a gerundive clause can be made clear by the following examples illustrating its position in the post-modifier sentence. The clause is usually preceded by *of* or *for*:

(36) a- The time for making excuses is past.

b- He spoke of the necessity of employing more men. (Frank, 1972:325)

Adverbially, the gerundive clause can modify the verb, the adjective, or the whole sentence:

(37) a- They observed Adrian writing his book. (Hudson, 1998:52)

b- It is no good talking to him. (Frank, 1972:26)

c- On seeing her, he ran to meet her. (Quirk, et al, 1985:189)

Moreover, it can perform different semantic roles according to its relationship to the main clause:

(38) a- After visiting the British Museum, we were eager to see the National Gallery also. (time) (ibid:126)

b- Despite having worked hard, he failed the exam. (contrast)

c- He disturbed everyone by coming home late. (manner) (Chalker, 1984:250)

d- They left without saying goodbye. (result) (Swan, 1996:4)

2.4. Verbless Clauses

A verbless clause (henceforth VLC) is the most reduced form of a clause. It involves essentially of what is known as the subject predicative in an equivalent finite clause (Johannesson, 1999:4; Taylor, 1999:25):

(39) a- Anxious and fretful, she left early.

~ Since she was anxious and fretful, she left early. (Kies, 1995:4)

b- I believe the manager is incapable of telling the truth.

~ I believe (that) the manager is incapable of telling the truth. (Galasso, 2003:20)

c- I visited the people upstairs.

~ I visited the people who are/live upstairs. (Graustein et al., 1987:295)

Burton Roberts (1986:289) defines the VLC as "a collection of certain words that despite of the absence of "an un subordinat ed finite verb", is felt to form a perfect

statements and sentences ". Fowler (1965:675), for his part, defines it as " The tool for enlivening the written word by approximating it to the spoken".

Most grammarians such as Close (1975:100), Quirk et al. (1985:992), Huddleston (1988:169), and Crystal (1991:372) agree that a VLC is notable for its lack of any verb form and often the subject as well. The following examples where recoverability is added may clarify this:

(40) a- David plays chess when (he is) on holiday. (Quirk et al, 1972:2)

b- If (you are) in doubt, leave the decision to your superior. (Garside et al., 1998:14)

c- I used to recite it when (I was) on guard duty. (Mathews, 1981:52)

d- Though (they were) afraid of road conditions, they agreed to go by their cars. (Hasselgård, 2003:1)

Clauses below are all having the same characteristics of a subject complement, the absentees of verb "be" and the same subject of the clause that have them.

(41) a- She came whenever (it was) necessary. (Elsness, 2003:4)

b- (It was) Anonymous to the rest of the team , he had made clear the future plans, with a view to reduce number of workers . (Quirk et al., 1972:759)

In addition, the subject can be introduced "with or without":

(42) a- With Mary still in Florida, Fred must be lonely. (McCawley, 1998:209)

b- Without any declaration of his project, we shouldn't make up our attentions on this event. (Quirk et al., 1985:630)

Clearly, VLCS can be preserved as reductions of the non-finite clauses:

(43) a- Curious about our new house, Joan came to see us at the weekend.

Being curious about our new house, Joan came to see us at the weekend. (Hasselgård, 2003:4)

b- Too sad to enjoy the birthday party he stayed at home.

Being too sad he stayed at home.

c- Too shocked to speak he stood dumb.

Being too shocked he stood dumb. (Roy P.L, Sharma, 1991: 180)

It is clear that verbless and non-finite clauses are similar in that both lack the subject, but since VLCS lack the verb element, their syntactic compressions are taken one stage further than the non-finite clauses" (Quirk et al., 1972:725). VLCS, however, may themselves have non-finite or finite clauses inside them:

(44) a- Too shocked to speak he stood dumb.

Being too shocked he stood dumb. (Roy P.L, Sharma, 1991: 180)

b- Sara was phoning, unaware that her husband was in the audience.
(Hasselgård, 2003:4)

Verbless structures are considered clauses since they have the same function that make them corresponding to the finite and non-finite clauses (Leech and Svartvik, 1975:214). Huddleston (1984:393) comments that the relation between in this pocket and a spoon, over and the meeting in (45) below is like that between a predicate and a subject (A spoon was in his pocket. The meeting was over) rather than like that between a modifier and ahead (+ determiner) in NP structure which makes such a construction clause-like despite the absence of the VP:

(45) a- He jumped out the red signal with a ticket on his car front mirror.

b- The meeting was over, and she resumed work on her novel.

Another reason is that such structures can be analyzed into the same functional elements recognized infinite clauses like a subject complement, object, and adverbial:

(46) a- Though [Conj.] was [Adv.] calm [Cs], she was nervous when someone speaks to her loudly.

~ Though [Conj.] she [S] was [V] always [Adv.] calm [S], she was nervous when someone speaks to her loudly. (Quirk et al., 1985:992)

b- If [Conj] is available [Cs], the book will be delivered to you within one week.

~ If [Conj] it [S] is [V] available [Cs], the book will be delivered to you within one week. (Wekker and Haegeman, 1985:34)

Villalón, in his book (1997:2), on the other hand, argues that any clause is identified as having a subject and a finite verb, and it is better to consider verbless constructions as phrases rather than clauses since they lack the finite verb. He maintains that the subject is not always recoverable, for example, the subject rule (see page 22) makes the following sentence interpret in a very different way that might divert from what the writer originally means:

(47) "Mad and despised, I can't help feeling sorry for George III".

If the meaning of the sentence is that George III was the one who was "mad and despised" (and not the writer), then, it is essential to diagnose it as follows, and thus (from the researcher's point of view) the problem is solved:

(48) "Mad and despised, George III was, in my opinion, greatly to be pitied".

He then adds (ibid:3) that when there is no finite verb in a given sentence, it is going to be possible that everything could be a subordinate clause if it can be transformed into a subordinate clause, for example, the sentence in (49. b) below could be the transformation of the sentence in (49. a) :

(49) a- She likes when she plays the piano.

b- She likes the play of the piano.

From the researcher's point of view, the dance of the tango could not be the transformation of when I dance the tango since they have two different functions, the dance of the tango is a NP that functions as the direct object of the verb love, whereas when I dance the tango is an adverbial subordinate clause. Secondly, they are semantically inequivalent; their meaning is different.

2.4.1 Forms of Verbless Clauses

Two forms of verbless clauses can be distinguished, those where a verb has been deleted and those of nominalization:

2.4.1.1. Deletion of Verb

VLCS may be regarded as derivations from fuller clauses. One way to do so is to delete the verb "be" and what is left behind is (the predicative). The subject and the subordinator (if there are any) may also be removed.

Chalker (1984:139) and Huddleston (1988:169) point out that linking verbs are easily deletable and recoverable because they have little semantic content of their own as compared to other verbs. In the VP, they are dependent on the predicative which is usually an adjective (henceforth Adj.) or an NP acting as a subject complement, or it may be an adverbial. Their main syntactic role is to link the complement to the subject. This makes the VLC limit to the SVC and SVA type of clauses with or without subordinators:

(51) a- An excellent speaker, he was never at a loss for a word. [(SV) Cs]
(Close, 1975:100)

b- He looked at her eagerly, his eyes full of anticipation and interest.
[S(V) Cs]

c- He sat in the back seat, his hands in his lap. [S (V)A] (Quirk et al., 1985:996)

d- When in Rome, do as the Romans do. Conj [(SV) A]b(Swan, 1996:133)

VLCS can contain optional adverbials which can be added either initially or finally:

(52) a- Reluctant to explain the situation, he went out of the room.
[(SV) Cs Areason]

b- Though now weak, he was rather able of taking care of himself. Conj
[(SV) A time Cs] (Quirk et al., 1985:997)

c- Mauran, usually a shy girl, replied furiously the other. [Afrequency (SV) Cs] (Quirk et al., 1972:726)

Huddleston (1988:170) Indicates that VLCS have a lot of similarities with the "adverbial participle clauses" since the letters, like VLCS, can function as a complement to be:

(53) a- Although (she was) working under difficult conditions, she performed remarkably well. (ibid.)

b- You never present any kind of help while (you are) watching the crash on the side of the road. (Hudson, 1998:43)

The deletion of the linking verb can also be applied to the result of another reduction. Consider the examples below in which the finite clause in (54. a) is reduced to a non-finite clause (namely to-infinitive) in (54. b), which, then, becomes a verbless clause in (54. c):

(54) a- Adam thinks that the convict is guiltless.

b- Adam thinks the convict to be guiltless.

c- Adam thinks the convict is guiltless.

In (54. a) and (54. b) "the convict" is the subject/NP of the embedded sentence and the adjective phrase (henceforth Adj. p.) in both cases is the predicative complement in the VP of the embedded clause. The structure of (54. b) can be represented as follows:

(55) Adam thinks [S- [NP the convict] [VP to be [Adj_p guiltless.]]]

The whole clause (S-) is the direct object of "think", the string of "the convict, guiltless", though containing no verb, can be treated as a clause as there is a predictive relationship between the NP "the convict" and the Adj_p "guiltless". In addition, it is regarded as a clause by analogy with the clauses in sentences (54. a and b) (Wekker and Haegeman, 1985:94; Bailyn, 2000:4).

Below are further examples of this type of reduction:

(56) a- Susan considers David (to be) an idiot.

b- The jury found the defendant (to be) guilty. (Aarts, 1998:3)

c- Will she find me (to be) a real bore? (Galasso, 2003:20)

A subject and subject complement VLC may be joined by the use of "and" to a preceding clause.

Such a combination can be used to express various logical relationships:

(57) a- He would have departed before the show, and nobody the wiser.= "if he had done so , nobody would have been the wiser."

b- How could you be so mean, and her your best friend? ('...seeing that she is your best friend')(Quirk et al., 1985:844)

Järvinen and Tapanainen (1997:15) argue that verbal ellipsis is a descriptive problem because generally only surface elements are allowed. Similarly, Quirk et al. (1985:997) think that it might be difficult to recognise a VLC from an appositional structure, "a non-restrictive post modifier, or an adverbial which is a direct constituent of the main clause". The prepositional phrase (henceforth pp) in (58) is considered as a VLC consisting only of adverbial complementation simply because it is directly parallel to nominal or adjectival verbless clauses mentioned in (59):

(58) Of a poor family, he started his hard labour in a shoe factory.

(59) a- A man of a poor family.

b- Born of poor family.

Meanwhile, the NP in (60) below is regarded as a VLC rather than a full apposition because it is not placed next to the subject:

(60) And she was here, in this lodging house dining-room, waiting for her bill, replete, pleased, even energetic. (Carter & McCarthy, 2006:540)

For the distinction between a verbless adjective clause and a non-restrictive relative clause, see section (2.4.2.2).

2.4.1.2. Nominalization

Nominalization is defined by Crystal (1991:260) as the process in which the nouns are formed from other words—class especially verbs and adjectives:

(61) a- V → N: hesitate → hesitation, arrive → arrival, manage → management, close → closure, etc.

b- Adj → N: excellent → excellence, ill → illness, free → freedom, warm → warmth, etc. (Bauer, 1983:222)

"Nominalization" according to Quirk et al. (1985:1288), refers to the use of, an NP that has a systematic identical with a clause construction. So, the noun head of such a phrase is going to be morphologically related to a verb in (62) and an adjective in (63):

(62) a- When you see the doctor, please call me urgently.

On seeing the doctor, please call me. (Close, 1975:101)

b- We went out although it was raining.

We went out despite the rain. (Swan, 1996:258)

(63) a- Because our soldiers are courageous, all of the enemies are taken prisoners.

"Because of our soldiers' courage, all of the enemies are taken prisoners".

b- He wanted to drive the truck even though it was very dangerous.

He wanted to drive the truck in spite of the danger. (Azar, 1999:386)

The relationship between "nominalization and corresponding clause structure" depends on to what extent the nominal or the adverbial elements in a clause are being more explicated. And this clarification is going to be by means of certain modifiers and determiners. The following NPS are organized from the most explicit (65. a) to the least explicit (65. e) and all can have the task of a nominalization:

(64) The critics evaluated his novel in an aggressive style

(65) a- the critics' aggressive evaluation style .

b- the critics evaluation of his style .

c- the critics' evaluation .

d- their evaluation .

e- the evaluation. (Quirk et al., 1985:1289)

Graustein et al. (1987:296) state that in word-building, a wider range of meanings can be yielded through the combination of the informational density of VLCS with the semantic development of lexical units as the following examples show:

(66) a- doorknob = a knob fastened at the door. (local)

a knob to be fastened to the door. (final)

b- sit-in = a demonstration staged by sitting in a certain place. (local) sit in a certain place to demonstrate. (final)

Also included under VLCS are constituents termed "paraphrasing". Paraphrasing is to give more detail to cross the main idea and for this the verb "be" is deleted and the predicative is transmitted after the determiners.:

(67) a- We sat on the ground although the grass was wet.

We sat on the ground despite the wet grass. (Krohn, 1971)

b- Because it was rainy, we remained home.

Due to the rain, we remained home. (Azar, 1999:385)

2.4.2. Functions of Verbless Clauses

At the sentence level, a VLC can function as nominal, adjectival, or Adverbial:

2.4.2.1. Nominal

A VLC can assume the grammatical function of nouns in the sentence as a direct object, a complement to a preposition, or an appositive. The following examples illustrate its function as a direct object:

(68) a- The umpire declared the runner safe. (Algeo, 1974:179)

b- I demand the suit complete by five o'clock.

c- He thinks the decision is very unwise. (Wekker and Haegeman, 1985:94)

d- Susan found the job very difficult. (Aarts, 1998:3)

In the examples above, the subject NP functions as the main direct object and the attributed constituent as the complement. The job is very difficult, in (68.d) can be analyzed as a unit because its constituents cannot be separated. What Susan found was not the job, but the job very difficult (ibid.). (See section 2.4.1.1 for more details).

Wekker and Hageman (1985:140) point out that the subject of the VLC, as in (69), can also be realized by a clause rather than by an NP. In (70. a), the subject of the VLC is a finite that-clause, whereas in (70. b), it is a non-finite to-infinitive clause:

(69) They considered her affair with George very foolish.

(70) a- They considered that she had an affair with George very foolish.

b- They considered for her to have an affair with George very foolish.

Furthermore, the subject clause of the object VLC can be extrapolated. The position of the subject inside the verbless object clause can be filled by the preparatory subject:

(71) a-They considered it very foolish that she had an affair with George.

b- They considered it very foolish for her to have an affair with George.

(ibid.)

VLCS that can function as a complement to a preposition can usually be introduced by with and without which take subject + complement structures. (Fang and Huckvale, 1996:163)

(72) a- He stood with his hands behind his back. (Huddleston, 1988:169)

b- He returned home without his shoes on.

c- He sauntered in with his hands in his pockets. (Garside et al., 1998:13)

As an appositive, a VLC usually contains an adverbial such as: then, obviously, also, normally, etc.:

(73) a- Peter Wise, then his brother, painted several great portraits.

b- Your father, clearly a practised man on English literature, is highly acclaimed in the book I bought and now reading.

c- Near the gate, there were two statues, one on each side. (Quirk et al., 1985:1314)

Another kind of verbless construction functioning as an appositive takes the form of "subject + complement":

(74) The two scientists, one an American and the other a German, were granted prizes.

In the above example, the VLC can be converted to a non-finite clause by inserting the participle being, or to a finite relative clause, as (75. a and b) show respectively:

(75) a- The two scientists, one being an American and the other being a German, were granted prizes.

b- The two scientists, one of whom was an American and the other of whom was a German, were granted prizes. (Quirk et al., 1985:1314)

In addition to the functions mentioned above, Quirk et al. (1972:743) indicate that a verbless nominal clause is required to account for a kind of subject that despite being superficially an NP, has some of the structural and semantic characteristics of a clause. The verbless nominal clauses in the examples below can, in turn, be paraphrased by non-finite nominal clauses:

(76) a- "A friend in need is a friend indeed". (proverb)

"To be a friend in need is to be a friend indeed."

b- Man –to-man is what the coach recommended his players.

Playing man-to-man is the coach plan for his players. (ibid.)

Such constructions are syntactically different from NPS in that the PPS are not of the kind which would post modify the head in an NP. As an NP, a friend in need would mean "a friend who is in need", whereas in (76. a) it means "(to have) a friend when one is in need, i.e. Friendship in a time of need is indeed friendship". Moreover, the lack of concord between carpets and is in (76. b) makes it easy to analyze such a construction as a clause (ibid.).

2.4.2.2. Adjectival

As adjectival, the VLC may be employed in post modification:

(77) She has got a lot of neighbours, most of them like her. (Bruti, 2003:18)

With and without can be used to introduce the VLC used to qualify nouns:

(78) a room with its door open. (Quirk et al., 1985:704)

The VLC can also function as a free predicative which is either an NP or an Adjp used to "ascribe a quality or property to the referent of the subject" without being linked to it through a copula (Johannesson, 1999:5). It is thus different from the subject predicative in that the latter follows a copular verb:

(79) a- These biscuits have been kept fresh. (subject predicatives)

b- She became a Prime Minister. (Chalker, 1984:22)

VLCS appear as free predicative in the following examples:

(80) a- The audience went away unimpressed. (Elsness, 2003:2)

b- Their hostess, radiant as ever, was waiting to greet them.

c- She turned away, furious. (Nash, 1986:119)

d- Stretched and messy, her hair waved in the wind. (Leech and Svartvik, 1975:214)

These examples show that free predicative, unlike subject predicative, do not have a fixed position in the sentence, but they can be moved around "fairly freely" (Johannesson, 1999:5):

(81) a- Partly restless, the woman opened the box.

b- The woman, partly restless, opened the box.

c- The woman opened the box, partly restless. (Quirk et al., 1985:425)

Meanwhile, a verbless adjective clause is similar in effect to a non-restrictive relative clause when it follows the subject:

(82) The woman, who is restless, opened the box. (Quirk et al., 1985:425)

What distinguishes a verbless adjective clause from a non-restrictive relative clause is that in (81), the woman's restlessness is linked to what the sentence contains, but this is not necessarily conveyed through the relative clause. Another point is that the verbless adjective clause is connected to the predication as well as to the subject. Moreover, as the examples in (80) and (81) show, it is mobile and its implied subject is the subject of the sentence. Thus (83. a) cannot have as its equivalent (83. b):

(83) a- The policeman arrested the boy, who was violent.

b- *The policeman arrested the boy, violent. (ibid.)

The verbless adjective clauses can be changed to finite clauses, but in this case, a finite clause that have the same semantic correspondence must be added to take the role of the main clause that reversed the subordinate one .

(84) a- John left the prison a different man.

When John left the prison, he was a different man. (Johannesson, 1999:6)

b- He drove on, wary and shaken.

He was wary and shaken when he drove on. (Hasselgård,2003:6)

2.4.2.3. Adverbial

Verbless adverbial clauses may consist only of an NP or an AdjP following the clause types mentioned in the examples below:

(85) a- They are happier free. (SVC)

b- He came home miserable. (SVA)

c- She ran the business single-handedly. (SVO)

d- She gave us our coffee black. (SVOO)

e- They sent him home sober. (SOVA) (Quirk et al., 1985:738)

The adverbial status of these clauses is made clear by the possibility of omitting as well as proposing them:

(86) a- He took the damaged bus totally undismayed.

~ Totally undismayed, he took the damaged bus. (Quirk et al., 1972:351)

b- There being no objection, we may continue.

We may continue, there being no objection.

Like finite and non-finite clauses, VLCS as an adverb-equivalents, can **have** different semantic relations to the main clause: temporal, causal, conditional, etc. These can be expressed with or without subordinators:

(87) a- While in France, he will stay at his friend's house. (time)

b- Grateful for her good support, they praised Sara. (reason)
(Hasselgård, 2003:7)

c- Without your efforts, I will never answer a question. (condition)
(Greenbaum and Quirk, 1990:288)

d- Even though he was totally wrong, he always insisted on having things his way. (condition-concession) (Elsness, 2003:11)

e- In accordance with the principles of direct play, the ball should be thrown forward where possible. (place) (Fang and Huckvale, 1996:13)

f- Fresh from the stove, sandwiches are enjoyable. (contingency) (Quirk et al., 1985:1078)

g- Although a lawyer by heredity, he turns into a good footballer. (contrast) (Close, 1975:100)

Verbless adverbial clauses can also be coordinated, the initial subordinating word can be omitted in the second occurrence if it is common to both clauses:

(88) With Peter ill and (with) the boys at home, Mary is finding life very hard. (Quirk et al., 1985:946)

In addition, the first or both conjoin with conditional or maybe a VLC:

(89) a- Your wallet or your life. (pass me your wallet or I'll take your life)

b- Your wallet or I shoot. (ibid. :934)

2.4.3. Further Uses of Verbless Clauses

2.4.3.1. Directive

VLCS can be used as a directive. According to Leech (1989:514), these constructions are mainly found in informal speech:

(90) Everybody out!

A verbless command may be constructed with an adverbial followed by with–phrase, or it may consist only of an NP which may be accompanied by an adverbial such as please as the examples in (91) and (92) show respectively:

(91) a- Off with your coat! (Take off your coat!) (ibid.)

b- On with the show! (Begin or continue the show!)

c- Out with it! (Tell me about it!) (Quirk et al., 1985:843)

(92) a- Attention !

b- My hat, please!

c- The door! (ibid. :850)

In most cases, the interpretation of such commands depends on the context. The door in (92. c) may mean "Shut the door.. Watch the door.. Open the door!, or even 'Leave the room !'". (Quirk et al., 1985:843)

VLCS can appear as the first clause in coordinated constructions that denote a conditional relationship. Such constructions may also have the force of a directive:

(93) a- One additional move and I'll fire. (Take one additional move more and I'll fire.)

b- A kiss or I'll kill myself. (Give me a kiss or I'll kill myself.) (ibid. :851)

The following stereotyped sentences have VLCS in both parts:

(94) a- Your money or your life! (Give me your money or I'll take your life.)

b- Trick or treat! (Give me a treat or I'll play a trick on you.) (ibid. :852)

Because of its abbreviated nature, verb less clauses are widely used in the field of instructional languages like for instance the language of technical manuals, the language of purchase and consumers' brochures on using products, or labels for illustrations on how to use something, as clarified in the examples below:

(95) a- Cook slowly until ready. (Swan, 1996:133)

b- Beat the mixture until fluffy.

c- File the edges until smooth. (Quirk et al., 1985:1079)

2.4.3.2. Exclamative

The VLC can by itself serve to form an independent sentence, thus such Exclamative questions may be found:

(96) a- What lovely weather! (Leech, 1989:514)

b- What a good idea! (Quirk et al., 1985:841)

A VLC functioning as an exclamation may consist either of an adjective alone or as the head of an AdjP, as the following examples show:

(97) a- Excellent!

b- How good of you!

c- How very kind!

According to Krapp (1936, 330) exclamation and exclamatory utterances are somehow incomplete sentences that are able of carrying a complete thought and they are unique since they don't follow the ordinary structure of a full sentence. So, they need not be dependent on any previous linguistic context, but on a certain situational context.

VLCS with initial What or How can be regarded as elliptic versions. In the following examples, the elliptic parts are bracketed:

(98) a- How odd (it is)!

b- What a strange story (it was)! (Chalker, 1984:12)

Quirk et al. (1985:842) mention another kind of VLCS used to express an exclamatory wish. Such a class begins with "Oh" followed by an NP. Such constructions are usually poetic or archaic:

(99) a- Oh for a cup of coffee and a cigar!

b- Oh for a kiss from her lips !

However, the following stereotyped exclamations consisting of (Oh for ... 's sake) are used to express impatience or anger:

(100) a- Oh, for heaven's sake!

b- Oh, for Christ's sake! (ibid.)

2.4.4. Purposes of Verbless Clauses

As noted in the previous discussion, a wide range of VLCS are reduced forms of subordinate clauses. With the underlying verb deleted and the generalization achieved by leaving out all other details, VLCS often reflect a more permanent meaning than other clauses (Graustein et al., 1987:249). Because of its informational density, the VLC can be an effective means of writing. The author, in such clauses, "is trying for the effect of words spoken in the head—thoughtful, angry, shocked, or bemused" (Snively, 2003:2). The following sections illustrate some of the purposes it is intended to serve:

2.4.4.1. Transition

A VLC may introduce what is to follow, as in (101), or it may have a brief mention on what has said before. In this case, it consists only of complement which is linked to the preceding clause by and, as in (102):

(101) a- Finally on one small point.

b- The practical conclusion?

(102) a- She left him, and a good thing too. ('...and it is a good thing too.')

(Quirk et al., 1985:844-5)

2.4.4.2. Afterthought

To give the VLC greater importance, some writers prefer to use a full stop instead of lighter punctuation. The use of a full stop, here, can suggest a pause for reflection:

(103) a- Some stars might have been discovered by Nasa itself. Well almost.

b- He thought as much as he observed. More in fact. (Fowler, 1965:675)

2.4.4.3. Pictorial

The VLC can be used in descriptive writing. The writer here aims to describe a particular event that enables the reader to see it in his mind:

(104) a- Here music and dance were marvellous. No interruption. (ibid.)

b- wonderful to see creatures that know nothing about future problems or death of Committees. (Snively, 2003:2)

2.4.4.4. Dramatic Climax

An event or a point of greatest interest or intensity can be expressed through the use of the VLC as clarified by the following examples:

(105) a- They gave us some time back afterward, because of the brain having an operation. (Yang, 2022:64)

b- We shall face difficulties as we always have done. As a united nation. (Fowler, 1965:675)

From another hand, the use of what is called "serial verb construction" (SVC) attracts much attention. Two or may be more verbs are functioning as a predicate that allows the speaker to express various aspects as a single cognitive package with one clause and with one predicate:

(106) a- You don't just run go play this music.

b- She is the professor I want go see.

c- Don't make me come get you ! (Yang, 2022:64)

2.4.4.5. Comment

The use of VLC can show the writer's emotional attitude, especially "if arch or strident or intended to surprise":

(107) a- We end the whole matter by sending the furniture to the market. A neat solution. Clever us. (ibid.)

b- Did anyone call my name? Unbelievable. Foolish.

c- Marry, I just learned from her daughter-is coming to visit us. Great. Get ready. Brain Macwinney, et al. (2014:354)

The examples above show how the VLC can be an effective medium of emphasis, intimacy, and rhetoric. The missing parts can be guessed from the context, and most readers are not aware that anything is missing. As Snively (2003:2) rightly believes, should use them both sparingly and intentionally, taking careful note of their influence in a whole passage.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter has six parts each of which represents and gives a clarification on the nature of the methodology followed to achieve the research goals as well as sample of the group of the participants, the techniques of data gathering, instruments of the research, how data is analyzed and finally the procedures followed.

3.2. Research Method

The research method is discussed in this chapter. A test has been constructed in order to achieve the study's aims. This chapter contains a description of this test, including its aims, design, material selection, and participants to whom it was administered. The test's validity and reliability are also defined. In addition, the current chapter discusses the test's pilot and primary administration, as well as the scoring methodology used. A survey was used as the study's method. And it can be defined as "the process of conducting research using surveys that researchers send to survey respondents. The data collected from surveys is then statistically analyzed to draw meaningful research conclusions" . These conclusions take in consideration the viewpoints of the teachers as well as the participants ". or any one necessary to the field of the study. (Brown and Rodgers, 2002: 142). The researcher developed a test to assess the fourth stage, English department students' understanding of non-finite sentences. However, tests are often used as a criteria in second language acquisition studies to measure linguistic competence. To put it in another way, tests could provide data on the efficiency of the processes of both teaching as well as of learning a language. Furthermore, according to Bachman (1995:3), teachers of foreign language frequently offer examinations to make a diagnosis for the strengths and weaknesses of their students. The researcher decided to use a test to collect data for what has been mentioned above.

3.3. The Objective of the Test

Given that a language test is viewed as a means of evaluating a student's performance by eliciting specific behaviour from which one can infer certain features about an individual. (Bachman, 1990:20), the present test was developed primarily to ascertain the extent to which college students master verbless constructions. It is made for the purpose of diagnosing where the Iraqi college students of foreign language are facing certain struggles and difficulties in the use and production such clauses, as well as the reasons behind such errors and mistakes, in order to make quick and active to remedial and helpful references and recommendations based on the test results. The test is intended to assess both recognition and production. The first and second questions assess subjects' recognition abilities, whereas the third and fourth questions assess their production abilities. As a result, the hypotheses advanced in section (1.3) will be confirmed or disproved.

3.4. The Participants

The study's sample includes 50 participants from the Department of English at Imam Kadhum University College of Education's fourth-grade academic year (2020–2021). About 72% of the overall student population is represented in the sample. They are Iraqi Arabic native speakers with a comparable EFL background, with an average age of twenty–two years. Because the topic under consideration was taught in their third year of university study, fourth-year students favoured applying for the examination. The textbook used is "*A University Grammar of English*" (1973) by Quirk and Greenbaum. Furthermore, before graduation, they are the most accomplished English learners at the university level, the participants were in at the intermediate level. The researcher chose this university because it has an English department. The study started during the pandemic, so it was very difficult to move from one place to another. The chosen university is in the same town. Furthermore, the participants were in the fourth grade; they are going to be the new graduates who are supposed to be teachers of English in intermediate and secondary schools, so it becomes crucial for the researcher to ensure the level of recognition and production of the finite and verbless clauses. The researcher considered those students a suitable sample for the current study.

3.5. Instrument of the research

The test was given to collect data for analysis. The student's marks would determine their knowledge of the kinds of non-finite clauses. Furthermore, the test might reveal the mistakes made by the students. As a result, the exam constituted an essential aspect of the study.

The test of the study has four main questions on the examination. The first two of them are intended to assess the respondents' recognizing abilities. The first question consists of fifteen items that assess the respondents' ability to differentiate VLCS from finite and non-finite ones. Only one of the three options presented to the students is correct: finite, non-finite, or VLCS. Next, the participants are given ten sentences and asked to say if the underlined words in each item act as a VLC, an Adjp, or an Advp in the second question. The respondents' answer to this question will show their ability to identify VLCS from an Adjp or an Advp that is a direct element of the main sentence, primarily if they consist of a compliment.

What remains of the questions, on the other hand, are intended to assess the participants' replies at the level of production. The third question has fifteen items that are evenly spread throughout three sub-questions: A, B, and C, each with five things. Sub-question A will look at one of the most fundamental kinds of VLCS, namely nominalization. The subjects are requested to create a nominalized sentence that correlates to a finite sentence methodically. Some of the items (such as (1), (2), and (4)) necessitate paraphrasing, while others necessitate the creation of an NP from another word-class. Conjunctions are offered to make the duty of the subjects easier. Sub-question B (together with sub-question B in question four) seeks to test this characteristic since VLCS may be viewed as reductions of non-finite sentences. After turning the non-finite clause supplied within brackets to a VLC, the subjects are requested to finish each item. In items (1), (2), and (5), just removing the participle being or having is sufficient to produce such sentences, however in items (3) and (4), additional adjustments are required. The respondents' capacity to transform non-finite sentences into verbless clauses can be assessed based on their replies. Subjects in sub-question C are advised to rewrite the underlined finite sentences as VLCS, focusing primarily on the second fundamental type of VLCS, i.e., deletion of the verb. The goal is to assess their capacity to convert finite sentences to verbless clauses. Item (2)

requires deletion of the connecting verb (with or without the deletion of the subject), while the rest of the items require additional adjustments. The fourth question is broken down into two sub-questions, each with five elements. Subjects are asked to transform the VLCS to finite clauses in sub-question A and non-finite clauses in sub-question B after recognizing them in both sub-questions. As a result, their capacity to do so may be assessed.

Worth to mention that a good test has characterized by its validity; how the test is appropriate for the study, its reliability; it should be comprehensive and steady, also it is measured by its economy and scalability, as well as administrability. These in fact are all characteristics of a good test. Validity and Reliability are two terms that are often used interchangeably.

3.6. The Validity

Validity is defined as "the suitability of a test to measure what it is designed to measure for. A test is valid if it gives an accurate and useful indications of students' results I terms of certain criteria"

The test must fulfil certain requirements to be valid. The various forms of evidence may be used to prove the test's validity. Content validity, construct validity, & face validity are the three types of validity. According to Brown (2004: 22), as the quality of a test that made it an efficient forecaster of future behaviour....and as a measure of a factors indicated by its correlation with that factor". Validity is linked to the purpose of the test itself. Unlike reliability, validity is not a general feature for a test, but it is particular for one test may be. Wainer & Braun (1988:21)

When it comes to valid testing, Hughes (2003: 22) defines it as one that can accurately measure what is being tested. According to the study, the exam was considered legitimate if it could accurately assess the capacity of fourth-grade pupils at Imam Kadhum University College to employ non-finite clauses.

(1) **Content:** The test has what is referred to be "content validity" when it samples the subject matter from which decisions are to be made. The content validity of the test

can be shown by contrasting item specifications with the test content. The ability that the test is intended to evaluate is indicated by the item definition.

(2) **Construct:** The validity of a construct can be set if it is able to measure the capacity designed to be measured. Theodore (2001: 26),. As a result, the test used as a data collection instrument is a direct test. It was more concerned with creating sentences with non-finite clauses than it was with identifying finite and non-finite clauses. Construct validity could be inferred because of the test's ability to measure non-finite sentence production (Ibid).

(3) **Face:** To meet face validity, a test must appear to measure what it is gauging (Hughes, 2003: 27). In this case, the author asked members of Imam Kadhum University College's English Department for feedback on the exam's format and validity before distributing the draught to them. After receiving some feedback from the professors, the author made some revisions to make the test better.

3.7. The Reliability

Consistent and reliable testing is what Brown (2004: 20) describes it as. This means that the exam's results, which were administered to two different groups, should be comparable. Several factors to consider when developing tests were referred to by the researcher to define how reliable the test is!

(1) The sample size should be sufficient. The test should not be very long or excessively brief.

(2) The instructions must be precise and straightforward.

(3) The environment in which the test was given should be consistent and conducive.

(4) Hughes' suggestions (2003: 36).

Besides the variables mentioned above, there is a method for analyzing dependability: determining the composite reliability. The coefficient of reliability can be calculated using three methods: test-retest, inter-item consistency, and the parallel-form methodology. According to the current study, the researcher is using "the Kuder-Richardson formula 20 (K-R 20)", that is incorporated in inter-item consistency. The

Kurder–Richardson method was used to assess the test's reliability; the researcher has chosen the mentioned above formula for two justifications. The first of which is its practicality, as K-R 20 only needs one test administration. Secondly, is that this method is suitable for the test. The formula can be used to calculate objects as correct or incorrect. It can also be calculated using the following formula:

$$r = \frac{N}{N-1} \left(1 - \frac{m(N-m)}{NX^2}\right)$$

Where:

r = reliability.

N = the number of items in the test.

m = the mean of the test scores.

x = the standard deviation of the test scores.

According to the calculation of this formula, the reliability coefficient of the current test is 0.94, which is a very strong correlation.

3.8. Carrying out the Pilot Test

The pilot test was conducted on April 9th, 2021, and a pilot test was run on the same day. This pilot has been administered to ten randomly selected fourth-year students who are left out from the test. This test aims to find out how long it takes to answer the test, whether the directions and the items are clearly understood by the participants, and whether anything needs to be changed. According to the results of the pilot test, it takes around one hour to answer all of the test items, as well as certain instructions, needs to be amended. All of the information gathered during the test's pilot administration has been integrated into a final draft.

3.9. Item Analysis

A test item is defined as follows:

A test item in a mental attributes examination is a measurement unit with a stimulus and a prescriptive form for responding, and it is pretend to produce a response from an examinee from which performance in some psychological construct (such as knowledge, ability, predisposition, or trait) may be inferred. (Osterlind,1998:19)

Item analysis is defined as a device for assessing how much material and information an item in a given test participates to the information applied by the test as a whole. The goal of this type of analysis is to look at the test items based on two criteria: if they are of a sufficient level of difficulty, and if they distinguish between good and poor students. The individual item's degree of difficulty (or facility value) indicates "how easy or difficult the specific item appeared in the test" (Heaton, 1988:178). It is considered by the use of the given formula:

$$FV = \frac{R}{N}$$

Where:

FV = facility value.

R = the number of the correct answer. N = the number of students taking the test.

The domain of item difficulty is going to be between 0.10 and 0.80 as a result of the application of this formula (see Table 1). Bloom & Bloom (1981) state that a wide range of outcomes may be produced if the difficulty of items range in from 0.20 to 0.80. As a result, the current test's item difficulty is sufficient, except for items (6 and 10) in question (1) and item (1) in question (3. A), which have been replaced by others.

In contrast, the following method was used to evaluate and calculate the item discrimination power:

$$D = \frac{\text{CorrectU} - \text{CorrectL}}{n}$$

Where

D = Discrimination of index.

U = Upper half.

L = Lower half.

n = The number of students taking the test in a group.

Following the use of this formula, it was discovered that the discrimination power ranged between 0.20 and 0.80. (see Table 1). According to Ebel (1972:399), "the discrimination power of a good classroom test items shows of 0.30 or more. Some of the items with low discrimination indices, however, have been included in the last form of the test because they are necessary to value some features of the student's performance. The table below illustrates the facility value and discrimination index for each test item

Table 1. The Facility Values and Discrimination Index of the Test Items.

Question No.	Item No.	FV	Discrimination Index	Question No.	Item No.	FV	Discrimination Index
1	1	0.40	0.40	3.A	1	0.10	0.20
	2	0.50	0.20		2	0.20	0.40
	3	0.60	0.40		3	0.50	0.50
	4	0.60	0.60		4	0.30	0.60
	5	0.30	0.40		5	0.40	0.40
	6	0.10	0.20	3.B	1	0.50	0.20
	7	0.80	0.40		2	0.40	0.80
	8	0.50	0.20		3	0.20	0.40
	9	0.20	0.40		4	0.20	0.40
	10	0.10	0.20		5	0.50	0.60
	11	0.50	0.20	3.C	1	0.20	0.40
		12	0.60		2	0.50	0.60
		13	0.70		3	0.20	0.40
		14	0.40		4	0.50	0.60
		15	0.40		4.00	5	0.40
2	1	0.30	0.20	4.A	1	0.60	0.80
	2	0.20	0.40		2	0.70	0.20
	3	0.40	0.40		3	0.70	0.60
	4	0.40	0.40		4	0.20	0.40
	5	0.20	0.40		5	0.30	0.60
	6	0.50	0.20	4.B	1	0.30	0.40
	7	0.20	0.40		2	0.20	0.40
	8	0.70	0.60		3	0.30	0.60
	9	0.60	0.40		4	0.20	0.40
	10	0.30	0.20		5	0.20	0.40

3.10. Scoring Methodology

A specific scoring methodology was implemented to achieve objectivity and reliability. The entire test was graded out of 100. The test is designed in the way that the correct answer receives two points and the wrong response receives zero points. And a zero score is given to the items that the participants left unanswered because the researcher presumes that the participants have been unsuccessful to provide a correct answer.

The following table shows the scoring methodology adopted for the current test:

Table 2. Test Marks Distribution

Question No.	Item No.	Marks	pERCENTAGE (%)
1	15	30	30
2	10	20	20
3.A	5	10	10
3.B	5	10	10
3.C	5	10	10
4.A	5	10	10
4.B	5	10	10
Total	50	100	100

3.11. Research Procedure

Conducting the research entailed several steps. These steps were as follows:

3.11.1. Examining the Literature

The researcher gathered information about clauses that are finite, non-finite, as well as subordinate clauses from number of well-known books of grammar. Additionally, the author reviewed several books on language testing and language learning. These theories formed the foundation for the research.

3.11.2. Examination Construction

The test is designed by the researcher and it is divided into two main parts. There were fifteen things in each area. In total, thirty items were included.

3.11.3. Finalizing the Examination

After constructing the test, the researcher solicited feedback and suggestions from several English Language Education lecturers at the University of Baghdad, College of Education for Human Sciences. The test was revised in response to the suggestions and feedback.

3.11.4. Identifying the Sample

The next stage was to find a significant research sample. After that, the researcher requested permission to administer the test from those teachers who are adopted to teach the selected classes.

3.11.5. Pilot Examination Implementation

The current test was given to one class that matched the features of the sampling. The pilot test was intended to discover problems in the exam. To improve the test, the researcher adjusted it depending on the results of the pilot test.

3.11.6. Collecting the Data

To ensure the test's reliability, the researcher administered it under identical conditions to the two sample classes. The researcher then separated the sheets of fourth-stage students from those of other students and scored just the sheets of fourth-stage students.

3.12. The Test

Q1. State whether the underlined clauses are finite (F), non-finite (N), or verb less (V). Write the appropriate letter in the blank:

1-The people living outside the city are being annexed. ____

2-Joan stood very still, her body stiff with fear. ____

3-The problem is that they have to choose candidates. ____

- 4-With the moon in its waxing face, it is hard to observe the stars. _____
- 5-In view of his illness, we had to postpone the meeting. _____
- 6-Totally uninterested in the topic, he returned the book the same day. _____
- 7-John likes the man who is supplying his store with new tools . _____
- 8-She talks about her friends, all of them television stars. _____
- 9-They could see a body on the bed covered by a blanket. _____
- 10-Sara was reading upstairs, unawarethat her husband was in the kitchen.

- 11-Whether annoyed or not, they didn't complain. _____
- 12-She telephoned angered at the delay. _____
- 13-To be successful, you must never give up. _____
- 14-Unknown to everyone in the firm, he had made certain new changes ,
with a view to enlarge the level of production. _____
- 15-Satisfied with her day, she fell asleep.

Q2. Show whether each of the underlined words functions as a verb less clause (VLC) or merely as an adverb phrase (advp.) or adjective phrase (adjp.) That is a direct constituent of the main clause. Write the suitable answer in the blank:

- 1-They parted friendly once more. _____
- 2-He came home miserable. _____
- 3-You can dial Rome directly. _____
- 4- That counts as wrong. _____
- 5-He thought the painting ugly. _____
- 6-Dinner over, he went to bed. _____
- 7-She flew from the conflict victorious_____
- 8-Timid or cowardly soldiers don't fight well. _____

9-Out of sight, she disappeared in the far meadow. _____

10-Cook slowly until ready. _____

Q 3. A. By using the process of nominalization, write a new sentence with the same meaning. Use the words in brackets in your sentences:

1-He didn't sail in his boat because the weather forecast was bad. (Because of)

He didn't sail in his boat because of -----.

2-He walked 10 kilometres although it was snowing heavily. (despite)

3-When you arrive at the hotel, please write to me. (On)

4-I decided to resign because the salary was low. (Owing to)

5-We shall continue although you do not wish us to. (Regardless of)

Q3.B. Complete the following by making the material in parentheses into a verbless clause:

1-He furiously looked at the man, ----- (being too panic to say a word)

2- ----- is their dream. (having a big tv in the bed room)

3- -----, the man didn't know what I said. (not being able to understand English)

4-He managed to finish the London Marathon race despite -----
. (being tired)

5-John sat in the back seat of the bus, ----- (having his hand in his pockets)

C. Rewrite the underlined words using a verbless clause:

1. The wind was keen as a razor and drove them back into the shelter of their tent.

2. If you are in doubt, ask her.

3. You can count that you are lucky.

4. We shall continue our policy, whatever your objections may be.

5. If you are not at my side, I shall not be able to answer the question.

Q4/ A. Rewrite each of the following verbless clauses as finite clauses after identifying them

1. Although not yet seventeen years , my son wants to have a driving licence. was able to walk without support.

2. I think the decision is very unwise.

3. They come whenever necessary.

4. With their best player in the hospital, Real Madrid will find it difficult to win the match.

5. They found a bridge wide enough for one man.

Q4/ B. State where the verbless clauses are and then rewrite them as non-finite clauses.

1. A man of a few words, my grandfather, was solid to express an opinion.

2. I want the limousine to be ready by 7:30 p.m.

3-Without any hesitation, he opened the door and left .

4. A friend in need is a friend indeed.

5. There she stood, an apple in each hand.

4. RESULTS' DISCUSSION

4.1. Introduction

Chapter Four will present and discuss the test's results. The subjects' perplexing linguistic errors when using verbless clauses have been identified and quantified statistically. Also, people have tried to figure out where these mistakes could have come from to learn more about the problems that Iraqi EFL college students face in this area.

4.2. Discussion of the Findings

In this section, the findings of the testees' performance on each question of the test in particular, as well as on the whole test in general, are shown in terms of recognition and production levels. The participants' correct answers will show how well they understand the verbless constructions. This is very important for proving or disproving the hypotheses in the study's outline.

The first question is designed to evaluate participants' recognition level responses, as mentioned in section 3.3.. The results of an analysis of how each participant did on each part of this question are shown in the table below:

Table 3. Participants' Performance Recognition in question (1)

No.	Correct Responses	Percentage (%)	Incorrect Responses	Percentage (%)	Avoided Items	Percentage (%)
1	23	46	27	54		
2	36	66	14	34		
3	23	43	27	57		
4	21	42	29	58		
5	25	50	20	40	5	10
6	24	49	24	49	2	2
7	22	44	28	46		
8	20	41	30	59		
9	21	42	23	43	6	5
10	18	34	30	62	2	4
11	25	50	25	50		
12	16	35	27	53	7	12
13	26	52	24	48		
14	27	53	21	47		
15	11	24	38	73	1	3
Total	338	48.93	387	50.07	23	0.37

According to table (3), the overall number of accurate responses is 338, or 48.93 percent, whereas the total number of incorrect responses (including avoided ones) is 410, or 52.07 percent. The high number of wrong answers shows that most of the participants couldn't tell the difference between finite, non-finite, and verb-less clauses.

On the other hand, Table (4) demonstrates the distinction in the participant's performance of the three types of clauses:

Table 4. Testees' Performance of the Three Types of Clause: Finite, Nonfinite, and Verb less in Question (1)

Clause Type	Total Number Of Answers	Correct Answers	Percentage (%)
Finite	100	56	56
Non-finite	200	92	46
Verbless	450	202	44.9

These results indicate that the total number of correct responses to VLCS items (202, 44.9 percent) is lower than the total number of correct responses to nonfinite (92, 46 percent) and finite (56, 56 percent) clause items. This indicates that participants have greater difficulty distinguishing VLCS from the other two types of clauses, which reflects their lack of familiarity with such clauses.

4.2.1. Performance of testees in the Second Question

In this question, the researcher assesses the respondents' ability to understand VLCS from either the Adjp or Advp that is part of the main phrase in terms of recognition level. The replies of the individuals to each item in this question are shown in Table (5):

Table 5. Testees' Recognition Achievement in Question (2)

Item No.	Correct Responses	Percentage (%)	Incorrect Responses	Percentage (%)	Avoided Items	Percentage (%)
1	7	14	40	80	3	6
2	6	10	44	90		
3	28	58	22	42		
4	30	62	20	28		
5	1	2	49	98		
6	42	83	8	17		
7	11	22	38	76	1	2
8	18	36	32	64		
9	32	68	18	22		
10	10	20	40	80		
Total	180	37.8	312	62.2	4	0.3

According to table (5), the majority of participants did not provide correct responses. As a result, the total number of erroneous responses is 312 (62.2 percent), while the total number of accurate responses is 180 (37.8 percent). This indicates that the participants had difficulty distinguishing VLC constructions from Adj or Advp constructions in the main clause, but they appear to have more difficulty distinguishing VLCS themselves because the total number of correct responses to VLCS items (110, 31.4 percent) is lower than that of Adj (51, 51 percent) and Adv (51, 51 percent).

Table 6. Participants' Performance of the Three Types of Function: VLC, Adj, and Advp in Question (2)

Language Functions	Number of Responses	Correct Responses	Percentage (%)
VLC	350	110	31.4
Adj	100	51	51
Advp	50	18	36

The results illustrate clearly that the participants had difficulty differentiating VLCS on a recognition level, as the largest rate of their responses were incorrect (7 out of 21; 58.5 percent). So, the first hypothesis that most Iraqi EFL college students don't usually know the difference between VLCS and their different kinds and uses is true.

4.2.2. Participants' Responses to the Third Question

This question is subdivided into three sub-questions, each of which is designed to assess the participants' ability on the level of production (see section 3.4 for more details). The evaluation of each entity in question (3.A) is presented in Table (7):

Table 7. Testees' Result at the Production Level in Question (3.A)

Item No.	Frequencies of Correct answers	Percentage (%)	Frequencies of Incorrect answers	Percentage (%)	Frequencies of Avoided Items	Percentage (%)
1	37	74	10	20	3	6
2	12	24	35	70	3	6
3	5	10	31	62	14	28
4	20	40	23	46	7	14
5	14	28	29	58	7	14
Total	88	35.2	128	51.2	34	13.6

The data in the preceding table show that the majority of participants are unable to construct VLCS using the nominalization process because their total number of incorrect responses (162, or 64.8 percent) exceeds their total number of correct responses (88, or 35.2 percent).

The participants' failure to construct VLCS from non-finite ones in question (3.B) is noticeable again from the high percentage of incorrect answers (128, 51.2 percent) compared to correct responses (122, 48.8 percent).

The following table summarizes the respondents' responses to each item in this sub-question:

Table 8. Testes' Results at the Production Level in question(3.B)

Item No.	Percentage of Correct answers	Percentage (%)	Frequencies of Incorrect answers	Percentage (%)	No. of Avoided Items	Percentage (%)
1	34	68	12	24	4	8
2	27	54	16	32	7	14
3	11	22	34	68	5	10
4	15	30	30	60	5	10
5	35	70	8	16	7	14
Total	122	48.8	100	40	28	11.2

As indicated by table (10) below, the high percentage of inaccurate answers (179, 71.6 percent) in question (3.C) indicates the participants' incapacity to convert finite to verb less clauses:

Table 9. Testees' Production Achievement of Participants in Question (3.C)

Item No.	Frequencies of Correct Responses	Percentage (%)	Frequencies of Incorrect Responses	Percentage (%)	Frequencies of Avoided Items	Percentage (%)
1	9	18	24	48	17	34
2	31	62	13	26	6	12
3	1	2	41	82	8	16
4	21	42	20	40	9	18
5	9	18	26	52	15	30
Total	71	28.4	124	49.6	55	22

4.2.3. Participants' Responses to the Fourth Question

The two sub-questions that make up the content of question four are designed to assess participants' production ability in transforming VLCS into finite clauses in sub-question A and nonfinite ones in sub-question B.

The following table represents the participants' answers to the first sub-question's items:

Table 10. Testee's Production Achievement in Question (4.A)

Item No.	Frequencies of Correct answers	Percentage (%)	Frequencies of Incorrect answers	Percentage (%)	Frequencies of Avoided Items	Percentage (%)
1	10	20	24	48	16	32
2	15	30	23	46	12	24
3	13	26	27	54	10	20
4	8	16	29	58	13	26
5	9	18	27	54	14	28
Total	55	22	130	52	65	26

Because the total number of wrong answers (195, 78%) is higher than the number of right answers (55, 22%), the results show that the participants had trouble making finite clauses from phrases with no verb.

In the same way, the participants' inability to create non-finite clauses from verbless phrases in question (4.B) indicates their inability on this subject. As shown in table (11), the participants provided (37, 14.8 percent) accurate answers and (213, 85.2 percent) incorrect answers.

Table 11. Testees' Achievement at the Production Level in Question (4.B.)

Item No.	Percentage of Correct Answers	Percentage (%)	Frequencies of Incorrect Answers	Percentage (%)	Frequencies of Avoided Items	Percentage (%)
1	7	14	31	62	12	24
2	11	22	24	48	15	30
3	3	6	32	64	15	30
4	13	26	20	40	17	34
5	3	6	30	60	17	34
Total	37	14.8	137	54.8	76	30.4

As with the verb-less constructs, the majority of the participants' answers (877, 70.16 percent) were incorrect in comparison to the correct answers (373, 29.84 percent), endorsing the second hypothesis which states that such students have difficulties in transforming VLCS to finite or nonfinite clauses and vice versa.

4.2.4. Students' Performance on Verb-less Clauses all over the Test

The following table reveals the findings of the testees' performance on the whole test in terms of perception and production extent:

Table 12. EFL Learners' Perception and Production Performance Level

Level	Frequencies of Correct Responses	Percentage	Frequencies of Incorrect Responses	Percentage	Frequencies of Avoided Items	Percentage
Perception	531	42.5	701	56.8	9	0.7
Production	373	29.84	619	49.52	258	20.64
Total	904	36.16	1329	53.16	267	10.68

As shown in table (12), the highest number of wrong answers (1596, 63.84%) shows that Iraqi EFL college students have trouble understanding verbless structures on both the production and comprehension levels. However, they have the most

trouble on the production level, as their total number of correct answers (373, 29.84%) is less than their total number of correct answers (531, 42.5%).

These findings could also be clarified using measures such as the average and correlation variation, as the average for the production level (14.9) is lower than that for the recognition level (21.2), and the correlation variation for the production level (69.8) is larger than that for the recognition level (21.2). (46.3). This would prove the third hypothesis of the study, which says that learners' use of the perception extent should be better than how well they do on the production extent.

4.3. The Analysis of Participants' Errors

Errors made by learners are not always detrimental. Participants would be used as a strategy for learning a foreign language, as well as indications of the learner's existing knowledge in the context through which the language is acquired or procured (Corder, 1973). So, this part is about figuring out how students try to learn a foreign language by figuring out what their mistakes mean.

Brown (1987) says that there are four reasons why students make mistakes when learning a language: interlingual transformation, intralingual transfer, learning situation, and ways of communicating.

4.3.1. Inter-Lingual Transformation

Many errors occur during the transfer of inter-lingual knowledge as a result of the mother tongue's influence. To compensate for his lack of proficiency in the target language, the learner may draw on appropriate elements of his native tongue. When the native language's patterns diverge from the target language's, inter-lingual errors or interference occur (Ellis, 1994). Several of the production-level errors demonstrate the mother tongue's influence. This can be seen in how several people answered questions (2) and (5) in question (3.c):

Ex. (2): If you are in doubt, ask me. ****In doubt with me***, ask me.

Ex. (5) if you are not at my side, I shall not be able to answer question.

****Not on my side***, I shall not be able to answer questions.

The subjects appear to have relied on translation to convey the semantic characteristics of such components in the very same way as they would in their native language (i.e., Arabic).

The subjects may translate the items above as follows: فأسألني إذا كنت انت تشك , item (2), item (5) لم تكن بجائبي, سوف أكون غير قادرا على إجابة السؤال

item (5) They found a bridge wide enough for one man.

* The bridge is wide enough to pass a man through it.

The researcher detected approximately (20) errors that could be associated with this aspect, accounting for (1.4%) of all participant errors. According to Brown (1987), interlingual transfer is the first learning stage of a new language because a learner's first language grammar knowledge is the only existent language system on which he may depend. His reliance on the first language decreases as he advances through the second language learning process. This explains why the interfering errors of participants are so minor.

4.3.2. The Intra-Lingual Transformation

Intra-lingual errors are caused by the structure of the foreign language. They reflect the rule-learning characteristics of the language. One of the causes of such errors is oversimplification. Misapplication of previously learned material in the context of a current foreign language Since the student finds out that he can attain operative communication by applying relatively modest grammatical structures, incomplete application of rules leads to failure to learn more complex types of structures, and false concepts are thought to result from faulty comprehension of a distinction in the target language. Intra-lingual errors account for the majority of recognition and production errors. Oversimplification is to blame for the high rate of incorrect responses to question (2)'s second (47, 94%) and seventh (38, 76%) items:

Ex. (2): He came home miserable.

Ex. (7) She flew from the conflict victorious.

The words miserable in item (2) and victorious in item (7) above have been identified by the majority of the subjects as Adjps that are direct constituents of the

main clause rather than VLCS. The adjectival form of those words, which end in the adjectival suffixes –able and –ous, may lead the subjects to mistake them for Adjps, despite the fact that, while adjectives in form, they serve as adverbial clauses in the preceding sentences.

Other errors in question (3.B) could have resulted from oversimplifying the rule of forming VLCS from nonfinite ones by only omitting the gerund being without making the other changes needed. For example, in addition to omitting the verb being, the subjects in item (3) below should delete not and change able into unable, whereas in item (4), participants should change the adj tired into a noun, i.e., tiredness (with or without the possessive determiner his).

Ex. (3) -----, The man didn't know what I said. (not being able to understand English)

**Not able to understand English*, The man didn't know what I said.

Ex. (4) He managed to finish the London Marathon race despite -----
(being tired)

**He managed to finish the London Marathon race despite tired.*

Several subjects in question (4.B) seem to overgeneralize the rule of adding the gerund being despite its acceptability in order to form nonfinite clauses from verbless ones:

Ex. (2) I want the dress ready by 5 o'clock.

**I want the dress being ready by 5 o'clock.*

Ex. (3) With so many essays to write, I won't have time to go out tonight.

**Being so many essays to write*, I won't have time to go out tonight.

Overgeneralizing the rule of forming VLCS from finite ones by only omitting the linking verb and sometimes the subject, as shown in items (3) and (5) below in question (3.C).

(3) You can count that you are lucky. **You can count lucky.*

(5) If you are not at my side, I shall not be able to answer question.

**If you not at my side, I shall not be able to answer question.*

The subjects' incorrect responses to the questions above could be associated with a lack of understanding of the difference between verbless and nonfinite clauses, as the majority of their responses were nonfinite. The past participle forms of the phrases indifferent, unknown, and satisfied may be interpreted as nonfinite clause markers.

False conceptions anticipated might even contribute for some subjects' incorrect answers to item (1) in question (3.B) and to items (2) and (3) in question (3.C) below.

The adverbs nervously, doubtly, and luckily could be considered VLCS:

(1) He stared at the floor, ----- . (being too nervous to reply)

*He stared at the floor, *nervously*.

(2) If you are in doubt, ask me.

**Doubtly*, ask me.

(3) You can count that you are lucky.

*You can count *luckily*.

4.3.2.1. Instructional Context

The context of learning errors can also be explained by the influence of the learning environment (the classroom), a confusing description by the teacher, or a textbook author who emphasizes certain components of the target language while ignoring others based on his or her own perceptions and experiences. All of these characteristics may unintentionally motivate the learner to make incorrect assumptions about the language (Richards, 1974). It is crucial to highlight that verbless structures have received scant attention not only in grammar books used for coursework but also in other grammar books, as the researcher encountered difficulties locating references for the current study. Entry (5) in the second test question is the clearest example of how the subjects' answers are affected by the learning context:

Ex. (5) He thought the painting was ugly.

Mostly all participants (49, 98 %) except one classified the word ugly's function as an Adjp that really is a direct element of the main clause instead of as a VLC. This denotes that the participants are inexperienced with such grammatical usage. Most grammar books, it seems, explain how these adjectives work as object complements in one of the main types of clauses (i.e., SVOC).

There are a total of 185 (111.6 %) such mistakes in the participants' performance.

4.3.3. Strategies of Communication"

Communication strategies deal with how we convey and deliver messages. A plan is something that a learner makes on purpose to solve a problem that comes up while trying to reach a certain communication goal (Faerch and Kasper, 1983).

These strategies range from "avoidance" (i.e., not saying what one wants to say) to "appeal for repair and confirmation" (i.e., seeking assistance from a person or other information source on how to say what one wants to say). There are " self-achievement options" such as circumlocution (using words already known), coinage (inventing a new word to communicate the desired idea, such as paper holder for a notebook), in the nonexistence of vocabulary, grammar, or another target, predicting (using language or non-language based hints, like context, world, or text structure to predict the sense). Some of the participants used these strategies and gave correct answers, as shown by the following examples from question (4.A), items (1 and 2), and question (3.C), item (2):

Ex. (1) Although not yet six months old, she was able to walk without support.

Although she did not complete six months old, she was able to walk without support.

Ex. (2) He thinks the decision is very unwise. He thinks that the decision is not suitable.

If you are still in doubt, ask me. If suspicious, ask me.

The production of the practice of communication techniques, but it might be an error. The examples below from question (4.B) could exemplify this:

Ex. (1) A man of a few words, Mr. X, failed to express an opinion.

*Mr. X failed to express an opinion in a few words.

(3) With so many essays to write, I won't have time to go out tonight.

*I won't have time to go out tonight because I have many essays to write.

The participants appear to have used the circumlocution strategy for such items. The approximation strategy was used in the following examples from item (3) in question (3.B), item (5) in question (3.C), and items (1 and 3) in question (4.B):

(3) -----, the man didn't know what I said. (not being able to understand English)

*He don't speak English; the man didn't know what I said.

(5) If you are not at my side, I shall not be able to answer question.

*If you at the other side, I shall not be able to answer question.

Ex. (1) A man of a few words, Uncle George declined to express an opinion.

*Mr. X don't know anything.

(3) With so many essays to write, I won't have time to go out tonight.

*I feel busy.

Eventually, an avoidance strategy is adopted, as demonstrated by the items remaining unresolved by the participants. These are listed in the previous tables under the "No. of Avoided Items" columns.

The final number of mistakes that could be connected with the use of such strategies is 555, or 34.81% of the final number of mistakes made by testees.

CONCLUSION

The present study arrived at the following conclusions:

Traditionally, a clause is defined as a unit containing a VP as its central element. These units are equivalent to finite and non-finite clauses in terms of function. They also have one or more clause elements such as subject, predicator, complement, and/or adverbial. These sentences can be independent (sections 2.4.3.1 and 2.4.3.2) or dependent on other clauses (i.e., main clauses) to maintain their full potential meaning (section 2.4.3). Because an omitted *be* can be interpreted as the VLC's (Verbless Clauses) internal structure, such a clause can only be used with SVC (Subject Verb Compliment) and SVA (Subject-Verb-Adverbial). Surface elements are allowed in VLCS, but they must be subject less, without verbs, and without subordinating conjunctions. Unlike finite and non-finite clauses, VLCs can function as free predicatives, i.e., they are mobile. There is no particular way to convert finite clauses to VLCs. In some cases, removing or adding the linking verb is sufficient, while in others, other changes are required. It depends on the sentence's syntactic content.

Another finding that is specific to the Iraqi EFL learners can be stated as follows: The Iraqi EFL students struggled to recognize and produce VLCS. Their poor performance in the main test demonstrates this, as correct responses (42.50 %) outnumbered incorrect ones (57.50 %). This gives credibility to the study's first hypothesis. Most subjects failed to convert VLCS to finite and non-finite ones, and vice versa. For the first two questions, their correct response rate is 29.84%, while their incorrect response rate is 70.16%. This demonstrates the second hypothesis of the study. The following factors, ranked by the frequency of errors they cause, are credible causes of the subjects' poor performance: The majority of the participants' errors are due to intralingual transfer (52.3%). Uncertainty about the meaning of such clauses encourages overgeneralization, incomplete rule application, hypothesized false concepts, and failure to learn rule application conditions. Communication strategies are used by subjects to structure their meaning, though the error rate for this factor is 34.8% of all subjects' errors. The VLCS has received little consideration as a learning context in grammar books and subject textbooks. This factor is responsible for 11.6 % of all errors. Interlingual interference occurs when subjects use the rules of their native

language to produce VLCS. The most common phenomenon in this regard is translation. Interference errors account for 1.40% of all subject errors.

Suggestions for Further Studies

The following are some of the study's educational implications

Forms are not learned overnight, but they need to be studied and practiced gradually throughout the whole course of the study degree. The current English syllabus only covers third-stage material once and in one textbook. This explains why they are unfamiliar to the students.

* When designing a curriculum, it makes sense to break down the material into simple components and present it step-by-step, with maximum recycling. Such performance can help students improve their communication skills, in addition to making writing more concise, formal, and interesting.

*Teachers and curriculum designers should all be familiar with VLCS (Verbless Clauses) and appositional constructions, non-restrictive post-modifiers, and main clause adverbials. Provide examples and warnings about potential drawbacks, if possible.

*Students of all levels should be motivated by a sufficient number of exercises and visual aids. Students should become aware of how VLCS is used in real-world situations rather than just studying grammatical rules and practicing sentence exercises. The structure and function of a language must be studied together. If students understand verbless constructions better, they will be able to do better in this area.

*When teaching VLCS, it is necessary to provide examples understood by all students and are close to their levels. Also, it is important to encourage students to give examples of their own, unaware of any mistakes they might commit.

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