The Distinction between 
Coordinate and Subordinate Clauses

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ملخص البحث

تناول الدراسة الحالية أن التشريحين ذات الصلة في اللغة الإنجليزية هما العطف وشبه الجملة كما وتهدف الدراسة إلى تسليط الضوء على أهم نقاط الفارقة بينهما. لقد توصلت الدراسة إلى عدة نقاط منها أن العطف هو أحد الطرق التي تستخدم في قواعد اللغة الإنجليزية لتكوين نوعين أو أكثر من الجمل باستخدام أحادي الأدوات الربط مثل الواء أو وما.... أما المقصود بشبه الجملة فهو عملية تكوين جملة ثانوية يطلق عليها اسم الجملة غير المستقلة. يكون هذا النوع من الجمل من مجموعة من الكلمات ترتبط مع بعضها البعض بواسطة أدوات الربط مثل منذ وسبب وخلال والتي بدورها تكون جزءً رئيسياً من الجملة يعتمد على الجزء الآخر.

كما وتوصلت الدراسة إلى أن الجملة المبتدئة بأحد أدوات الربط في جملة العطف لا يُمكن تغيير موقعها إلى بداية الجملة إضافة إلى أن هذا يؤدي إلى تغيير في المعنى العام للجملة على العكس من الجملة الثانية في شبه الجملة حيث تمتاز بالروحانية وبالإمكان تحريك موقعها إلى بداية الجملة دون أن تكون على معناها العام علواً على ذلك فقد توصلت الدراسة إلى إمكانية القيام بعملية الحذف في طريقة العطف عند الإشارة إلى وجود الفاعل في الجملة السابقة أما في حالة شبه الجملة فلا يجوز الحذف مطلقاً.

Abstract

The present study deals with important terms in grammar; namely coordination and subordination in order to shed the light on the differences between them.

The study has come out with certain points that coordination is a process used to form two or more categories by the same types by using and, or, but etc. Subordination that forms subordinate clause which is also called independent clause that contains a string of words by using subordinators as since, because, although ...etc. Such a clause cannot stand alone but usually forms a major part of a sentence.

Both coordination and subordination used for linking units, but for subordination the unit is subordinated to the other. In addition clauses begin with coordinator normally cannot be moved in front of the preceding clause without changing the relationship of clauses, on the other hand, Subordinate clause has a flexible position in a sentence. Finally, the study has concluded that the coordinators allow ellipsis of the subject of the clause they introduce if the subject has a reference with the preceding clause. Subordination generally, does not allow ellipsis.
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1-What is a clause?

In older grammar, a clause is defined as a group of words containing a subject and a finite clause. Different definitions are given by different linguists all of them have related meaning. Bernard (1986:170) defines a clause as a unit in sentence which is larger than just a word or phrase. Similarly, Chalker (1986:239) states that it is convenient to widen the term "clause" to cover not only =

a-finite clauses: although it was snowing, I went out.

but also

b-non-finite clauses: when felling ill, I don’t go out and

c- verbless clauses: if possible ill, I don’t go out in the snow.

(Turton and Heaton, 1999:370)

In general, Chalker (1986:bid) adds that finite clauses can be both main and subordinate, but (b) non-finite and (c) verbless can only be subordinate. As for Buscemi et al (2004:361), a clause has two types

a-An independent (main) clause is the heart of a sentence; all sentences must contain at least one. This kind of sentence can stand alone as a sentence because
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It expresses a complete idea such as *the thunder bloomed. The waiter is polite.* Both of these independent clauses have subjects: *thunder* and *waiter*. Both have verbs: *bloomed* and *is*. Both express complete thoughts. Therefore, each is a sentence.

b- A *dependent (subordinate)* clause also contains a subject and a verb. However, it cannot stand alone as a sentence, for it does not express a complete idea such as *when the thunder bloomed*. Although *the waiter is polite*. These sentences cannot be left as they are; we have to join these sentences to independent sentences (Buscemi et al. (2004:362) complete their examples as: *when the thunder bloomed, the cat ran under the table. Although the waiter is polite, he does not get big tips.*

2-Clause Functions

In terms of function i.e. what role they have in a sentence, Leech and Svartvik (1994:251) comment that clauses can be divided into main clauses and sub clauses (subordinate clauses) sub clauses are part of another clause. They also add that clause can also be divided into *nominal clauses, adverbial clauses…etc.* The various functions of clauses are treated elsewhere.

a- Nominal clauses i.e. *that – clause, interrogative clauses, ing-clauses* and *infinitive clauses* function as subject, object, complement, prepositional compliment, etc. In this example the first *that clause* function as a subject and the second as an object:

1-That he gave a false name shows that he was doing something dishonest.

b- Relative clauses i.e. modify clauses introduced by *wh* – pronoun or that (including" zero-that") , usually modify of noun phrases. In this sentence the relative clause *who live opposite our house* modifies the noun phrase head family
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2 - The family who live our house are French.

C-Comment clauses function as sentence adverbials as in this sentence where to be honest equates with the adverb honestly:

3 - To be honest, I am not sure what to do.

D-Comparative clauses follow a comparative item such as more or less:

4 - This year they have sold a lot more books than they usually do.

E-Adverbial clauses have a large number of different meanings such as time

5 - I used to go to the theatre whenever I had opportunity.

3-Clauses links

Biber et al. (1999:134) point out that clauses can be linked to each other in a variety of ways, the principal types of structural links are coordinator, subordinators and wh-words.

4-Co-ordination

It was suggested by Crystal (1991:84), OGrady et al. (1997:711), and Radford et al (2009:134) that co-ordination is a term used in grammatical analysis to refer to process or result of linking linguistic units which are usually equivalent syntactic states, e.g. series of clauses or phrases or words, in this respect, Crystal (ibid) distinguishes coordination from subordination or subordinate linkage, where (the units are not equivalent).

He also illustrates that coordinate clauses in the sentence john walked and Mary ran: the marker of linkage is and which he call it a coordinating conjunction (or co-ordinator)

Similarly, Bernard (1986:176) and Turton and Heaton (1999:370) refer to words such as (and, but, or) that link two parts of sentences, where each part is of the same status, e.g. and in, you are old, and your hair has become very white,
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4-1 Syndetic and asyndetic coordination

Quirk et al (1985:253) and Crystal (2003:110) agree that the term coordination is used by some grammarians for both syndetic coordination, as in [6 ] when coordinators are present and asyndetic coordination, as in [7 ] when coordinators are absent but could be supplied:

6- *slowly and stealthily* he crept towards his victim.

7- *Slowly, stealthily*, he crept towards his victim.

4-2 The use of co-ordinating conjunction

Alexander (1997:11) Murphy and Smalzer (2002:222) offer the uses of these words as (*and, but, or, so, because*) are used to join two sentences and to make one longer sentence from two shorter sentences:

2. contrast: but, yet

8- He washed the car, *but* didn't polish it.

3. alternatives either ....or, neither ..........nor

9- He speaks French *or* perhaps he understands it. He either speaks French, or understands it (I am not sure which)

4. result: so

10- He couldn’t find his pen, *so* he wrote in pencil

5. cause: for

11- we rarely stay in hotels, *for* we can’t afford it.

(Coordinating conjunctions) are explicit or present – and a Syndetic coordination, as but could be supplied. Quirk et al (ibid), give these examples to explain the point. *slowly and stealthily, he crept toward his victim.*

12- Slowly, stealthily he crept towards his victim.
4-3- Coordination and compound sentence

Alexander (1997:10) considers co-ordinating conjunction as a way to form linking is compound sentences. He states that we often need to join ideas. This achieved by any of the following:

a-a semi – colon

13- We finished all day ; we didn’t catch a thing .
b- a semi – colon followed by a connecting adverb

14- We finished all day ; however we didn’t catch a thing .
c- a coordinating conjunction (e.g. and, but, so, yet) is often preceded by a comma :

15-We finished all day, but we didn’t catch a thing .

In a compound sentence , Alexander (ibid) ,Turton and Heaton (1999:370) explain that there is no single main clause with subordinate clauses depending on it, all clauses are of equal importance and can stand on their own ,they refer to clauses in a compound sentence as co-ordinate main clauses .

The co-cordinating conjunctions which can be used to form compound sentences are: and , and then ,but , for , nor ,or ,so ,yet ,either....or, neither....nor ,not only ....but (also/as well/too) Turton and Heaton (ibid:371) .

Praniniskas (1975: 24) agrees with Alexander (ibid) that when two simple sentences are grammatically parallel and closely related in context, they are usually combined into a single compound sentence . He observes the following:

a- and joins two affirmative statements:

16-Jack goes downtown on Saturday, and he goes to the movies on Saturday nights .

And do not join unrelated sentence like the following:

17-George is twenty .Mr. Allen is tall.

b- but joins contrastive patterns , affirmative and negative

18-Bill doesn’t like movies but he likes concerts.
4-4-Coordination of parts of clauses
Coordination can be used to link parts of clauses (e.g. subject, verb, phrases, object) rather than whole clauses.
Leech and Svartvik (1994:264) comment that this case can often be seen as cases of clauses coordination with repeated parts are omitted. For example this sentence

19-Her mother needed a chat and some moral support.
Leech and Svartvik (ibid:265) state that this sentence can be expanded as

20-Her mother needed a chat and her mother needed some moral support.
But in other cases we cannot reconstruct two complete clauses

21-My closest friends are peter and his wife.
He does not mean My closest friend is peter and my closest friend is his wife.

4-5-Types of coordination
O Grady et al (1997:222-223) and Akmajian et al. (1995:165) list types of coordination as the following

1-Coordination of noun phrases
a-[the man] and [a child]
b-[a boy] or [a girl].

2-Coordination of verb phrases
a-[go to the library] and [read a book]
b-[go to the library] or [read a book]

3-Coordination of prepositional phrases
a-[down the stairs] and [out the door]
b-[in the drawer] or [under the disc]

4-Coordination of adjective phrases
a-[quite beautiful] and [very expensive]
b-[quite wealthy] but [very stingy]

5-Coordination of sentences
a- [the man interred the building] and [the woman waited in the car].
b- [the man interred the building] but [the woman waited in the car].

4-6-Coordination of clause elements
Leech and Svartvik (1994:265) offer coordination within different clause elements here some of them

a- subject

22- *social security* and *retirement plans* will be important election issues.

b- verb phrases:

23- *Many of lows need to studied* and *will have to be revised.*

c- compliments:

24- *The lows are rather outmoded or totally inadequate* and *often ambiguous*

d – adverbial:

24- *you can wash this sweater by hand or in the washing machine.*

Leech and Svartvik (ibid:266) show that coordination can also link phrase combination even where these do not occur next to one another in the sentence, as in (subject and verb phrase)

25- *the papers say,* and *most people believe,* that opposition party will win the next election.

And (subject and compliment):

26- [Dr Hogan’s eyes behind his spectacles] were [friendly] and [his smile] [kind]

4-7-Coordination without conjunctions
Chalker (1985:239) argues that co-ordinate clause may be related to each other without conjunction, since they lack coordinators Chalk (ibid) calls this structure (equal – status clauses). for example he interprets the following pairs as a kind of apposition:
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27-<you do not like it: I don’t like it .>
28-<it was bitterly cold: it was too cold .>
29-<she did not go out: it was too cold .>

Chalker (ibid) also comments that several clauses simply joined by commas , such as :
30-< I came ,I saw , I conquered .>
31-< I trembled, I quaked, I resolved.>

When more than two items are coordinated
Leech and Svartvik (1994 : 267 ) comment , the conjunction is normally omitted before each item except the last . in speed a rising tone in normally used on all items in the list except the last , in writing , a comma is usually used to separate all the items except the last two , but many writers put a comma al so before and in such a list . Leech and Svartvik ( ibid ) go on to say that and is often omitted before the linking adverbs then , so and yet :
32- It was a small college. (and) yet most students love it

Referring to Longman Dictionary Turton and Heaton (1999:24) state that and cannot be used between two adjectives that come before a noun unless they describe similar qualities as " red and green umbrella " ( two colors ) , but in the following sentence and does not describe two qualities :
33- There is a beautiful old church in the center of the town .

4-8-Ellipsis of subject (and auxiliaries) coordination
Quirk and Greenbaum ( 1973:261 ) , Murphy and Smalzer ( 2002 ) and Swan (1995: 181) affirm that identical subjects of coordinated clauses are ellipted as in :
34 - Peter ate cheese sandwich and ( peter ) drank a glass of beer . If the subjects and the auxiliaries are identical, ellipsis of both is
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35- Mary has washed the dishes, (Mary has) dried them, and (Mary has) put them in the cupboard.

Quirk et al (1985: 309) view subordination as a non – symmetrical relation, holding two clauses in such a way that one is a constitute or part of the other. Now compare the following relations:

1[ I like john ]1 and 2[ john likes me ]2
1[ independent ]1 2[ independent ]2

With the subordination in
1[ I like john [ because john likes me ]
1[ subordinate or" independent " or " main " ]1
2["subordinate" or" dependent" ]2

Quirk and Greenbaum (1973 : 309) Leech and Svartvik (1994 : 382) and Aitcheson (1999 : 77-78) that subordinate is a devise which enables us to organize multiple clause structures.

4-9- Non –finite clauses with co-ordinating meaning

It has been suggested by walker (1985:242) that non –finite clauses are usually analyzed as subordinated, but sometimes (-ing clauses) to have more of coordinating meaning:

36- A plan has crashed on in internal flight, killing all 137 people on board.

Alexander (1997:31) affirms that the coordinating conjunction and must be dropped when present participle is used as in

37- She lay awake all night, recalled the events of the day.

In addition to that notice, Alexander (ibid) observes that present participle can be used after the time conjunctions after, before, since, when and while. They cannot be used after the conjunctions as, as soon as, directly, until, etc.

38- Since phoning you this morning, I have changed my plan.

we cannot use this conjunction when since = because.

On and in can be used to mean when and while.
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39- *On* finding the front door open, I became suspicious.

(i.e. *when / at the moment* when I found ....)

In while trying to open the car, I was trying ....)(ibid)

5- Subordination

5-1-What is subordination?

Many linguistics such as Chalker (1985: 240), Quirk et al (1980: 254), Alexander (1997: 12), Crystal (1991: 334), (2003: 443) describe subordination as a term used in grammatical analysis to refer to the process or result of linking linguistic units so that they have different (syntactic status) one depends on the other, and usually, constituent of them in this respect, it is usually distinguished from co–ordinate linkage, where the units are (equivalent)

5-2-Subordination and complex sentence

Many sentences, especially in written language are complex. Alexander (1997: 12) argues these sentences can be formed by linking simple sentences together, but elements together in complex sentence (unlike those of a compound sentence) are not of equal importance, Turton and Heaton (1999: 375) clarify that there is always one independent (or main) clause and one or more dependent (or subordinate) elements. Alexander (ibid) notices that if subordinate clause removed from a sentence a main clauses can often stand in its own.

As mentioned before, concerning the types of this kind of clauses Challker (1985: 240) divides subordinate clauses in to the types by their functions as elements of structure:

a- adverbial

b- relative (or adjectival)
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c- nominal (noun)

Modern grammar does disagree with this, though it usually adds 4- comment clauses. and it sometimes separate comparison clauses from other types of adverbial clauses, however in traditional grammar, only adverb clauses and noun clauses are introduce by conjunctions, modern grammar groups all these types together as subordinate.

5-3-Types of subordinate clauses

Dependent clauses or subordinate clauses are distinguished either by STRUCTURAL type, ie in term of elements they contain, or by FUNCTION, ie the parts they play in the subordinate clause, analyzing by structural type, subordinate clauses are classified in to three main classes by Quirk et al (1985: 310), Chalker (1986: 239) Alexander (1997:13)

a- finite clauses.

40-Although it was snowing, I went out.

b- none finite clauses:

41-when the feeling ill, I don’t go out.

42-when feeling ill, I don’t go out.

c- verbless clauses:

43- If possible, I don’t go out Chalker (1982: 239)

Leech and Svartvik (1994: 383) claim that all above three types of clause (finite, non-finite and verbless) may themselves have sub clauses inside them. They clarify their point in this example:

44-Having left before the letter arrived, he was surprise to find his wife at the station. (finite -clause)

5-4-Finite and non- finite clauses

Finite clauses is described by Crystal (2003: 180) as a clause that always contains a subject as well as predicate, except in the case of the (compounds).
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This clause is (main clause), *non-finite clause* on other hand, is a clause that can be constructed without a subject. This clause occur only (dependent clause).

Quirk and Greenbaum (1973: 311) distinguish four types of non-finite clause:

a- *infinitive with to*

- Without subject: the best thing would be *to tell everybody*.
- With subject: the best thing would be *for you to tell everybody*.

b- *infinitive with out to*

- Without subject: All I did was *hit him on the head*.
- With subject: rather than *john do it*, I had prefer to give the job to Mary.

c- *ing participle*:

- Without subject: leaving the room, he tripped over.
- With subject: *her aunt having left the room*, I declared my passionate love for Celia.

d- *ed participle*:

- Without subject: *covered with confusion*, I left the room.
- With subject: we left the room and went home, *the job finished*.

Quirk and Greenbaum (ibid) state that when the subject of adverbial participial clauses is expressed, it is often introduced by *with*. They give the following example to clarify the point:

45 - *with the tree {growing / grown} tall*, we get more shade.

As mentioned before in terms of functions i.e. what role subordinate clauses have in a sentence, Leech and Svartvik (1994: 251) divide subordinate clauses into: noun clauses, relative clauses ……etc.

Each type has various functions and subgroups, as Quirk et al (1985: 316-332) and Alexander (1997: 12-31) show.
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a- Noun clauses, Alexander (1997:13) emphasizes that noun clause can be subject or object of verb, complement prepositional compliment, etc, as the following examples:

46- I know that the match will cancelled. (object)
47- That the match will be cancelled is now certain (subject)

Noun clause, in fact derived from statement is usually *that clauses* (sometimes *what* – clauses) though the conjunction *that* is often omitted, as Alexander (ibid) points out through the following state.

48- Money doesn’t grow on trees.

A subordinate clause beginning with *that*, as Turton and Heaton (1999:375) argue does the job of noun or pronoun, etc. it should be noted that in modern linguistics the subordinate conjunction *that* or words like this are known as *complementisers* (c) or (comp) because one of their most important uses is to introduce complement clause (OGrady et al (1999:708), Biber et al (1999:1077), Aitchison (1999:78), Radford et al (2009:135).

Noun clauses after the fact that and the idea that such as:

49- The fact that this personal makes sense should be recognized.

Noun clauses after adjectives describing feeling (i.e. afraid, glad, happy, sorry) or certainty (i.e. certain, sure) can be followed by *that* (optional).

50- I am afraid that we have sold out of tickets.

**5-5- *wh*- integrative clauses**

Quirk et al (1985:317) point out that *wh* – clause occurs in the whole range of functions available to *that* - clause, and acts as prepositional compliment as well as.

a- subject: *how the book will sell* depends on its author.
b- direct object: I can't imagine *what made him do it*.
c- subject compliment: the problem is not *who will go* , but *who will stay*.
d- appositive: my original question, *why he did it at all*, has not been answered.
e- adjectival compliment: I wasn’t *whose house I was in*.
f- prepositional compliment: no one was consulted on *who should have the prize*.
5-6-noun clauses derived from questions

Alexander (1997:15) distinguishes by putting if or whether in front of the clauses and changing the word order to subject – predicate, subordinate noun clauses that can be used as subject, compliment to be, object after verbs object after preposition, in following example, the subordinate clause is used as a subject:

51- Whether he has signed the contract (or not) doesn’t matter (if is not possible)

Relative clauses, Swan (1995:143), Turton and Heaton (1999:374) describe relative clause as a descriptive clause usually beginning with that, who, whose or whom, they distinguish two types of relative clauses an, identifying relative clause answer the question, which; ? and defines or identifies the preceding noun, as in

52 - The man who was crying a torch showed us to our seats
The other type is non-identifying relative clause simply adds further information about the preceding noun as in

53- The man, who was crying a torch, showed us to our seats.

Turton and Heaton (ibid), Crystal (2003:395) Alexander (1997:16) add that relative clauses without commas are called defining or identifying, relative clauses 'with' commas are called (non-defining, non restrictive or non identifying).

5-7-Adverbial clauses

Additional function for subordinate clause is an adverbial clause, Biber et al. argue that adverbial clauses are regularly marked by a subordinator indicating the relation to the main clause. Alexander (1997:24) clarifies the difference between an adverb and adverbials in the following example:

54- I try hard, but I can never remember peoples name.
55- *However I hard I try*, I can never remember people's name.

*Hard* in sentence [54] is an adverb, *however hard I try* is an adverbial or adverb clause. Alexander gives the reason that this clause tells us something about (or modifying) can never remember.

Adverbs can often be identified by asking and answering the questions *when? Where? How? Why?* etc. and adverbial clauses can be identified in the same way.

**Time**: tell him as soon as he arrives (when)

**Place**: you can sit where you like (where)

**Manner**: he spoke as if he meant business (how)

**Reason**: he went to bed because he felt ill (why)

### 5-8-Comment clauses

Comment clauses are loosely related to subordinate clause. Biber et al (1999: 197) in *Longman Grammar* explain that comment clauses: they are loosely connected to the main clause they normally lack the explicit link.

Crystal (2005: 84) argues that comment clauses are optional structure whose function is to add a parenthetic comment to another clause. Quirk et al (1985: 335) show that these clauses, in general may occur initially, or medially.

56-At that time, *I believe*, labor was cheap.

### 5-9-Subordinators


**Time**

After, as; as long as, as soon as, before since, until, when, while.

**Place**
In the same place as ; where , wherever .

Reason
As ; because , since

Manner
As ; if , as though

Contrast
Al though ; despite the fact that , even though ; while

Condition
As long as ; given that , if , provided that ; unless

Purpose
In order that ; so that

Result
So , so that

Parrot ( ibid : 424 ) claims that some subordinators are every similar in meaning ( e.g. because and since ) others are similar in meaning but not interchangeable , while and although can be used to express contrast in the context of expressional opinions or making reservation , but when express general contrast we can use although not while .

5-10-Choice between Coordinators, Subordinators and Linking Adverbials

Some of distinctions about the above mentioned terms are given by Leech and Svartvik (1994: 180-181) some of them are:

a- coordination is often a looser connection than the others, because its more vague and less emphatic. Its more characteristic of informal than in formal style.

b- Subordination tends to give a clause a less important part in the information conveyed by sentence, thus adverbial subordinate clause is often used when the information that clause is already known or expect by the hearer, as in : 57- They gave her something warm to wear, and she went to change in bathroom . when she came back , the dinner was already on the table  c- Adverbial links are often used to connect longer stretches of language, perhaps whole sentences which themselves contain coordinate or subordinate as in
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58- In theory, most companies would like to double their profiles in your however, few could really handle it, and most companies wouldn’t even try.

6-1-Analysis of data

Five scientific books have been selected randomly to be analyzed, under the title: Management information systems and the computer 1988, Lectures Notes in Control and Information Sciences1977, Real Time Programming 1982, Basic Electricity1974, Design for Electrical and Computer Engineers (2001)

Frequency of coordinators and subordinators

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<td>Although</td>
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6-2- Results of analysis:
1- The coordinator *and* is extremely common in the corpus. It has a great percentage compared with others.
2- *But* can also be used more frequently in the corpus.
3- *Therefore* and *also* are rare in data as a whole.
4- *Because, or, since* and the other subordinators are relatively used in data.

6-3- Discussing the result:
1- Subordinators are used frequently by the writer since Subordinate clauses can create movement and style in writing by directing the reader’s attention ahead in anticipation of the main clause.
2- They can also direct the reader backwards to avoid the writer to be away from the repetitive and boring sentences.
3- Coordinate clauses are created by coordinators *and, but, or, for* etc. and the subordinate clauses by the subordinators *hen, because, if, that, although*.

59- Estimating costs *and* assisting development risks *are* difficult task.

60- *Although* the problem statement is more subjective it should align with more detailed quantitative requirements.

4- The coordinators always appear in position between two coordinate clauses, whereas the subordinators are a part of the subordinate clauses.

So in coordination it is impossible to place the second coordinate in front of the first clause, such as

61- Everyone who needs information from the document can read and understand it.

*And understand it, everyone who needs information from the document can read.*
Whereas the position of coordinate clause is usually flexible. It means that the second sentence can be fronted the first

62-Although the problem statement is more subjective, it should align with more detailed quantitative requirements.

63-It should align with more detailed quantitative requirements, although the problem statement is more subjective.

5-Coordination with and, but, or, for etc allows deletion of the subject or the verb of the first clause as in

64-Everyone who needs information from the document can read and understand.

65-Everyone who needs information from the document can read and (can) understand it.

6-Deletion of subject or verb is generally impossible in subordination

66-*Although the problem statement is more subjective,(it) should align with more detailed quantitative requirements.

7-Coordinate clause is a form of compound sentence and subordinate clause is a form of complex sentence.

References


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The Distinction between
Coordinate and Subordinate Clauses


**Introduction**

This study is primarily concerned with investigating the general concept of coordination and subordination and show the difference between the two terms. In fact, these terms are confusing in most of cases. They are found in different forms and classifications. In most languages of European origin, clauses can be joined together by conjunctions in the same ways. Generally speaking, clauses are divided into coordinate and subordinate.

In coordination, clause can stand alone by itself as an independent clause or separate sentence created by conjunctions as *and, or, but*...as in *she was poor but honest*. In contrast the subordinate clause cannot stand alone. This clause depends on the other elements for its meaning so it is called dependent or subordinate sentence such kind of sentence can be identified by subordinator like *after, though, since because* ...as in *I will phone you when I arrive*.