

THE PRELIMINARY STUDY ON ENGLISH CONCESSIVE CONJUNCTIONS



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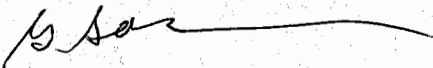
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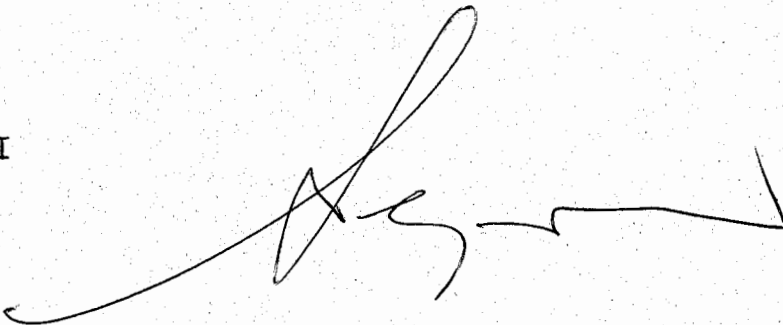
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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Title	Page
Approvals .	
Acknowledgement	
Table of contents	
Introduction	1
Chapters	
I. But	9
II. However	22
III. Although and Even Though	33
IV. Though	39
V. Yet	52
VI. Nevertheless and Nonetheless	58
VII. In Spite Of	65
VIII. Cooccurrence Of Conjunctions	71
Conclusion	83
Teaching Suggestions.....	90
Chart Of The General Characteristics	94
Chart Of Type Relations I	95
Chart Of Type Relations II	96
Chart Of Cooccurrence Of Conjunctions	97
Charts' notes	98
Bibliography	99



INTRODUCTION

Now English is becoming more and more important in Indonesia. It is regarded as an International language. Many people throughout the world speak English as a second language and many books, especially scientific books, are written in English. Thus almost all Indonesian students are trying to learn this language in order to be able to communicate with foreigners or to enrich their knowledge by reading books written in English.

In order to be able to speak and read books written in a foreign language, one must have sufficiently large vocabulary and know the grammar of the language. One must be able to understand the meaning of each word and sentence. However, these abilities do not guarantee that one can grasp the essential meaning of a conversation or of a written passage. An idea expressed orally or in writing does not usually consist of only one word or one sentence but rather of many many words and sentences. A word often undertakes an intricate relation with other words to form a meaningful sentence. Furthermore, a sentence very frequently undertakes an intricate connection with other sentences to express a complex idea clearly. For this reason one must understand the connection between one sentence and another.

One of the requirements that should be fulfilled, so that one can understand the connection

between sentences, is that he should be able to use and interpret conjunctions accurately. The most common conjunctions used by Indonesians who are learning English as a foreign language are and, or, but and so. Perhaps these students have only a vague idea about the use and the meaning of other conjunctions or else perhaps they consider these four conjunctions easy to remember. Understanding many conjunctions, in fact, is necessary, because a written work is regarded as badly written if it contains many repeated words. However, it will be an interesting work if it contains various words and it makes a smooth transition from one simple idea to another, thus expressing clearly a complex idea.

Having shown the importance of conjunctions as words which connect ideas, I will discuss one group of conjunctions in detail, in hope that Indonesian students of English will be able to use and understand them correctly.

In this thesis, I make use of the philosophical and theoretical frameworks of Hayakawa and Edward Bendix. Hayakawa in Symbol, Status and Personality, says that the best way to find the meaning of a word is to observe how it is used, and not to look it up in the dictionary.¹⁾ The learners of a language often do not realize that it is very difficult to find a single word of a language which has exactly the same meaning and usage as a word of another language. It is even frequently true that synonyms within a language do not have exactly the same

1) Poedjosoedarmo, G. (1979)

meaning and usage. Let us take as an example the usage of conjunctions within two languages. In Indonesians we find sentences such as the following :

Meskipun kemarin ia sakit, tetapi ia pergi kesekolah.

Although yesterday he ill, but he go to school.

"Although he was ill yesterday, he went to school".

In the Indonesian sentence, both clauses are marked by conjunctions. A literal translation into English would be "Although he was ill yesterday, but he went to school". However, English does not allow such double conjunctions. In English only one clause may be marked, a good translation is either "Although he was ill yesterday, he went to school," as in the gloss above, or "he was ill yesterday, but he went to school (anyway)."

Another example of the difficulty in finding two words with identical meaning is seen in the following sentences :

- a) He is rich, but he is unhappy.
- b) Although he is rich, he is unhappy.

The clauses of the first sentence are connected by but, and of the second one by although. Although these two sentences have different conjunctions, their meaning is the same, because in this context the meaning of but and although is the same. However, if we look at the arrangement, we notice that but in sentence (a) occurs in the initial position of the clause he is unhappy; whereas although in sentence (b) occurs in the initial position of the clause he is rich.

Edward Bendix in Componential Analysis of General

Vocabulary (1966) says that it is not practical to try to define words in isolation. Every lexical item must be stated in a syntactic environment.²⁾ Furthermore, many linguists say that words have meaning not only within the context of sentences, but also within broader contexts.³⁾ The broader context here can be either in conversation or a reading passage, or it may be shared knowledge of the speaker and listener or writer and reader or something which is evident from the physical environment. An example of an explicitly expressed context is :

"Look, that's funny. This flower is white, but that one's red. I plucked them from the same branch of the same tree."

An example of a context which is implicit is :

"Look, that's funny. This flower is white, but the others are red."

In the first example, the flowers have been plucked and the listener does not know that they come from one tree. Therefore, the speaker has to explain it. In the second example, on the other hand, perhaps the flowers have not been plucked, so the speaker and the listener can still see them growing on the tree. The speaker need not explain, because the listener can see for himself. In this case the context is expressed by the surroundings.

An understanding of the presentation above can help the reader, because this thesis will deal mostly with the distribution of conjunctions and a preposition which its semantic function is conjunctional. Moreover

2) Poedjosoedarmo, G. (1979)

3) *ibid*

the meanings of those words will implicitly appear within a context, at least in sentences; and sometimes different placement of them within a sentence will change the meaning of the sentence.

Before discussing conjunctions further, it is necessary to define the word conjunction and describe the types of conjunctions which occur. A conjunction is a word that links other words, clauses, or sentences.⁴⁾ It is a word the primary function of which is to join words, clauses, and sentences, but not in the way that relative pronouns such as that, who, which, do. I will divide conjunctions into three types, namely coordinators, subordinators, and sentence connectors. Coordinators are words that are able to link sentence elements of the same grammatical class or clauses or sentences of the same level.

For example :

- a) She was beautiful but stupid. (2 sentence elements)
c
- b) He was clever, but his brother was stupid.
c (2 clauses)
- c) Tono played football. Yet, his brother studied at
c home.
(2 sentences)

Subordinators are words that join two clauses or sentences of different levels. One is the main clause and the other is the subclause. Moreover, the order of the main and the subclause is not fixed, meaning that the main clause may come before or after the subclause, without changing the meaning of the sentence.

4) Hornby, A.S., E.V. Gatenby, H. Wakefield, (1973)

- a) He did not go to school, because he was sick.
main clause s subclause
- b) Because he was sick, he did not go to school.
s subclause main clause

Finally, sentence connectors are words that link two clauses or sentences of the same level and they always occur in the second idea. However, they differ from the coordinators, for they do not necessarily occur in the initial position of the sentence, they may occur in the middle or at the end of a clause or sentence.

For example :

- a) The door was locked; therefore, we broke a window.
S. C.
- b) The door was locked; we, therefore, broke a window.
S. C.
- c) The door was locked; we broke a window, therefore.
S. C.

The conjunctions and a preposition that will be discussed here are concessive conjunctions and a complex preposition that its semantic function is as concessive conjunction. They are the conjunctions but, yet, however, nevertheless, nonetheless, although, even though, though and the complex preposition in spite of. The selection of these words is not accidental, but they are chosen purposely because they are commonly used and they share similar meaning, that of concession.

A concessive conjunction is a conjunction that joins two ideas, one is a presupposition carrying idea and the other is a surprise idea. A presupposition carrying idea (p. c. i.) is an idea that suggests that something is particular is true. A surprise idea (s. i.)

is an idea that is unexpected. This idea contradicts our assumption, that is the presupposition in the presupposition carrying idea.

For example :

He is rich, but he is unhappy.
 presupposition carrying idea surprise idea
 (p. c. i.) (s. i.)

He is rich implies that he is happy, because usually wealth is a source of happiness. Therefore the first clause carries the presupposition that he must be happy. However, the second clause says that he is unhappy. This statement is not expected and is thus surprising.

Presuppositions, in fact, depend on our knowledge. If we think that wealth is a source of unhappiness, the example above does not consist of a presupposition carrying idea and surprise idea; however, the example below does :

He is rich, but he is happy.
 p. c. i. s. i.

In this thesis I will use the following abbreviations :

- p. c. i. for presupposition carrying idea
- p. c. s. for presupposition carrying sentence
- p. c. c. for presupposition carrying clause
- s. i. for surprise idea
- s. s. for surprise sentence
- s. c. for surprise clause

This thesis will attempt to show the differences in meaning of those conjunctions and a preposition, their distribution in sentences and the cooccurrences of those conjunctions.

The procedure used was as follows : first, I collected many sentences containing the conjunctions that are to be studied. These were collected by interviewing native speakers of English, and by selecting sentences from books both published a hundred or more years ago and recently. Next, I asked native speakers to paraphrase those sentences using other conjunctions if possible. Very frequently, the native speakers did not agree when they were asked about the distribution of the same conjunctions, so it was necessary to ask many native speakers before deciding which of their statements were the most correct.

This thesis will consist of an introduction, eight chapters of content and a conclusion. The first chapter is about the conjunction but, then the second chapter talks about however, this chapter is divided into two, however as a sentence connector and as a subordinator. It is followed by a discussion of the conjunctions although/even though. The fourth is the conjunction though, this chapter is also divided into two, the sentence connector and the subordinator though. The fifth, and sixth chapters discuss yet and nevertheless/nonetheless respectively. The seventh chapter discusses the complex preposition in spite of. The last chapter talks about the cooccurrence of these conjunctions. Finally, this thesis will be closed by a conclusion which also consists of a suggestion of how to teach these conjunctions, and four charts, showing the characteristics, relationships of the conjunctions and the complex preposition, types of relation and the cooccurrence of conjunctions.

CHAPTER ONE

BUT

1.0

This chapter will deal with the word but as a conjunction. I am discussing it first, because it is the most frequently used conjunction with this meaning. Indonesians who learn English tend to overuse it and to avoid other conjunctions which might be more suitable and precise.

One reason why students of English often overuse the conjunction but is that they assume that this word is exactly equivalent to Indonesian *tetapi*. Another reason is that but has a wider range of usage than other similar conjunctions.

This chapter is divided into two sections, the first describing the general nature of the word but, the second discussing in detail the use of but as a conjunction.

1.1

The Nature Of The Word But

The word but can be used as any of four parts of speech, namely as a preposition, an adverb, a relative pronoun and as a conjunction.

But may occur as a preposition. It may occur together with another preposition for, or alone, meaning that it is directly followed by a noun.

For example :

1. But for your fault we should not have finished in time.
2. Everybody ran away but John.

But can also be a relative pronoun to introduce a noun clause. However, it is less common now in this usage, and if it is still used, it only occurs in colloquial speech. In this usage, but often appears together with that or what, but sometimes it occurs alone.

For example :

3. I know no one but does not agree with me.¹⁾
4. Who knows but that the world will end tomorrow.²⁾
5. It could not be doubted but what his life would be aimed at.³⁾

In addition to the above possibilities, but can occur as an adverb. When it does, it appears as an adverb of degree, and it occurs after a verb or an auxiliary verb.

For example :

6. He left but an hour ago. (verb-but-noun)
7. We can but try. (aux.-but-verb)

The last but the most important function of but is as a conjunction. It belongs to the subcategory of a coordinator. It links two main ideas, usually a pre-supposition carrying idea and a surprise idea. Those ideas can be words or groups of words.

For example :

8. John is handsome but stupid. (2 words)

-
- 1) example from Grammar of Modern English
 - 2) example from Understanding Grammar
 - 3) example from English Grammar

9. Alex is rich. But Bill is poor. (2 groups of words here are sentences)

As this thesis is concerned with conjunctions, I will discuss at length the use of but as a conjunction.

1.2

The Conjunction But

1.20

The function of but as a conjunction is to link two ideas that have a common topic,⁴⁾ meaning that the two ideas joined by but must have a relationship to one another.

For example :

10. John has a house, but Bill has a car.

11.*John has a car, but Bill has a sore toe.

The first example is an acceptable sentence because having a house is similar in various ways to having a car, although owning a house is not the same as owning a car. However, they both have a sense of property ownership. The second example is an unacceptable sentence, because even though there is a sense of having something, having a car is completely different from having a sore toe, for a sore toe is not one's property. It is a kind of suffering.

The conjunction but belongs to the subgroup of a coordinator, because it is able to link words of the same grammatical class, and it can also link clauses or sentences of the same level. However, its characteristics are

4) Charles J. Fillmore and D. Terence Langendoen (1971) page 131.

- 16.*But Jones's brother is a business man,
one idea one idea
doctor.

1.2.1.3

The ideas linked by but can be two sentence elements, two clauses or two sentences of the same level.

1.2.1.3.1

Two sentence elements

For example :

17. Tempe is an important food in S. E. Asia and it's cheap but nutritious. (2 adjectives)
18. My brother worked very fast but carefully. (2 adverbs)
19. He did not work but sleep. (2 verbs)
20. The person who broke that glass was not me but Ani. (2 nouns)

But as a conjunction can join only two adjectives or two adverbs, but if it occurs in conjunction with not which is placed before the first linked sentence element, it can link other parts of speech.

1.2.1.3.2

Two clauses

For example :

21. They haven't very much money but they hope to be able to do some travelling.
22. These forms are found in the standard language and in many eastern dialects; but in many eastern dialects, speakers do not replace the historically correct 'seen' ending, but instead lengthen the final 'e' of the stem 'ohue' so that it can occur with the ending 'seen' without violating the rule.⁵⁾

From the examples above, it can be concluded that the clauses linked by but can be separated by a semicolon

5) paraphrased from Substantive Evidence In Phonology p.92

or a comma or can occur without any intervening punctuation.

1.2.1.3.3

Two sentences or more

For example :

23. Although I have lived in Java for 18 months, I still cannot speak Javanese. But I am determine to become fluent before December.
24. The paper-boy, a college freshman, and a new graduate may be equally skillful in teasing, shouting instructions on the football-field, grumbling- or even swearing. They may be as skillful as each other or as a professor of the English language in any of these uses. But their skill will probably be unequal when it comes to drafting a letter, writing a report, or making a formal speech.⁶⁾

1.2.1.4

When but links two clauses or sentences, it always stands in the initial position of the second clause or sentence.

For example :

25. It was raining hard, but we decided to go for a walk.
- 26.*It was raining hard, we, but, decided to go for a walk.

1.2.2

Types Of Relationships Marked By But

1.2.2.0

In this thesis, I will discuss the types of relationships marked by every conjunctions I am discussing. To avoid a lot of repetition, I am going to discuss these

6) example from A Grammar Of Contemporary English p. 651

types in detail only once. In this chapter, I will give the names of the types or the subtypes and the explanation of their use.

The conjunction but marks two types of relationships, namely additive and adversative relations.

1.2.2.1

The additive relation of but links two ideas. the second idea is an additive to what has been previously mentioned. In this relation but cannot occur alone. It must appear in conjunction with not only, forming the sequence not only....., but also.....
For example :

27. My teacher was not only clever but also wise.

28. Those robbers not only stole my money, but also killed my wife.

The main effect of this combination is to emphasize the fact that two things are involved. Those two things are clever and wise in the first example; while in the second example are the robbers stole my money and killed my wife. Beside this, This combination also raises a feeling of surprise. The second clause makes us surprised. It will be more dramatic if not only is put initially.

For example :

29. Not only did the robbers steal my money, but they also killed my wife.

From this example we can know that but is not always directly followed by also.

1.2.2.2

The second type of relation marked by but is adversative. The basic meaning of this relation is

contrary to expectation.⁷⁾ Therefore, in this relation but links two ideas, and those ideas contradict each other. The second idea contradicts the expectation built by the first one. This can be divided into many subtypes.

1.2.2.2.1

The first subtype might be called concession. Here, but links two ideas, the presupposition carrying idea and the surprise idea. However, if we see the source of the presupposition, this subtype can be divided into two, namely the presupposition that is built by lexical items and that which is built by our knowledge, or experience.

1.2.2.2.1.1

Semantic Opposition

This sub-subtype might be able to be called semantic opposition,⁸⁾ because but links two ideas. These ideas contain two lexical items that share all semantic features but one. The presupposition comes from this first lexical item that contradicts the second one. For example :

30. John is very rich, but Bill is very poor.
p. c. i. s. i.

In that example the presupposition comes from the word rich, because rich and poor share all semantic features except rich means having a lot of money and poor having very little money.

1.2.2.2.1.2

Denial of Expectation

7) Halliday, M.A.K. (1976)

8) Fillmore, Charles J and D.T. Langendoen (1971) p. 133

This sub-subtype is called denial of expectation,⁹⁾ because the second idea denies our expectation. Here but links two ideas; however, perhaps these ideas do not contain two lexical items that seem contradictory, because they do not share any semantic feature.

For example :

31. Bill is tall, but he's no good at basketball.
p . c . i. s . i.

32. Alex is rich but dumb.
p.c.i. s.i.

From those two examples it seems that there are no relation between tall and good at basketball, and between rich and dumb. However, we can relate them because we have knowledge that if someone is tall, he must be good at basketball; and if someone is rich, he must be smart. For this reason it can be said that the presupposition comes from our knowledge of the world.

Example number 30 above is in fact ambiguous, if there is no clear context. Its presupposition can come either from the lexical items in the sentence or from our knowledge of the world. Therefore, to understand it accurately, we need a broader context. For example, if we know that there is no relation between John and Bill, and we know that the aim of the speaker is only to contrast the condition of these two people, we can easily determine that the presupposition comes from the lexical items. However, if we know from the context that there is a relation between them, namely that they are brothers, and we also have knowledge that if a man is very rich, his brother is not likely to be very poor, then from this

9) Filmore, Charles J and D.T. Langendoen (1971) p. 133

knowledge we can determine that the presupposition must come from ~~our~~ knowledge of the world.

Example number 32 above is also ambiguous. At a glance, we are likely to say that the presupposition comes from our knowledge, because rich and dumb are different things, and we know that usually a rich man is smart. However, if it is put in this context, for example, there is a father who urges his daughter to marry Alex, on the ground that he is rich, rich is something good. However, his daughter thinks that Alex is dumb, dumb is something bad. From this context we can see that there is a contradiction between rich and dumb, namely a good thing and a bad thing. Therefore, it can be said that in this case the presupposition comes from the lexical items.

Besides the context in which these sentences occur, we can differentiate the semantic opposition relation from the denial of expectation relation by reversing those linked idea. If the ideas can be reversed, without changing the essential meaning, it means that the relationship is semantic opposition; while if they cannot be, or it will change the essential meaning, it means the relationship denial of expectation.

For example :

a) Semantic opposition

- John is rich, but Bill is poor.
- Bill is poor, but John is rich.

b) Denial of expectation

- The sky was cloudy, but John went anyway.
- John went anyway, but the sky was cloudy.

1.2.2.2.2

Causal Relation

The second subtype is called causal relation. Here but links two ideas, the presupposition carrying idea and the surprise idea; However, these two ideas have a causal relation.

For example :

34. John wanted to be a doctor, but he failed chemistry.
p. c. i. s. i.

This example means that John wanted to be a doctor but because he failed his chemistry exam; he cannot be.

1.2.2.2.3

Temporal Relation

The third subtype is called temporal relation. In this case but joins two ideas containing two events, and these two events have a temporal relationship, one event coming before the other. From the types of the ideas joined, we can divide this subtype into two.

1.2.2.2.3.1

Presupposition-Surprise Temporal Relation

The first is named presupposition-surprise temporal relation, because but join a presupposition carrying clause and a surprise clause, and these two clauses have a temporal idea.

For example :

35. Last week she had an examination, but she failed.
p. c. c. s. c.

These clauses of this sentence cannot be reversed into :
Last week she failed, but she had an examination.

Because one could not fail before she did that examination.

1.2.2.2.3.2

Bad-Negation Temporal Relation

The second one is named bad-negation temporal relation. This but links two events, one of which is a bad event and the other the negation of that event.

For example :

36. John killed his wife, but he was caught.
bad idea negation idea

1.2.2.2.4

Contrastive

According to Halliday (1976) the conjunction but may have a subtype that can be called contrastive.

Here, but links two ideas, the presupposition carrying idea and the surprise idea. However, the speaker's aim is to deliver the surprise idea.

For example :

37. She failed. But she's tried her best.
p. c. i. s. i.

This sentence has a sense ~~that~~ failing or passing the examination is not so important. Her effort is the most important thing.

I think, however, that this subtype is almost the same as but that marks denial of expectation relation.

(1.2.2.2.1.2)

1.2.2.2.5

Magnifying Relation

The fifth subtype is called magnifying relation

Here, but links two ideas. One is a base idea and the other magnifies what has been said in the first. This subtype can be divided into two, depending on the number of the subjects.

1.2.2.2.5.1

One Subject

The first is named one subject, because the two clauses have the same subject, so that the subject of the second clause is usually ellipped.

For example :

38. She didn't forget her old friend while he was away,
base idea
but thought about him all the time.
magnifying idea

The subject of the second clause is she, but it is elliptical, because it is the same as the subject of the first clause.

1.2.2.2.5.2

Two Subjects

The second is called two subjects, because the two clauses have different subjects. The subject of the first clause is a member of the class described by the second one.

For example :

39. That child likes chocolate, but all children like
base idea magnifying
sweets.
idea

The subject of the baseidea, that child, is a member of the class named in the magnifying idea, all children.

CHAPTER TWO

HOWEVER

2.0

In the last chapter, we discussed the conjunction but. This second chapter will deal with the conjunction however. Some experts say that but and however are almost the same, and some others even say that the conjunction but comes from this conjunction. Although such statements are made, there are some dissimilarities between the two conjunctions. Let us now look at the characteristics of the conjunction however.

2.1.

The Nature Of However

The word however comes historically from the words how + ever. This word occurs as either an adverb or as conjunction.

When however occurs as an adverb, it appears as an adverb of degree, and it usually stands before an adjective or other adverb.

For example :

40. We must do something, on however humble a scale.¹⁾

The second possibility is however as a conjunction. In this occurrence this conjunction can be divided into two types of conjunctions namely a sentence connector, and a subordinator.

1) example from The Advanced Learner's Dictionary Of Current English

For example :

a) As a sentence connector :

41. There have been a lot of problems. However, I don't think any of them are insurmountable.

b) As a subordinator :

42. It is dangerous, however beautiful it is.

Since this thesis deals with conjunctions, I will discuss at length however which occurs as a conjunction.

2.2

However As A Conjunction

2.2.0

As stated above, however as a conjunction can occur as a sentence connector and as a subordinator. These functions will be discussed in this chapter one by one. First is the discussion of however as a sentence connector and second as a subordinator.

2.2.1.

The Sentence Connector However

2.2.1.0

However as a sentence connector has different placement from the coordinator but, even though some of the sentences or clauses joined by but can be replaced by this sentence connector.

2.2.1.1

The Characteristics

2.2.1.1.0

When the conjunction however occurs as a sentence connector, it has the following characteristics :

2.2.1.1.1

Like but and other conjunctions of the like, however is also able to link two ideas at a time. These

- c. I asked him several times; he was unable to help me, however.

The placement of this conjunction usually influences the place of the contradiction of those ideas. If however is put initially, it usually places greater stress on the contradiction than if it is put at the end of the clause or sentence. If it occurs in the middle of a sentence, it will indicate that the word standing before it is the important element in that contradiction.

2.2.1.1.4

Besides these characteristics, there is another point that needs our attention. That point is punctuation, that is whether the clauses of a sentence are separated by a comma or a semicolon or whether they can be made into two sentences.

For example :

45. I asked him several times; however, he was unable to help me.
 d. I asked him several times. However, he was unable to help me.

We must also pay attention to the comma which preceded or follows however. If however stands initially, it must be followed by a comma. If it stands in the middle of the clause or sentence, it must be put between two commas. If it occurs at the end of the sentence we must put a comma before it.

These are not the characteristics of the conjunction but, for but always occurs in initial position in the second clause.



- b. Alex is rich. However, he is dumb.
p. c. s. s. s.

2.2.1.2.1.2

Causal relation

The second subtype is however that marks a causal relation.³⁾

For example :

- 49a. John wanted to be a doctor; however, he failed
p.c.c. s.c.

chemistry.

- b. John wanted to be a doctor. However, he failed
p. c. s. s. s.

chemistry.

2.2.1.2.1.3

Temporal Relation

The third subtype is however that links two temporal events, the relation of which can be formed as either presupposition-surprise or bad-negation temporal ideas.⁴⁾

For example :

2.2.1.2.1.3.1

Presupposition-surprise temporal relation

- 50a. Last week she had an examination; however,
p. c. c.

she failed.
s. c.

- b. Last week she had an examination. However,
p. c. s.

she failed.
s. s.

2.2.1.2.1.3.2

Bad-negation temporal relation

- 51a. John killed his wife; however, he was caught.
bad clause negation c.

3) see But page 19

4) ibid

- b. John killed his wife. However, he was caught.
bad sentence negation s.

In this type the place of however is not always in the beginning of the second clause or sentence, it may occur in the middle or at the end of that clause or sentence.

2.2.1.2.2

Changing The Topic

Besides this type there is another type that usually occurs with however. In this type, the conjunction however functions to cut short the previous idea or topic and change to another topic. In this usage, this conjunction almost always stands at the beginning of a new sentence.

For example :

52. I think you had no right to speak to him in that
presupposition carrying sentence
way. However, I really wanted to let you know
surprise sentence
what I think about your recent letters to me.

In the example, however is to indicate that the speaker or the writer wishes to dismiss the topic which has been stated in the previous sentence/s. In conversation, actually, the conjunction but may replace it, but it is much better if we use the conjunction however, especially in formal conversation or in writing.

2.2.2

Subordinator However

5) example from A Grammar Of Contemporay English p. 674

2.2.2.0

However as a subordinator is very different from the coordinator but, even though it can also link two contradicting ideas. This kind of however links two clauses of different levels.

Its meaning is the same as however as an adverb, namely in whatever way or degree.⁶⁾ Furthermore, its position is also almost the same as the adverb, for it can occur before an adjective or adverb. I group it into the subordinator group because some experts group it in this group and it can link a subclause to its main clause.

2.2.2.1

The Characteristics

2.2.2.1.0

However as a subordinator has the following characteristics :

2.2.2.1.1

Like the coordinator but, however as a subordinator is only able to link two ideas at a time. It is different from but, however, because these two ideas must be in the form of clauses and these clauses must be from different levels; one must be a main clause and the other a subclause.

For example :

53. I will try, however difficult it is.
main clause subclause

2.2.2.1.2

Since however is a subordinator, it must stand in initial position in the subclause.

6) Hornby, A.S., E.V. Gatenby, H. Wakefield, (1973) p. 481

For example :

- 54a. It's dangerous, however beautiful it is.
main clause subclause
- b. *It's dangerous, beautiful it is, however.
main clause subclause

This second example is not possible.

2.2.2.1.3

The clauses linked by however as a subordinator can be reversed, meaning that the subclause may be placed after or before the main clause.

For example :

- 55a. It's dangerous, however beautiful it looks.
main clause subclause
- b. However beautiful it looks, it is dangerous.
subclause main clause

The meaning of these sentences is the same, but they have different senses. These senses depend on the speakers or writer. If he wants to stress the main clause, he may put it at the beginning of the sentence and the other way round.

From the examples above we can see that the subordinator however can occur both in the presupposition carrying clause and in the surprise clause; while the sentence connector however and the coordinator but occur only in the surprise clause.

2.2.2.1.4

The outstanding characteristic of however as a subordinator is that the clause that is preceded by however is inverted, meaning that the subject complement occurs before the subject.

For example :

55b. However beautiful it looks, it is dangerous.
 sub clause main clause

The word beautiful is the subject complement of it. Thus, beautiful occurs before it. In this usage the subclause is usually put in front of the main clause, because this strange structure shows that it is important; so it becomes the information center, and usually the information center is put at the beginning of that whole information unit.

2.2.2.1.5

When using the subordinator however, we have to pay attention to the punctuation. This is because how-
ever can be a sentence connector and a subordinator, and because this subordinator does not always occur before an adjective or adverb.

For example :

56. He didn't like to do it however he did it.⁷⁾

This sentence above is ambiguous; however here can be a subordinator or a sentence connector. If however is a subordinator, it should be :

56a. He didn't like to do it, however he did it.
main clause subclause

The two clauses above are separated only by a comma. If however is a sentence connector, it should be :

56b. He didn't like to do it; however, he did it.

c. He didn't like to do it. However, he did it.

The two clauses are separated by a semicolon or full

7) example from Understanding Grammar

stop, and there is a comma after the word however.

2.2.2.2

Types Of Relation

The subordinator however has only one type of relation namely the adversative relation; and in this type it is only able to mark one subtype, namely the denial of expectation of the concessive relation.⁸⁾

Because there is always a contradiction between the ideas of the main clause and its subclause, and also it links a presupposition carrying clause and surprise clause, the presupposition of which needs our knowledge of the world.

For example :

57. However rich he is, he is unhappy.
 p. c. c. s. c.

This sentence means that he is unhappy, whether he is rich or not, and if he becomes richer than he is now, he will still be unhappy.

Although it occurs in adversative relation with its subtype concession like but, it cannot be replaced by but, because the subordinator however also means in whatever way or degree.

8) see But page 16

CHAPTER THREE

ALTHOUGH - EVEN THOUGH

3.0

In this chapter I will discuss two conjunctions, although and even though. I am discussing them together in one chapter because both of them have the same nature and characteristics. Moreover native speakers of English often use them interchangeably.

3.1

The Nature of the Words Although and Even Though

In English the words although and even though only occur as conjunctions, because their function is only to link ideas in sentences. As conjunctions, they are grouped into one group, namely the subordinator group.

Even though is actually two words, the adverb even and the conjunction though. It is unlike the conjunction however, for the latter comes from two words, but these two words have become one. The conjunction even though, however, is still written separately.

For example :

- a. Although it was raining hard, we decided to go for a walk.
- b. Even though it was raining hard, we decided to go for a walk.

3.2

The characteristics

3.2.1

The first characteristic is like that of the

other concessive conjunctions because although and even though are only able to link two ideas at a time.

For example :

58. "I'm sorry, I really have to go, although I'd
first idea
much rather stay here."
second idea
59. In general, there is a strong tendency to elimi-
nate the results of vowel deletion in French,
first idea
even though the result may not seem phonetical-
second idea
ly plausible. 1)

3.2.2

Unlike the coordinator but and the sentence connector however, although and even though are the same as the subordinator however. The ideas linked by although and even though must be put in clauses and these clauses must be from different levels. One clause must be the main clause and the other must be the subclause.

For example :

60. I shall try again, although it's very expensive.
main clause subclause
61. You never speak to her when we meet her, even
main clause
though she's trying to be friendly.
subclause

3.2.3

The subclause introduced by although and even though can be abbreviated.

For example :

62. Although a young man, he has had a lot of experience.
 subclause main clause

1) Example from Substantive Evidence In Phonology p. 14

The essential meaning of the sentences beginning with the subclauses is the same as the meaning of those beginning with the main clauses. We can choose either type, depending on the information that should be carried out first, or on the information center.

3.2.5

The structure of the subclauses introduced by these conjunctions is different from that introduced by the subordinator however. Clauses that are introduced by although or even though never are inverted. The subject complement never occur before the subject.

For example :

- 66 a. Although she was sick, she went to work.
 b* Although sick she was, she went to work.
 c* Sick although she was, she went to work.
 d. However sick she was, she went to work.
 e. Even though she was sick, she went to work.
 f* Even though sick she was, she went to work.
 g* Sick even though she was, she went to work.

3.2.6

The punctuation that is needed in the sentences containing these conjunctions is not as important as it is in the conjunction however. However, it is worthwhile to be discussed here because punctuation is important in reducing the ambiguity of written sentences.

The clauses joined by the conjunctions although and even though are always separated by commas.

For example :

67. Although you say you like her, I'm sure you don't really. You never speak to her when we meet her, even though she's trying to be friendly.

The punctuation needed here is the same as the punctuation that is needed in the sentences containing the subordinator however.

3.3

The Type of Relation

Some experts say that the conjunctions although and even though have the meaning of concession. They are only able to link a presupposition carrying clause and a surprise clause. The presupposition always needs our knowledge of the world. For this reason, they always link the clauses that have an adversative relation. They are only able to replace but which marks a denial of expectation relation. 2)

For example :

(31. Bill is tall, but he's no good at basketball.)
p.c.c. s.c.

68 a. Although he is tall, he's no good at basketball.
p.c.c. s.c.

b. Even though he is tall, he's no good at basketball.
p.c.c. s.c.

(32. Alex is rich but dumb.)
p.c.i. s.i.

69 a. Although Alex is rich, he is dumb.
p.c.i. s.i.

b. Even though Alex is rich, he is dumb.
p.c.i. s.i.

There are no similarities between tall and good at basketball, but they can be related, because we know that if someone is tall, she/he usually is good at basketball because she/he can throw the ball into the basket easily. Thus from this knowledge we can relate

2) see But page 16

these two ideas.

From those examples above it can be seen that although and even though always mark the old information, he is tall and Alex is rich, because we assume that the new information is he's no good at basketball and he is dumb respectively, for they are the main clauses of those sentences.

After discussing all the characteristics and the type of relation marked by although and even though, we find that they are the same. However, if they are observed more deeply we can feel that in fact the clauses linked by although and those linked by even though produce a different sense, but this sense is very subtle and difficult to explain. Some native speakers say that they are just the same, they are used just for variety or mood; some others, say that even though gives a stronger stress than although, for the word even is usually used to invite a comparison between what is stated and what might have been the case, what might have happened, been done etc. ³⁾ Furthermore, we can stress the word even by lengthening its pronunciation; and al cannot be. Besides this difference, we can see their other differences when they appear together with the conjunctions nevertheless and nonetheless. (see chapter 8)

3) Hornby, A.S., E.V. Gatenby, H. Wakefield (1973)

CHAPTER FOUR

THOUGH

4.0

Having discussed the conjunctions but, however, although/even though in the last chapters, I will now discuss the conjunction though. I am discussing it in this chapter because this word can replace almost all the subtypes of adversative relation occurring with but and however and some experts say that though is the variant of although. And yet, we are still able to see their differences. As in the previous chapter, we will see those differences through observing the nature, characteristics of though and so on.

4.1

The Nature of Though

The word though can occur either as a distinct word or as a variant of the word although. Both the distinct word though and the variant of although can only occur as conjunctions, which can be grouped further into sentence connector and subordinator groups.

Though as a distinct word usually works as a sentence connector.

For example :

70. He did not want to do it; he did it, though.

When it appears as the variant of although, it works as a subordinator.

For example :

71. Though he is poor, he is satisfied with his condition.

Since this word can be either of two types of

conjunction, I will discuss the types one by one. Its occurrence as a sentence connector will be discussed first and as a subordinator later.

4.2

Sentence Connector

4.2.0

When though occurs as a sentence connector, its characteristics are almost the same as the sentence connector however. Almost all of the sentences or clauses joined by it have the same essential meaning as those joined by however and but. However, those sentences usually have different structure and produce a different sense.

4.2.1

The Characteristics

4.2.1.0

To begin this discussion, let us look at the characteristics of though when it functions as a sentence connector.

4.2.1.1

As with but and however, this though is also able to link two ideas at a time. These two ideas can be clauses or sentences and they come from the same level.

For example :

72. Monica is rather a fat girl. She's very pretty,
 first idea second idea
 though.

70. He did not want to do it; he did it, though.
 first idea 2nd idea

4.2.1.2

Like the conjunction however,¹⁾ the placement of this conjunction influences the place of the contradiction of those two ideas. The difference between them is though rarely occurs in the beginning of a second clause or sentence. In written English it is usually put in the middle or at the end of a clause but in conversation it usually occurs at the end of a clause. Though as a sentence connector rarely occurs in the beginning of a sentence or clause, though as a subordinator always occurs initially.

4.2.1.4

When using though, we have to pay attention to the punctuation. If the sentence consists of two clauses. These clauses must be separated by a semicolon or they are changed into two sentences.

For example :

75 c. I've got an idea; I'm not sure whether you'll agree, though.

d. I've got an idea. I'm not sure whether you'll agree, though.

Besides that, we must pay attention to the comma which precedes and follows it. When though occurs at the beginning of the clause, it must be followed by a comma. If it occurs in the middle of the clause or sentence it may be preceded and followed by a comma, but does not have to; while if it is found at the end of a clause or sentence there must be a comma before it.

4.2.2

Types of Relation

1) see However page 25

4.2.2.0

The type of relation that is marked by though as a sentence connector is almost the same as the way in which however works as a sentence connector, namely the adversative relation. Though relates two ideas that contradict each other. In this relation, though also marks many subtypes and it can replace almost all the subtypes of relations that are marked by but. This conjunction, however, is usually placed at the end of the clause or sentence.

4.2.2.1.

Concession

The first subtype of the sentence connector though marks the concessive relation including its divisions, semantic opposition and denial of expectation relation.²⁾

For example :

4.2.2.1.1

Semantic opposition relation

(31. John is rich, but Bill is poor.)
p.c.c. s.c.

76 a. John is rich; Bill is poor, though.
p.c.c. s.c.

b. John is rich. Bill is poor, though.
p.c.s. s.s.

4.2.2.1.2

Denial of expectation relation

(32. Bill is tall, but he's no good at basketball.)
p.c.c. s.c.

77 a. Bill is tall, he's no good at basketball, though.
p.c.c. s.c.

2) see But page 16

- b. Bill is tall. He's no good at basketball, though.
p.c.s. s.s.
- (33. Alex is rich but dumb.)
p.c.c. s.c.
- 78 a. Alex is rich; he is dumb, though.
p.c.c. s.c.
- b. Alex is rich. He is dumb, though.
p.c.s. s.s.

4.2.2.2

Causal Relation

The second subtype is though that marks a causal relation.³⁾

For example :

- (34. John wanted to be a doctor, but he failed
p.c.c. s.c.
chemistry.)
- 79 a. John wanted to be a doctor; he failed chemistry,
p.c.c. s.c.
though.
- b. John wanted to be a doctor. He failed chemistry,
p.c.s. s.s.
though.

4.2.2.3

Temporal relation

The third subtype is though that marks a temporal relation because it links two events temporally. The relation of those events can be presupposition-surprise events or bad-negation events.⁴⁾

For example :

4.2.2.3.1

Presupposition-surprise relation

- (35. Last week she had an examination, but she failed.)
p.c.c. s.c.

3) see But page 19

4) ibid

80 a. Last week she had an examination; she failed,
p.c.c. s.c.

though.

b. Last week she had an examination. She failed,
p.c.s. s.s.

though.

4.2.2.3.2

Bad-negation relation

(36. John killed his wife, but he was caught.)
bad event negation event

81 a. John killed his wife; he was caught, though.
bad event negation event

b. John killed his wife. He was caught, though.
bad event negation event

4.2.2.4

Magnifying relation

The fourth subtype is a though that marks a magnifying relation.⁵⁾ In the first chapter this subtype is divided into two, but though is only able to mark one, namely that with two subjects, and it always occurs at the end of the second idea.

For example :

(39. That child likes chocolate, but all children
base clause magnifying
like sweets.)
clause

82.a. That child likes chocolate; all children like
base clause magnifying clause
sweets, though.

b. That child likes chocolate. All children like
base sentence magnifying
sweets, though.
sentence

From the examples given above, it can be concluded that though is almost the same as but and the sentence

5) see But page 20

connector however. The greatest difference that can be seen is the placement of these conjunctions. But is always put in front of the second idea, while the sentence connector however and though can occur any place in the second clause or sentence. In conversation, however, the sentence connector though occurs more frequently at the end of the clause or sentence than however.

4.3

Subordinator

4.3.0

I have stated that though can be a subordinator. Some experts say that the subordinator though is the variant of the subordinator although, but I think this is not absolutely true, because the subordinator though has some characteristics that are different from al-though.

4.3.1

The Characteristics

4.3.1.1

The first characteristic, as with the subordinator however, is that it is only able to link two ideas at a time and these ideas are usually clauses, a main clause and its subclause.

For example :

83. I read this book very quickly, though it was
main clause subclause
long.

4.3.1.2

The place of though in a sentence must be in the subclause, so it is also the same as the subordinator

however in this respect.

For example :

84. He is good at basketball, though he is short.
main clause subclause

4.3.1.3

The second characteristic is different from the subordinator however. The subclause is sometimes abbreviated.

For example :

85. Though well over eighty, he can walk a mile
 subclause main clause
faster than I can.

When though is followed by an abbreviated subclause, the subclause usually occurs before its main clause.

4.3.1.4.

The third characteristic is also like the other subordinators: the main clause and its subclause can be reversed, meaning that the subclause can come after or before the main clause and vice versa.

For example :

86. He still can't speak the language fluently,
main clause
though he's been living here for years.
subclause

87. Though he's been living here for years, he
 subclause
still can't speak the language fluently
 main clause

The essential meaning of these sentences is the same, the speaker or the writer may choose the one which he thinks most suits what he wants to say, in other words it depends only on the information center.

As stated above though always marks the sub-
clause, never the main clause. Since the order of these

two clauses can be reversed though may occur in either the first or second clause. However, the first clause is always interpreted as the presupposition, the second one as the surprise. Thus though may mark either the presupposition or the surprise clauses.

4.3.1.5

Although the place of though in a sentence is the same as the other subordinators, namely in the subclause, there is a difference between though and the other subordinators. Though can be preceded by the subject complement of the subclause if there is any.

For example :

88. Poor though he is, he is happy.

From this example it can be seen that the subordinator though does not always occur in the initial position of the subclause, while the others always do.

In this usage the chief meaning of the sentences using however followed by a subject complement and though preceded by this complement is the same. Furthermore, both the subclause introduced by however and though of this type preferably occur as presupposition carrying clause, so in other words the subclause stands before the main clause.

4.3.1.6

Still there is another outstanding characteristic of this subordinator which is not found in the others. That is the word can be used to link two sentence elements.

For example :

89. It is a shabby though comfortable armchair.⁶⁾
(2 adjectives)

90. He spoke firmly though pleasantly. (2 adverbs)

From these sentences we can see that though is similar to the conjunction but, because both of them can link two sentence elements, adjectives and adverbs.

4.3.1.7

Since there are two kinds of though, a sentence connector and a subordinator, punctuation is important. The clauses joined by the subordinator though must be separated by a comma.

For example :

91. Monica is rather a fat girl, though she's very pretty.

4.3.2

Types of Relations

Experts usually call the subordinator though a concessive conjunction, because this subordinator is only able to link two clauses that have a concessive relation. Thus this word always links a presupposition carrying clause and a surprise clause, and the presupposition always depends upon our knowledge of the word.

For example :

92. He is poor, though he is satisfied with his
p.c.c. surprise clause
condition.

The presupposition requires our knowledge, because we usually think that if somebody is poor, he will not

6) Example from A Grammar of Contemporary English p.594

be happy, and if he is unhappy, it means that he is not satisfied with his condition.

Thus though here is the same as denial of expectation relation marked by the coordinator but, the sentence connector however and though, and the subordinator however.

For example :

(31. Bill is tall, but he's no good at basketball.)
p.c.c. surprise clause

93. Though Bill is tall, he's no good at basketball.
p.c.c. surprise clause

(32. Alex is rich but dumb.)
p.c.i. s.i.

94. Though Alex is rich, he is dumb.
p.c.i. s.i.

From the examples above we can see that though always occurs with the old information, Bill is tall. I can say that Bill is tall is old information because the listener knows it, and for this reason it becomes the subclause of that sentence. The coordinator but, on the other hand, relates two facts. The sentences number 31 and 32 may be used to tell the facts that the listener does not know.

Having discussed all the characteristic and the type of relations marked by the conjunction though, there arise some difficulties. One of them is to differentiate though as a sentence connector from though as a subordinator, for they both can occur in concessive relation. Both can also occur in the initial position of the surprise clause and we cannot see the punctuation in conversation. To lessen this problem, we have to listen carefully, because we can differentiate them from the context in which they occur and from the



context in which they occur and from the pause and intonation.

For example :

- 95 a. He is /poòr/- though he/ is satisfied with his condition/.

This sentence is equivalent to:

- 95 b. He is poor. He is satisfied with his condition, though.

Here though is a sentence connector. In that sentence the speaker is telling two facts: one, that he is poor, and the other, that he is satisfied with his condition. This kind of pause and intonation will not occur with the subordinator though.

In addition, from my observation, I dare say that in conversation especially informal conversation, the sentence connector though is usually put at the end of the surprise idea, while the subordinator though occurs at the beginning of a clause. In formal speech the subordinator though is rarely used. People prefer to use although or even though instead.

For example :

- As a sentence connector

96. He is poor. He is satisfied with his condition, though. (informal)

- As a subordinator

- 97 a. Though he is poor, he is satisfied with his condition.

- b. He is satisfied with his condition, though he is poor. (both are informal)

- c. Although he is poor, he is satisfied with his condition.

- d. He is satisfied with his condition, although he is poor. (both are formal)

CHAPTER FIVE

YET

5.0

In this chapter, I will discuss the conjunction yet. Its distribution is almost the same as the conjunction but, but it is quite different from the other conjunctions such as however, although, even though and though, although they all can link two ideas that have a concessive relation.

5.1.

The Nature Of Yet

The word yet may occur as either an adverb or as a conjunction.

When it functions as an adverb, it appears as an adverb of time. It may appear alone, or it may occur together with as.

For example :

98. She has not finished her homework yet.

99. As yet we had not made any plans for the holidays.

The second possibility is yet functioning as a conjunction. When it does, it is grouped among coordinate conjunctions.

For example :

100. He worked very hard, yet he failed the exam again.

Yet as a conjunction often occurs in writing as well as in the conversation of educated people.

As this thesis is concerned with conjunctions, I will only discuss at length its use as a conjunction.

5.2

Yet As A Conjunction

5.2.0

When the word yet occurs as a conjunction, some experts group it as a coordinate conjunction, for this conjunction can link sentences or clauses of the same level and sentence elements of the same grammatical class. Thus, it is almost the same as the conjunction but. However, let us examine its characteristics in regard to the similarities and the differences between the conjunctions yet and but.

5.2.1

The Characteristics Of Yet

5.2.1.0

Yet as a conjunction has the following characteristics :

5.2.1.1

The conjunction yet is only able to link two ideas at a time.

For example :

101. He drove quickly yet safely.
 one idea one idea

102. He hadn't been invited yet he arrived at the party.
 one idea one idea

5.2.1.2

The conjunction yet must occur with the second idea.

For example :

- b. *Yet he promised to come, he never turned up.
first idea second idea

5.2.1.3

The ideas linked by yet can be two sentence elements from the same grammatical class or they can be two clauses or sentences of the same level.

For example :

5.2.1.3.1

Two sentence elements

104. He was poor yet honest. (2 adjectives)
105. That girl spoke softly yet confidently. (2 adverbs)

Yet as a conjunction functions in the same way as the conjunction but, in that the former can join only two adjectives or two adverbs. However, it differs from but in that but can link other parts of speech, if it occurs in conjunction with not. However, the conjunction yet never does this.

For example :

- (19. He did not work but sleep.) (2 verbs)
- 106.*He did not work yet sleep.
- (20. The person who broke that glass was not me but Ani.) (2 nouns)
- 107.*The person who broke that glass was not me but Ani.

5.2.1.3.2

Two clauses

- 108a. Monica is a fat girl yet she is very pretty.
b. Monica is a fat girl, yet she is very pretty.
109. Though I have met him several times, I still
cannot remember his name; yet he knows mine
and so it all rather embarrassing.

From the examples above, it can be concluded that clauses linked by yet can be separated by a semicolon or a comma or can occur without any intervening punctuation.

5.2.1.3.3

Two sentences or more

- 108c. Monica is a fat girl. Yet she is very pretty.
 d. Monica is a fat girl. Yet, she is very pretty.
 110. Everybody knows that our president has his own limitation. In fact everybody has his own limitations. Nobody is without limitations. Yet, when we talk about our president we forget that he is just like everybody else, as if he didn't have any limitations.

When yet links two sentences, it is not always followed by a comma. If yet is followed by a comma, it emphasizes the contrast between the two linked ideas.

5.2.1.4

Like the conjunction but, if yet links two clauses or sentences, it always stands at the beginning of the second clause or sentence.

For example :

- 103a. He promised to come, yet he never turned up.
 c.*He promised to come, he never turned up, yet.

5.2.2

Types Of Relation

The conjunction but marks two types of relations; however, yet marks only one type i.e. the adversative relation. Furthermore, it can only mark one subtype of this type, that is denial of expectation.¹⁾ Thus, it only links a presupposition carrying idea and a surprise

1) see But page 16

idea, and the presupposition needs our knowledge of the world.

For example :

(31. Bill is tall, but He's no good at basketball.)

104. Bill is tall, yet he's no good at basketball.
p. c. i. s. i.

(32. Alex is rich but dumb.)

105. Alex is rich yet dumb.
p.c.i. s.i.

From the examples above we can see that in this case the conjunction yet functions in exactly the same way as the conjunction but because it can replace but in this usage.

However, although the sentences look the same, the two conjunctions convey different shade of meaning; some experts feel that the conjunction yet tends to indicate more surprising and that the second statement should be impossible, while the conjunction but tends to show the contrast between the two ideas.

For example :

106a. All the figures were correct; but the total came out wrong.2)

b. All the figures were correct; they had been checked. Yet the total came out wrong.3)

The conjunction yet in the example above shows more the feeling of the speaker or the writer that the impossibility occurs. All the figures had been checked and they were all correct; so, it was impossible that the total was wrong. However, the fact was the other way round. Thus the surprise idea is more surprising; whereas but lacks this feeling. But just shows the contrast.

2) paraphrased from Cohesion In English p. 250

3) *ibid*

However, some experts think that it is because yet often gets a strong stress and it often occurs with an adverb still; and these two things give yet to tend to indicate the second statement more surprising. However, whether yet itself has this effect or not, it still needs further investigation.

CHAPTER SIX

NEVERTHELESS - NONETHELESS

6.0

This chapter concerns itself with the conjunctions nevertheless and nonetheless. They are discussed together here because they have the same nature and characteristics, and they can be used interchangeably.

Their distribution is quite different from the previous conjunctions, except the sentence connectors however and though, for nevertheless and nonetheless belong to the sentence connector group. However, even though the conjunctions nevertheless and nonetheless are almost the same as the sentence connector however and though, they still have some dissimilarities.

6.1.

The Nature Of The Words Nevertheless And Nonetheless

In English the words nevertheless and nonetheless can occur only as conjunctions, because their function is to link two ideas. However, sometimes if they appear together with other concessive conjunctions, they can be used to emphasize the contradiction between the two ideas.

As conjunctions, we can group them with the sentence connector group, for they have all the characteristics of this group; they can occur at the beginning, middle, or the end of the second idea.

For example :

- 107a. They haven't very much money. Nevertheless, they hope to be able to do some travelling.
- b. They haven't very much money. Nonetheless, they hope to be able to do some travelling.
- c. They haven't very much money. They hope nevertheless to be able to do some travelling.
- d. They haven't very much money. They hope nonetheless to be able to do some travelling.

6.2

The Characteristics Of Nevertheless And Nonetheless

6.2.0

The conjunctions nevertheless and nonetheless have the following characteristics :

6. 2.1.

Like the other concessive conjunctions, the conjunctions nevertheless and nonetheless can only link two ideas at a time.

For example :

- 108a. I am extremely busy at the moment. Nevertheless,
one idea
I shall try to attend the class.
one idea
- b. I am extremely busy at the moment. Nonetheless,
one idea
I shall try to attend the class.
one idea

6.2.2

Those linked ideas should in the forms of clauses or sentences of the same level. Thus they are the same as the sentence connector however and though.

For example :

- 109a. He hadn't been invited. Nevertheless, he arrived
at the party. (2 sentences)
- b.. He hadn't been invited; nevertheless, he arrived
at the party. (2 clauses)

- c. He hadn't been invited. Nonetheless, he arrived at the party. (2 sentences)
- d. He hadn't been invited; nonetheless, he arrived at the party. (2 clauses)

6.2.3

Like the other sentence connectors, these two conjunctions must occur in the second clause or sentence.

For example :

- 110a. The book was very long; nevertheless, I read it
first second
quickly.
- b. The book was very long; nonetheless, I read it
first second
quickly.
- c.*Nevertheless the book was very long; I read it
first second
quickly.
- d.*Nonetheless the book was very long; I read it
first second
quickly.

6.2.4

As sentence connectors these two conjunctions can occur in the initial, medial or final position of the second idea.

For example :

- 111a. The sky was cloudy; nevertheless, we went for a walk.
- b. The sky was cloudy; we nevertheless went for a walk.
- c. The sky was cloudy; we went for a walk nevertheless.
- 112a. The sky was cloudy; nonetheless, we went for a walk.
- b. The sky was cloudy; we nonetheless went for a walk.
- c. The sky was cloudy; we went for a walk nonetheless.

From the examples above it can be concluded that these conjunctions have similar characteristics to the other sentence connectors, especially to the sentence connector however; the placement of these conjunctions influences the degree of the contradiction of those linked ideas.¹⁾

6.2.5

From the examples 111 and 112, we can conclude that the punctuation is different from that which occurs with the conjunction however. When the sentence connectors nevertheless or nonetheless occur in the middle of or at the end of a sentence, they usually do not have a comma preceding or following them. The sentence connector however always has a comma, and the sentence connector though usually has too.

For example :

- 111a. The sky was cloudy; nevertheless, we went for a walk.
- 112a. The sky was cloudy; nonetheless, we went for a walk.
- The sky was cloudy; however, we went for a walk.
- 111b. The sky was cloudy; we nevertheless went for a walk.
- 112b. The sky was cloudy; we nonetheless went for a walk.
- The sky was cloudy; we, however, went for a walk.
- 111c. The sky was cloudy; we went for a walk nevertheless.
- 112c. The sky was cloudy; we went for a walk nonetheless.
- The sky was cloudy; we went for a walk, however.

Even though they experience some dissimilarities in their punctuation, they still have some similarities. The clause linked by nevertheless or nonetheless are still

1) see However page 25

cause usually if a party is unsuccessful those who attend feel unhappy. However, the speaker or writer of this sentence said that he was happy during that unsuccessful party; so what he felt contradicts our normal expectation. Thus these two conjunctions may replace the conjunction but that marks the denial of expectation relation.

For example :

(31. Bill is tall, but he's no good at basketball.)
p. c. i. s. i.

114a. Bill is tall; nevertheless, he's no good at basketball.
p. c. i. s. i.

b. Bill is tall; nonetheless, he's no good at basketball.
p. c. i. s. i.

These two conjunctions are rarely used in spoken language. They are more frequently used in written language. They are only used in formal situations by educated people. However, in the conversation of archaic English, we can find that nevertheless was often used in daily conversation.

For example :

115. "May this young man do the same !" said Angel fervently.

"But I fear otherwise, from what you say."

"We'll hope, nevertheless," said Mr. Clare.³⁾

So far, we have assumed that the conjunctions nevertheless and nonetheless are the same. However, actually they differ in three aspects. The first is their frequency. Nevertheless is still frequently used, while nonetheless is rarely used; it has almost

3) example from Tess Of D'Urberville p. 200

disappeared apart from dialectical usage. Modern people prefer nevertheless to nonetheless. The second is their forms. Nonetheless often appears in three words, none the less, while nevertheless does not. The third difference is their method of occurrence with the coordinator but. This will be discussed in chapter 8.

CHAPTER SEVEN

IN SPITE OF

7.0

The last subject for discussion here is the phrase in spite of. It comes at the end of the sequence of concessive conjunctions, because its nature is different from the others; and there are many differences between its characteristics and those of the other concessive conjunctions. Now let us see their differences.

7.1

The Nature Of In Spite Of

This phrase in spite of is not strictly speaking a conjunction, but a preposition. Randolph Quirk and Sidney Greenbaum divide English prepositions into two namely simple prepositions and complex prepositions.¹⁾ They group in spite of as a complex prepositions because according to them, complex prepositions are prepositions consisting of more than one word. In this kind of preposition, in spite of belongs to a category preposition + noun + preposition; since in is a preposition, spite is a noun and of is a preposition.

Perhaps it is more suitable to call in spite of a complex preposition than a phrasal preposition as it is referred to in some other grammar books; this avoids the potential ambiguity between the terms phrasal pre-

1) Quirk, R and S. Greenbaum (1977)

position and prepositional phrase, that is between a group of words that consists of a preposition containing many words to form a preposition, and a group of words containing one preposition word and a noun, pronoun or nominalized clause.

For example :

116. On account of his poor grades, Jack had trouble getting into college.

117. My father worked in the garden yesterday.

The underlined words in the example (116) are called a complex preposition, while those in the example (117) are a prepositional phrase.

The complex preposition in spite of is included in this thesis among the concessive conjunctions, because the semantic function of this complex preposition is conjunctive. Moreover, it can convey an idea of concession, which might be expressed in other sentence structures by the other concessive conjunctions.

For example :

118a. He kept on working in spite of his illness.

b. He kept on working, although he was ill.

7.2

The Characteristics Of In Spite Of

7.2.0

Although in spite of is grouped with complex prepositions, it has several characteristics that are the same as the other conjunctions, especially the subordinate conjunctions. Let us discuss them in detail, so that we can see the similarities and the dissimilar-

ities between in spite of and the other concessive conjunctions.

7.2.1

The first characteristic is the same as the other concessive conjunctions, because in spite of can link two ideas at a time.

For example :

119. In spite of all the work he had to do, he played
first idea second
football with his friends.
idea

All the work he had to do is the first idea, and he played football with his friends is the second.

7.2.2

The second one is the same as the subordinators however, though, although, and even though : it can also appear either in the first idea or in the second idea.

For example :

120a. In spite of the book being long, I read it
first idea second
quickly.

b. Although the book was long, I read it quickly.
first idea second idea

121a. Vanity and pride are different things, in spite
first idea
of the words being often used synonymously.²⁾
second idea

b. Vanity and pride are different things, though
first idea
the words are often used synonymously. 3)
second idea

The placement of in spite of in a sentence, whether it is in the first idea or in the second idea, does not

2) paraphrased from Pride And Prejudice

3) *ibid*

very scruffy.
idea.

b. She is a scruffy girl, in spite of being very
an idea an idea
rich.

c. *She is a scruffy girl, being very rich in spite
an idea an idea
of

7.2.5

The last characteristic is punctuation. In this case it is almost the same as the subordinators; the ideas linked by in spite of are sometimes separated by a comma.

For example :

120. In spite of the book being long, I read it quickly.

123. In spite of his illness he kept on working.

Thus, sometimes there is no punctuation intervening between these two ideas. In this respect it is rather different from the subordinators. This happens when in spite of is followed by a simple noun.

7.3

Types Of Relations

As stated above, in spite of can only convey an idea of concession. It can mark only one type of relation namely the adversative relation. Furthermore, it only marks one subtype of this type namely denial of expectation.⁴⁾ Therefore, it is only able to link two ideas, one of these must be a presupposition carrying idea and the other must be a surprise idea, the pre-

4) see But page 16

supposition of which requires our past experience.

For example :

(31. Bill is tall, but he's no good at basketball.)
p. c. i. s. i.

124. In spite of being tall, Bill is no good at
p. c. i. s. i.
basketball.

(32. Alex is rich but dumb.)
p.c.i. s.i.

125. In spite of being rich, Alex is dumb.
p. c. i. s. i.

This preposition, in spite of, is often used both in formal and informal writing, but it rarely occurs in spoken language, except in the conversation of educated British native speakers.

CHAPTER EIGHT

COOCCURRENCE OF CONJUNCTIONS

8.0

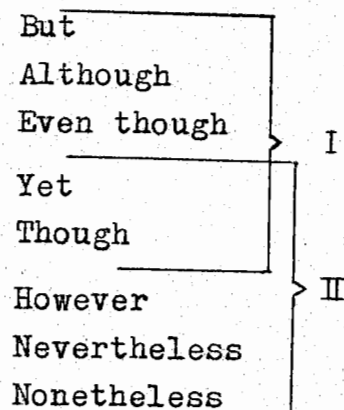
Some conjunctions can cooccur with other conjunctions to reinforce the logical relationship between the linked ideas. This is because a similar logical relationship is effected by those conjunctions.

Since this thesis deals with the concessive conjunctions, but, however, though, although, even though, nevertheless, nonetheless, yet and a complex preposition in spite of, I will try to discuss only conjunctions that can appear together with these concessive conjunctions; although some of them might sound redundant and some native speakers disapprove them.

8.1

The Functions Of Concessive Conjunctions In Combination

Not all concessive conjunctions can reinforce other conjunctions, and not all of them can be reinforced. Let us see this illustration.



Group I of the concessive conjunctions (but, although and even though) are those which cannot reinforce the other conjunctions to contrast the two linked ideas. Group II (however, nevertheless and nonetheless) may act as reinforcers. The conjunctions yet and though may reinforce or be reinforced.

This does not mean, however, that the first group of conjunctions can occur together with all of those in group II. For this reason, let us discuss the first group of conjunctions one by one.

8.2

But

8.2.0

To form combined conjunctions but may occur together with the conjunctions yet, however, nevertheless, nonetheless, and though.

8.2.1

But With Yet

But can occur together with the conjunction yet. This latter conjunction must come directly after the former.

For example :

126. He studied very hard, but yet he failed.

Here the meaning of but is reinforced by the conjunction yet, so that the contradiction between the first clause, he studied very hard, and the second, he failed, is stronger than it would be without yet.

8.2.2

But With However

In conversation or written texts of archaic English, we can find that but can be followed directly by however.

For example :

127. When she was only fifteen, there was a gentleman at my brother Gardiner's in town, so much in love with her, that my sister-in-law was sure he would make her an offer. But however he did not.¹⁾

Such combinations still occur, but the form is a little bit different. In modern English but and however may not come one after the other.

For example :

128. You can phone the doctor if you like, but I very much doubt, however, whether you will get him to come out on Saturday.²⁾

8.2.3

But With Nevertheless

But-nevertheless also occurs in written texts of archaic English and in written texts of some dialects. In this combination nevertheless occurs directly after but

For example :

- 129a. On the other hand, the successive utterances in a normal discourse, say in a dialogue or piece of connected text, rarely share the same grammatical structure, but nevertheless exhibit a highly structured situational or contextual cohesion.³⁾

Like but-however in modern English this combination is

1) example from Pride And Prejudice

2) example from A Grammar Of Contemporary English p.529

3) example from Reading In Applied Transformational Grammar p. 238

still acceptable, but but may also not be followed directly by nevertheless; they must be separated. However, some native speakers disapprove it.

For example :

130. My father was very sick, but he went to work nevertheless.

This combination rarely occurs, however. To emphasize the contradiction of the two linked ideas, people prefer to use do.

For example :

129b. On the other hand, the successive utterances in a normal discourse, say in a dialogue or piece of connected text, rarely share the same grammatical structure, but do exhibit a highly structured situational or contextual cohesion.⁴⁾

The word do in this example has the meaning of emphasizing the contradiction between the two ideas. However, syntactically, do belongs to the verb phrase of the surprise clause.

8.2.4

But With Nonetheless

The combination but-nonetheless also occurs only in written texts of some dialects. However, it sounds redundant and some native speakers disapprove it.

In this case nonetheless is rather different from nevertheless, because some native speakers say that nonetheless may occur separately or directly after but; however, some others say that it must be separated from

4) example from Reading In Applied Transformational Grammar (paraphrased) p. 238

but.

For example :

131.? These forms are still found in the Savo and Viipuri dialects and in other scattered places throughout Finland, but nonetheless these forms are also disappearing.⁵⁾

132.? Phonetically plausible rules like these may actually be postulated by some speakers in order to account for the surface alternations in regular verbs, but as a whole speakers have nonetheless tended to eliminate such alternation.⁶⁾

8.2.5

But With Though

In modern English sometimes we find but occurring together with though, especially in conversation, although it sound redundant.

For example :

133. He doesn't eat very much, but he looks healthy though.⁷⁾

But must come first and then though comes at the end of the same clause. These two conjunctions may not appear one after the other. Because if they appear one after the other, they will not produce a cooccurrence of conjunctions. Though does not function to emphasize the contradiction in this case, but rather belongs to the other clause.

For example :

134. On the other hand, the successive utterance in a normal discourse, say in a dialogue or piece of connected texts, rarely share the same grammatical structure,

5) example from Substantive Evidence In Phonology

p. 83

6) ibid (paraphrased) p. 42

7) example from A Grammar Of Contemporary English

p. 529



but

though	this is so,	III
they exhibit a highly structured situational or contextual cohesion.8)		IV

II

But relates the first part of this sentence with the second one, while though relates the third with the fourth in which they are parts of the second one.

8.3

Although And Even Though

8.3.0

The subordinators although and even though may appear together with the other concessive conjunctions, yet, nevertheless and nonetheless.

8.3.1

Although Or Even Though With Yet

Although and even though may appear together with the coordinator yet; however, it also sound redundant and some native speakers disapprove them.

If the conjunctions although and even though appear together with yet, the formers must occur in the presupposition carrying clause and the coordinator yet in the surprise clause.

For example :

135a. Although he hadn't eaten for days, yet
p. c. i.

he looked healthy.
s. i.

b. Even though he hadn't eaten for days, yet
p. c. i.

he looked healthy.
s. i.

8) example from Reading In Applied Transformational Grammar (paraphrased) p. 238

This combination can occur in writing, and it may occur in conversation.

8.3.2

Although Or Even Though With Nevertheless

Although or even though may appear together with nevertheless in written texts; however, some native speakers disapprove them. In this case nevertheless is likely to be the formal variant of the adverb anyway. For example :

- 136a. Although she was very sick, nevertheless she
p. c. i. s.
went to work.
i.
- b. Although she was very sick, she went anyway.
p. c. i. s. i.
- 137a. Even though she couldn't afford the new dress,
p. c. i.
nevertheless she bought it.
s. i.
- b. Even though she couldn't afford the new dress,
p. c. i.
she bought it anyway.
s. i.

When although and even though appear together with nevertheless, the former should stand in the presupposition carrying clause and the latter in the surprise clause.

8.3.3

Although Or Even Though With Nonetheless

The two conjunctions although and even though may occur together with nonetheless in written texts. However, some native speakers also disapprove them. In this case nonetheless is likely to be the formal variant of the adverb anyway.

For example :

In conversation of archaic English and in written texts of some dialects, we can find a combination between yet and however, or nevertheless, or nonetheless.

8.4.1

Yet With However

For example :

138. "I was so vexed to see him stand up with her; yet, however, he did not admire her at all: indeed, nobody can, you know, and he seemed quite struck with Jane as she was going down the dance".⁹⁾

8.4.2

Yet With Nevertheless

For example :

139. On the other hand, the successive utterances in a normal discourse, say in a dialogue or piece of connected text, rarely share the same grammatical structure, yet nevertheless exhibit a highly structured situational or contextual cohesion.¹⁰⁾

8.4.3

Yet With Nonetheless

For example :

139. These forms are still found in the Savo and Viipuri dialects and in other scattered places throughout Finland, yet nonetheless these forms are also disappearing.¹¹⁾
140. Phonetically plausible rules like these may actually be postulated by some speakers in order to account for the surface alternations in regular verbs, yet as a whole speakers have nonetheless tended to eliminate such alternation.¹²⁾

9) example from Pride And Prejudice

10) ibid 8

11) ibid 5 (paraphrased)

12) ibid 6 (paraphrased)

From the examples above we can see that yet usually comes directly before one of those three conjunctions, except in the case of the combination yet-nonetheless for they can be separated. However, both yet and one of those conjunctions must occur in the surprise clause.

Actually, these combinations almost never occur. people like to use only yet or but still instead, or sometimes the word do may occur before the verb of the surprise clause.

For example :

- 141. All the other illative forms are based on a short underlying vowel, yet a long vowel occurs in 'seen' and 'siin'.¹³⁾
- 138. On the other hand, the successive utterances in a normal discourse, say in a dialogue or piece of connected text, rarely share the same grammatical structure, yet do exhibit a highly structured situational or contextual cohesion.¹⁴⁾

8.5

Though

As we have stated, the conjunction though can both reinforce and be reinforced. Here we will deal with though when it is reinforced. When though appears together with the other concessive conjunctions, it must be the though that can mark the denial of expectation relation. Now let us see which other concessive conjunctions can occur together with though.

8.5.1

Though With Yet

- 13) example from Substantive Evidence In Phonology p. 79
- 14) example from Reading In Applied Transformational Grammar (paraphrased) p. 238

When though occurs together with yet, the former must accompany the presupposition carrying idea, the latter the surprise idea.

For example :

142. Though he is rich, yet he is unhappy.
p. c. i. s. i.

This combination may occur in conversation; however, it is rarely used.

8.5.2

Though With Nevertheless

It might be happened that though appears together with nevertheless in emotional writing. However, some native speakers disapprove it.

When though appears together with nevertheless, the former always occurs in the presupposition carrying idea and nevertheless in the surprise idea.

For example :

- 143a. Though she was very sick, nevertheless, she went
p. c. i. s. i.
to work.

In this case people prefer to use the adverb anyway instead of nevertheless in conversation, and the effect is the same.

For example :

- 143b. Though she was very sick, she went anyway.
p. c. i. s. i.

8.5.3

Though With Nonetheless

In emotional writing though can appear together with nonetheless; however, some native speakers prefer

not to use them.

If though appears together with nonetheless, the former must occur with the presupposition carrying idea and nonetheless with the surprise idea.

For example :

144a. Though she was very sick, nonetheless she went
p. c. i. s. i.
to work.

In this case people also prefer to use the adverb anyway instead of nonetheless in conversation and the effect is the same.

For example :

144b. Though she was very sick, she went anyway.
p. c. i. s. i.

It seems that though that can be reinforced is the variant of the subordinator although

8.6

Concessive Conjunction With The Coordinator

The only other coordinator that can occur together with a concessive conjunction is and. This is happened because the meaning of and sometimes is to contrast the presupposition given in the preceding idea with the surprise idea with which and occurs. The second reason is that the speaker or writer wants to say two things all at once, namely addition and contrast.

For example :

145. He tried, and yet he failed.
p.c.i. s.i.

From the example we can see that and must occur with the surprise idea and yet must directly follow it.

CONCLUSION

As we have observed all the characteristics and usages of the eight concessive conjunctions and one complex preposition, now it can be concluded that even though they look the same, they still have many differences.

Let us discuss first the differences between the general characteristics of each group of conjunctions. The coordinators can link two words, two clauses, and two sentences. The subordinators can link only two clauses. The sentence connectors may link two clauses, or two sentences. Those conjunctions must occur at the beginning of a clause or sentence, except the sentence connectors; the latter may occur in the middle or at the end of a clause or sentence. Furthermore, the sentence connectors and the coordinators always occur in the second idea, but the subordinators may occur in the first idea. From the levels of the linked ideas we can see that the subordinators always link a main idea and a sub idea, while the two others always link two main ideas or two sub ideas. To separate the two ideas, the subordinators need a comma, while the sentence connectors need a semicolon or a full stop. For the coordinators, however, the two ideas can be separated by a comma, semicolon, full stop or nothing.

In this thesis, we have examined three types of relations that can be marked by the eight conjunctions and one complex preposition discussed. The first is additive. This relation can only be marked by the

conjunction but.

For example :

- Bill is not only lazy but also dumb.

The second type of relation is adversative.

This type can be divided into many subtypes. The first subtype is called concession. This subtype can be divided into two, semantic opposition and denial of expectation relations. The semantic opposition relation may be marked by the coordinator but, the sentence connectors however and though.

For example :

- John is very rich, but Bill is very poor.
- John is very rich; however, Bill is very poor.
- John is very rich; Bill, however, is very poor.
- John is very rich; Bill is very poor, however.
- ?John is very rich; though, Bill is very poor.
- John is very rich; Bill, though, is very poor.
- John is very rich; Bill is very poor, though.

The second sub-subtype is the denial of expectation relation. This relation may be marked by all the concessive conjunctions but, however, though, although, even though, yet, nevertheless, nonetheless, and the complex preposition in spite of.

For example :

- The sky was cloudy, but he went for a walk.
- The sky was cloudy; however, he went for a walk.
- The sky was cloudy; he, however, went for a walk.
- The sky was cloudy; he went for a walk, however.
- The sky was cloudy; though, he went for a walk.
- The sky was cloudy; he, though, went for a walk.
- The sky was cloudy; he went for a walk, though.
- Though the sky was cloudy, he went for a walk.
- He went for a walk, though the sky was cloudy.
- However cloudy the sky was, he went for a walk.
- He went for a walk, however cloudy the sky was.
- Although the sky was cloudy, he went for a walk.
- He went for a walk, although the sky was cloudy.
- Even though the sky was cloudy, he went for a walk.
- He went for a walk, even though the sky was cloudy.
- The sky was cloudy, yet he went for a walk.

- The sky was cloudy; nevertheless, he went for a walk.
- The sky was cloudy; he(,) nevertheless(,) went for a walk.
- The sky was cloudy; he went for a walk, nevertheless.
- The sky was cloudy; nonetheless, he went for a walk.
- The sky was cloudy; he(,) nonetheless(,) went for a walk.
- The sky was cloudy; he went for a walk, nonetheless.
- In spite of being cloudy; he went for a walk.
- He went for a walk, in spite of being cloudy.

From these examples above it can be concluded that the subordinators however, though, although and even though should occur with old information, while the others must occur with new information, except the complex preposition in spite of. This preposition may occur with old information or new information, but the form must be changed in the latter case.

For example :

- In spite of being cloudy, he went for a walk.
old new
- The sky was cloudy; in spite of that he went for
old new
a walk.

Thus, when in spite of occurs with new information, it must be followed by a demonstrative pronoun which functions to point to the old information. Thus, in fact, the demonstrative pronoun here functions as old information.

However, there is still a problem, for in my observation, I have encountered some examples in which each sentence contains two concessive ideas which however, cannot be marked by all of the concessive conjunctions.

For example :

- I've got an idea; I am not sure whether you'll agree, though.

- I've got an idea, although I am not sure whether you will agree.
- I've got an idea, even though I am not sure whether you'll agree.
- I've got an idea, but I am not sure whether you'll agree.
- I've got an idea, yet I am not sure whether you'll agree.
- I've got an idea; however, I am not sure whether you'll agree.
- *I've got an idea; nevertheless, I am not sure whether you'll agree.
- *I've got an idea; nonetheless, I am not sure whether you'll agree.
- *I've got an idea, in spite of that I am not sure whether you'll agree.

In such relations we cannot use nevertheless, nonetheless, and in spite of/that. Perhaps it is because the relationship between those two ideas is not clear, so to get the reason, we have to observe it again in broader context, meaning that we cannot observe it in loose sentences.

The second subtype is the causal relation. This relation can be marked by the coordinator but, the sentence connectors however and though, which is put in the middle or at the end of the second clause.

For example :

- John wanted to be a doctor, but he failed chemistry.
- John wanted to be a doctor; however, he failed chemistry.
- John wanted to be a doctor; he, however, failed chemistry.
- John wanted to be a doctor; he failed chemistry, however.
- John wanted to be a doctor; he failed chemistry, though.
- John and Bill wanted to be a doctor; John, though failed chemistry.

The third subtype is the temporal relation. This subtype can be divided into two sub-subtypes, the first is the presupposition-surprise temporal relation and the other is the bad-negation temporal relation.

Both of these sub-subtypes may be marked by the coordinator but, the sentence connectors however and though, which is put in the middle or at the end of the second clause.

For example :

a. Presupposition-surprise temporal relation

- Last week she had an examination, but she failed.
- Last week she had an examination; however, she failed.
- Last week she had an examination; she, however, failed.
- Last week she had an examination; she failed, however.
- Last week she had an examination; she failed, though.
- Last week they had an examination; she, though, failed.

b. Bad-negation temporal relation

- John killed his wife, but he was caught.
- John killed his wife; however, he was caught.
- John killed his wife; he, however, was caught.
- John killed his wife; he was caught, however.
- John killed his wife; he was caught, though.
- John and his friend killed his wife; he, though, was caught.

From these examples above we can see that though occurs after the subject if it contrast the subject of those two ideas.

The fourth is contrastive relation. However, I think it is the same as the denial of expectation relation, so it is not discussed any longer.

The fifth is magnifying relation. This relation can also be divided into two; one subject and two subjects. This first sub-subtype can be marked only by the coordinator but; while the second may be marked by the coordinator but and the sentence connector though which is placed in final position of the clause or sentence.

For example :

a. One subject

- She didn't forget her old friend while he was away, but thought about him all the time.

b. Two subjects

- That child liked chocolate, but all children like sweet.
- That child liked chocolate, all children like sweet, though.

The third type is called changing the topic, it is because the function of a conjunction here is to cut short the previous idea or to change the previous topic. The conjunctions that work in this way are the coordinator but and the sentence connector however, which usually occurs at the beginning of a new sentence.

For example :

- I think you had no right to speak to him in that way. However, I really wanted to let you know what I think about your recent letters to me.
- I think you had no right to speak to him in that way. But I really wanted to let you know what I think about your recent letters to me.

We can see from those examples, the conjunctions but may often be replaced by however. This replacement does not change the essential meaning but it changes the tone of those sentences.

Very frequently that the ideas linked by but have a closer relationship than those linked by however, so that some writers tend to put these ideas in one sentence. Perhaps it is the reason why some English teachers teach that but may not occur at the beginning of a new sentence, pupils are instructed to use however instead.

Furthermore, there is a feeling that but is less

formal than however. In informal speech or conversation the conjunction but is more frequently used even at the beginning of a new sentence than however. Perhaps this is because the word but is more simple than however.

Apart from this, we also see that the denial of expectation relation can be marked by those eight conjunctions and one complex preposition. However, they, in fact, produce different shade of meaning. The conjunction but concentrates more on the facts of the two linked ideas and the informality of the speech situation, while however conveys a sense of formality. The subordinator though also suggests informality; its formal counterparts are although and even though; even though, however, gives more emphasis to the contrast of the two linked ideas. The conjunction yet gives a more surprising effect on the surprise idea. Finally the conjunctions nevertheless, nonetheless and the complex preposition in spite of/ that give a strong emphasis to the contrast between the two linked ideas, and used in formal situation, both in conversation and writing of educated people.

When the concessive conjunctions link two concessive ideas, they link a presupposition carrying idea and a surprise idea. Some of them can always occur in the surprise idea and some others can occur either in the presupposition carrying ideas or in the surprise idea. Those which always stand in the surprise idea are the coordinators but, yet, and the sentence connectors however, though, nevertheless and nonetheless. Those which

can stand either in the presupposition carrying idea and in the surprise one are the subordinators however, though, although, even though and the complex preposition in spite of.

Teaching Suggestions

Since I am the student of Teachers' Training Institute, I will try to give a suggestion of how to teach these conjunctions in brief.

To teach these conjunctions the teacher should give a clear explanation about these words and accompany them with clear examples. The teacher should explain their characteristics when they occur in clauses or sentences, and their kinds of relationships marked. He also should tell the students which of these conjunctions are frequently used in writing or conversation, or in formal situation or not, and the effect of the use of each conjunction.

For example :

1. Mr. Satono is clever, but his brother is stupid.
2. Mr. Satono is clever; however, his brother is stupid.
3. Mr. Satono is clever; nevertheless, his brother is stupid.

The conjunction but in the first example is used in informal conversation. However, in the second example shows that this sentence occurs in formal situation; while nevertheless in the third examples indicates that it is in formal situation, and it shows that the speaker or writer wants to give a strong emphasis to the contrast

between the two linked ideas.

Furthermore, the examples given should be presented in such a way that they will show most clearly the similarities and differences in the use of these conjunctions.

In order to give clear examples, the teacher should put them in sentences or in clear context, because the similarities and differences of these words will appear only with in a sentence or context.

For example :

a. In sentences.

- John studied sentence connectors; however, he did not learn them.
- John was standing on 52nd street; nevertheless, he could not have seen the accident.

The first sentence shows that however marks a semantic opposition relation, while the second sentence shows that nevertheless marks a denial of expectation relation.

b. In context

Alex: "John, look at that man who is sweeping the road over there."

John: "Hm m m, he's my neighbour, what's the matter with him ?"

Alex: "He sweeps the road well. No single leaf left. It seems that he likes that job."

John: "Yes, however, however he, do it, he in fact, doesn't like to do it. He still hopes for a better job."

The first however is a sentence connector which marks a semantic opposition relation that is between the ideas likes and doesn't like; whereas the

second however is a subordinator which mean in whatever way or degree.

The final technique is to translate these conjunctions or sentences from Indonesian to English or vice versa. However, this technique is rather dangerous, especially the translation from Indonesian to English, because very frequently the students will produce a wrong translation, takes an example the translation Indonesian to English :

- Meskipun Ina kaya, tetapi ia tidak cantik.
- Although Ina was rich, but she was not beautiful.

The translation of Meskipun Ina kaya, tetapi ia tidak cantik above is wrong, for in English the conjunction although cannot occur together with but, the good translation is either " Although Ina was rich, she was not beautiful," or " Ina was rich, but she was not beautiful."

Since teaching these conjunctions needs clear context, I suggest that the detail usages of these words are taught when the students have developed sufficient reading skill; therefore, they will not meet any difficulty in understanding the context which is usually given in the form of a passage.

I acknowledge that this thesis is far from being an exhaustive examination of concessive conjunctions, and eagerly await such a work. For Indonesian students in particular, concessive conjunctions present a problem. But is consistently overused, and the other conjunctions

incorrectly used. I hope my thesis may be of some help to students in identify and overcoming such problems.

CHART OF THE GENERAL CHARACTERISTICS

	Coordinators		Subordinators			Sentence Connectors			Preposition
	But	Yet	However	Though	Although Even Though	However	Though	Nevertheless Nonetheless	In spite of
The form of the linked ideas	words or clauses or sentences	words or clauses or sentences	clauses the form can be inverted	words or clauses -the form can be inverted -and can be abbreviated	clauses -the form can be abbreviated	clauses or sentences	clauses or sentences	clauses or sentences	noun or nomi- nalized clause
The occurrence in the ideas	in the surprise idea	in the surprise idea	Presupposition carrying idea or surprise idea	Presupposition carrying idea or surprise idea	Presupposition carrying idea or surprise idea	surprise idea	surprise idea	surprise idea	Presupposition carrying idea or surprise idea
The place in the clauses/ sentences	front of an idea	front of an idea	front of an idea	front or middle of an idea	front of an idea	front or middle of an idea	front or middle of an idea	front or middle of an idea	front of an idea
Punctuations between the linked ideas	— — — , — — . —	— — — , — — . —	— , —	— , —	— , —	— ; — — . —	— ; — — . —	— ; — — . —	— — — , —
The commas needed for them		In the begin- ning of a new sentence it can be followed by a comma — . yet , —				At the begin- ning H, In the middle — , H , — At the end — , H	At the begin- ning T, — In the middle — , T , — At the end — , T	At the begin- ning N, — In the middle — , N , — At the end — , N	

CHART OF TYPE RELATIONS I

types	subtypes	sub-subtype
additive	-	-
adversative	concession	semantic apposition
	contrast	denial of expectation
	causal relation	-
	temporal relation	presupposition-surprise relation
	magnifying relation	bad-negation relation
		one subject
changing the topic	-	two subjects
		-

CHART OF TYPE RELATION II

Types of Relations	! But	! I However	! II However	! I Though	! II Though	! Although	! even though	! yet	! Never- theless	! None- theless	! In spite of
Additive	! -not only! ! but also!	!	!	!	!	!	!	!	!	!	!
Adversative	! +	! +	! +	! +	! +	! +	! +	! +	! +	! +	! +
A. Concessive	! +	! +	! +	! +	! +	! +	! +	! +	! +	! +	! +
1. Semantic opposition	! pci B si	! pci;H, si ! pci;S, H, i ! pci;si, H	!	! pci;si, T ! pci;STi	!	!	!	!	!	!	!
2. Denial of expectation	! pci B si	! pci;H, si ! pci;S, H, i ! pci;si, H	! pci;H, si ! pci, si	! pci;si, T ! pci;STi	! pci, T si ! T pci, si	! pci, A si ! A pci, si	! pci, E si ! E pci, si	! pci Y si ! pci, Y si ! pci. Y si	! pci;N, si ! pci;S, N, i ! pci;si, N	! pci;No, si ! pci;S, No ! pci;Si, No	! pci, si ! pci, Isi
B. Causal	! pci B si	! pci;H, si ! pci;S, H, i ! pci;si, H	!	! pci;si, T ! pci;S T i	!	!	!	!	!	!	!
C. Temporal	! +	! +	!	! +	!	!	!	!	!	!	!
1. Presupposition-surprise Temporal	! pci B si	! pci;H, si ! pci;S, H, i ! pci, si, H	!	! pci;si, T ! pci;S T i	!	!	!	!	!	!	!
2. bad-negation Temporal	! bad B neg	! bad;H, neg ! bad;S, H, neg ! bad;neg, H	!	! bad;neg, T ! bad;neTg	!	!	!	!	!	!	!
D. Magnifying	! +	!	!	! +	!	!	!	!	!	!	!
1. one subject	! base Bmag	!	!	!	!	!	!	!	!	!	!
2. two subjects	! base Bmag	!	!	! base; m, T	!	!	!	!	!	!	!
Changing the topic	! pci. B si	! pci. H, si	!	!	!	!	!	!	!	!	!

CHART OF COOCCURENCE OF CONJUNCTIONS

Reinforced Reinforcer	But	Although	Even though	Yet	Though	and
Yet	<u>pci</u> , B Y <u>si</u>	A <u>pci</u> , Y <u>si</u>	E <u>pci</u> , Y <u>si</u>		T <u>pci</u> , Y <u>si</u>	<u>pci</u> a Y <u>si</u>
Though	<u>pci</u> B <u>si</u> T ()					
However	<u>pci</u> B H <u>si</u> <u>pci</u> B <u>si</u> , H			<u>pci</u> ; Y, H, <u>si</u>		
Nevertheless	<u>pci</u> B N <u>si</u> <u>pci</u> B <u>s</u> N <u>i</u>	A <u>pci</u> , (N) <u>si</u> , N	E <u>pci</u> , (N) <u>si</u> , N	<u>pci</u> , Y N <u>si</u>	T <u>pci</u> , (N) <u>si</u> , N	
Nonetheless	<u>pci</u> B No <u>si</u> <u>pci</u> B <u>s</u> No <u>i</u>	A <u>pci</u> , (N) <u>si</u> No	E <u>pci</u> , (N) <u>si</u> , No	<u>pci</u> , Y No <u>si</u> <u>pci</u> , Y <u>s</u> No <u>i</u>	T <u>pci</u> , (N) <u>si</u> , No	

Charts' notes :

1. A = Although
2. a = and
3. B = But
4. E = Even though
5. H = However
6. I = In spite of
7. m/mag = magnifying idea
8. N = Nevertheless
9. neg = negation idea
10. No = Nonetheless
11. pci = presupposition carrying idea
12. si = surprise idea
13. T = Though
14. Y = Yet

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