The Motivation for Using Detached Participial Clauses in English

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1. Introduction

Sentences like (1) are commonly used in written English:

(1) Driving down a back road on Cape Cod on a July evening three years ago I saw an unwelcome blue flash in my rearview mirror.

(Newsweek, April 16, 2012, p. 28)

In this study, the term “detached participial clause” (hereafter DP) is used for the underlined clause. Although this term is not typically used, its functional neutrality—i.e., it does not imply an adverbial or adjectival function—is favorable for the scope of this study, which includes so-called non-restrictive participial clauses such as the underlined clause in (2), where the participial clause modifies the noun phrase adjectivally:

(2) ..., Serb forces had effectively erased history as they destroyed Bosnia’s National Library, built during the waning days of the Austro-Hungarian Empire.

(Newsweek, April 9, 2012, p. 19)

The DP conveys various semantic meanings, but it is not always clear which meaning a DP actually expresses. In spite of this semantic ambiguity, DPs are used frequently in journalistic articles, which presumably endeavor to report news correctly to readers. This suggests that the motivation for using them derives from other than semantic reasons.

The purpose of this study is to answer the question, “What motivates writers to use DPs in English?” A spectrum of examples of the
DP have been collected from *Newsweek* and *TIME* to reduce the possibility of using examples whose usage is specific to a certain writer.

In this study, I argue that the motivation for using DPs comes from construing two situations as "one situation." By "one situation," I mean that two situations expressed by a DP and a matrix clause have successivity or instantaneity in conscious experience, except in cases where the two clauses describe two aspects of one situation. Section 2 discusses the temporal relation between the two clauses and shows that the DP does not always have temporal proximity to the matrix clause. In Section 3, I suggest another temporal proximity characteristic of DPs: time in conscious experience. Section 4 treats the writers’ motivation in three groups: (i) cases where the successivity is due to the two events occurring successively in the physical world, (ii) cases where the successivity is due to unconscious processes, and (iii) cases where the two clauses describe two aspects of one situation.

2. Tenseless Feature

Radden and Dirven (2007: 202) write: "Notions of time may be coded in language lexically ... and/or grammatically by one of the tenses .... When a language has tense, this means that its speakers must express the time of each independent situation." Although a DP does describe a situation, it is tenseless even when the situation has a specific time of occurrence. A reason for this could be that writers see the situation described by the DP as dependent on the matrix clause and construe the two situations as a single one. If this is the case, what kind of dependence do writers recognize between them? Given the fact that participles are tenseless, the most likely answer is temporal dependence. Tomozawa (2003) and Hayase (2002) insist that any meaning of the DP has simultaneity with the matrix clause. However, this view does not seem adequate. As will be shown below, DPs can describe various kinds of time intervals in relation to the matrix clauses.

2.1. Temporal Interpretation

The first candidate for temporal interpretation of the detached pres-
ent participle is simultaneity with the matrix clause. Take the verb *look*, for example. We can look at something while speaking, eating, walking, or doing most other activities.

(3) Looking deep into his eyes, she inquires, “Do you mean really, really marry you?” (“TILL DEPOSITIONS DO US PART,”) *TIME*, December 7, 1997

When the verb lacks tense in the participial form, as in (3), its nature of doability evokes the interpretation of overlapping simultaneity with the matrix clause. In the absence of other clues, this is the most explicit and accessible source for attaining temporal stability.

The same is true of most past participles, but not all. There are some that are associated with specific points of time in the past when the events are known to have occurred; typically, participles indicating birth or production:

(4) Born in 1948, he is a thoroughgoing Englishman—donnish in his scholarship and vivid in his writing.

(*TIME*, April 16, 2012, p. 40)

When readers encounter the past participle *born*, they naturally imagine a reasonable, if not exact, time interval between the two clauses; for example, a few decades for an adult. Although in our example there is a temporal adverbial, *in 1948*, the past participle *born* has itself the force to make readers imagine a passage of some length of time. This shows that verbs themselves can also provide clues for understanding time intervals between the two clauses.

Moreover, when an interpretation of overlapping simultaneity is not reasonable from the context, readers will recognize that there is a time interval. In (5), it clearly takes a few seconds to walk from the door to the radio.

(5) Entering the room, I switched [on] the radio.

(Hayase 2002: 175)

Time intervals are not restricted to such small values as in (5).

(6) Leaving for Geneva with word only that there would be “a
good chance to get something,” Kennerly found on his arrival that he would be the sole photojournalist allowed to observe Reagan and Gorbachev during their meetings .... (“A Letter from the Publisher,” TIME, December 2, 1985, p. 9)

In (6), he must have traveled by airplane, and the time interval between leaving and arriving is hours. These examples demonstrate that a situational relation between the two clauses can also provide a clue for understanding a time interval between them.

Much longer intervals can be described when temporal adverbials are used. In (7), the time interval between the two situations is months:

(7) Setting sail for the island in the fall of 1740, he reached his destination in the spring of 1741. (Stump 1985: 97)

With the help of temporal adverbials, DPs can describe various kinds of time intervals to the matrix clauses. The important point is that when DPs contain clues for understanding time intervals, the form of a perfect participle, which will be discussed next, is not necessarily required to show a time interval.

2.2. Perfect Participle

Tomozawa (2003) and Hayase (2002) claim that the notion of simultaneity is valid even for the case of the perfect participle. They argue on the grounds that because it expresses perfective aspect, the result of the event described by it remains at its reference time, which is usually equal to the time of the matrix clause. Yet the interpretation of perfective aspect is not always possible, posing a problem to their claim. Radden and Dirven (2007: 206), for example, state that whereas the present perfect always has aspectral meaning, the other perfect forms (the past perfect and the future perfect) basically do not contain aspectrality but only indicate anteriority. The latter is also true of the perfect participle.

In principle, the present perfect is not used “with words that refer to a completely finished period of time” (Swan 2005: 441). For example, be born cannot be used in the present perfect form. Mayor (2009: 181)
writes: "Do not say ... 'I have been born'." The DP in the perfect form *having been born* is, however, possible, as in (8), where the perfect participle does not express perfective aspect but only anteriority.

(8) He is now 73, having been born near Vicenza in northern Italy in 1904, and he was one of the first abstract painters in New York in the 1930s .... ("Veiled in a Strong White Light," *TIME*, June 6, 1977, p. 41)

Next, let us discuss cases where no temporal adverbial is attached to perfect participles.

(9) a. Eating a hearty breakfast, we prepared for our long journey.
   b. Having eaten a hearty breakfast, we prepared for our long journey.

(9a) and (9b) are examples from Quirk et al. (1985: 238), illustrating how the perfect participle expresses overlapping simultaneity with the matrix clause, as in (9a), or how it expresses anteriority, as in (9b). Quirk et al. (1985: 238) write: "[f]rom [(9a)], we understand that the eating and the preparation took place together, while from [(9b)], we understand that the breakfast preceded the preparation." When a simple participle expresses overlapping simultaneity with the matrix clause, as in (9a), it becomes necessary to employ the perfect form to express a time interval between them. We may say this is the main purpose of using the perfect participle. Example (10) corresponds to this case:

(10) Having destroyed the evidence, he was confident that he wouldn't be arrested. (Hayase 2002: 169)

If the perfect form is replaced by *Destroying*, the DP temporally overlaps with the matrix clause, because it was possible for him to feel confident that he wouldn't be arrested while destroying it.

Finally, let us look at a case where a perfect participle expresses aspectuality but its reference time is not equal to that of the matrix clause.

(11) The martini is to modern American literature and lore what mead wine was to Norse sagas or claret to 18th-century English literature. Dorothy Parker was perhaps its leading laure-
ate, having given us the immortal quatrain:

\[
\begin{align*}
I & \text{ like to drink a Martini} \\
& \text{But only two at the most.} \\
& \text{Three I'm under the table,} \\
& \text{Four I'm under the host.}
\end{align*}
\]

(Newsweek, March 26 & April 2, 2012, p. 17)

Since her quatrain in (11) is still well known, the proper interpretation is that the perfect participle corresponds to the present perfect: its reference time is the time of writing, or now.\(^2\)

3. Time in Conscious Experience

3.1. Another Temporal Proximity

We have seen that the DP does not always bear temporal proximity to the matrix clause. However, there may be a problem in this understanding of temporal proximity: we presuppose time in the physical world; i.e., we understand temporal relation in terms of the time when events occurred or states existed.

Take (12), for example. It could be said that the two situations in (12) have temporal proximity in the physical world because they are atemporal. However, the example suggests an additional kind of temporal proximity the DP can indicate.

(12) Surrounded by gardens and woodland, Stormont [i.e., the parliament buildings of The Northern Ireland Assembly] draws locals who go to walk, breathe the fresh air and enjoy mountain views, wetlands, wildlife, flower beds and beautiful lawns. (TIME, April 2, 2012, p. 56)

Any reader will feel the connection between the DP and the matrix clause in (12) to be natural. Some may have visited nearby parks to enjoy flowers, while others may have watched TV coverage of famous gardens inundated with visitors. They are so familiar with such scenes that they can relate the two clauses in (12) with almost no time for thinking about the relation. This instantaneity in understanding can be related to the temporal feature of the DP.

Let us consider (12) from the writer’s point of view. The writer
might have found that there are many visitors whose purpose is not to visit the parliament buildings but to enjoy the outside area. At the moment she shifted her attention to thinking about the reason, she might have been hit by the idea that the buildings are surrounded by attractive gardens and woodlands. This instantaneity in arriving at reasons suggests another temporal feature of the DP. If consciousness is taken into account, the DP has temporal proximity to the matrix clause in the sense of time in conscious experience.¹

3.2. Successivity in Conscious Experience

Psychologist Baars explains conscious experience by using a “theater metaphor.” Baars (1997a: 41–7) compares the working memory of consciousness to a theater stage. The spotlight on the stage corresponds to the focus of consciousness, or attention. The players and the audience correspond respectively to contents of conscious experience (or “inputs” into consciousness²) and a vast number of unconscious mechanisms. The audience can only see the player in the spotlight. Once the spotlight of attention shifts to one of the inputs, its information is broadcast to unconscious mechanisms. We can only consciously focus our attention on the inputs one by one, whereas the input in the spotlight of attention is processed in parallel by unconscious mechanisms (Baars 1997b: 295). In addition, these unconscious processes are triggered automatically by whatever input comes to the attention of consciousness (p. 305).

Consequently, in the case of one input into consciousness and one reaction of an unconscious process to that input, if the process requires almost no time, paying attention to the input leads to an instantaneous reaction from the process. For example, when people see or hear the words Roman Holiday, many of them will immediately be reminded of Audrey Hepburn. In this case, the film title is an input into consciousness through outer senses, and the actress’ name, whose linkage to the film is stored in memory systems, is instantaneously raised to consciousness by unconscious processes. This successivity or instantaneity resembles the experience of receiving two sensory inputs successively. The difference is that the successivity of the latter is due
to the two events occurring successively in the physical world, whereas that of the former is due to unconscious processes.

4. Construal as One Situation

4.1. Two Inputs

4.1.1. Two Successive Inputs

To describe what writers were or are seeing is a typical usage of the DP, as in (1). It is true that the two situations described in (1) have simultaneity: when the subject *I* saw a blue flash, he was still driving. In terms of conscious experience, however, it is almost impossible to focus attention on both of the situations at exactly the same time. The writer’s attention shifted *successively* from driving, or looking ahead, to a blue flash in the mirror. This is true of (13) where DPs are used for describing what is depicted in a picture:

(13) His pose—one arm raised, brandishing a palette knife, and the other hanging loosely, holding the palette—is exactly that of the *Apollo Belvedere*, the epitome of refined classicism.

*(Newsweek, August 15, 2011, p. 46)*

In (13), we feel the movement of the writer’s attention—from one arm with a knife to the other with the palette. Even in the case of a still picture, where every part of it exists at exactly the same time, we cannot grasp the whole picture instantaneously. The focused area of attention is so small that we cannot see all the details of a scene in front of us at the same time.

4.1.2. Two Situations Considered As Successive

Certain common features can be found in cases where two situations are considered as successive even when there is a time interval between them.

(14) The collision—Dedmon’s headlights glowing on Anderson’s shirt, the truck accelerating over a curb, and Anderson disappearing beneath it—was caught on a security camera and later broadcast worldwide....

*(Newsweek, April 16, 2012, p. 21)*
In (14), the scene is named collision, which means that the writer construes the series of events as one event existing as a coherent semantic unit.

There is often a purpose or goal underlying the situations described by a DP and a matrix clause. The two clauses usually express a set of means and purpose, or a set of start and goal.

(15) Going where no first lady has gone before, Michelle Obama plans to get sweaty with strangers in the East Room.  
\textit{(Newsweek, April 9, 2012, p. 7)}

In (15), the DP expressed a means Michelle Obama uses for the purpose of getting sweaty with strangers.

(16) In the aftermath, the FBI conducted more than 200 interviews, charging Dedmon and two others ....  
\textit{(Newsweek, April 16, 2012, p. 18)}

In (16), it is clear that the FBI conducted interviews with the goal of charging the suspects of a crime. It is rather easy to understand that situations containing a means and a purpose have successivity, in that an event as a means is usually continued or repeated until the purpose is achieved.

Examples (6) and (17) illustrate cases where a DP expresses a starting event for a goal, which is usually described by the matrix clause:

(17) Leaving the lodge, as they strolled together down a forest path on the way to their car, Nitze passed to Kvitsinsky a typed document. ("The Nitze Approach: Hard Line, Deft Touch," \textit{TIME}, January 31, 1983, p. 14)

Situations that express a start and a goal can have a longer time interval between them; for example, hours in (6). However, something will connect the start and goal, as is clearly shown in (17). After leaving the lodge, they strolled until they got to the car. Although they might have stopped once or twice on the way, this activity of walking would not come to an end until they reached the goal. In the same way, in (6), the activity of flying connected Kennerly’s leaving the start point and
his arriving at the goal.

Whenever we do something, we always have a purpose or goal—from an easy one to a time-consuming one. What occurs between the start and the goal is a monotonous activity, a typical one being locomotion: walking, driving, flying, and so on. This monotonous, basic activity consumes various durations of time. However, by shifting attention only to the salient events, events at both its start and end, and cutting off the basic activity, we could view the salient events as occurring successively. Therefore, example (7) could also be viewed as successive, although the time interval is months. Similarly, we might also view our life as a monotonous, basic activity. In this case, birth, academic background, and so on, can be considered to be salient events that most people have in common. This would lead to the discussion on characteristic situations in 4.2.2.

4.2. One Input and One Reaction
4.2.1. Cause-and-Effect Relationship

When the DP and the matrix clause express a cause-and-effect relationship, the two situations are almost inevitably connected based on writers' knowledge. Whether the matrix clause describes a cause or a result largely depends on which of the two follows the main flow of the text. However, in most cases it is possible to understand that the situation described by the DP is an instantaneous reaction to the input described by the matrix clause.

When results already exist as facts, it is natural to think about their causes or reasons from the results.

(18) Lacking advertising, the Floriade [i.e., a flower festival in Holland] is less well known in the U.S., and the contingent of American visitors is small. (Newsweek, April 16, 2012, p. 50)

Lacking advertising might not mean that there were no advertisements, but rather that advertising was not enough to make it well known to the American people. Anyone knows that the more advertisements are placed for something, the better known that thing would be, but it is
difficult to judge at the beginning whether advertising is enough or not to accomplish the goal. However, it is rather easy to judge from the result: if it is not well known, this means that advertising was not enough. Therefore, in (18), *Lacking advertising* can be an instantaneous reaction from unconscious processes.

In the following example, the DP is used on the basis of the information described by the preceding sentences:

(19) “The campaign is a farce. The candidates aren’t talking about the real subjects like employment or debt because they don’t have solutions,” says Hamid Senni ....

Sensing the public’s discontent, Sarkozy has in the past few days shifted tack to introduce more substance and less rhetoric.

(19) “The campaign is a farce. The candidates aren’t talking about the real subjects like employment or debt because they don’t have solutions,” says Hamid Senni ....

Sensing the public’s discontent, Sarkozy has in the past few days shifted tack to introduce more substance and less rhetoric.

*TIME*, April 23, 2012, p. 31

When the writer noticed that Sarkozy had changed his tack, it might have easily triggered the idea that it was due to the public’s discontent. It is unlikely he heard that Sarkozy had sensed the public’s discontent, but anyone who knows the background may be sure that Sarkozy had.

When DPs are used to express a resultative meaning, they describe what were or are inevitably expected as results from the causes described by the matrix clauses. This does not mean that DPs are used only when consequential situations had or have not yet occurred. If the results already exist as facts, the DPs imply that the results match the inevitable expectations.

(20) When the global economy heats up, demand for oil rises, boosting the price and encouraging producers to pump more.

*TIME*, April 9, 2012, p. 28

(21) In recent years, slabs of mortar have fallen off the Colosseum, Rome’s nearly 2,000-year-old amphitheater, endangering tourists.

*TIME*, April 2, 2012, p. 48

In these examples, cause-and-effect relationships are so simple that on reading the matrix clauses, even readers would immediately comprehend ideas that are roughly the same as written in these DPs.
Consequential facts described by DPs often coincide with evaluations—how good or bad they are. Relative evaluations, such as *extremely bad*, can immediately be expected from causal situations. As for absolute evaluations, however, it is almost impossible for causal situations to trigger instantaneous reactions that include hard numbers: for example, an exact number of casualties. In (22), the DP expresses an absolute evaluation by using a hard number:

(22) The economic crisis doesn’t seem to have affected the king. His wealth has doubled over the past five years, making him the world’s seventh-richest monarch, with a fortune estimated at $2.5 billion. \(\text{[Ne‌‌wsweek, April 9, 2012, p. 35]}\)

A case in point is the use of *killing*, which is widely used in articles about accidents, as in (23):

(23) The worst accident in flying history took place when two packed 747 jetliners collided on a runway on Tenerife in the Canary Islands in 1977, killing 583 people.

("Too Close Encounters," \(\text{[}\)) \(\text{TIME, March 27, 2000}\)

In (23), what can immediately be expected from the fact described by the matrix clause is that there must have been a considerable number of casualties. In (22) and (23), an instantaneous relative evaluation of the fact described by the matrix clause motivated the writers to use a DP for the description of the result, and then the hard evidence was introduced to describe the result as a fact.

4.2.2. Characteristic Situation

Persons or things normally trigger associated memories. Characteristic attributes of persons or things include, for example, name, information about birth or production, academic background, occupation, and location. When people meet persons or experience things for the first time, they might immediately become interested in learning such characteristic attributes of them. This also happens when people read. Therefore, when the contents of such attributes are to be expressed in sentences, this instantaneity can motivate writers to use DPs.
(24) In early 2010, she shot the thriller *Dream House* opposite Daniel Craig, also known as the 21st century James Bond.  
(*TIME*, April 2, 2012, p. 53)

In (24), the name *Daniel Craig* might immediately remind even some readers that he currently plays James Bond.

(25) Alsop was a giant in a long-lost era of print journalism. He and Stewart, his younger brother and sometime writing partner, were children of Northeastern privilege. Eleanor Roosevelt was a first cousin. Educated at Harvard and Yale, respectively, the Alsops wrote newspaper prose with Henry James-ian flourish and a self-assertiveness born of noblesse oblige.  
(*Newsweek*, March 26 & April 2, 2012, p. 55)

In (25), the underlined DP provides not only the Alsops’ characteristic attribute but also a successive event extending from their childhood to the time of their becoming journalists, as we have seen in 4.1.2. In addition, it answers the readers’ expectations. The fact that the Alsops were children of privilege and Eleanor Roosevelt was their first cousin is certain to make readers expect that they would have graduated from prestigious universities, and things went as expected. On this point, too, the writer was motivated to use the DP.

Table 4.1 shows the frequency of references to characteristic attribute.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clause type</th>
<th>Verbs (Number of tokens)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Detached past participle</td>
<td>known(5), built(4), called(4), made(3), published(3), dated(2), founded(2), born(1), created(1), dubbed(1), employed(1), handcrafted(1), held(1), hired(1), launched(1), produced(1), said(1), sited(1), titled(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>—Total: 35 (85%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B1. Non-restrictive relative clause (Passive voice)</td>
<td>based(1), born(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>—Total: 2 (5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B2. Non-restrictive relative clause (Active voice)</td>
<td>call(2), christen(1), rename(1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>—Total: 4 (10%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A: Detached past participle is located right after the NP it modifies.  
B1: Relative clause is in passive voice and the antecedent is the subject of its VP.  
B2: Relative clause is in active voice and the antecedent is the object of its VP.
butes—name, information about birth or production, academic background, occupation, and location—by using detached past participles and non-restrictive relative clauses in the examples collected for this study. From Table 4.1 we find that there is a clear tendency to use detached past participles for the purpose of providing the contents of characteristic attributes of noun phrases.

4.2.3. Violation

With reference to violation in conscious experience, Baars (1997a: 118) writes: “Violations of expectations ... can cause a part of the unconscious context to become conscious and reportable.” In other words, when an input into consciousness violates contextual consistency or expectation in unconsciousness, the violated content instantaneously surfaces to consciousness. This instantaneity can motivate writers to use DPs for describing the violated content. In respect of consistency, this type is diametrically opposed to those discussed so far, but from the viewpoint of the successivity or instantaneity in conscious experience, there is no difference whatsoever between them.

The DP of a concessive meaning corresponds to this type.

(26) Discovered almost by accident, the substance has revolutionized medicine. (Quirk et al. 1985: 1271)

It might seem that the DP in (26) provides a characteristic attribute, but the fact described by the matrix clause causes surprise, given the accidental discovery of the substance.

In (26), it is rather easy to understand that the DP describes the violated content. This is because the required presupposition is included in our ordinary knowledge of the world. However, this is not always the case. There are instances when providing violated contents only by means of DPs is not enough for readers to fully understand the required presuppositions, as in (27):

(27) A recent report in The New England Journal of Medicine showed that amantadine, a previously approved medication, might have a new use. Originally prescribed to prevent
influenza during outbreaks, it also accelerates improvement in patients with traumatic brain injury.

(Newsweek, April 9, 2012, p. 10)

If the first sentence is not provided, readers might interpret the second one as consistent; i.e., they might think it is common that a medicine for a certain disease is effective for others. However, with the help of the first sentence, which indicates that finding a new use of a medicine is worth a report, they can understand that the situation described by the matrix clause in the second sentence is an unexpected and surprising result.

Not surprisingly, this type of DP seems to be seldom used in practice, at least in journalism. In the 498 examples collected for this study, example (27) is the only case. This is probably because correctly conveying inconsistent situations by using DPs is not as easy as conveying consistent ones.

4.3. Two Aspects of One Situation

Finally, we look now into cases where a matrix clause and a DP describe two aspects of one situation. This claim is basically the same as those made by other researchers, such as Tomozawa (2003) and Hayase (2002). What is used in a matrix clause is a generalized or schematized expression of the situation described by the DP, which is located at the end of the sentence:

(28) Rodríguez has tried his best, sending 88 résumés to organizations that might require some economics research, but he hasn’t gotten a single offer. (TIME, April 16, 2012, p. 24)

When the level of abstraction is raised, the expression of a matrix clause can be figurative or metaphorical:

(29) Single-aisle jets carrying between 120 and 200 passengers, like the 737, are the sweet spot of the airplane business for both Boeing and its European rival Airbus, generating a large part of their profits. (Newsweek, March 26 & April 2, 2012, p. 37)
We may say the characteristic of this type is that the matrix clauses express writers' ways—sometimes unique and special to them—of construing concrete facts described by DPs. Matrix clauses are closely connected to DPs, so that even in this type there might be successivity or instantaneity: the former trigger the latter, or vice versa.

5. Conclusion

If we presuppose time in the physical world, we come to the conclusion that DPs express various kinds of time intervals relative to the matrix clauses. However, if we take into account time in conscious experience, we can see successivity or instantaneity connecting them.

As I have argued, successivity in conscious experience and construing two situations as one situation are occasions that can motivate writers to use DPs. However, it does not necessarily mean that writers will always use them in those circumstances. Whether they use DPs or not depends on their authorial choice. They can choose to use subordinate clauses instead in order to give logical explanation. In this sense, we may say that the DP is a style for expressing the successivity in conscious experience directly by words.

What contributes to instantaneous reactions from unconscious processes is a kind of knowledge that is quite easily associated with inputs into consciousness. Therefore, a study on frame-like knowledge is indispensable for deeper understanding of the cause-and-effect relationship expressed by DPs. From this perspective, it is also necessary to compare them with other types of construction that express cause-and-effect relationships.

NOTES

Title

Section 1
1) In the examples throughout this study, the use of underlines is mine.
2) This terminology is used by Thompson (1983).
3) Tanaka (1998) investigates the use of DPs in the New York Times and remarks that the frequency of DPs is 0.049 (about once in 20 sentences) (p. 106). This data is based on the use of present participles only, and he notes that if past participles were included in the search target, the number of the search results would be three times as large as the above number.
4) This study treats only written English because, as is often said, the DP is characteristic of written English rather than spoken English (for example, see Thompson 1983: 45-6).
5) For this study, 498 examples of the DP have been collected through reading printed issues of Newsweek (August 15, 2011, from March 26 & April 2, 2012 to April 23 & 30, 2012) and TIME (from April 2, 2012 to April 23, 2012). Table 4.1 is based on these examples. The examples from TIME dated before 2011 have been picked from search results from the “TIME Magazine Corpus” (http://corpus.byu.edu/time/) and confirmed by the archives stored in the library of Tokyo University of Foreign Studies.

Section 2
1) This article is not in the TIME Asia edition.
2) Jespersen ([1931]/2007: 66) writes:
   ... in speaking of dead people the preterit is necessary, except when the reference is to the result as affecting the present day. Thus we may say: “Newton has explained the movements of the moon” (i.e. in a way that is still known or thought to be correct, ...

Section 3
1) Yamaoka (2005) studies detached present participles in English narratives from the perspective of discourse functions, and makes arguments on the functions of the matrix clause and the DP as follows (pp. 35, 85). From the matrix clause, the existence of the narrator can be felt, because by using a pronoun in the third person as a subject and a verb in the past tense, the cognitive act of the story character is objectified from the outside by the narrator. By contrast, from the DP, the character’s consciousness can be felt because by using a non-finite verb without a subject, the markers indicating the existence of the narrator disappear.
2) Inputs into consciousness are categorized into three groups: outer senses (e.g., seeing, hearing, feeling), inner senses (e.g., visual imagery, inner speech, imagined feelings), and ideas (Baars 1997a: 42–3).

Section 4
1) This article is not in the TIME Asia edition.
2) No DPs providing academic backgrounds are found.
3) The number of type A clauses is 106 of 179, the total number of detached past participles of all locations. The numbers of type B1 and B2 clauses are 27 and 26 respectively. Therefore, the percentages of type A, B1, and B2 clauses are 67%, 17%, and 16% respectively. It is true that in clause type A, the percentage of verbs used to
describe characteristic attributes (85%) is higher than that of clauses (67%), but it also
seems possible to argue that there is a general tendency to use detached past participles
instead of non-restrictive relative clauses, so that the result shown in Table 4.1 might be
just a reflection of this tendency. To discuss this matter, more detailed investigation into
the voice of relative clauses is required.

4) This use of the DPs is usually called exemplification or elaboration. On elaboration
in general, Halliday and Matthiessen (2004: 396) write:

In elaboration, one clause elaborates on the meaning of another by further specifying
or describing it; . . . The secondary clause does not introduce a new element
into the picture but rather provides a further characterization of one that is already
there, restating it, clarifying it, refining it, or adding a descriptive attribute or com­
ment.

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