

A Categorisation of non-clauses in Afrikaans

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Abstract

Non-clausal text units commonly occur in spontaneous speech. However, non-clauses are not restricted to speech, but can also occur in written texts. The General Afrikaans Grammar (AAG) defines a non-clause as a syntactic structure that i) is not integrated into the subject or the predicate of the clause the sentence consists of, and that ii) does not contain an explicit or implicit subject or predicate. However, the specific categories of Afrikaans non-clauses are not yet distinguished in AAG, and this task is complicated by the fact that the term “non-clause” has not been used introduced in the literature on Afrikaans syntax to date, even though some of the elements that are regarded as elements at the sentence periphery might be classified as non-clauses, as well as the fact that there is a lack of agreement in the English literature whether certain constructions are non-clauses or clauses, and clear discrepancies when the same language unit is allocated to both the non-clause category and another category. It is the aim of this paper to 1) identify the types of non-clauses that occur in Afrikaans and to 2) provide working definitions for and examples of these different types of non-clauses by conducting a corpus analysis with the definition of a non-clause as provided in AAG as a starting point. Seven main types of non-clauses are identified based on their pragmatic attributes, namely: i) forms of address, ii) impoliteness expressions, iii) politeness expressions, iv) onomatopoeia, v) discourse markers, vi) hesitators, and vii) exclamatives.

Keywords: adjunct, communicative function, fragments, non-clause, peripheral adjunct, pragmatic characterisation

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Opsomming

'n Kategorisering van nonklouse in Afrikaans

Nonklouse is kenmerkend van gesproke kommunikasie, maar dit figureer ook in geskrewe tekste. In die Algemene Afrikaanse Grammatika (AAG) word 'n nonklous gedefinieer as 'n (i) sintaktiese struktuur wat nie geïntegreer is in die subjek of die gesegde van die klous waaruit die sin bestaan nie; en (ii) wat nie 'n eksplisiete of implisiete gesegde en predikaat bevat nie. Verdere kategorieë van nonklouse word egter tans nog nie in AAG onderskei nie, en hierdie taak word bemoeilik deur die feit dat die term "nonklous" nog nie tot op hede in die literatuur oor die Afrikaanse sintaksis gebruik is nie, hoewel sommige van die elemente wat as perifere elemente beskou word, ook as nonklouse geklassifiseer sou kon word; asook die feit dat daar 'n gebrek aan ooreenstemming in die Engelse literatuur is of sekere konstruksies klouse of nonklouse is; sowel as duidelike teenstrydighede wanneer dieselfde konstruksie aan beide die nonkous en 'n ander kategorie toegeken word. Om hierdie leemte te vul, word 'n korpusondersoek gedoen waartydens Afrikaanse nonklouse geïdentifiseer word. Die geïdentifiseerde nonklouse word gegroepeer in 'n poging om (i) die verskillende tipes nonklouse wat in Afrikaans voorkom, te identifiseer; en om (ii) 'n werksdefinisie en voorbeelde vir elkeen van die verskillende tipes nonklouse te bied. Sewe kategorieë nonklouse is op grond van hul pragmatiese eienskappe geïdentifiseer: (i) aanspreekvorme, (ii) onbeleefdheidsuitdrukkings, (iii) beleefdheidsuitdrukkings, (iv) onomatopoeie, (v) diskoersmerkers, (vi) huiweringuitdrukkings, en (vii) uitroepe.

Sleutelwoorde: adjunk, fragmente, kommunikatiewe funksie, nonklouse, pragmatiese karakterisering, randadjunk

1 Introduction

The authors of this paper form part of a team of linguists working on the General Afrikaans Grammar (*Algemene Afrikaanse Grammatika*, henceforth AAG), a usage-based grammar for Afrikaans developed by the Virtual Institute for Afrikaans (<http://www.viva-afrikaans.org>) and published on their Language Teaching Portal (*Taalonderrigportaal*).

In AAG any sentence can be analysed from different perspectives, namely a) the *word class* of each word forming the sentence, b) the *form of each constituent (or phrase)* it consists of, c) the *syntactic function* of each of these constituents, as well as d) the *clause structure* of the sentence (Breed 2022). Compare the analysis of the following sentence according to these various perspectives (also see Breed 2022 for the analysis of Afrikaans-specific examples):

Table 1: Different perspectives for analysing a sentence (based on Breed 2022)

Sentence	The	book	that	you	recommended	is	at	the	top	of	the	bestseller	list
Word class	ART	N	PN	PN	V	V	PREP	ART	N	PREP	ART	N	N
Constituent (phrase)	NP.DET	NP.HEAD	NP.POSTMOD			VP.HEAD							
Syntactic function	Subject					Predicate							
Clause structure	Main clause		Dependent clause: relative clause			Main clause							

What is of note in the table above, is that a distinction is made between a sentence (in black) and a clause (in blue). In AAG, Breed *et al.* (2022) define a sentence as a linguistic unit that is syntactically independent and contains minimally one clause. In the example above the sentence indeed consists of a main clause, as well as a dependent clause. According to Breed *et al.* (2022) a clause is a language unit consisting of at least an implicit or explicit subject and predicate² with or without the presence of an adverbial. The boundaries of what is considered a sentence and a clause are thus sharply drawn in AAG based on the formal and functional features of phrasal units.

Furthermore, clear, non-ambiguous categories of the sentence and clause are distinguished in AAG, as is illustrated in Figure 1 on the next page.

Seeing that the aim of AAG is to describe all possible linguistic structures that are used in Afrikaans, the category “non-clause” is used to refer to linguistic units that a) are either used within a sentence, but are not integrated into the subject or predicate of any clause within the sentence and does not contain an explicit or implicit subject or predicate (compare example 1), or b) are independent syntactic units, i.e., units that appear independent of a sentence, in which case it is also impossible to identify an explicit or implicit subject or predicate (compare example 2).

- | | | |
|---|----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1 | Ooh, that's little. | <i>Biber et al. (1999:1084)</i> |
| 2 | Wow. | <i>Biber et al. (1999:1084)</i> |

² A predicate is regarded as the head of the predication and consists of the main verb with or without auxiliary verbs, as well as any predicate complements, for instance the direct object.

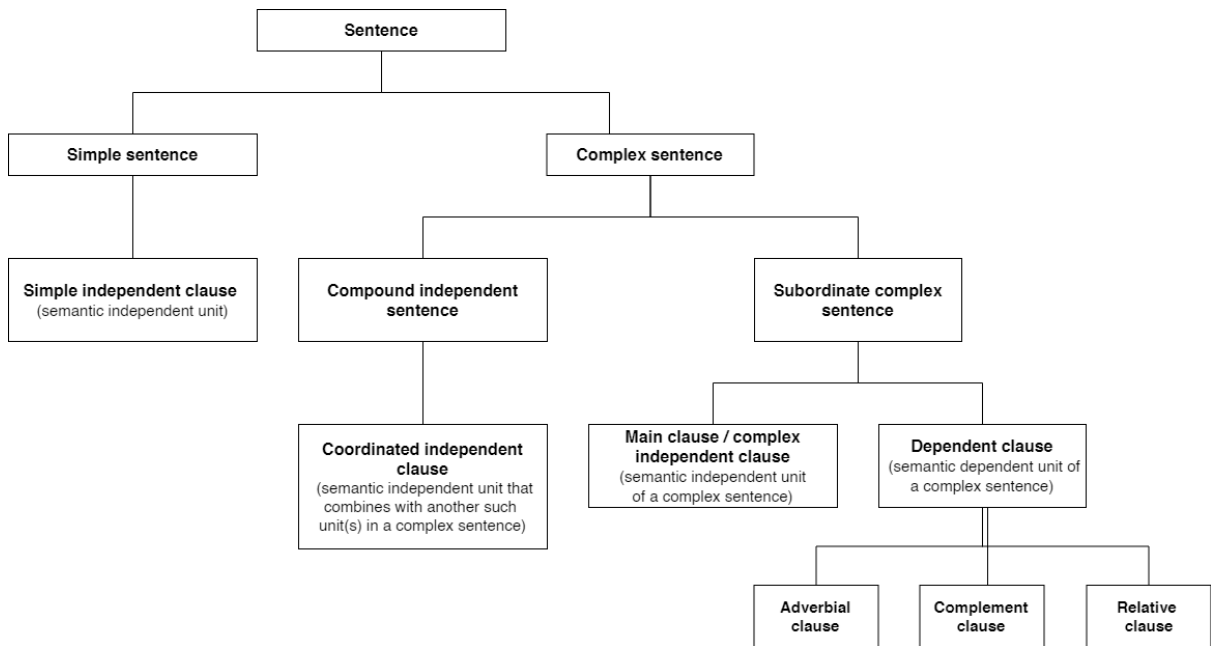


Figure 1: Types of clauses distinguished in AAG (based on Breed et al. 2022)

Table 2: The sentence structure (Breed et al. 2022)

SENTENCE						
NON- CLAUSE	CLAUSE				NON- CLAUSE	
	SUBJECT	NON- CLAUSE	FULL PREDICATION (GESEGDE)			
			PREDICATE (PREDIKAAT)			ADVERBIAL
			PREDICATOR	PREDICATE COMPLEMENT		

Table 2 clearly illustrates that the non-clause does indeed form part of the sentence, but not the clause, seeing as the clause is marked with white, even if a non-clause is used after an adverbial or after the subject (compare Table 3).

Table 3: Illustration of a non-clause used after the adverbial in an unintegrated manner (adapted from Breed et al. 2023)

SENTENCE						
Complete your work now, Jaco.						
NON- CLAUSE	CLAUSE				NON- CLAUSE	
	complete your work now					
	SUBJECT	NON- CLAUSE	FULL PREDICATION (GESEGDE)			ADVERBIAL
			PREDICATE (PREDIKAAT)			
complete your work						
PREDICATOR	PREDICATE COMPLEMENT	now				
complete	your work					

Creating a category for the non-clause in the description of sentence structure is also necessary given the abundance of “fragments” or non-clausal text units in spoken and written

language (see, for example, Roubaud and Deulofeu 2012:1; Biber *et al.* 1999:224). Non-clauses fulfil important metacommunicative functions (Dik 1997; also see Kaltenböck *et al.* 2016:9-11), namely:

- interaction management, which involves the creation and maintenance of the necessary interactional conditions for the implementation of a discourse event;
- attitude specification, which refers to the emotional or attitudinal tone with which the discourse is conveyed;
- discourse organisation, which deals with the organisation, structuring, and presentation of the content within the discourse; and
- discourse execution, which encompasses the expression of the actual content of the discourse.

However, the non-clause category in AAG has not yet been extended with examples of non-clauses, and specific categories of Afrikaans non-clauses have also not been distinguished. This is ascribed to the fact that the term “non-clause” has not been introduced in the literature on Afrikaans syntax to date. Some of the elements that are used at the periphery of a sentence and named “randbepalings” (*peripheral modifiers*) (Ponelis 1968), “randstukke” (*peripheral phrases*) (Ponelis 1979; Ponelis 1989), “adjunkte aan die sinsrand” (*adjuncts at the sentence periphery*) (Du Plessis 1982), “disjunkte” (*disjuncts*) (Van Schoor 1983) and “elemente wat in die rand van die klous staan” (*elements that appear at the periphery of the clause*) (Ponelis 1989) might, however, be classified as non-clauses, as measured against the definition of a non-clause in AAG. For example, even though Du Plessis (1982:100) classifies a language unit, such as “genugtig” (*my goodness*) which cannot be integrated into the verb phrase of the host clause as an “adjunct at the sentence periphery” (see 3 below), this language unit could very well be awarded to the non-clause category, seeing as it is a syntactic structure that does not contain an explicit or implicit subject and predicate, and cannot be integrated into a subject or predicate (see 4 below).

3	Genugtig , hulle storm al weer. gracious they storm already again 'Gracious, they are storming again.'	(Du Plessis 1982:100)
4	*Hulle storm al genugtig weer. they storm already gracious again *'They are storming gracious again.'	(Du Plessis 1982:100)

In the English literature, for instance, there is a lack of agreement on the categorisation of elements as belonging to the non-clause category. As can be seen in *Oxford Handbook of English Grammar* (Aarts, Bowie & Popova, 2020) different authors of chapters in the same anthology refer to structures of the same syntactic nature yet classify them differently. Bowie and Popova (2020:562), for instance, view an utterance such as 5 as an example of a “multi-word non-sentential unit”. In the same anthology, König (2020:393) provides examples 6 and 7, which are of the same syntactic nature as 1, and refers to them as “reduced clauses without verbs”.

5	<i>What a disappointing set of results.</i>	<i>(Bowie and Popova 2020:562)</i>
6	<i>How awful!</i>	<i>(König 2020:393)</i>
7	<i>What a good idea.</i>	<i>(König 2020:393)</i>

Thus, for König all of the structures in examples 5 to 7 are merely clauses of which the verb is implied (compare examples 8 to 10).

8	<i>What a disappointing set of results this is.</i>	<i>(adapted)</i>
9	<i>How awful it is!</i>	<i>(adapted)</i>
10	<i>What a good idea this is.</i>	<i>(adapted)</i>

Besides the fact that there is no agreement on the term that should be used to describe these fragmented elements in existing literature, there is also no clear subcategorisation. For instance, Biber *et al.* (1999:136) refer to a category of “peripheral elements” that they define as elements that a) share with stance adverbials and linking adverbials the characteristic that they cannot be elicited by question forms of the clause they are attached to, and b) are loosely connected with the clause and outside the predicate. They list a number of items belonging to this category, with discourse markers (words and expressions which are loosely attached to the clause and facilitate ongoing interaction) as a subcategory of peripheral elements. Elsewhere they mention “non-clauses” as a category with the characteristic of being a maximal grammatical unit in the sense that cannot be syntactically integrated with the elements that precede or follow them (Biber *et al.* 1999:1069). Once again, discourse markers are listed as a subcategory, and the important role it must play in achieving interaction is highlighted, resulting in us questioning if discourse markers are then only cannot be elicited by question forms and are loosely connected with the clause

gaa(as is the case with peripheral elements), or if they are unintegrated (as is the case with non-clauses).

Furthermore, the basis upon which these items are distinguished from one another in the literature is not always clear and can also not be derived from the examples presented. For instance, Biber *et al.* (1999:1081) list self-supplied answers (example 11) and elliptic question-and-answer-sequences (example 12) as further examples of non-clauses (besides discourse markers mentioned in the previous paragraph). They argue self-supplied answers provide an “answer to their own questions, or rather [...] proffer an answer to their own questions in the form of another interrogative”, while the use of ellipsis is strongly associated with elliptic question-and-answer-sequences (Biber *et al.* 1999:1101). What can be gathered, is that ellipsis is not associated with the use of self-supplied answers, even though example 11 can be rewritten as “Are you going to get some wine?”. The only discernible difference between the two examples – which is not explicitly acknowledged by Biber *et al.* (1999) – is that in 11 the self-supplied answer is included within a broader syntactic structure (the sentence, although it is not imbedded into the main clause of the sentence), whereas the answer in 12 is syntactically situated outside of any larger syntactic unit. However, seeing as these examples are from spoken usage, punctuation that indicates boundaries cannot be taken into consideration, resulting in the boundary between these two categories being unclear.

11	<i>What are you going to get – some wine?</i>	<i>(Biber et al. 1999:1081)</i>
12	<i>Where can I get parchment paper? An art store?</i>	<i>(Biber et al. 1999:1101)</i>

From discrepancies like those in Aarts *et al.* (2020) regarding the different classifications of structures of the same syntactic nature, or the subcategorisation problems observed in Biber *et al.* (1999), it makes sense why Bowie and Popova (2020) explicitly state that it is particularly difficult to delineate what they refer to as “non-sentential units” or “non-clausal units”, and to determine which words or phrases belong to this category. It is therefore the purpose of this article to attempt to bridge this gap by providing a nuanced delineation of the Afrikaans non-clause category and the linguistic units belonging to this category. This will be done by taking the definition for non-clauses provided in AAG (i.e., a non-clause is a syntactic structure that is not integrated into a subject or predicate, and that does not contain an explicit or implicit subject and predicate) as a point of departure in a corpus study of non-clausal units in Afrikaans.

First, a literature review of relevant Afrikaans sources will be undertaken in section 2 to determine which constructions that are regarded as linguistic elements at the sentence periphery, can be recategorised as non-clauses, measured against the definition of the non-clauses provided earlier in this section. This will enable us to identify predetermined linguistic elements as non-clauses during the corpus analysis, as we are primarily following a usage-based approach to describe non-clauses based on authentic language use, contained within a corpus.

The corpus analysis will be done to a) identify the types of non-clauses that occur in Afrikaans and b) to give a set of working definitions for and examples of each of the different types of non-clauses. Our methodology will be explicated further in section 3.1 after which we will postulate a taxonomy of Afrikaans non-clauses in section 3.2.

2 Afrikaans non-clauses: A literature review

As noted in section 1, the term “non-clause” does not occur in Afrikaans literature, however reference is made to various peripheral elements, and we are of the opinion that some examples of peripheral elements can be regarded as non-clauses. In this section the aim is to describe what is meant with “peripheral elements” and how these units relate to our definition of non-clauses.

Reference is made in the Afrikaans literature to various language units that are used at the periphery of a sentence. According to Du Plessis (1982:100) the periphery of a sentence can be described as a position at the front or the back of the sentence, but not part of the “enger sin” (*narrower sense*) the sentence consists of. In other words, peripheral elements stand outside the “sentrale klous” (*central clause*) (Ponelis 1989:327).

Different terms are used to refer to language units used in such a way, such as “randbepalings” (*peripheral modifiers*) (Ponelis 1968), “randstukke” (*peripheral phrases*) (Ponelis 1979; Ponelis 1989), “adjunkte aan die sinsrand” (*adjuncts at the sentence periphery*) (Du Plessis 1982),

“disjunkte” (*disjuncts*) (Van Schoor 1983) and “elemente wat in die rand van die klous³ staan” (*elements that appear at the periphery of the clause*) (Ponelis 1989).

Ponelis (1989:327) illustrates the position of peripheral elements within the sentence with dotted lines, where “S1” refers to the sentence, and “S2” indicates the position of the central clause, thereby indicating that peripheral elements do not form part of the central clause (see Figure 2).

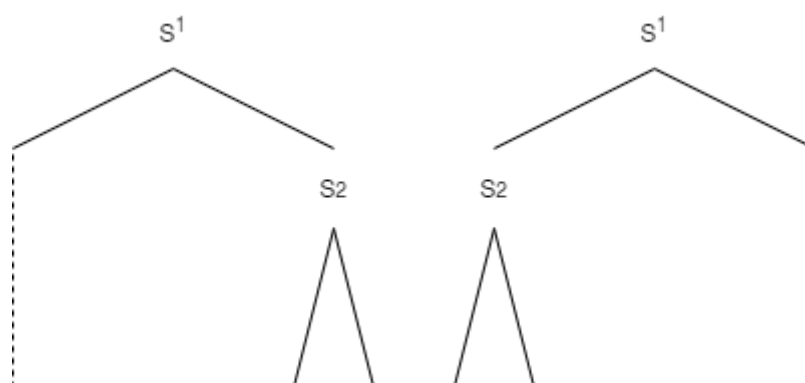


Figure 2: Ponelis' (1989:327) illustration of the position of peripheral elements

Examples 13 and 14 illustrate each one of above-mentioned positions that can be occupied by peripheral elements.

13 **Haai, stap hier links.** (Ponelis 1979:505)
 hey walk here left
 'Hey, walk here on the left.'

14 **Dit is mos so, nè / of hoe / nie waar nie?** (Ponelis 1979:503)
 it be rightly so right / or how / not true PTCL.NEG
 'It is true, right / isn't it?'

Ponelis (1979:311) and Van Schoor (1983:28) illustrate another position, the medial position, in which peripheral elements can be used (compare example 15).

15 **Neem julle gewere, manne, en gaan sit die bokke daar**
 take your guns men and go.AUX sit the antelope there
anderkant voor. (Van Schoor 1983:28)
 other side before
 'Take your rifles, men, and go and wait for the antelope on the other side.'

As already mentioned in section 1 and as is evident from examples 13 to 15, some elements used at the periphery of the sentence can exhibit the characteristics of what we consider to be non-clauses, as they:

³ Even though Ponelis (1989:327) uses the term “clause”, this use of “clause” refers to the wider clause (“wye klous”), in other words, the sentence that includes the element at the periphery, as well as the central clause.

- are not and can never be integrated into the subject or predicate of the central/host clause the sentence consists of; and
- do not contain an explicit or implicit subject and predicate.

However, there are peripheral elements that are loosely attached to the clause and orthographically separated from the rest of the clause by a comma, leading one to consider them as being non-clauses. Examples are the categories peripheral modifiers (Ponelis 1968), linking adjuncts (Ponelis 1989) and colour adjuncts⁴ (Ponelis 1989). Examples of each of these categories are given in bold in 16, 17 and 18 respectively.

16	Altans , <i>dit is nie so winsgewend nie.</i>	(Ponelis 1968)
	at.least it be not as profit.giving PTCL.NEG 'At least, it is not that profitable.'	
17	Ten slotte , <i>my motor het gebreek.</i>	(Ponelis 1989)
	at conclusion my car have.AUX break.PST 'In conclusion, my car has broken. '	
18	Sowaar , <i>my motor het gebreek.</i>	(Ponelis 1989)
	truly my car have.AUX break.PST 'Truly, my car has broken.'	

Since it is possible to integrate them into the host clause, as is illustrated in 19 below, examples of such elements do not meet our requirements of a non-clause. They are rather adverbials, a type of adjunct, and more specifically either stance adverbials that communicate the speaker's opinion about what they are saying or how they are conveying the message, or linking adverbials that indicate the speaker or writer's perception of the relationship between two units of discourse (Biber *et al.* 1999:764-765).

19	<i>My motor het</i> sowaar <i>gebreek.</i>	(Ponelis. 1989:330)
	my car have.AUX truly break.PST 'My car has indeed broken.'	

Not including these elements into our discussion of non-clauses is also motivated by a claim by Ponelis (1979:293), which states that there is no significant distinction between what he calls "linking disjuncts" (linking adverbials being used at the sentence periphery) and linking adjuncts (linking adverbials used as part of the predicate). According to Ponelis (1979:293), the difference between these two categories is only a matter of placement: When they are used at the sentence periphery, they should be classified as disjuncts, and when they are used in the predicate, they should be categorised as adverbials. Given the fact that it is often possible to move syntactic units around through inversion, the fact that a change in a phrase's sentence position leads to a different categorisation, is not ideal. We therefore regard these elements as adverbials, even when they are used at the periphery of a sentence.

⁴ This is a semantic category of adjuncts that Ponelis (1979) distinguishes. It includes language elements indicating the attitude of the speaker (Ponelis 1989:330).

Seeing that we want to determine which peripheral language units can potentially be classified as non-clauses, we are using our definition of a non-clause (*i.e.* language units part of a sentence, but not found within a subject or a predicate of the host clause, not containing a subject or a predicate, or acting as independent units) in section 2.1 to selectively include only those that exhibit the characteristics of what we consider to be non-clauses. While listing the **categories** of peripheral elements that may exhibit non-clause behaviour, attention will also be given to formal characteristics, where necessary, as well as pragmatic functions.

2.1 An outline of peripheral elements that can be classified as non-clauses

The purpose of this section is to provide an outline of the different peripheral elements in the Afrikaans literature that can be classified as non-clauses (see section 1 for our definition of a non-clause).

2.1.1 Conjunctions

Van Schoor (1983:50, 52, 60) is the only source that indicates that conjunctions, such as *en* 'and', *of* 'or' and *maar* 'but', are placed outside of the clauses that they connect, even though they are part of the sentence pattern of the sentence in which they occur. This characteristic renders conjunctions non-clauses, as they form part of the complex sentence, yet are not integrated into either one of the clauses that they connect.

Furthermore, conjunctions have a fixed position, typically between clauses (compare Fouché *et al.* 2020, also see example 20) or at the beginning of a clause⁵ (Ponelis 1968:144; also see example 21).

20	<i>Ek moet gaan, want hulle verwag my.</i> I must go because they expect me 'I have to go, because they are expecting me.'	(HAT, 2015)
21	<i>Maar niks het gebeur nie.</i> but nothing have.AUX happen.PST PTCL.NEG 'But nothing happened.'	(Ponelis 1968:144)

Van Schoor (1983:52, 85) describes the pragmatic function of conjunctions as making the relationship between clauses explicit. This function is also evident from Van Schoor (1983:52) labelling conjunctions and adpositions as “verhoudingswoorde” (*relationship words*). Furthermore, Fouché *et al.* (2020) indicate that because conjunctions indicate the type of meaning relationship or connection that the producer (meaning the writer/speaker) intended, it results in effective communication, leads to better readability and interpretability of a relevant text, and promotes coherence (*i.e.* underlying conceptual linking).

⁵ Biber *et al.* (2018:53) also refer to the use of conjunctions in initial position in English clauses.

2.1.2 “Disjunkte” (disjuncts)

Van Schoor (1983:28) groups certain elements together based on a shared syntactic property, namely the fact that they are not part of either the clause (i.e. a structure containing an implicit or explicit subject and predicate) or the sentence pattern, in contrast with conjunctions that he regards as being part of the sentence pattern (see section 2.1.1 again). Van Schoor (1983:28) argues that these elements, which he terms “disjunkte” (*disjuncts*), are a “stuk” (*phrase*) of another sentence whose elements are missing and implied. Van Schoor (1983:28) explains that “such phrases are outside of the sentence pattern, disconnected, disjunct.” In our opinion these elements do form part of the sentence pattern, but not part of the host clause the sentence consists of (compare Table 3 again).

Various disjuncts are recognised by Van Schoor (1983), for example, interjections and vocatives, and some of these elements are also discussed by other linguists. For this reason, the information contained in Van Schoor (1983) is integrated with those in, for example, Ponelis (1979, 1989) in sections 2.1.2.1 to 2.1.2.4. Also, we will not be using the term “disjunct” as a superordinate for these elements, seeing as the other linguists do not use the term “disjunct” in the same manner as Van Schoor, if at all.

2.1.2.1 Interjections

Van Schoor (1983:60) argues that some other words and constructions occur outside the sentence pattern, yet in a different way compared to conjunctions. In this regard Van Schoor (1983:60) identifies **interjections** (*ag* ‘oh’ in 22 is an example), a word class that also includes expletives. Du Plessis (1982:98) explains that these language units have the syntactic property of not being able to be integrated in the verb phrase of the host clause.

22 **Ag, sal hieraan nooit 'n einde kom nie?** (Van Schoor 1983:60)
 oh will here.on never a end come PTCL.NEG
 'Oh, will there never be an end to this?'

Ponelis (1979:506) uses the term “exclamation” (*uitroep*) to refer to the pragmatic function of elements, such as *o wêreld* ‘o world’, *vervlaks* ‘darn it (all)’, *magtag* ‘bugger’, *siestog* ‘shame’ and *hokaai* ‘whoa’, while he (Ponelis 1979:505) also argues that some interjections may have the function to appeal (compare example 23) or be used to make a statement with strong emotion, such as surprise, delight, disapproval and joy (compare example 24).

23 **Haai / hei / hoei, stap hier links.** (Ponelis 1979:505)
 hey hey hey walk here left
 'Hey, walk left here.'

24 **Hemel, die wind het 'n klompie teëls geskep.** (Ponelis 1979:311)
 heaven the wind have.AUX a few tiles grab.PST
 'Heavens, the wind scooped some tiles.'

Van Schoor (1983:61) adds another pragmatic function by using the term “versterkwoorde” (reinforcement words). In other words, some interjections may also be used to express a certain urgency, or emphasis in Afrikaans communication (compare example 25 and 26)

- | | | |
|----|--|----------------------|
| 25 | <i>Kom help my gou, asseblief.</i>
come help me quickly please
'Come help me quickly, please.' | (Van Schoor 1983:61) |
| 26 | <i>Gee vir my ook 'n stukkie, toe (jong).</i>
give for me too a piece come on (young)
'Give me a piece too, come on (man).' | (Van Schoor 1983:61) |

2.1.2.2 Vocatives

Vocatives is another category that is identified by more than one source. They are labelled as “invocations” (*aanroep*) by Ponelis (1979:505), who chooses this label based on their function. These elements can appear at either the front (compare example 27) or the back (compare example 28) of the sentence periphery.

- | | | |
|----|---|----------------------|
| 27 | <i>Hendrik, bring gou die saag!</i>
Hendrik bring quickly the saw
'Hendrik, quickly bring the saw!' | (Van Schoor 1983:61) |
| 28 | <i>Die wêreld is nie ons woning nie, geliefdes.</i>
the world be not our home PTCL.NEG loved ones
'The world is not our home, loved ones.' | (Ponelis 1979:505) |

Van Schoor (1983:28) refers to the occurrence of these elements when questions are asked, in other words with interrogative clauses (see example 29) and when commands are given, in other words with imperative clauses (see example 30).

- | | | |
|----|--|----------------------|
| 29 | <i>Jan, waar het jy my tas gesit?</i>
Jan where have.AUX you my bag put.PST
'Jan, where did you put my bag?' | (Van Schoor 1983:28) |
| 30 | <i>Kinders, kom ons gaan sit 'n bietjie in die veld.</i>
kids come us go.AUX sit a little in the field
'Kids, let's go and sit in the field for a while.' | (Van Schoor 1983:24) |

Furthermore, these elements are characterised by the fact that they cannot be used before the negative form *nie* 'not'; it can only be used after the negative form (Ponelis 1979:502; Ponelis 1989:327). Compare the grammatical use of the non-clause *meneer* 'mister' within a negative sentence in 31, and the ungrammatical use in 32.

- | | | |
|----|--|--------------------|
| 31 | <i>U mag nie hier rook nie, Meneer.</i>
you may not here smoke PTCL.NEG sir
'You are not allowed to smoke here, sir.' | (Ponelis 1979:504) |
| 32 | <i>*U mag nie hier rook Meneer nie.</i>
you may not here smoke sir PTCL.NEG
'?You are not allowed to smoke, sir, here.' | (Ponelis 1979:504) |

When the clause type is changed due to an amendment of the word order, these elements are also not affected. This means that a) they are still used as an outlying element; and b) they keep their original function (Ponelis 1979:502; Du Plessis 1982:100). Compare the use of *meneer* 'mister' with a declarative clause (compare example 33), imperative clause (compare example 34) and interrogative clause (compare example 35).

33	<i>Meneer, popmusiek is nie volkskade nie.</i> sir pop music be not nation.damage PTCL.NEG 'Sir, pop music isn't public damage.'	(Ponelis 1979:504)
34	<i>Meneer, kom staan hier.</i> sir come stand here 'Sir, come and stand here.'	(Ponelis 1979:504)
35	<i>Meneer, wat kan ek vir u doen?</i> sir what can I for you do 'Sir, what can I do for you?'	(Ponelis 1979:504)

The pragmatic function of these language units, according to Ponelis (1979:505), is to call someone. But, perhaps Biber *et al.*'s (1999:1110) description of vocative's pragmatic function provides a broader view: "However, in general vocatives maintain and reinforce an existing relationship." Furthermore, they (Biber *et al.* 1999:1108-1110) delineate specific pragmatic functions of vocatives, for example a) to mark the relationship between speaker and addressee as a familiar one, often a friendly relationship between equals (compare example 36), b) to mark a bond of closeness and affection between close family members, sexual partners and other people the speaker regards as favourite people (compare example 37), c) to show recognition of individuality among participants in a conversation (compare example 38), or d) even to mark a relationship of respect (compare example 39).

36	<i>Hey man. I'll make this real short. What's happening, man?</i>	Biber <i>et al.</i> (1999:1109)
37	<i>Is that you darling come here sweetie pie.</i>	Biber <i>et al.</i> (1999:1108)
38	<i>Morning Diane.</i>	Biber <i>et al.</i> (1999:1109)
39	<i>Madam! Madam! May we have two glasses of water please?</i>	Biber <i>et al.</i> (1999:1109)

2.1.2.3 Afterthoughts

According to Van Schoor (1983:61) a "bygedagte" (*afterthought*) is a language unit that is placed outside the context of the sentence in which it occurs (compare example 40 and 41 below).

40	<i>Sy krap amper altyd haar kop – 'n slegte gewoonte.</i> shescratch almost always her head a bad habit 'She scratches her head almost always – a bad habit.'	(Van Schoor 1983:61)
41	<i>Ek wonder wat van hom gaan word – arme ding.</i> I wonder what of him go become poor thing	(Van Schoor, 1983:61)

'I wonder what will become of him – poor thing.'

We also consider these language units that are orthographically separated from the host clause as non-clauses, seeing as it is impossible to integrate them into the subject or the predicate of the host clause (compare example 42).

42 **Sy krap 'n slegte gewoonte amper altyd haar kop.* (adapted)
 she scratch a bad habit almost always her head
 *'She scratches a bad habit her head almost always.'

2.1.2.4 Unembedded subordinate clauses

Van Schoor (1983:28) refers to an additional language unit which he classifies as a type of disjunct (compare see example 43). Poneis (1979:506) and Botha (1987:186, 191-192) classify constructions of the same syntactic nature as “thematic expressions” (compare example 44) and “peripheral sentences” (compare examples 45 and 46) respectively.

43 *Wat my betref, hy kan na die hoenders gaan.* (Van Schoor 1983:28)
 what me concern he can to the chickens go
 'As for me, he can fly to the moon.'

44 *Wat die bosbrand betref, skade van miljoene rande is aangerig.* (Poneis 1979:506)
 what the bush.fire concern damage of millions rands
 be.AUX on.make.PASS.PST
 'Regarding the forest fire, damage of millions was caused.'

45 *Hierdie soort werk sal, wat ook al gebeur, altyd lonend wees.*
 this sort work will what also already happen always rewarding be
 'This sort of work will, whatever happens, always be rewarding.' (Botha 1987:186)

46 *Jy is tog nie bang vir spoke nie, of wat praat ek nou alles?*
 yoube also not afraid of ghosts PTCL.NEG or what talk I now everything
 'You are not afraid of ghosts after all, or what am I saying?' (Botha 1987:192)

Botha (1987:191) argues that these peripheral elements are not embedded like subordinate clauses, and therefore they do not alter the central clause syntactically. Therefore, Botha (1987:191) argues that they should rather be considered as appendices.

Further examples of this type of non-clause include the following: *jy weet* 'you know', *om die minste te sê* 'to say the least', *om ernstig te wees* 'to be serious', *voor jy skrik* 'before you get a fright', *beter gestel* 'better put', *hoe 'n mens dit ook al beskou* 'however one views it', *luister na my* 'listen to me', *soos jou pa gisteraand gesê het* 'as your father was saying last night', *soos ek belowe het* 'as I promised' and *al moet ek dit nou self sê* 'if I have to say so myself' (see Botha 1987:192).

2.1.3 Speaker-bound expressions (or style disjuncts)

Ponelis (1979:291-292, 311-312, 506) identifies speaker-bound expressions or style disjuncts (compare example 47), and argues that these language units can only be converted to a clause element, specifically an adjunct, if the sentence is modified with *sê ek / ek sê* 'I say' (compare example 48).

47	Om dit sag te stel: sy besigheid het geen wins to it soft PTCL.INF put his business have.AUX no profit gemaak nie. make.PST PTCL.NEG 'To put it mildly: his business did not make any profit.'	(Ponelis 1979:312)
48	Ek stel dit sag as ek sê dat sy besigheid geen wins I put it soft if I say that his business no profit gemaak het nie. make.PST have.AUX PTCL.NEG 'I am putting it mildly when I say that his business did not make any profit.'	(Ponelis 1979:312)

It should be noted that even though the emphasised language units in these examples are truly non-clauses, Ponelis (1979:291) does, however, indicate that not all speaker-bound expressions have this property. For instance, the speaker-bound expression *eerlik gesê* 'honestly said' can be used in the predicate of the host clause without the modification with *sê ek / ek sê* 'I say' (e.g., *Die plan is eerlik gesê heeltemal deursigtig.* "The plan is, to be honest, completely transparent.").

Ponelis (1979:291-292, 311-312) explains that speaker-bound expressions convey the attitude of the speaker, whether indicating the way the message is conveyed (compare example 49), the frequency at which the message is conveyed (compare example 50), or the conditions of the speaker (compare example 51).

49	In alle erns, jy het nie 'n kat se kans nie. in all seriousness you have not a cat PTCL.GEN chance PTCL.NEG 'In all seriousness, you have no chance.'	(Ponelis 1979:290)
50	Vir die soveelste keer, ek wil dit nie doen nie. for the umpteenth time I want it not do PTCL.NEG 'For the hundredth time, I don't want to do it.'	(Ponelis 1979:290)
51	Net ingeval iets verkeerd loop, ek is hier naby. just in case something wrong walk I be here close 'In case something goes wrong, I am close by.'	(Ponelis 1979:290)

2.1.4 Tags

Additional elements Ponelis (1979:502-503), Botha (1987:191) and Ponelis (1989:330) identify as being peripheral elements, which we regard as being non-clauses, are those used

as tags⁶, namely questions tags⁷ (compare examples 52 to 54) or retrospective vagueness hedges⁸ (compare example 55).

- 52 *Die wingerde verkleur nie in somer nie, nè?* (Ponelis 1989:330)
 the vinyards colour not in summer PTCL.NEG right
 'The vines don't change colour in summer, right?'
- 53 *Niemand mag nou loop nie, hoor?* (Botha 1987:191)
 nobody may now walk PCTL.NEG hear
 'Nobody may leave now, do you hear me?'
- 54 *Ons kan mos reken op julle samewerking, of hoe?* (Ponelis 1979:502)
 we can rightly count on your cooperation or how
 'We can trust your cooperation, what am I saying?'
- 55 *So terloops, gaan jy môre rondjakk, of so iets.* (Botha 1987:191)
 so by the way go.AUX you tomorrow around.wander or so something
 'By the way, are you going to wander around tomorrow, or something like that?'

Such language units are regarded as non-clauses, because of the fact that they cannot be a clause element (compare example 56) where questions tags are specifically used.

- 56 **Jy het of hoe/ nè/ nie waar nie op Ceres grootgeword?* (Ponelis 1989:330)
 you have.UAX or how/ righ/ not true PTCL.NEG on Ceres big.became
 '*You grew what am I saying/right/not true up in Ceres,?'

Question tags in particular have very specific syntactic properties. Even though *nè* 'right' is used to ask a question, it cannot be used with interrogative clauses, only with declaratives. The linguistic unit *hoor* 'hear' can also not be combined with interrogative clauses only declarative and imperative clauses (Ponelis 1979:505). Compare the ungrammatical 57 and 58, where *nè* 'right' and *hoor* 'hear' are preceded by interrogative clauses.

- 57 **Is dit waar, nè?* (Ponelis 1979:505)
 is it true right
 '*Is it true, right?'
- 58 **Wie gaan dit aanbied, hoor?* (Ponelis 1979:505)
 who go.AUX it present listen
 '*Who is going to present it, listen?'

Also, Ponelis (1979:503) indicates that question tags (e.g., *nè* 'right') can only appear at the sentence periphery at the back (compare example 59).

⁶ This term is borrowed from Biber *et al.* (1999:1080) who use "tags" as a superordinate for a range of constructions that are added as an afterthought to a grammatical unit to qualify what has been said.

⁷ This term is borrowed from Biber *et al.* (1999:1080), seeing as the relevant Afrikaans authors do not use a specific Afrikaans term.

⁸ This term is borrowed from Biber *et al.* (1999:1080), seeing as the relevant Afrikaans authors do not use a specific Afrikaans term.

59 *Dit is mos so, nè / of hoe / nie waar nie?* (Ponelis 1979:503)
it be rightly so right / or how / not true PTCL.NEG
'It is true, right / isn't it?'

The pragmatic function of question tags is to seek the hearer's agreement or confirmation (Biber *et al.* 1999:1080). Ponelis (1989:329), on the other hand indicates that question tags modify the content of the host clause in its entirety. Retrospective vagueness hedges are used when the speaker does not want the hearer to believe everything that is said (Biber *et al.* 1999:1080).

2.1.5 Imperatives that are weakened

Ponelis (1979:505) refers to imperatives that are “weakened” and consequently appear at the sentence periphery which we also consider to be non-clauses (compare example 60). These constructions, in correspondence with interjections such as *haai/hei/hoei* ‘hey,’ have the function to appeal.

60 *Kyk, niks het verkeerd geloop nie.* (Ponelis 1979:505)
look nothing have.AUX wrong walk.PST PTCL.NEG
'Look, nothing has gone wrong.'

2.2 Discussion

In the introduction of Section 2 the term “peripheral element” was defined as an element that occurs in the margins and that is only loosely connected to the core syntax of the clause. We also argued that some of these peripheral elements can meet our conditions for a linguistic unit to be regarded as a non-clause.

Determining which peripheral elements could be classified as non-clauses (section 2.1.) provides a point of reference for identifying non-clauses in the corpus data. Seven peripheral elements in Afrikaans that could be classified as non-clauses were identified in the literature review, namely a) conjunctions, b) interjections, c) vocatives, d) afterthoughts, e) unembedded subordinate clauses (disjuncts / thematic expressions / peripheral sentences), f) speaker-bound expressions / style disjuncts, g) tags, and h) imperatives that are weakened.

Very little information about the communicative function could be provided for these elements, even though it is evident from the discussion that they communicate an interpersonal or textual function. Formal properties of specific linguistic units were also discussed where reference to this is made in the Afrikaans literature. However, A general formal property of all of these constructions is the lack of subject-operator inversion (also see Ponelis 1979:502; Du Plessis 1982:100). This is in stark contrast with the relationship between an adverbial, a modifier in clause structure, and the verb phrase, where the former is controlled by the node “verb phrase”.

We also came across certain constructions known as “temas” (*themes*) (Ponelis 1979:506), “proleptiese elemente” (*proleptic elements*) (Ponelis 1989:327) and *topicalised phrases* (Berghoff 2017:35; Botha & Oosthuizen 2009:21)⁹ that are used at the front sentence periphery, and are compatible with a resumptive anaphor in the comment (Botha & Oosthuizen 2009:24) (compare examples 61 to 63) to introduce a theme (Ponelis 1979:320, 506). They are used to indicate what the sentence is about (Berghoff 2017:39), to present known information and is followed by a host clause, where the host clause is placed within a discourse context by the preface (Botha & Oosthuizen 2009:3), as well as for emphasis (Ponelis 1989:328).

61 **Hierdie boeke, ek het hulle nog nie gelees nie.** (Ponelis 1989:327)

these books I have.AUX them still not read.PST PTCL.NEG
'These books, I haven't read them yet.'

62 **Langs die Mooirivier, daar is Potchefstroom aangelê.** (Ponelis 1989:327)

beside the Mooirivier there be Potchefstroom on.lay.PASS.PST
'Beside the Mooirivier, there Potchefstroom has been laid out.'

63 **Dié man, wanneer gaan hy kom?** (Botha & Oosthuizen 2009:21)

this man when go.AUX he come
'This man, when will he come?'

We intended to classify these elements as non-clauses, considering that they might potentially be analysed as such for various reasons. In the first place, Biber *et al.* (1999:1074) regard these elements as “co-referential **non-clausal** units”. In the second place, these elements are also not integrated into the subject or the predicate of the host clause, and do not contain a subject or predicate (either implicit or explicit) – our criteria for classifying linguistic elements as non-clauses.

Due to the anaphoric connection between the preface and the anaphor, the preface in conjunction with the host clause can be replaced by a single clause, where the preface is used in the place of the anaphor (Biber *et al.* 1999:1074) (compare examples 64 to 66).

64 **Ek het hierdie boeke nog nie gelees nie.**

I have this books yet not read.PST PTCL.NEG
'I haven't read these books yet.'

65 **Potchefstroom is langs die Mooirivier aangelê.**

Potchefstroom be beside the Mooirivier on.lay.PASS.PST
'Potchefstroom has been laid out beside the Mooirivier.'

⁹ These elements are termed as “prefaces” by Biber *et al.* (1999:1074). This superordinate will henceforth be used to include the different terms “themes”, “proleptic elements” and “topicalised phrases”.

66 *Wanneer gaan dié man kom?*
when go this man come
'When will this man come?'

The fact that the preface in the left edge can actually be picked up by an anaphor in the host clause, indicates, in some sense, that these elements are atypical elements of the sentence, rather than non-clauses.

Furthermore, it is necessary to evaluate whether the seven categories of non-clauses that were identified in the literature can indeed be found in Afrikaans corpora. These categories should also be expanded – if necessary – to include subcategories and definitions that establish clear boundaries between these categories and subcategories. The categories identified in the literature review as potential types of non-clauses will be explored using authentic language data from the corpus to determine a) if these categories do in fact occur in usage-based Afrikaans data, b) whether the definitions and descriptions provided for these categories in the literature hold, c) to identify and describe any potential subcategories, and d) determine whether these categories encompass all the possible types of non-clauses that occur in Afrikaans. In the next section we describe the corpus study undertaken to address these aspects.

3 Afrikaans non-clauses: A usage-based approach

As mentioned in the introduction of this paper, two central points of departure within VivA's two Afrikaans grammars, is to firstly identify and categorise linguistic units based on both their form and function, and secondly to use usage-based methods to inform our grammatical descriptions. We want to describe all possible parts of Afrikaans sentences by relying on formal and functional features of syntactic structures and clause elements.

An inherent feature of usage-based approaches is to consult and analyse corpus data when describing linguistic phenomena. Within this framework, it is therefore of utmost importance to base our decisions on the result of corpus investigations.

The overarching aim of this paper is to provide a description of Afrikaans non-clauses, and to do this, we need to i) provide a list of possible non-clauses in Afrikaans and their definitions, and ii) to provide a categorisation and sub-categorisation of these non-clauses according to their formal and functional characteristics, based on the results of a corpus investigation into the non-clauses of Afrikaans.

3.1 Our methodology

Our usage-based investigation into the categorisation of Afrikaans non-clauses encompassed the following stages:

1. We utilised the fiction sub-corpus from the Afrikaans Language Commission Corpus 1.1. [Taalkommissiekorpus 1.1] as the corpus for this study. This choice was motivated by the fact that non-clauses are a common feature of spoken data (Biber *et al.* 1999:1070), and the fiction sub-corpus contains dialogue text that emulates spoken language. Due to the absence of suitable spoken data, we considered this to be our best option.
2. We subsequently sentencised this complete sub-corpus, consisting of approximately 5.8 million words, and randomised the resulting sentences. For this step, we used CText Tools 2 (2018). The randomised sentences were used in steps 3 and 4 below.
3. Subsequently, we commenced the data analysis phase to ascertain the presence or absence of non-clauses in the sentences. To evaluate whether a language unit should be categorized as a possible non-clause, we first tried to determine whether the language unit contains a subject or predicate. If no subject or predicate was identified, we then attempted to determine whether the language unit can be integrated into the subject or predicate of the clause. If the answer to both of these questions was no, then we regarded it as a non-clause. In accordance with Select Statistical Services (2023), it was necessary to analyse a minimum of 385 sentences containing non-clauses in order to obtain a representative sample for drawing valid conclusions about non-clauses in Afrikaans.

As an initial step, each member of the research team analysed 200 sentences (see step 2 above), regardless of whether they contained non-clauses or not. Following this, the group convened to discuss and review each other's analyses to ensure a consistent interpretation of the categories and to cross-reference each other's annotations. Subsequently, each team member annotated an additional 600 sentences, and we conducted mutual checks on each other's annotations. In cases where some sentences contained more than one non-clause, each non-clause was analysed separately.

In total, we processed 3,297 sentences to identify 443 sentences that contained non-clauses.

4. These 443 sentences containing non-clauses underwent comprehensive analysis across multiple dimensions, encompassing:
 - Morphosyntactic form: In the case of single words, the part of speech of the word was annotated. Multiword non-clauses were annotated as syntactic phrases (e.g. "NP" or "VP") and non-words were annotated as such.
 - Sentence position: Non-clauses were categorised based on their position in the sentence structure, namely at the sentence beginning, sentence end, between subject and predicate, any other position, or as a stand-alone element).
 - Communicative function: To annotate the communicative function of the non-clauses, an iterative analysis process was followed. Firstly, all possible

communicative functions encountered in the literature were listed as potential functions. At this stage, possible overlaps, synonymous uses, or sub-categorisations were not considered, and all available categories were at the disposal of the annotators. Therefore, annotators consistently chose the category that, according to them, best suited the unit they were trying to categorise, while simultaneously making notes of other possible categories that could be a fit. This approach allowed us to identify possible corresponding or related categories, as well as overlapping definitions for different categories. The four researchers convened twice to review each other's annotations, clarify any ambiguities, and make decisions regarding cases with multiple interpretations. This allowed us to refine and establish our own list of communicative functions, addressing overlaps, ambiguities, and gaps existing in the literature concerning various communicative functions.

3.2 A corpus-based taxonomy of Afrikaans non-clauses

After annotating the data, the uncertainties, overlaps, and ambiguities we noted in the literature review regarding the distinctions among non-clause categories were not surprising to us. This is because it was particularly challenging for us to differentiate distinct and distinguishable non-clausal categories from each other based on form, function, and meaning.

This challenge arose because, as Biber *et al.* (1999:1069) pointed out, we also found that non-clauses lack denotative meaning and can only be differentiated based on their pragmatic function. Non-clauses do not exhibit clausal characteristics, such as form and function, and therefore these grammatical features cannot be used to differentiate between different types of non-clauses. This is because non-clauses can take on a wide range of morphosyntactic forms (virtually anything can appear in parentheses, for instance) and can also appear in various positions within a sentence (but never integrated into the subject or full predicate in a clause). Non-clauses, therefore, do not behave in the same way as other constituents that can be part of clauses. Consequently, in our approach, we simply label non-clauses as having the function of "peripheral adjunct" (in Afrikaans "*randadjunk*") and the role of such a peripheral adjunct is specifically to convey pragmatic information. A unique feature of peripheral adjuncts is that it can occur as part of a sentence, but cannot be integrated in the clause. It can, however, also function as an independent syntactic structure that is not part of a clause or a sentence. In other words, when subcategorising non-clauses, we must do so solely based on the nature of the pragmatic information that the non-clause conveys.

Subsequently, we will:

1. Present our categorisation of the different pragmatic types of non-clauses in Afrikaans as a taxonomy (see Figure 3 below).
2. Describe these subtypes of Afrikaans non-clauses by providing a definition, which is based on the literature review and adapted considering the results from our data analysis (see Table 4 below).

3. Enumerate all grammatical forms, based on morpho-syntactic features, that can fulfil the pragmatic function associated with each subtype encountered in our data analyses (see Figure 3 below).
4. Offer examples of each category and subcategory from our corpus data (see examples 69 to 95).

Figure 3 indicates that in Afrikaans, we distinguish seven types of non-clauses, namely i) forms of address, ii) impoliteness expressions, iii) politeness expressions, iv) onomatopoeia, v) discourse markers, vi) hesitators, and vii) exclamatives. Most of these types can also be further categorised into subtypes.

Each of these categories and their respective subcategories is defined in Table 4 below. The definitions are derived from the information provided in the sources referenced in sections 1 and 2.¹⁰ For category labels that were not clearly defined in the literature, we devised definitions ourselves, using AI tools, specifically OpenAI's ChatGPT 3.0 (2023), to help us fine-tune said definitions. The resulting definitions are presented in the table below. The utilisation of this AI tool proved to be highly beneficial in this context, as the definitions of different non-clauses presented in the sources often exhibited significant overlap between super-categories and their sub-categories.

As an example: From the data it was clear that the category "exclamatives" should have different subtypes, such as expressions denoting negative emotions, positive emotions and strong opinions. We could not find appropriate definitions for these subtypes in the literature and therefore (as an example) we presented ChatGPT 3.0 (2023) with the prompt in 67.

67 *What is the function of an exclamative and what is the function of an "emotional involvement expression" such as "shame"?*

The reply (see 68) provided us with useful information to use as a foundation for a definition (see definitions in 7 in Table 2 below).

68 *Exclamative:*
The function of an exclamative sentence or clause is to express strong emotion, surprise, excitement, or emphasis in a sentence. Exclamatives typically end with an exclamation mark (!) and are used to convey a wide range of emotions or reactions. Their primary purpose is to draw attention to the statement and emphasize the intensity or significance of what is being said. Exclamatives can stand alone as complete sentences or be part of a larger sentence structure. They are used to evoke emotional responses in the reader or listener.

Examples of exclamatives:

- *"What a beautiful sunset!"*
- *"Wow, that was an incredible performance!"*
- *"I can't believe how much you've grown!"*

¹⁰ In this regard, Biber *et al.* (1999) played a significant role in providing general definitions, while Culpeper (2010; 2013) was particularly relevant for definitions pertaining to politeness and impoliteness expressions.

Emotional Involvement Expression (e.g., "Shame"):

Expressions like "shame," when used to convey emotional involvement, serve the function of expressing a specific emotion or sentiment related to the context. In the case of "shame," it signifies a feeling of embarrassment, remorse, or moral guilt. These emotional involvement expressions help convey the speaker's emotional state or reaction to a situation, event, or behavior.

For example, saying "Shame on you" implies a strong disapproval of someone's actions and a belief that their behavior is morally wrong or embarrassing. These expressions often carry a moral or ethical judgment and can be used to convey various emotions, such as disappointment, sympathy, empathy, or indignation.

Functions of emotional involvement expressions like "shame" include:

- **Expressing Disapproval:** They can be used to express strong disapproval or condemnation of someone's actions or behavior.
- **Conveying Empathy:** In some cases, emotional involvement expressions can convey empathy or understanding of someone else's feelings or predicament.
- **Highlighting Moral Values:** These expressions can emphasize moral or ethical values, indicating that certain actions or behaviors are considered unacceptable or wrong.
- **Indicating Emotional Engagement:** They help convey the speaker's emotional engagement with the topic or situation under discussion.
- **Strengthening Communication:** Emotional involvement expressions can add emotional depth and nuance to communication, helping to convey the speaker's perspective and feelings more effectively.

In summary, while exclamatives express strong emotions or emphasis in a statement, emotional involvement expressions like "shame" serve to convey specific emotions, often related to moral judgment or empathy, in response to a situation or behavior.

Biber et al. (1999:1073), for example, identify a superordinate category named "utterance launchers". This category is defined as "expressions which have a special function of beginning a turn or an utterance". They then define "discourse markers", which is described as a subordinate of utterance launchers as follows: "[It] has the function of orienting the listener to the following utterance". Something that begins a turn, will likely have the function of orienting the listener. The unclear boundaries between the definition of categories are also noticeable when different subcategories belonging to different super-categories are compared (compare section 1 where self-supplied answers, as a type of insert, is not distinguishable from elliptic question-and-answer-sequences as a type of syntactic non-clause). Furthermore, in some cases no definitions of sub-categories were provided, resulting in the research team formulating their own definitions solely based on the examples that were provided.

Consequently, the distinctions between different levels of non-clauses could not be clearly discerned based solely on a literature review. Nevertheless, for nearly all generated definitions, it was imperative for the researchers to assess and enhance them using the data at our disposal.

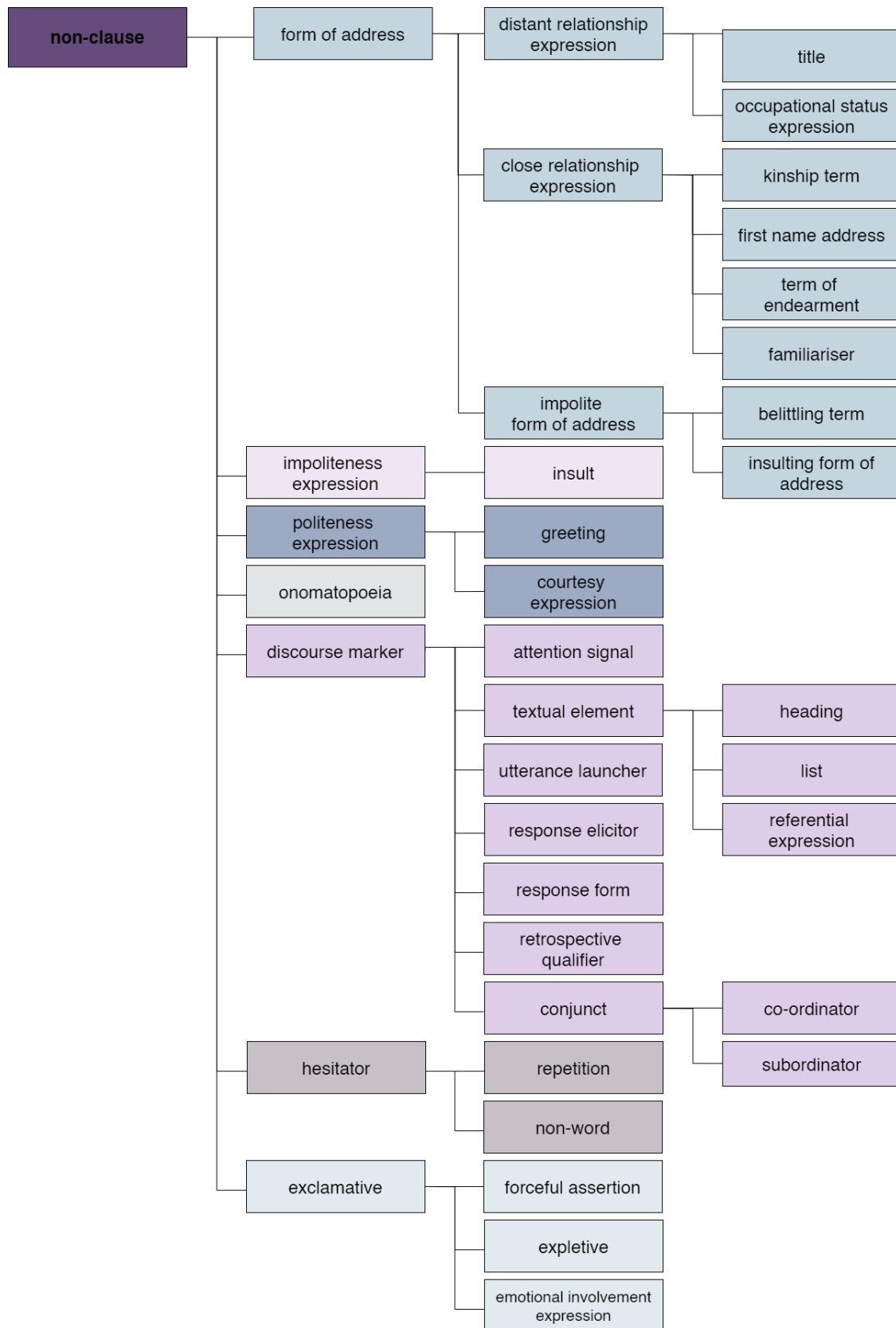


Figure 3: A taxonomy of pragmatic types of non-clauses in Afrikaans

Table 4: Definitions of all pragmatic types of non-clauses in Afrikaans

Nr	(Sub)category of Afrikaans non-clause	Description of pragmatic function	e.g.
1	form of address	to address someone, and in most cases, to maintain and reinforce an existing relationship	
1.1	distant relationship expression	to mark a distant, and in some cases respectful, relationship between speaker and addressee	
1.1.1	title	to convey respect, politeness, and acknowledgment of a person's role or rank in a formal or honorific social or professional context	69
1.1.2	occupational status expression	to communicate something about the occupational status of the addressee	70
1.2	close relationship expression	to convey warmth, affection, intimacy, and familiarity between individuals who share a close bond	
1.2.1	kinship term	to mark a relationship with a family member	71
1.2.2	first name address	to recognise the individuality of the addressee	72
1.2.3	term of endearment	to indicate affection and care, and to express appreciation, love, admiration, or to establish intimacy and bonding between individuals, in particular between close family members, sexual partners, and other favourite people	73
1.2.4	familiariser	to address a person in such a way that it indicates or pretends to be friendly and equal relationship	74
1.3	impolite form of address	to damage another's public image, oftentimes resulting in emotions such as humiliation	
1.3.1	belittling term	to display power in order to create a new power hierarchy that violates an existing one, often with the intention of undermining the addressee's importance, value, or credibility	75
1.3.2	insulting form of address	to address a person in a way that displays a low value for that person	76
2	impoliteness expression	to indicate a negative attitude towards specific behaviours that occur in a particular context (These (negative) expressions are used when a behaviour is in conflict with how one expects/wants the behaviour to be (Culpeper 2010:3233). Such expressions are not used to address someone.)	
2.1	insult	to display a low value for some target	77
3	politeness expression	to convey politeness, respect, or courteousness towards others to maintain social harmony and avoid offense during interactions.	
3.1	greeting	to give a sign of welcome	78
3.2	courtesy expression	to thank, apologise and congratulate someone and is often a polite reply	79
4	onomatopoeia	to mimic or imitate sounds, often from the natural world or everyday life, by using words that phonetically resemble the sound they represent	80
5	discourse marker	to orientate the recipient to the following utterance and to signals a transition in the discourse	

5.1	attention signal	to capture someone's attention or to indicate that the speaker wants to communicate something important or urgent	81
5.2	textual element	to enhance the structure and organisation of a text, as well as the reader's comprehension	
5.2.1	caption	to briefly describe or label accompanying images, illustrations, graphs, or tables, providing context and clarification for visual content	
5.2.2	heading	to categorise and structure sections or subsections within the document, aiding in navigation	82
5.2.3	list	to organise collections of items or information in order to convey information effectively	83
5.2.4	referential expression	to provide additional information and context to enhance the document's overall readability and utility	84
5.2.5	utterance launcher	to propel the conversation in a certain direction or to provide the speaker with planning time	85
5.3	response elicitor	to indicate a speaker-centred role of seeking a signal from the addressee that the message has been understood and accepted	86
5.4	response form	to be used as brief, routinised and conventionalised expressions in response to utterances of typically another speaker, whether it's a question or a request	87
5.5	retrospective qualifier	to qualify something that has already been said, often as an afterthought	88
5.6	conjunct	to link clauses into a complex sentence without being clause elements themselves	
5.6.1	co-ordinator	to signal the relationship between the coordinated clauses	89
5.6.2	subordinator	to signal the relationship between the subordinate clause and the main clause	90
6	hesitator	to indicate dysfluency, often indicating that the speaker hesitates, but at the same time it indicates that the speaker wishes to continue speaking	
6.1	repetition	to repeat a language unit during speech as a way to pause, hesitate or to buy time while thinking or formulating thoughts	91
6.2	non-word	to pause or indicate hesitation by using a sequence of sounds or letters that is not considered to be a word, either because it has no meaning, is not recognised or accepted as legitimate, or is disapproved	92
7	exclamative	to convey strong emotion, surprise, excitement, or emphasis in a sentence	
7.1	forceful assertion	to express a viewpoint that is made with a strong and compelling conviction	93
7.2	expletive	to express negative emotions, frustration, or to insult, but it is generally considered impolite and offensive in many situation	94
7.3	emotional involvement expression	to express a specific emotion or sentiment related to the specific context, such as sympathy, remorse or pain	95

Examples of each of the subtypes of non-clauses:

- 69 **Mevrou Slangveld**, kry jou bagasie.
 mrs Slangeveld get your baggage
 'Mrs Slangeveld, get your luggage.'
- 70 **Ekskuus tog, Dominee**, sê Vos op sy normale stem, "dit was nie ek wat jou deur die venster gesmyt het nie – jy begryp dit tog seker.
 excuse still pastor say Vos ons his normal voice it be.PST not I what you
 through the window throw.PST have.AUX PTCL.NEG you understand it still surely
 "Excuse me, Pastor," says Vos in his normal voice, "It wasn't me who threw you out the window, you surely understand that."
- 71 Goed, **tannie Ansie**, ek sal solank die bed skoon gaan oortrek.
 good aunt Ansie I will in the meantime the bed clean go.AUX cover
 'Alright, Aunt Ansie, I will go ahead and make the bed in the meantime.'
- 72 "**Jackie**, ek het jou 'n vraag gevra", wend hy hom weer tot sy jongste dogter.
 Jackie I have.AUX you a question ask.PST turn he him again at his youngest daughter
 "Jackie, I asked you a question," he turns to his youngest daughter again.'
- 73 O, dit is gevaarlike woorde daardie, **hartlam**.
 o it be dangerous words that heart.lamb
 'Oh, those are dangerous words, sweetheart.'
- 74 Haps, **manne**, hier's 'n drol in die drinkwater, sê hy.
 quick men here's a turd in the drinking water says he
 "Quick, guys, there's a turd in the drinking water," he says.'
- 75 **Juffie**, as ek dan dood is, sal jy asseblief net my kinders laat weet?
 miss if I then dead be shall you please just my children let know
 'Miss, if I am indeed dead, could you please just let my children know?'
- 76 Dan kan jy voel hoe brand peper in jou bek. **Jou vark!**
 Then can you feel how burn pepper in your snout your pig
 'Then you can feel how pepper burns in your mouth. You pig!'
- 77 **Die vark**.
 the pig
 'The pig.'
- 78 **Tot siens, Braam**.
 to see Braam
 'Goodbye, Braam.'
- 79 **Dankie, Maria**.
 thank you Maria
 'Thank you, Maria.'
- 80 **Dieng!** Doktor het die jackpot geslaan.
 Dieng doctor have.PAST the jackpot hit.PST
 'Ding! The doctor has hit the jackpot.'
- 81 "**Haai, check**, die see moes eens op 'n tyd tot hier gekom het," sê Koos.
 hey check the sea must.AUX once on a time to here come.PST have.AUX say Koos
 "Wow, check it out, the sea must have come up here at some point," says Koos.'

- 82 **BOKSIE XI DIE TOWENAAR**
 box.DIM XI the magician
 'BOX XI THE MAGICIAN'
- 83 *Twee groot ribbokke en ou Witkwassie, twee blouwildebeeste, twee vlakvarke,*
 two big rheboks and old white tail.DIM two wildebeest two warthogs
drie leeus: 'n mannetjie en twee wyfies.
 three lions A male and two females
 'Two large rheboks and old white-tail, two wildebeests, two warthogs, three lions: one male and two females.'
- 84 **Tafelberg, 1994**
 Tafelberg 1994
 'Tafelberg, 1994'
- 85 **Of liewer, jou seun het gepraat en ek het geluister...**
 Or rather your son have.AUX talk.PST and I have.AUX listen.PST
 'Or rather, your son talked and I listened.'
- 86 **Ek het geweet ek sal jou eendag terugkry - en ek het, nie waar nie.**
 I have.AUX know.PST I will you one day get back and I have.AUX not true PTCL.NEG
 'I knew I would get you back one day - and I did, didn't I?'
- 87 **"Wou Pa my slaan?" – "Ja, my seun."**
 Want.PST dad me hit yes my son
 "'Did you want to hit my, Dad?' – 'Yes, my son.'"
- 88 **Die water sal nie weier nie; kom ons probeer weer - jy sal sien.**
 the water will not refuse PTCL.NEG come us try again you will see
 'The water won't refuse; let's try again - you'll see.'
- 89 **Maar Louie, ek sê jou, hy het my gevra of ek nie sal inligting insamel nie, vir die regering.**
 but Louie I say you he have.AUX me ask.PST if I not will info gather
 not for the government
 'But Louie, I'm telling you, he asked me if I wouldn't gather information for the government.'
- 90 **Sy voel dat hulle 'n verduideliking van haar want wil hê oor waarom sy sonder haar man gekom het.**
 She feel that they a explanation from her because want have over why she
 without her man come.PST have
 'She feels that they want an explanation from her about why she came without her husband.'
- 91 **"Ek ... ek is jou alreeds soveel dank verskuldig vir die hele dag se rondryery."**
 I I be you already so much thanks owed for the whole day PTCL.GEN
 around drive.PROG
 'I... I already owe you so much thanks for driving me around all day.'
- 92 **Skielik dink Tinus aan iets. "Met ... e ... wat?"**
 suddenly think Tinus on something with e what
 'Suddenly, Tinus thinks of something. "With ... e ... what?"'
- 93 **Praat van attitude!**
 talk of attitude
 'Talk about attitude!'

- 94 *Hel, maar die meisie is mooi en gaaf.*
hell but the girl be beautiful and kind
'Hell, but the girl is beautiful and kind.;
- 95 *Ai, tog, Ingrid, ek sny mos nie eintlik droë hare nie!*
PTCL.MOD PTCL.MOD Ingrid I cut really not truly dry hair PTCL.NEG
'Oh, come on, Ingrid, I don't really cut dry hair, do I?'

4 Conclusion

The aim of this paper was to provide a nuanced delineation of the category of Afrikaans non-clauses. This was primarily achieved by using the definition for non-clauses provided in AAG (i.e., a non-clause is a syntactic structure that is not integrated into a subject or predicate and does not contain an explicit or implicit subject and predicate) as a starting point. We conducted a corpus linguistic study of non-clausal units in Afrikaans based on this definition.

The corpus linguistic analyses had two main goals: 1) identifying the types of non-clauses that occur in Afrikaans and 2) describing the characteristics of the different types of non-clauses that occur in Afrikaans.

The first phase of the investigation required a literature review of Afrikaans non-clauses or related categories. Sources such as Ponelis 1968, 1979, 1989; Du Plessis 1982; and Van Schoor 1983 were examined with the formulated definition of non-clauses in mind, to provide a preliminary set of possible Afrikaans non-clauses. However, as was illustrated in section 2, not all of the categories identified in the literature could truly be considered as non-clauses. Nevertheless, the literature review was valuable in helping us identify various possible non-clausal categories used by Afrikaans linguists to distinguish between different non-clausal language units, including form, function, and pragmatic characteristics.

Based on the literature overview, we formulated the problem statement (see Section 3) for our corpus investigation, which involved compiling a comprehensive list of non-clauses and their subcategories, formulating a definition for each of these (sub)categories, and providing examples from our corpus data for each of them.

As mentioned in the introduction of this paper, VivA's two Afrikaans grammars have two central points of departure: first, identifying and categorising linguistic units based on both their form and function, and second, using usage-based methods to inform grammatical descriptions. During our corpus investigation, however, we realised, in line with observations by scholars such as Biber *et al.* (1999), that non-clauses do not behave in the same way as other constituents that can be part of clauses. Consequently, we based our categorisation of Afrikaans non-clauses solely on the nature of the pragmatic information that the non-clauses convey.

In doing so, we were able to distinguish seven types of Afrikaans non-clauses based on their pragmatic attributes: i) forms of address, ii) impoliteness expressions, iii) politeness expressions, iv) onomatopoeia, v) discourse markers, vi) hesitators, and vii) exclamatives. For each of these types, we also provided definitions and examples. Only categories for which we found examples within our data were included in the categorised non-clauses.

While we believe that our data is largely exhaustive and contains examples of most (if not all) types of non-clauses in Afrikaans, we acknowledge the possibility that a larger or different dataset could lead us to further refine and subdivide the taxonomy. In future research, we would also like to delve deeper into the specific forms that each of these non-clauses can take. Furthermore, in this paper, we did not examine parentheses as a possible non-clausal unit, a linguistic category which we believe also deserves considerable attention in future research.

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