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ENGLISH ABSOLUTE CLAUSES IN CONTEXT OF
FICTION: THE STUDY OF UNAUGMENTED AND
AUGMENTED ABSOLUTE CLAUSES IN *HARRY POTTER
AND THE PHILOSOPHER'S STONE* AND *HARRY POTTER
AND THE CHAMBER OF SECRETS*

Mr. Chayapol Khaphaeng



A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Master of Arts in English
Department of English
FACULTY OF ARTS
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Academic Year 2022
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อนุประโยคอิสระภาษาอังกฤษในบริบทนวนิยาย: การศึกษาอนุประโยคอิสระไม่ปรากฏคำเพิ่มพูน
และอนุประโยคอิสระปรากฏคำเพิ่มพูนในหนังสือแฮร์รี่ พอตเตอร์กับศิลาอาถรรพ์และหนังสือแฮร์
รี่ พอตเตอร์กับห้องแห่งความลับ



วิทยานิพนธ์นี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตรปริญญาอักษรศาสตรมหาบัณฑิต
สาขาวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ ภาควิชาภาษาอังกฤษ
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ชยพล คำแพง : อนุประโยคอิสระภาษาอังกฤษในบริบทนวนิยาย: การศึกษาอนุประโยคอิสระไม่ปรากฏคำเพิ่มพูนและอนุประโยคอิสระปรากฏคำเพิ่มพูนในหนังสือแฮร์รี่ พอตเตอร์กับศิลาอาถรรพ์และหนังสือแฮร์รี่ พอตเตอร์กับห้องแห่งความลับ. (ENGLISH ABSOLUTE CLAUSES IN CONTEXT OF FICTION: THE STUDY OF UNAUGMENTED AND AUGMENTED ABSOLUTE CLAUSES IN *HARRY POTTER AND THE PHILOSOPHER'S STONE* AND *HARRY POTTER AND THE CHAMBER OF SECRETS*) อ.ที่ปรึกษาหลัก : ผศ. ดร.นิรดา จิตรกร

งานวิจัยครั้งนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อศึกษาหาสาเหตุของความถี่ที่แตกต่างกันของอนุประโยคอิสระสองประเภทคือ อนุประโยคอิสระไม่ปรากฏคำเพิ่มพูนและอนุประโยคอิสระปรากฏคำเพิ่มพูน โดยการวิเคราะห์เชิงลึกจากแง่มุมวากยสัมพันธ์ อรรถศาสตร์ และวจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ของอนุประโยคอิสระแต่ละประเภทในบริบทนวนิยาย งานวิจัยครั้งนี้รวบรวมข้อมูลจากหนังสือแฮร์รี่ พอตเตอร์กับศิลาอาถรรพ์และหนังสือแฮร์รี่ พอตเตอร์กับห้องแห่งความลับ หนังสือสองเล่มแรกของนวนิยายชุดแฮร์รี่ พอตเตอร์ จากการวิจัยพบว่าวากยสัมพันธ์ อรรถศาสตร์ และวจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ มีบทบาทเกี่ยวข้องกันในการกำหนดว่าอนุประโยคอิสระจะปรากฏในนวนิยายอย่างไร ในเชิงวากยสัมพันธ์ โครงสร้างของอนุประโยคอิสระทั้งที่ปรากฏและไม่ปรากฏคำเพิ่มพูนมีประธานส่วนใหญ่เป็น **THEME** และมักเกิดกับภาคแสดงที่ต้องการ **argument** เพียงตัวเดียว โดยโครงสร้างของอนุประโยคอิสระเป็นไปตามหลักการประโยคย่อย ซึ่งเน้นความกระชับ ชัดเจน และการให้ความครบถ้วน ในเชิงอรรถศาสตร์ ประธานของอนุประโยคอิสระที่ไม่ปรากฏคำเพิ่มพูน มักจะอ้างถึงสิ่งเดียวกันกับประธานอนุพยางค์หลักเพื่อการผูกติดกับอนุพยางค์หลัก โดยการอ้างถึงสิ่งเดียวกันประเภทแยกส่วนและองค์รวม (**part-whole**) เป็นรูปแบบที่พบมากที่สุด ส่วนความสัมพันธ์เชิงความหมาย **weak adverbials** เป็นข้อมูลที่พบมากที่สุด ในขณะที่ **strong adverbials** พบน้อยที่สุด การที่ **weak adverbials** มีจำนวนมากในนวนิยายเป็นสิ่งที่คาดเดาได้เนื่องจาก **weak adverbials** นั้นแสดงความสัมพันธ์เชิงความหมายที่ดีความได้ง่ายซึ่งช่วยคลายความสนใจของผู้อ่านไว้ (*Write Clearly and Concisely*, ม.ป.ป.) ในขณะที่ **strong adverbials** ซึ่งแสดงความสัมพันธ์เชิงความหมายที่ดีความได้ยากสำหรับผู้อ่านเป้าหมาย ไม่เป็นที่นิยมและปรากฏในนวนิยายเป็นส่วนน้อย นอกจากนี้ ความสัมพันธ์เชิงความหมายยังมีความเชื่อมโยงกับความถี่ของอนุประโยคอิสระทั้งสองประเภท กล่าวคือ อนุประโยคอิสระไม่ปรากฏคำเพิ่มพูนมีแนวโน้มที่จะแสดงความสัมพันธ์เชิงความหมายแบบ **weak adverbials** ซึ่งมีความเหมาะสมในการคงความสนใจของผู้อ่านเป้าหมายในบริบทนวนิยาย เนื่องจากความสัมพันธ์เชิงความหมายแบบ **weak adverbials** นั้นทำความเข้าใจได้ง่าย ดังนั้นอนุประโยคอิสระชนิดไม่ปรากฏคำเพิ่มพูนจึงมีความถี่ของข้อมูลสูง อย่างไรก็ตาม อนุประโยคอิสระปรากฏคำเพิ่มพูนมักจะแสดงความสัมพันธ์เชิงความหมายแบบ **strong adverbials** ซึ่งตีความได้ยากกว่า ความซับซ้อนดังกล่าวไม่เป็นที่นิยมในนวนิยาย ดังนั้นอนุประโยคอิสระปรากฏคำเพิ่มพูนจึงปรากฏในนวนิยายเป็นส่วนน้อย นอกจากนี้คุณสมบัติของการอ้างถึงสิ่งเดียวกันยังมีความสัมพันธ์กับความถี่ของความสัมพันธ์เชิงความหมาย ซึ่งมีอยู่ด้วยกัน 5 รูปแบบคือ การอ้างถึงสิ่งเดียวกันประเภทแยกส่วนและองค์รวม (**part-whole**) กับรายละเอียดเสริม (**accompanying circumstance**) การไม่ปรากฏการอ้างถึงสิ่งเดียวกัน (**no coreference**) กับเหตุการณ์ในเวลาเดียวกัน (**simultaneity**) การอ้างถึงสิ่งเดียวกันแบบสมบูรณ์ (**full coreference**) กับการให้รายละเอียด (**elaboration**) การอ้างถึงสิ่งเดียวกันแบบหน่วยประกอบ (**constituent coreference**) ในลักษณะแบบแสดงนัย (**implied coreference**) และการไม่ปรากฏการอ้างถึงสิ่งเดียวกัน กับ **strong adverbials** โดยสหสัมพันธ์ระหว่างการอ้างถึงสิ่งเดียวกันกับความสัมพันธ์เชิงความหมาย ทำให้เกิดความเข้าใจเชิงลึกว่าการอ้างถึงสิ่งเดียวกันและความสัมพันธ์เชิงความหมายมีความเกี่ยวข้องกันอย่างไรในบริบทนวนิยาย ในแง่ของตำแหน่งอนุประโยคอิสระ พบว่าอนุประโยคอิสระทั้งสองประเภทปรากฏมากในตำแหน่งท้ายประโยค โดยตำแหน่งของอนุประโยคอิสระถูกกำหนดในเชิงวจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ตามโครงสร้างข้อมูลแบบแก่นความ-เนื้อความมากกว่าหลักการ **End-Weight** ดังนั้นการศึกษานี้จึงสรุปว่าปฏิสัมพันธ์ระหว่างวากยสัมพันธ์ อรรถศาสตร์ และวจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์มีบทบาทในการสร้างอนุประโยคอิสระที่มีความกระชับแต่ให้ความครบถ้วนเพื่อคงความสนใจของผู้อ่าน

สาขาวิชา ภาษาอังกฤษ
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Chayapol Khaphaeng : ENGLISH ABSOLUTE CLAUSES IN CONTEXT OF FICTION: THE STUDY OF UNAUGMENTED AND AUGMENTED ABSOLUTE CLAUSES IN *HARRY POTTER AND THE PHILOSOPHER'S STONE* AND *HARRY POTTER AND THE CHAMBER OF SECRETS*. Advisor: Asst. Prof. NIRADA CHITRAKARA, Ph.D.

This study investigates the reasons for the different frequencies of *unaugmented* and *the augmented absolutes*. It also presents in-depth analyses on their syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic aspects in the context of fiction. The data were collected from *Harry Potter and the Philosopher's Stone* and *Harry Potter and the Chamber of Secrets*, the first two books of the bestselling *Harry Potter* series. The findings of the study reveal that syntax, semantics, and pragmatics play an interrelated role in determining the way the absolute clauses appear in fiction. Syntactically, the structure of both unaugmented and augmented absolute clauses, with the majority of THEME subjects in one-place predicates, follows the Economy Principle by producing a concise, clear, and informative structure. Semantically, the unaugmented absolutes, with no introductory augmentor, have coreferences as a cohesive device to be semantically bound with their matrix clause of which the majority of subjects are part-whole coreference. With respect to semantic relations, weak adverbials are of the greatest majority in the data, while strong adverbials, the minority. The high productivity of weak adverbials in fiction is highly expected due to their ease of processing which could keep the attention and interest of the readers (*Write Clearly and Concisely*, n.d.). Strong adverbials, which are difficult to process for the target audience, meanwhile, are less preferred, and therefore infrequently appear in fiction. The semantic relations are also in relation to the frequency of the two types of absolute clauses. That is, unaugmented absolutes are prone to occur as weak adverbials, which are believed to keep readers' attention in the context of fiction due to the ease of processing; they are thereby highly frequent in the data. Augmented absolutes, in contrast, tend to accommodate strong adverbials, which are more difficult to interpret and are not preferred in fiction; the augmented absolutes are therefore less frequent in the data. The coreferential property of absolutes also correlates with semantic relations; these correlations are in five patterns: PC and accompanying circumstance; NC and simultaneity; FC and elaboration; CC as implied coreference; and NC and strong adverbials. These correlations provide an in-depth understanding of how coreferences and semantic relations are related in the context of fiction. Regarding positions, both types of absolute clauses extensively appear in the final position, following the information structure of topic-comment, rather than the End-Weight Principle. The study concludes that the interplay of syntax, semantics, and pragmatics contributes to the production of absolute clauses which are economical but informative to keep readers' attention in fiction.

Field of Study: English
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Student's Signature
Advisor's Signature

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Writing a thesis, from my perspective, is like running a marathon. In the beginning, I sprinted off with full energy and determination. In the middle, I was discouraged, exhausted, and downhearted, and I even questioned myself about what I was doing. When I was about to step out of the running road, my advisor stepped in, lifted me up, and walked along the way with me toward the finishing line. My deepest heartfelt appreciation, therefore, goes to my thesis advisor, Assistant Professor Nirada Chitrakara, Ph.D., a very kind, supportive, and understanding person who never fails to support me to keep going. From the first time I attended her syntax class, I knew that she was the professor I would like to work with. She is willingly open to every idea I have and provides insightful comments to help upgrade my thesis. She also teaches me how to effectively write to make the thesis friendlier to the readers. Her immense knowledge of linguistics and her good-hearted personality make me realize the true meaning of “The Great Teacher Inspires.” Without her invaluable assistance and contributions at every stage of the study, this thesis would never have been accomplished.

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Chayapol Khaphaeng

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
.....	iii
ABSTRACT (THAI)	iii
.....	iv
ABSTRACT (ENGLISH)	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	x
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background of the Study	1
1.2 Objectives of the Study	6
1.3 Research Questions	6
1.4 Statements of Hypotheses	6
1.5 Significance of the Study	7
CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW	8
2.1 Terms and Structures	8
2.2 The Structure of Absolute Clauses	10
2.3 The Syntactic Structure of English Absolute Clauses	12
2.4 The Economy Principle of Absolute Clauses	16
2.5 The Argument Structure of Absolutes	17
2.6 Semantic Coreferences in Absolute Clauses	19
2.6.1 No Coreference (NC)	19
2.6.2 Full Coreference (FC)	20
2.6.3 Part-Whole Coreference (PC)	21
2.6.4 Constituent Coreference (CC)	23

2.7 Semantic Relations of Absolute Clauses	24
2.8 Sentential Positions of Absolute Clauses.....	28
2.9 Previous Studies Regarding English Absolute Clauses	30
2.10 Summary of the Chapter	31
CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY	33
3.1 Data Source.....	33
3.2 Data Collection	33
3.3 Data Analysis	34
3.3.1 Unaugmented and Augmented Absolutes.....	34
3.3.1.1 Fine line between the preposition with and augmentor with.....	35
3.3.1.2 Thematic Roles of Absolute Clauses	37
3.3.2 Coreferences	39
3.3.3 Semantic Relations	40
3.3.4 Sentential Position Identification	42
3.3.4.1 Instance Counting	43
3.3.4.2 Syntactic Weight of Absolute Clauses.....	43
3.3.5 QuillBot Grammar Checker	45
3.4 Summary of the Chapter	46
CHAPTER 4 FINDINGS.....	47
4.1 The Frequency of Augmented vs. Unaugmented Absolutes.....	47
4.2 Argument structure	48
4.3 Coreferences	50
4.4 Semantic Relations	51
4.5 Coreferences and Semantic Relations	53
4.6 Positions and Syntactic Weight.....	56
4.7 Summary of the Chapter	57
CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION.....	59
5.1 Syntactic aspect: The Economy Principle	59
5.2 Thematic Roles of Absolute Clauses	60

5.3 Semantically bleached <i>with</i> and other augmentors.....	63
5.4 Coreferences: A semantic cohesive device of absolutes.....	66
5.5 Semantic Relations	68
5.5.1 The High Productivity of Weak Adverbials in Fiction	70
5.5.2 Semantic Relations and the Appearance of Augmentors in Augmented Absolutes	70
5.5.3 The Possible Covert <i>with</i> in Unaugmented Absolutes	74
5.6 Coreference and Semantic Relations: Five patterns observed.....	77
5.7 Topic-Comment vs Syntactic Weight	81
5.8 Summary of the Chapter	84
CHAPTER 6 CONCLUSION.....	86
6.1 Responses to the hypotheses.....	87
6.2 Contribution of the Study	93
6.3 Limitations and Recommendation for Future Studies	94
APPENDIX.....	95
REFERENCES	115
VITA	120

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 1: Examples of verbal and non-verbal heads	12
Table 2: Coreferences of absolute clauses	39
Table 3: Strong adverbials of absolute clause with examples and explanations.....	40
Table 4: Weak adverbials of absolute clause with examples and explanations	41
Table 5: Positions of absolute clauses.....	42
Table 6: The frequency of unaugmented and augmented absolutes	47
Table 7: Four augmentors of the augmented absolutes.....	47
Table 8: The thematic relations of absolute clauses.....	48
Table 9: The correlation between absolute thematic roles and their constructions.....	49
Table 10: Coreferences of unaugmented absolute clauses.....	50
Table 11: Coreferences of augmented absolute clauses.....	50
Table 12: The overall semantic relations.	51
Table 13: Weak and strong adverbials as unaugmented absolute clauses.....	52
Table 14: Weak and strong adverbials as augmented absolute clauses.....	52
Table 15: Coreferences and semantic relations of unaugmented absolutes	53
Table 16: Coreferences and semantic relations of augmented absolutes	55
Table 17: Positions.....	56
Table 18: Syntactic weight.....	57
Table 19: Syntactic weight and positions.....	57
Table 20: The quality of four augmentors.....	66
Table 21: The result of omitted augmentors	72
Table 22: The summary of potential factors that determine the presence/absence of the augmentors.	77

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1: The verbal and non-verbal heads of absolutes	11
Figure 2: A scale of informativeness for semantic relations	24
Figure 3: A scale of informativeness of semantic relations	25
Figure 4: A scale of informativeness of semantic relations	40



CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

The English absolute clause (in bold henceforth) is a non-finite clause with an overt subject and a non-finite predicate, modifying the matrix clause (He & Yang, 2015; Kim, 2020; López, 1994; Quirk et al., 1985; Stump, 1981; Tang, 2005; Yoo, 2008), as in (1) *his gown* and *billowing darkly behind him*, respectively.

- (1) The Dean turned and went out, **his gown billowing darkly behind him** (Kortmann, 2013).

The distinctive characteristic of absolute clauses is that they comprise overt subjects and non-finite predicates. The absolutes, therefore, exclude *free adjuncts*, as in (2a) – (2c) which lack either one of them.

- (2) a. Inflating her lungs, Mary screamed (Kortmann, 2013, p. 5) (no overt subject).
b. Compared with other European countries, the German inflation rate is very low (Kortmann, 2013, p. 6) (no overt subject).
c. A carpenter, he had a long record of hard work, and his family was dependent on his income (He & Yang, 2015, p. 11) (no non-finite predicate).

Examples (2a) – (2c) are commonly called free adjuncts, (He & Yang, 2015; Kortmann, 2013). They lack either overt subjects or non-finite predicates, and are, therefore, ruled out from the study.

Syntactically, the absolute clauses in English are structurally divided into two types: *unaugmented absolute clause* and *augmented absolute clause* (Kortmann, 2013; Pol & Cuyckens, 2013; Todorova, 2013), as displayed in (3a) and (3b), respectively.

- (3) a. **The coach being crowded**, Fred had to stand (Kortmann, 2013, p. 5).
b. **With the teacher refusing to comply**, Barry took the matter to the dean (Berent, 1975, p. 11, as cited in Pol & Cuyckens, 2013, p. 344).

The term *unaugmented* describes the absolute with no introductory augmentor (Kortmann, 2013), as in (3a), whereas *augmented* defines the absolute with an introductory augmentor *with*, as in (3b). Four augmentors are commonly used for the augmented absolute, namely *with*, *without*, *what with*, and *and* (Kortmann, 2013), as in (4a) – (4d).

- (4) a. The conversation, he thought, was like a game of tennis, **with the ball lobbed from one court to the other** (Kortmann, 2013, p. 202).
b. They debated for hours, **without a decision being taken** (Kortmann, 2013, p. 181).

c. ***What with his daughter working, for the bank and his son for the airlines***, no one but the divorced father would take care of the little sisters by the day (Gen'ey, 1994).

d. They left without a word, ***and he so sensitive*** (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 844).

These four augmentors are termed differently as *preposition* (Yoo, 2008), *subordinator* (He & Yang, 2015; Quirk et al., 1985), *prepositional complementizer* (Kim, 2020; Tang, 2005), *complementizer* (Hantson, 1992, as cited in Riehemann & Bender, 1999), *absolute marker* (Pol & Cuyckens, 2013; Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016), and *augmentor* (Kortmann, 2013). To avoid confusion and cover all the possible words, the term *augmentor*, which seems to be neutral, was, therefore, employed in this study, following Kortmann (2013). Case assignment is also a problem with the unaugmented absolute because without an augmentor, they run the risk of violating Case Filter. The unaugmented absolute clause, however, is still commonly used.

Semantically, the absolute subjects are in a coreferential relation with some matrix constituents, roughly in two manners: with no coreference, as in (5a) and with coreference¹, as in (5b).

(5) a. ***With profit margins getting ever smaller in traditional consumer banking***, such economies are very welcome (Kortmann, 2013, p. 92).

b. ***My head bursting with stories and schemes***, I stumbled in next door (Kortmann, 2013, p. 95).

In (5a) there is no coreference between the absolute subject *profit margins* and any matrix constituents; the sentence is, therefore, marked no coreference. The absolute subject *my head* in (5b), on the other hand, co-refers to the matrix pronoun subject *I*, signifying a coreference.

The property of being non-coreferential or coreferential with matrix DPs is believed to be correlated with the augmentation of absolute clauses. That is, the absolute clause with the absence of coreference would increase processing complexity, necessitating augmentation (Berent, 1975, p. 17, as cited in Kortmann, 2013, p. 200), as in (5a) above, in which the augmentor *with* is required due to the non-existence of coreference. Meanwhile, the presence of coreference would facilitate processing, eliminating the need for augmentation (Berent, 1975, as cited in Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016, p. 334), as in (5b) above in which the augmentor is unnecessary thanks to the existence of coreference between *my head* and *I*. The theory mentioned, however, cannot explain the lack of augmentation in (6a) below, of which the absolute clause in bold is non-coreferential with the matrix clause, and the existence of *with*-augmentation in (6b), of which the augmentor *with* should be eliminated due to the coreference between *my form* (absolute) and *I* (matrix).

(6) a. ***The rain pouring down outside the window***, he surveyed his surroundings (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016, p. 323).

b. ***With my form filled in***, I phoned (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016, p. 327).

¹ The coreference can be further subdivided into three types (see section 2.6).

Apart from coreference, the absolute clauses also express a wide range of semantic relations, based primarily on adverbials (Todorova, 2013), to the matrix clause such as accompanying circumstance and anteriority, as given in (7a) and (7b), respectively.

- (7) a. **With his eyes narrowed**, he inclined his head towards her (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016, p. 324) (*accompanying circumstance*, providing additional information).
 b. **With my form filled in**, I phoned (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016, p. 327) (*anteriority*, denoting *after*).

These semantic relations are roughly categorized into two groups in accordance with the degree of *informativeness*, namely *weak adverbials* and *strong adverbials*, following Kortmann (2013) and van de Pol and Petré (2015), as shown in the following examples.

- (8) a. [*Anteriority* **With my form filled in**,] I phoned (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016, p. 327).
 b. [*Accompanying circumstance* **With his eyes narrowed**,] he inclined his head towards her (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016, p. 324).

Strong adverbials are marked when prior knowledge, information, or co-contextual evidence is required from the readers to interpret the semantic relation between absolute and matrix clauses (Fuhre, 2010; Kortmann, 2013, pp. 119-120). As in (8a), shared/prior knowledge/information is essential to understand that the absolute clause *with my form filled in* occurs prior to *I phoned*.

Weak adverbials, on the other hand, require less shared knowledge/information from the readers for inferential processing. In fact, they simply provide additional, conjoining, or side-by-side information to the matrix clause (Fuhre, 2010; Kortmann, 2013, pp. 119-120), as in (8b) in which the absolute *with his eyes narrowed* is placed next to the matrix clause to provide additional details on *he*.

Aside from the role of coreference, it seems that semantic relations may also play a part in the absolute augmentation, as illustrated in examples (9a) and (9b) below.

- (9) a. [*Anteriority* ~~*With~~ **my form filled in**²,] I phoned (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016, p. 327).
 b. [*Accompanying circumstance* ~~With~~ **his eyes narrowed**,] he inclined his head towards her (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016, p. 324).

Both absolute clauses in (9a) and (9b) contain coreferences, which are *my form* and *I*; and *his eyes* and *he*, respectively. According to Berent (1975, as cited in Van de Pol and Hoffmann (2016), due to the presence of coreference, the appearance

² To avoid subjectivity, the grammaticality of the sentence was checked by QuillBot Grammar Checker, the online program that detects ungrammatical sentences and corrects mistakes (See section 3.3.5).

of *with* is unnecessary and should be eliminated. However, when *with*-augmentor is deleted, it turns out the absolute clause in (9a), expressing *anteriority*, the strong adverbial, becomes ungrammatical, whereas the absolute in (9b), providing *accompanying circumstance*, the weak one, remains grammatically unaffected. This suggests that the appearance of an augmentor is perhaps related to the degree of informativeness.

Despite the detailed discussion on the role of the augmentors, the degree of informativeness, and the coreferential properties, the previous semantic investigation is, however, generally related to frequencies such as the frequency in a corpus (Kortmann, 2013) or the increasing use of certain semantic relations (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016; van de Pol & Petré, 2015) with no focus on the interrelated role they may have on the augmentation of absolutes.

With regards to positions, both unaugmented and augmented absolutes also share a similar arrangement of constituents. Kortmann (2013) categorizes absolute sentential arrangement into three positions: *initial*, *medial*, and *final*, whereas Bosch (2009) and Van de Pol and Hoffmann (2016) propose *fragment* or *separate* as the fourth position. “Separate” is the absolute clause individually detached from the matrix clause by a period (.) rather than a comma (,). The examples of initial, medial, final, and separate positions are given as in (10a) – (10d), respectively.

- (10) a. Initial: **With John driving**, we won’t have a lot of fun (Kortmann, 2013, p. 11).
 b. Medial: He turned slowly and faced the front door, stooping slightly, **his face heated and tired**, with an absent smile (Todorova, 2013).
 c. Final: John was burnt **without a hand lifted on her own side to save her** (Jespersen, 1954, p. 42, as cited in Kortmann, 2013, p. 11).
 d. Separate: But here were hacked limbs and truncated bodies. **Strange, greenish gold fluid staining their skin which was not quite skin and not quite leaf** (Van de Pol & Hoffman, 2016, p. 334).

According to Arnold et al. (2000), the constituent ordering is primarily determined by two factors: the information structure (newness) and the End-Weight principle (heaviness). The following discussion presents the role of pragmatics in determining positions of sentential constituents.

Pragmatically, *information structure* with regards to the order of *topic* and *comment* (Lambrecht, 2012) is believed to govern the positions of sentential constituents, as exemplified in (11) below.

- (11) [Scene-setting topic (clause topic) After the children went to school], [Subject topic he]
 [Comment had to clean the house and go shopping for the party] (Lambrecht, 2012, p. 121).

The whole adverbial clause *after the children went to school* functions as a scene-setting topic (or clause topic) by establishing background information for the underlined matrix clause as shown in (11) (Lambrecht, 2012, p. 125). The subject *he* in the matrix clause, in the meantime, functions as a primary topic (subject topic) of

the sentence (Lambrecht, 2012, pp. 125, 147). Topic is the “center of attention,” which introduces “theme of the discourse” (Li & Thompson, 1976, p. 464), whereas the following predicate *had to ... party* serves as a focus/comment, conveying new information about the topic (Lambrecht, 2012, p. 226).

Positions could also be syntactically determined, as in the following examples.

- (12) a. The waiter brought [_{DP} the wine we had ordered] [_{PP} to the table].
 b. The waiter brought [_{PP} to the table] [_{DP} the wine we had ordered].
 (Arnold, et al., 2000, p. 28)

In (12a) the PP *to the table* is regarded as shorter and lighter than the DP *the wine we had ordered* (Determiner Phrase, traditionally known as NP). It is, therefore, moved to precede the DP, causing *heavy NP shift (HNPS)*, as in (12b). This follows the *Principle of End-Weight* in the fact that the light constituent is placed before the heavy one (Quirk et al., 1972). That is, longer, heavier, and complex phrases or structures usually come last in a clause or sentence or near the ends (Behaghel, 1909/10, as cited in Arnold et al., 2000). In other words, “save the hardest for last” (Bever, 1970, p. 330). In addition, Wasow (1997, p. 94) also suggests that saving longer constituents for later would facilitate utterance planning and production.

The influence of syntactic weight/complexity (heaviness) and information status (topic-comment/newness) on the ordering of constituents (Arnold et al., 2000) is in line with Thompson’s (1978) study which states that languages vary due to the relative effects of syntax and pragmatics on the order of words (as cited in Wu, 2019, p. 12). Mithun (1992)’s claim also supports the role of pragmatics on the order of constituents (p. 58). However, the study of absolute clauses with regards to syntactic weight and information structure has not yet been explored in absolute clauses. This study is, therefore, conducted to investigate if the ordering of absolute clauses is syntactically or pragmatically determined.

With respect to frequency, English absolute clauses are traditionally claimed to be formal and infrequent (Quirk et al, 1985, p. 1120), archaic, rather than stylistic (Higa, 2023), and should be avoided in writing (Sweet, 1903, p. 124). Nonetheless, with the use of corpus-based quantitative approach and diachronic method, it was found that English absolute clauses are frequent in fiction and tend to be increasingly used in Present-Day English (He & Yang, 2015; Kim, 2020; Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016; van de Pol & Petré, 2015). Despite the useful findings above, the reasons for their appearances in the context of fiction have not yet been explored.

Since English absolute clauses tend to be frequent in fiction (Nordquist, 2019; Todorova, 2013), *Harry Potter and the Philosopher’s Stone* and *Harry Potter and the Chamber of Secrets*, the first two books of *Harry Potter* series, were therefore selected as the main source of data of this study. The text selection is primarily based on the fact that the books of Harry Potter are bestsellers and have been the source for linguistics analysis in a few studies. Růžicková (2019) studies sentential complexity in the first and the final books of *Harry Potter* series; however, the absolute clauses were not included. Even though Duffy (2002) mentions that the absolute clauses were found “everywhere” in *Harry Potter* books, no study, to my best knowledge, has yet specifically focused on absolute clauses. This study is, therefore, conducted to investigate the quantitative patterns of absolute clauses and examines the interaction

between the syntax, semantics, and pragmatics of (un)augmented absolute clauses in both books.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

The objectives of the study are described as follows.

1. To investigate the quantitative patterns of the two types of absolute clauses in *Harry Potter and the Philosopher's Stone* and *Harry Potter and the Chamber of Secrets*.
2. To examine the interaction between the syntax, semantics, and pragmatics of each type of absolute clauses in *Harry Potter and the Philosopher's Stone* and *Harry Potter and the Chamber of Secrets*.

1.3 Research Questions

The results of this study are expected to answer the following research questions.

1. What are the quantitative patterns of absolute clauses in fiction?
2. What are the syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic properties of each type of absolute clauses found in the context of fiction?

1.4 Statements of Hypotheses

Due to the limited number of augmentors that introduces the augmented clause (four augmentors, i.e., *with*, *without*, *what with*, and *and*, following Kortmann, 2013), it is expected that the unaugmented absolute clause could outnumber the augmented absolute clause. In addition, being reduced, the absolutes are syntactically light, which makes them easy to be located sentence-initially to satisfy the *End-Weight Principle*, which requires a syntactically heavier constituent, in this case, the matrix clause, to be in the sentence final position (Behaghel, 1909/10, as cited in Arnold et al., 2000; Bever, 1970; Quirk et al., 1972; Wasow, 1997). Moreover, the absolute clause, which is grammatically light, tends to follow information structure in that its subject will serve initially as a topic, signifying the theme of discourse, while its matrix clause will occur finally as a comment, providing new, unknown information (Li & Thompson, 1976). Based on the earlier statement, the hypotheses are, therefore, formulated as follows:

1. The augmented absolute clause is less frequent than its counterpart due to the existence of the augmentors, which are also limited to only a few augmentors, such as *with* and *without*. The augmentors are believed to semantically restrict the occurrences of the augmented absolutes.
2. Being reduced, both clauses appear in the initial position of the sentence more frequently than other positions following the End-Weight Principle and information structure (topic-comment).

1.5 Significance of the Study

The result of this study is hoped to show how syntax, semantics, and pragmatics play an interrelated role in determining the appearance of absolute clauses in such narrative writings as fiction. Syntactically, the study is expected to shed light on the quality of the four major augmentors, i.e., *with*, *without*, *what with*, and *and* if they should be considered as a preposition, a subordinator, or a complementizer. This quality is believed to explain the questionable case marking of absolute clauses. Semantically, this study may uncover how the semantic relations play a part in the presence/absence of augmentors. The investigation also includes the correlations they may have between coreferences and semantic relations towards the occurrence of absolutes. With respect to positions, this study investigates the ordering of absolute clauses if they are pragmatically determined by the information structure or syntactically determined by the *End-Weight* principle. The interaction between syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic aspects is expected to describe the appearance of absolute clauses in the context of fiction.



CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This section covers various aspects of absolute clauses in English analyzed in previous studies. The discussion begins with the conflicting terminology and the distinction between the absolutes and similar constructions in section 2.1. Section 2.1 is then supported by sections 2.2-2.5, which elaborate the syntactic structure of the absolutes. The discussion on the sentence structure is later followed by the semantics of the absolutes in sections 2.6-2.7. These two sections concern coreferential properties and semantic relations respectively. Following the semantics are the studies on the sentential positions in section 2.8 and the previous studies regarding English absolute clauses in section 2.9. Section 2.10 finally sums up the overall picture of the chapter. It is expected that the content in this chapter contributes to the solid background information that will lead to the current study on the absolute clauses in English.

2.1 Terms and Structures

Depending on the authors, an English absolute clause is termed differently, either as a phrase, a construction, or a clause as in (1a) – (1c), respectively.

- (1) a. We decided to have our picnic, **the weather being warm and clear** (Nordquist, 2019).
- b. There he sat, **his back against the hot stones of the tower** (Riehemann & Bender, 1999, p. 478).
- c. **Episode over**, put it out of your mind (He and Yang, 2015, p. 13).

In (1a), the boldfaced absolute is defined as “a phrase” because it is a group of words that modifies the matrix clause (Nordquist, 2019). Like the phrase definition, the English absolute in bold in (1b) is called “a construction,” a sentence modifier (Riehemann & Bender, 1999) or a non-finite construction (van de Pol & Petré, 2015) that modifies the matrix clause. The absolute is also termed “a clause” due to the fact that it consists of an overt subject and a predicate as in (1c) above (He & Yang, 2015; Kim, 2020; Quirk et al., 1985; Tang, 2005; Yoo, 2008).

In this study, the term *clause* was selected due to the fact that the boldfaced absolute can be parsed into two elements: a subject (DP/PRN) and predicate (VP). In (1a), for instance, the subject is DP *the weather* and the predicate, VP *being warm and clear*.

The characteristic of having its own subject and non-finite predicate helps distinguish the absolute clause from other similar structures. In this section, this quality is used to demonstrate how absolute clauses differ from similar constructions, namely, control constructions, free adjuncts, and appositive clauses.

Absolute clauses in (2a) and (2b) and control clauses (Radford, 2004) in (3a) and (3b) are similar in that both are in *to infinitive* and *-ing* forms.³

- (2) a. He_i also gave advance information about an evening and a one-day conference, **both_j to take place in London** (He & Yang, 2015, p. 13).
 b. **His sister_i having arrived the day before**, Mr. Jones_j did not understand why she had not visited him yet (Kortmann, 2013, p. 11).
- (3) a. Sam_i is in the kitchen [**PRO_i washing dishes**].
 b. Sam_i went into the kitchen [**PRO_i to wash dishes**]

In (2a) and (2b), the indexation shows that the matrix subjects and the absolute subjects have different references, while the coindexation in (3a) and (3b) indicates that the *Sam* and *PRO*, the covert subject, share the reference. Based on the quality of having the overt subject, only (2a) and (2b) are, therefore, absolute clauses, whereas control clauses in (3a) and (3b) are not absolute clauses.

The control clauses as adjuncts in (3a) and (3b) are “free adjuncts” according to Donaldson (2021, p. 9). Having no overt subjects, free adjuncts also include clauses that start with the past participle (V-*ed*), prepositional phrases (PP), Adjectival phrases (AdjP), and Determiner phrases (DP), as given in (4a) – (4f).

- (4) *Non-finite free adjuncts*⁴
- a. **iClearing her throat**, Tamia_i motioned to the long class conference table. (Donaldson, 2021, p. 9)
 b. **iAsked how she felt**, she_i refused to comment (Donaldson, 2021, p. 10).
 c. **To irestore from a backup**, users_i should open the settings dialog (Donaldson, 2021, p. 10).

Verbless free adjuncts

- d. **iFrom the town of Bedrock**, they're_i a page right out of history (Donaldson, 2021, p. 10).
 e. **iDiscouraged**, Henry_i stared at his bike (Donaldson, 2021, p. 10).
 f. **iA former teacher**, she_i was majoring in philosophy at the University of Michigan (Donaldson, 2021, p. 10).

Similar to control constructions, the coindexation at *clearing* (4a), *asked* (4b), *restore* (4c), PP *from the town of Bedrock* (4d), AdjP *discouraged* (4e), and DP *a*

³ The bare infinitive of control clauses as in *Joe helped fix cars* is excluded since it does not share the similarity with absolutes.

⁴ Items (4a) and (4c) are also called control clauses with covert PRO. Item (4f) could be termed DP in apposition. These examples show that the terms are overlapping.

former teacher (4f) suggests that the implied subjects and the matrix clause subjects share the reference, thereby causing free adjunct to be excluded from the study.

Like the free adjunct above in (4f), which can be a DP, an appositive phrase is also a DP. An appositive phrase is the two juxtaposed DPs, which have identical reference (Nelson & Greenbaum, 2013). The second DP in apposition has the same grammatical position as its preceding DP (Carter & McCarthy, 2006), as shown in (5a) below. The two juxtaposed DPs are also found in absolute clauses, as in (5b) below in which *his expression* is the first DP and *a mixture of anxiety and resentment*, the second DP.

Having two DPs with the same reference side by side, (4f) is superficially similar to the appositive phrase and the absolute clause in (5a) and (5b) respectively.

- (5) a. [DP₁ **The Queen**], [DP₂ **the head of the Commonwealth**], will be accompanied to the conference by the Prime Minister and the Foreign Secretary (Carter & McCarthy, 2006, p. 330).

- b. He looked towards the Presidential Suite, [DP₁ **his expression**][DP₂ **a mixture of anxiety and resentment**] (Kortmann, 2013, p. 10).

In (5a), *The Queen* is the DP head modified by the appositive phrase, *the head of the commonwealth*, while the absolute clause in (5b) comprises the subject, *his expression* and the predicate, *a mixture of anxiety and resentment*, with the copula *be* omitted.

The difference between the appositive, the free adjunct, and the absolute is, only the appositive follows and modifies the DP head (Syrett & Koev, 2014). Unlike the appositive, the free adjunct and the absolute modify the clause and can appear sentence-initially, medially, and finally. The free adjunct, again, is different from the absolute in the lack of overt subject. Because of the above differences, both the appositive and the free adjuncts are, thus, ruled out from this study.

This section concludes that absolutes could be called either as *phrase*, *clause*, or *construction*. In this study, the term *clause* was chosen as the absolute possesses the clausal quality of having its own subject and predicate, distinguishing it from similar phrase and non-finite clauses, such as control clauses, free adjuncts, and appositive phrases.

2.2 The Structure of Absolute Clauses

English absolute clauses are structurally divided into two categories, namely *unaugmented absolute* and *augmented absolute* (Kortmann, 2013; Todorova, 2013), as in (6a) and (6b), respectively.

- (6) a. **The match having been cancelled**, the supporters of our team were most disappointed (Kortmann, 2013, p. 11).

- b. **With her hair braided**, Jane must resemble Mary (Kortmann, 2013, p. 11).

The term *unaugmented* defines the absolute clause with no introductory augmentor, whereas the term *augmented* describes the absolute with an augmentor added at the front (Kortmann, 2013). According to Kortmann (2013) there are four augmentors in English absolutes, that is *with*, *without*, *what with*, and *and*, as shown in (7a) – (7d).

- (7) a. **With John driving**, we won't have a lot of fun (Kortmann, 2013, p. 11).
 b. **Without the headmaster noticing**, they removed all the tables from the classroom (Kortmann, 2013, p. 11).
 c. **What with mother being sick and Ellen on holiday**, I don't know how to keep the children under control (Kortmann, 2013, p. 11).
 d. They left without a word, **and he so sensitive** (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 844).

These four augmentors are called differently, depending on literature. They are termed *preposition* (Yoo, 2008), *subordinator* (He & Yang, 2015; Quirk et al., 1985), *prepositional complementizer* (Kim, 2020; Tang, 2005), *complementizer* (Hantson, 1992, as cited in Riehemann & Bender, 1999), *absolute marker* (Pol & Cuyckens, 2013; Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016), or *augmentor* (Kortmann, 2013). The use of just one term could not cover all. That is, if the augmented word is called a preposition, this term technically excludes *and*, but if the augmented word is called a subordinator, it seems unfit for *with*, *without*, and *what with*. Seemingly neutral, the term “augmentor”⁵ is, therefore, employed in this study, following Kortmann (2013), to avoid term confusion and cover all the possible augmented words that could be introduced before absolute clauses.

Both unaugmented and augmented English absolutes can be followed by two types of predicative heads: *verbal head* and *non-verbal head*⁶. The verbal head is the predicate that possesses the verbal property, i.e., *present participle* (V-ing), *past participle* (V-ed), and *infinitive* (To-V). The non-verbal head, on the other hand, is the predicate that signifies non-verbal property, i.e., *determiner phrase* (DP), *prepositional phrase* (PP), and *adjectival phrase* (AdjP) (Kortmann, 2013), as shown in Figure 1.

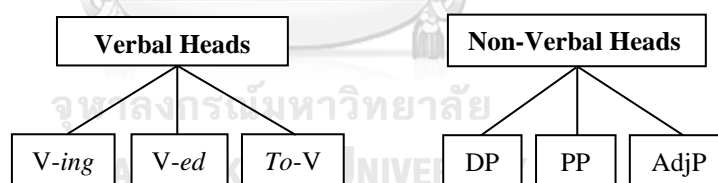


Figure 1: *The verbal and non-verbal heads of absolutes* (adapted from Kortmann, 2013)

Examples of verbal and non-verbal heads are displayed in Table 1 below.

⁵ This study follows Kortmann's spelling “augmentor.”

⁶ The terms may vary depending on textbooks. He & Yang (2015) term “verbal and non-verbal heads” as “non-finite verb and verbless component,” respectively.

Table 1: *Examples of verbal and non-verbal heads*

Structure (Subj +)	Examples
V-ing	(8a) Off they went, she remaining behind (Kortmann, 2013, p. 12).
	(8b) With time running out , they desperately need points to avoid relegation (He & Yang, 2015, p. 14).
V-ed	(9a) Dinner finished , we left for the opera (Kortmann, 2013, p. 10)
	(9b) With the mortgage paid , they could afford to go abroad for their vacation (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1003).
To-V	(10a) We shall assemble at ten forty-five, the procession to start at precisely eleven (Yoo, 2008, p. 52).
	(10b) With there (probably) to be a meeting at 1:00 , we'd better have a quick lunch (McCawley, 1983, p. 275).
DP	(11a) De Craon blinked, his face now a mask of concern (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016, p. 323).
	(11b) With his son a student , you probably don't see so much of him (Yoo, 2008, p. 51).
AdjP	(12a) The storks circled high above us, their slender bodies sleek and black against the orange sky (Nordquist, 2019).
	(12b) With most students eager to learn about new things , we shouldn't teach the same courses year after year (Yoo, 2008, p. 51).
PP	(13a) At length they stopped, and sat side by side, their backs against a boulder (Kortmann, 2013, p. 10).
	(13b) With you as my friend , I don't need enemies (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1003).

The structure of absolute clauses resembles a sentence with the subject and the verbal elements. The absolute clauses, however, cannot appear on their own because of their non-finite predicates (López, 1994, p. 48; Todorova, 2013).

2.3 The Syntactic Structure of English Absolute Clauses

He and Yang (2015), Kim (2020), Quirk et al. (1985), and Tang (2005) propose that the English absolute is a clause with the subject and predicate, as in the structure below, adapted from Tang (2005, p. 9).

(14) [CP [TP subject T [VP v Ø predicate]]].

In (14), the subject is at the Spec TP headed by the non-finite T of the absolute, whereas VP is the place for the predicate, as exemplified in the following example.

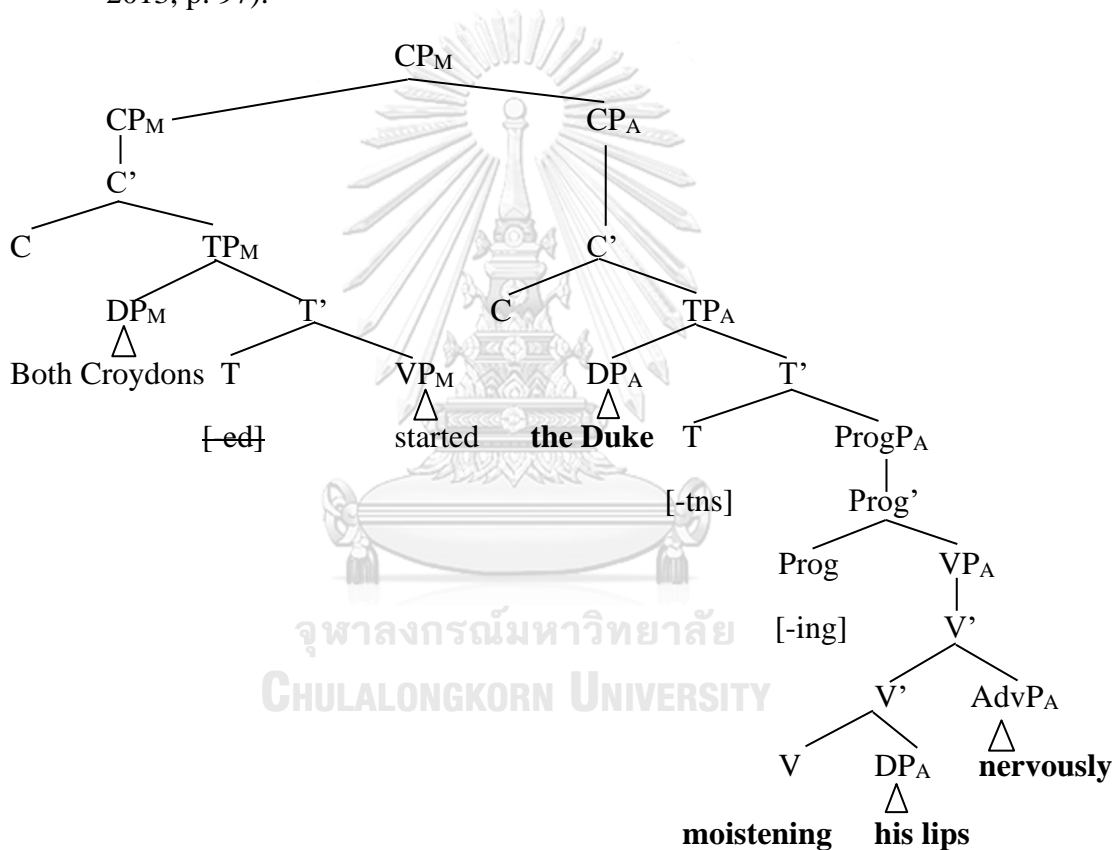
(15) a. The dean turned and went out, [CP [TP **his gown** T Ø [ProgP [Prog Ø [VP [V **billowing darkly behind him**]]]]]] (Kortmann, 2013, p. 96).

b. [CP [TP **Christmas** T Ø [VP v Ø [DP **then only days away**]]], the family was pent up with excitement (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1120).

In (15a), the non-finite TP comprises the subject, *his gown*, and the predicate *billowing darkly behind him*, while in (15b), the non-finite TP comprises *the subject Christmas* and the predicate *then only days away*. Both (15a) and (15b) have null auxiliary *be* omitted.

Being non-finite, the absolute clause depends on its matrix CP to provide tense; it is, therefore, assumed that the absolute syntactically functions as an adjunct of matrix CP (Tang, 2005, p. 9). The assumption for CP adjunction, proposed by Tang (2005), is in line with Kim (2020) who proposes two adjunction tree diagrams of absolutes: CP adjunction for unaugmented absolutes and PP adjunction for augmented absolutes, as in the following patterns⁷.

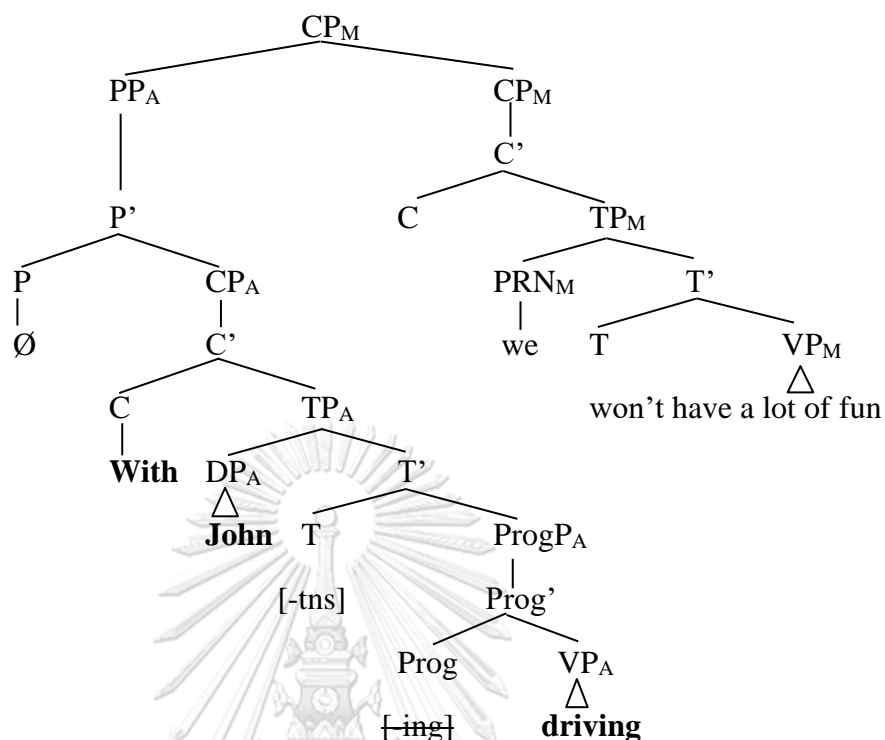
- (16) Both Croydons started, **the Duke moistening his lips nervously** (Kortmann, 2013, p. 97).



As displayed in (16), the unaugmented absolute is considered an adjunct CP, located to the right of its matrix clause CP. Kim (2020) and Tang (2005) suggest *with*-augmentor classify as a prepositional-complementizer since they consider it both a preposition and a complementizer. The tree diagram, proposed by Kim (2020), thereby contains PP governing CP, as in (17) below.

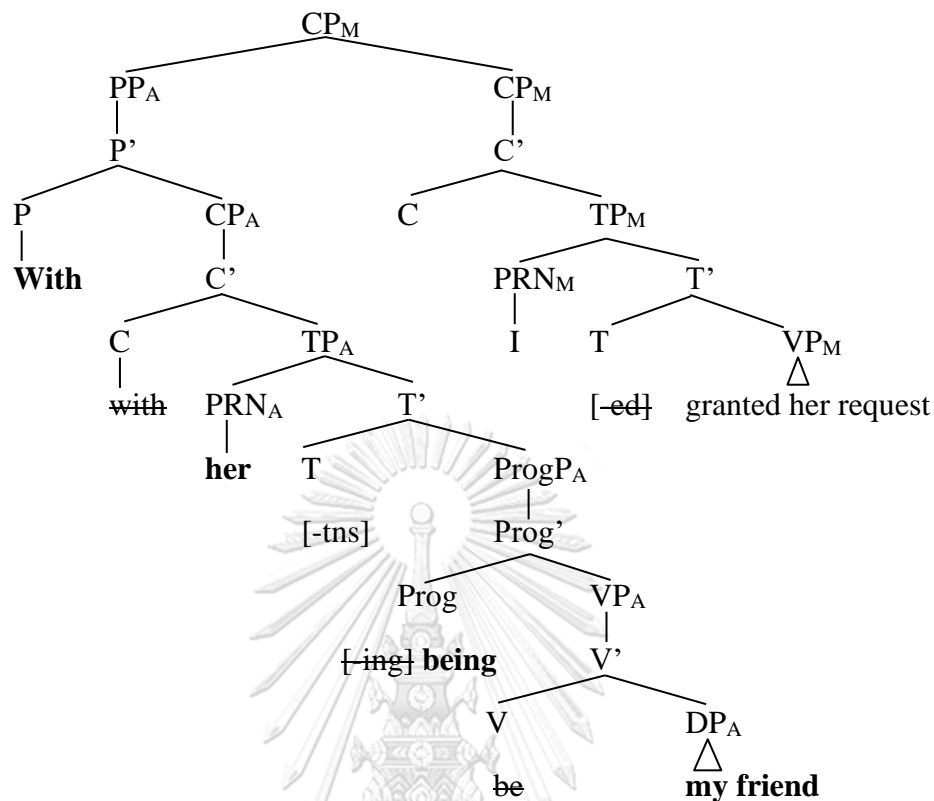
⁷ The tree diagrams are minor adjusted to be in accordance with Radford (2016) and Van Gelderen (2017).

(17) **With John driving**, we won't have a lot of fun (Kortmann, 2013, p. 11).



With the belief that *with*-augmentor is a prepositional complementizer, the PP-CP projection is proposed to explain how *with* holds two properties. In the tree diagram below, *with*, as a complementizer, positions at C, to assign nominative case to the absolute subjects in (17) and (18). As (18) is a pronoun, *with* moves to head P via C to P movement as in the tree diagram below (Kim, 2020).

- (18) **With her being my friend**, I granted her request (Kim, 2020, p. 423).



The movement of *with* from C to P is said to serve the role of being a preposition by assigning oblique case to the absolute PRN *her*, which functions as both an object of the preposition *with* and the subject of the lower absolute clause.

The proposed operations above are, however, considered uneconomical, unconventional, and inelegant with two operations applying to one construction and one element occupying two adjacent case assigning heads without motivation for head-to-head movement. To suggest a more economical operation, this study proposes that the augmentor *with* is a prepositional complementizer occupying head C like *for* complementizer in *for* phrases, as in (19) below, where *for* is assumed to assign oblique case through its property as preposition.

- (19) I'm anxious [_{CP} [C *for* you to receive the best treatment possible]] (Radford, 2016, p. 86).

In (19), *for* is a prepositional complementizer being at head C and assigning an oblique case to the pronoun *you*. Similarly, in augmented absolute clauses, as in (18), the augmentor *with*, as a prepositional complementizer at head C, assigns oblique case to the absolute subject. This operation is deemed economical and elegant because not only that it involves a single case assigning head for the subject and it applies to both DP and pronoun subjects, but it also applies to the unaugmented absolute.

In the unaugmented absolute, the augmentor *with* is claimed to be covert (Kim, 2020; Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016), as in (20).

- (20) **(With) her being my friend**, I granted her request (Kim, 2020, p. 423).

In the case of covert *with*, head C is null like the control construction in (21) below.

(21) They tried [_{CP} [_C \emptyset [_{TP} PRO [_T to [_{VP} leave]]]]] (Van Gelderen, 2017).

In (21), head C in the control construction is null (Radford, 2009). Based on the above analysis, the absolute clause is seen as having two variations of the head C: the null C for the unaugmented absolute and the overt prepositional complementizer for the augmented absolute. In the augmented absolute, the overt prepositional complementizer assigns oblique case to the subject in the same fashion as the *for* phrase.

The above discussion shows that not many studies have covered the syntactic properties of the absolute. Only Kim (2020) details the syntactic operations with a few weaknesses. This study, therefore, proposes a more economical operation based on Radford's (2009) analysis of *for* phrases and control construction. This study will further investigate the appearance of not only *with*, but also the other augmentors such as *without*, *what with*, and *and*.

2.4 The Economy Principle of Absolute Clauses

The syntactic structure of English is believed to be governed by the "Economy Principle," a universal principle which states that structures and operations should be as economical as possible (Radford, 2016, p.23). The notion of Economy Principle could be found in several types of constructions, as exemplified in (22a) – (22d).

- (22) a. **(Are)** you coming? (Thrasher Jr, 1974).
 b. I'll see you **(on)** Sunday (Radford, 2016).
 c. **(Has)** a school that big ever failed before? (Thrasher Jr, 1974).
 d. **(Will)** you be away long? (Thrasher Jr, 1974)

In (22a) the auxiliary *are* is omitted without affecting the meaning. In (22b) the omission of the preposition *on* does not lead to major semantic alteration. The auxiliary *has* in (22c) can also be omitted and the perfective aspect still remains unaffected. The modal *will* in (22d) could be omitted without affecting the future aspect of the sentence. The given examples show that these functional categories can be omitted in particular contexts. Since they contain little meaning, their omissions, which do not affect the meaning of the sentence, satisfy the Economy Principle.

Based on the earlier discussion, the structure of the absolute clause seems to be economically reduced as the tense and the auxiliary are omitted, as shown in (23a) and (23b) below.

- (23) a. Anthony jumped out of bed and, **the night ~~was being~~ cold**, put on his dressing-gown and slippers (Barkhudarov, 1966, p. 129, as cited in Todorova, 2013).

- b. My neighbor found three of the chairs, **one of them (was) nearly shattered** (Bosch, 2009).

In (23) the auxiliary *be* is omitted, together with tense, due to their lack of semantic contribution; as a result, they satisfy the Economy Principle making the whole absolute clause economical and concise. In this study, the role of the Economy Principle towards the structure of absolute clauses will be examined to see if the concept affects the appearance of the absolute.

2.5 The Argument Structure of Absolutes

Absolute clauses can be either one-place (single argument) or two-place (two-arguments) predicates as the verbs can be either intransitive or transitive. Being one-place predicates, the subjects can have thematic roles of THEME, AGENT, INSTRUMENT or EXPERIENCER, while being two-place predicates, the subjects can be AGENT, INSTRUMENT, or EXPERIENCER. Thematic roles or θ -roles are the typological study of the argument in relation to its predicate (Fillmore, 1968; Gruber, 1965; and Jackendoff, 1972, as cited in Radford, 2004). The thematic roles are roughly divided into eight types, namely THEME, AGENT, EXPERIENCER, LOCATION, GOAL, SOURCE, INSTRUMENT, and BENEFACTIVE/BENEFICIARY (Haegeman, 1994; Fillmore, 1968; Gruber, 1965; and Jackendoff, 1972, as cited in Radford, 2004), as in (24a) – (24i).

- (24) a. [Mary _{THEME}] fell over (Radford, 2004, p. 251).
 b. [Debbie _{AGENT}] killed Harry (Radford, 2004, p. 251).
 c. [I _{EXPERIENCER}] like syntax (Radford, 2004, p. 251).
 d. He hid it [under the bed _{LOCATION}] (Radford, 2004, p. 251).
 e. John went [home _{GOAL}.] (Radford, 2004, p. 251).
 f. He returned [from Paris _{SOURCE}] (Radford, 2004, p. 251).
 g. He hit it [with a hammer _{INSTRUMENT}] (Radford, 2004, p. 251).
 h. Galahad gave the detective story to [Jane _{BENEFACTIVE/BENEFICIARY}] (Haegeman, 1994, p. 50).

THEME, sometimes also termed PATIENT (Radford, 2004), is the entity that undergoes the effect of some action (Radford, 2004, p. 251), as in (24a) in which *Mary*, the THEME subject, experiences the effect of “fell over.”

AGENT is the entity that instigates some action (Radford, 2004, p. 251). In (24b) *Debbie* is the person who initiates the action “kill,” showing the role of AGENT.

The entity that experiences some psychological state is claimed to play EXPERIENCER role (Radford, 2004, p. 251). As in (24c), *I* is the person who experiences the feeling of likeness in relation to syntax.

LOCATION is relevant to a place whereby something takes place or is located (Radford, 2004, p. 251). In (24d), the prepositional phrase *under the bed* indicates the LOCATION role where something is hidden.

The destination of some entity is represented by the role of GOAL (Radford, 2004, p. 251). *Home* in the given example (24e) demonstrates the GOAL or destination of John.

The entity from which something moves signifies the SOURCE role (Radford, 2004, p. 251). The prepositional phrase *from Paris* in (24f) indicates SOURCE where he returned from.

The means used to carry out some action is INSTRUMENT (Radford, 2004, p. 251). In (24g), *with a hammer* is the INSTRUMENT showing what he hit it with.

The entity that benefits from the action demonstrates the thematic role of BENEFACTIVE/BENEFICIARY. In (24h), *Jane* who gets the present from Galahad indicates the BENEFACTIVE/BENEFICIARY role (Haegeman, 1994, p. 50).

The thematic roles given are said to originate from their predicates (Radford, 2004, p. 250), as shown in (25).

- (25) [CP [TP AGENT **The police** [VP have ~~the police~~ **arrested** [DP the suspect.]]]]

The police in (25) originates from the predicate *arrested* and then moves to the specifier position to serve as an AGENT subject, initiating the action *arrested the suspect*. This notion applies to an absolute clause, as in (26a) and (26b) below.

- (26) a. [CP [TP THEME **Her heart** [VP ~~her heart~~ **beating quickly**.]]] Jane rose to speak (Solomon, 1975, p. 356).
 b. She showed in two men, [CP [TP AGENT **both** [VP ~~both~~ **carrying briefcases**]]] (Kortmann, 2013, p. 100).

The above examples show the relations between subjects and predicates. As for the predicates, they are generally classified as agentive and non-agentive. That is, agentive predicates require AGENT as a subject, while non-agentive predicates have other non-AGENT thematic roles as a subject, i.e., THEME, EXPERIENCER, LOCATION, GOAL, SOURCE, INSTRUMENT, and BENEFICIARY (Radford, 2004, 2009).

The classification of predicates generally corresponds with the constructions they appear. That is, transitive and unergative predicates generally require AGENT, INSTRUMENT, or EXPERIENCER as subjects, while the unaccusative predicates usually have THEME as subjects (Simargool, 2006), as in (27a) – (27c) below.

- (27) a. Transitive: Both Croydons started, [AGENT **the Duke**] **moistening his lips nervously** (Kortmann, 2013, p. 97).
 b. Unergative: At least 20 youths were arrested, [AGENT **some**] **resisting violently** (Kortmann, 2013, p. 97).
 c. Unaccusative: The dean turned and went out, [THEME **his gown**] **billowing darkly behind him** (Kortmann, 2013, p. 96).

In addition, these constructions are in relation to the number of arguments. That is, transitive predicates are a two-place predicate whose two arguments are a subject and a VP complement (Radford, 2004). For instance, *moisten* is a two-place predicate whose two arguments are the subject *the Duke* and the VP complement *his lips*. As for unergative and unaccusative predicates, they are one-place predicates, requiring a single argument as its subject (Radford, 2004). In (27b) and (27c), *resist* and *billow* are unergative and unaccusative predicates whose single argument subjects are *some* and *his gown*, respectively.

2.6 Semantic Coreferences in Absolute Clauses

It is stated that the overt subject of absolute clauses is understood as non-referentiality. That is, the overt absolute subject is not semantically relevant to any matrix constituents (Visser, 1972, as cited in Kortmann, 2013, p. 91). Nevertheless, Kortmann (2013) believes that the overt absolute subject holds various degrees of coreference with an element in matrix clause, therefore suggesting the four groups of coreferences, namely *no coreference*, *full coreference*, *part-whole coreference*, and *constituent coreference*.

2.6.1 No Coreference (NC)

The absolute subject is marked as no coreference (NC) when it is completely distinct in reference from any constituents in the matrix clause (Kortmann, 2013, p. 92), as exemplified in (28a) and (28b) below.

- (28) a. **Protocol having been satisfied, and the visit being an extremely brief one**, the large party proceeded to squeeze the small party out of all proportion to his popular vote (Kortmann, 2013, p. 92).
- b. **With profit margins getting ever smaller in traditional consumer banking**, such economies are very welcome (Kortmann, 2013, p. 92).

The absolute subject DPs *Protocol* and *the visit*, in (28a), are marked as NC since they have no coreferential connection with any constituents in the matrix clause. Correspondingly, the absolute subject DP, *profit margins*, in (28b) does not semantically co-refer to any matrix constituents that follows.

The dummy *it* and *there* and those DPs in such stereotyped expressions as *all being well*, *weather permitting*, *time permitting*, *permission granted*, *all things considered*, *all told*, *present company excepted*, and *God willing* are considered to signify NC as in (29a) – (29d) (He & Yang, 2015; Kortmann, 2013; Quirk et al., 1985).

- (29) a. **With there being so many people in the room**, we couldn't hear each other (Kortmann, 2013, p. 93).
- b. He could no longer build anything, whether a private residence in his Pennsylvania county or a church in Brazil, **without it being obvious that he had done it** (Kortmann, 2013, p. 93).
- c. The picnic is scheduled for Saturday, **weather permitting** (Pickett et al., 2005, p. 6).

d. **All things considered**, it's not a bad idea (Pickett et al., 2005, p. 7).

Based on the earlier discussion, there are two criteria in labelling NC. First, NC is marked when the absolute subject is completely distinctive from any matrix constituent. Second, NC is identified when there is the use of such idiomatic expressions *all being well*, *weather permitting*, *time permitting*, *permission granted*, *all things considered*, *all told*, and so on.

2.6.2 Full Coreference (FC)

Full coreference (FC) is marked when the overt absolute subject fully refers to the matrix constituents by means of *DP repetition*, *anaphoric pronouns*, and *DPs which are different in sense but identical in reference* (Kortmann, 2013, p. 99).

A. DP Repetition

DP repetition is achieved when the absolute DP replicates its matrix referent, making both of them the same referents, as shown in (30a) and (30b).

- (30) a. She picked up a wine jug and strode across to the foot of the dune, **the jug on her head** (Kortmann, 2013, p. 99).
- b. In one sense all behavior 'has a genetic basis,' **that sense being that it also has an environmental basis** (Kortmann, 2013, p. 100).

B. Anaphoric Pronoun

An absolute subject also appears in the form of a pronoun which refers to its matrix referent. For example, from (31a) – (31c), instead of repeating the matrix referents, the absolute subjects make use of anaphoric pronouns *both*, *all*, and *he* to fully refer to their matrix DPs, *two men*, *morphologically distinct paradigms*, and *their patron*, *St Anthon*, respectively.

- (31) a. She showed in two men, **both carrying briefcases** (Kortmann, 2013, p. 100).
- b. There were morphologically distinct paradigms, **all subjunctive**, used as the major markers of the four types of conditional sentences in Latin (Kortmann, 2013, p. 100).
- c. Their patron, St Anthony, was the Egyptian hermit, **he having been held to foster the growth of herbs in the desert** (Kortmann, 2013, p. 100).

C. DPs which are Different in Sense but Identical in Reference

- (32) Rob slammed the door when he came in, **the bastard doing everything in his power to wake us up** (Kortmann, 2013, p. 100).

Superficially, the absolute subject may look different from the matrix constituent it refers to. However, a closer examination could reveal that they are the same referent. For instance, in (32), the DPs *Rob* and *the bastard* look distinct from

each other on the surface. Nevertheless, context suggests that *Rob* and *the bastard* are the same person, suggesting FC.

Full coreference (FC) is, therefore, marked by virtue of three main methods: A) *DP repetition*, B) *anaphoric pronouns*, and C) *DPs which are different in sense but identical in reference*. DP repetition signifies FC when the matrix referent is entirely repeated by the absolute subject. The absolute subject could also repeat its matrix referent by using such anaphoric pronouns as *both*, *all*, *he*, etc., or appearing in another DP which are different in meaning but identical in reference, as in *Rob* and *the bastard* in (32) above.

2.6.3 Part-Whole Coreference (PC)

The relatedness between the absolute subject and its matrix referent could be found in the form of part-whole relationship which is understood in the sense that the absolute subject is a *part* of the *whole* matrix constituent it refers to. This kind of coreference is usually signaled by a possessive marker such as *my*, *their*, *his*, *her*, etc. (Kortmann, 2013, p. 95), as in the following example.

- (33) **My head** _[part] **bursting with stories and schemes**, I _[whole] stumbled in next door (Kortmann, 2013, p. 95).

The term “part” in this relation means that the absolute subject is a part or an element of the whole entity of matrix referent. For instance, the absolute DP *My head* is a body part of the matrix PRN *I*, the whole body/person, hence signifying PC.

Kortmann (2013), randomly provides a number of examples in his literature. For the purpose of clarification, this study groups them into four segments: *animate and inanimate referents*, *concrete entity*, *abstract entity*, and *set relations*.

A. Animate and Inanimate Referents

The *whole* in part-whole relationship could be both animate and inanimate entities, as underlined in (34a) and (34b), respectively (Kortmann, 2013).

- (34) a. ‘Mr. Frodo, my dear!’ cried Sam, **tears almost blinding him** (Kortmann, 2013, p. 96).

b. The billowing clouds of Mordor were being driven back, **their edges tattering** (Kortmann, 2013, p. 96).

In (34a) The whole matrix DP *Sam* is an animate referent, while the whole matrix DP *The billowing clouds of Mordor* in (34b) is an inanimate referent, both of which indicate that the part-whole coreference could be found in both living and non-living entities.

B. Concrete Entity

A concrete entity refers to the *part* that is physically seen or felt. This property can be a body part, some piece of clothing, some belongings, and so forth (Kortmann, 2013), as italicized in the following examples.

1) Body Part

- (35) a. Christine had been listening intently, ***an elbow planted on her desk, chin cupped lightly in the palm of one hand*** (Kortmann, 2013, p. 95).
 b. Dexter turned to Emma, ***eyes blazing an apology*** (He & Yang, 2015, p. 19).

2) Pieces of Clothing

- (36) a. The Dean turned and went out, ***his gown billowing darkly behind him*** (Kortmann, 2013, p. 96).
 b. She rushed from the shop, ***hat in hand*** (He & Yang, 2015, p. 18).

3) Belongings

- (37) She's had to fight her way through a grinning throng, then run the length of the road with the strap of her shoulder bag broken, ***her guitar flapping under her other arm***, and foolish tears of remorse flooding her face (Kortmann, 2013, p. 96).

C. Abstract Entity

Aside from a concrete entity, an absolute subject also denotes such an abstract entity as feeling, quality, action, or attitude. Here are examples.

- (38) a. 'That's better!' he said, ***his spirits rising a little*** (Kortmann, 2013, p. 96).
 b. Frodo sat for a while and shivered, ***dreadful fears chasing one another through his mind*** (Kortmann, 2013, p. 96).
 c. ***Her fears somewhat lulled***, she began to read (He & Yang, 2015, p. 19).

D. Set Relations

PC also involves a set relation. That is, the absolute subject is a member or a subset of a matrix referent, a larger unit. Here is an example.

- (39) a. The two were in the lavishly furnished living-room of Warren Trent's suite, ***the older man relaxed in a deep, soft chair*** (Kortmann, 2013, p. 97).

The underlined matrix DP *the two* is the whole unit, while the absolute DP *the older man* is a subset of *the two*, implying PC. Set relations are frequently signaled by expressions including each, some, one, the former/latter, etc., as illustrated in (39b) and (39c) below (Kortmann, 2013, p. 98).

- b. Behind him the Fellows of Porterhouse sat rigid like embalmed figures, ***each absorbed in calculating his own complicity in a scandal that must bring ruin to them all*** (Kortmann, 2013, p. 98).

- c. At least 20 youths were arrested, ***some resisting violently*** (Kortmann, 2013, p. 98).

Part-whole coreference (PC) is, thus, understood in the sense that the absolute subject is a part of the whole matrix constituent it refers to. Usually preceded by a possessive marker such as *my*, *his*, *her*, *their*, and so on, PC appears in the form of a body part, some piece of clothing, feeling, actions, some part of belonging, etc., all of which are approximately classified into four categories, namely 1) *animate and inanimate referents*, 2) *concrete entity*, 3) *abstract entity*, and 4) *set relations*, as shown in the above examples.

2.6.4 Constituent Coreference (CC)

As for this type, the coreference does not exist in between the whole absolute subject and the whole matrix constituent. The coreferential relation, in contrast, appears either between the modifying part of the absolute subject and the whole matrix referent, as in (40a), or between the whole absolute subject and the modifying part of the matrix DP, as in (40b) (Kortmann, 2013, p. 93).

- (40) a. Cutis O' Keefe was seldom without a feminine escort on his travels, ***the composition of the escort changing frequently*** (Kortmann, 2013, p. 94).
 b. Dewey's cabinet sessions are a prolonged round of give-and-take ***with Dewey subjected to lots of taking*** (Kortmann, 2013, p. 94).

In (40a) the italicized DP *the escort*, a modifying part of the whole absolute subject *the composition of the escort*, co-refers to the whole underlined matrix constituent *a feminine escort*, showing that the coreference exists between the adjunct of the absolute subject and the whole matrix DP, therefore being marked CC.

A certain part of the matrix constituent also co-refers to the whole absolute subject, as in (40b), in which the whole absolute subject *Dewey* refers to the underlined matrix DP *Dewey*, a part of the whole matrix DP, *Dewey's cabinet sessions*.

It should be noted that the two given examples indicate a relation of directly coreferential identity, i.e., *a feminine escort* and *the escort* or *Dewey* and *Dewey*. However, an indirectly co-referential identity could be found in this type of coreference as in (41) below (Kortmann, 2013).

- (41) The hit-and-run fatality of the night before had come a double tragedy, ***the mother of the slain child having died in the hospital*** (Kortmann, 2013, p. 94).

The DP *the slain child*, at first glance, seems to be unrelated to any matrix constituents. A closer inspection, nevertheless, reveals that the DP *the slain child* refers to the matrix DP *the hit-and-run fatality of the night before* because the child died due to that accident. *The slain child*, a part of the absolute subject, indirectly refers to the whole matrix referent *the hit-and-run fatality of the night before*; it is, therefore, marked as CC (Kortmann, 2013).

One subtype of CC is *implied coreference*. Implied coreference happens when the DPs that appear in the modifying adjunct of the absolute subject or the matrix

constituent is covert as shown in parenthesis in (42a) and (42b) below. Not stated directly, this covert constituent is implied from the context; it is, therefore, called *implied coreference*, a subtype of constituent coreference (Berent, 1975, p. 15 as cited in Kortmann, 2013, p. 94). The constituents which are implied are shown in parentheses as in the following examples.

- (42) a. The Silesian was still droning on, **the audience (of the Silesian) still standing aimlessly round him** (Kortmann, 2013, p. 94).
- b. With the business (of our company) leaner, fitter and increasingly profitable, **we are poised for expansion and development on a worldwide scale** (Kortmann, 2013, p. 94).

In (42a) the absolute adjunct *of the Silesian* is not mentioned; it is implied from the definiteness of the audience in that the audience in the context means the audience of the Silesian. This modifying part implicitly refers to the matrix DP *the Silesian*, so it is marked as implied coreference. Likewise, the absolute PRN subject *we* in (42b) also suggests implied coreference since it implicitly refers to the covert matrix adjunct *of our company*, thereby typing implied coreference.

Constituent coreference (CC), therefore, happens when a certain part of the absolute subject refers to the whole matrix referent or a certain part of the matrix referent refers to the whole absolute subject. This certain part mentioned can be either overt or covert. If overt, the absolute subject is marked CC. However, if covert, the absolute subject is considered an implied coreference, which is a subtype of CC.

2.7 Semantic Relations of Absolute Clauses

Aside from coreferences, English absolute clauses also express a wide range of semantic relations to the matrix clause in accordance with “a scale of informativeness,” proposed by Kortmann (2013), as show in Figure 2.

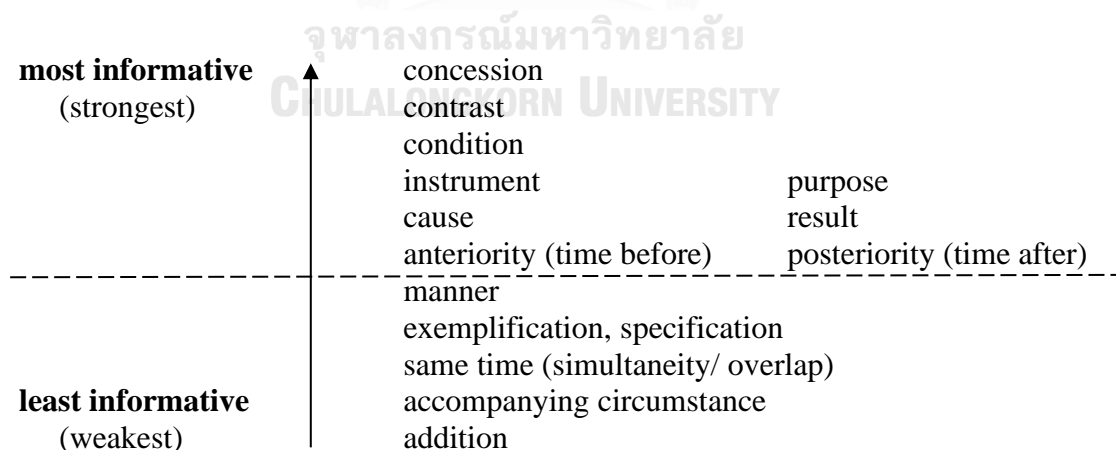


Figure 2: *A scale of informativeness for semantic relations* (Kortmann, 2013, p. 121)

Some semantic relations of the scale of informativeness are overlapping; they are, therefore, grouped together or excluded in later studies. For instance, *exemplification* and *specification* are bound together to form “*elaboration*” with *instrument* included (Fuhre, 2010; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Van de Pol &

Hoffmann, 2016; van de Pol & Petré, 2015). *Addition* and *manner* are included in *accompanying circumstance* due to their similar characteristic of providing additional information (Fuhre, 2010; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016). The semantic relation of *purpose* was also removed due to its non-existence in absolute clauses (Kortmann, 2013) and its exclusion from the absolute studies of van de Pol and Petré (2015)'s; and Van de Pol and Hoffmann's (2016). Further, there are fine lines between *cause* and *anteriority*, and *result* and *posteriority*. That is, *cause* also denotes the time-before event (anteriority) since *cause* is the reason for something to happen. Likewise, *result* also signifies the time-after event (posteriority) as it is the result of something. Due to their close relations to each other in the scale, *cause* and *anteriority* are thus merged together as *cause*, while *result* and *posteriority* are thus combined together as *result*. Owing to these reasons, the scale of informativeness in this study is, thus, minimally adjusted, as shown in Figure 3 below.

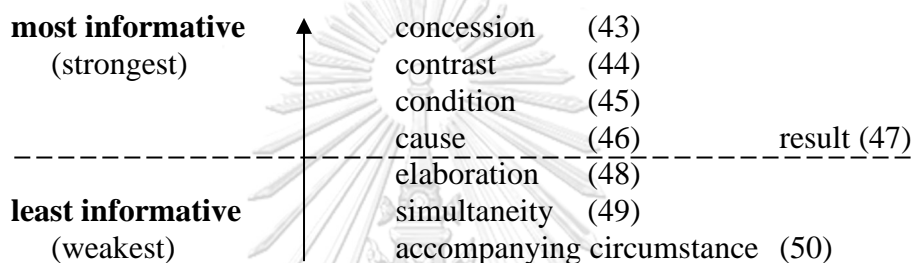


Figure 3: *A scale of informativeness of semantic relations* (Adapted from Kortmann, 2013 with minor adjustment, following Fuhre, 2010; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016; van de Pol & Petré, 2015)

The semantic relations in the scale of informativeness are based on the types of adverbial clauses (Todorova, 2013); each is given with its example and explanation as follows.

- (43) Concession: **The unexpected weather aside**, it had been a good day (He & Yang, 2015, p. 19).

The absolute clause in bold denotes *although*, a concessive relation to its matrix clause. That is, although the unexpected weather was aside, it had been a good day.

- (44) Contrast: Significantly, when the ‘temporal’ conjunction *quand* is used to indicate a potential or unreal concessional conditional, the conditional forms of the verb are most common, **the indicative being used to indicate a real condition** (Kortmann, 2013, p. 193).

The absolute clause in (44) denotes the use of *whereas* and *while/whilst*, suggesting its contrast to the matrix clause. For instance, the indicative in (44) is used to indicate a real condition, which contrasts with the temporal conjunction *quand* which is used to indicate a potential or unreal concessional conditional. Contrast in this sense also includes the absolute clauses that denote the connector *however* and *but* (Kortmann, 2013, p. 127).

- (45) Condition: **Weather permitting**, the big helicopters will place them between the flows and the town (He & Yang, 2015, p. 13).

The absolute clause *weather permitting* in (45) denotes the conditional clause in that if weather permits, the big helicopters will place them between the flows and the town.

- (46) Cause: **There being no bridge**, the master had to stop at the shore (He & Yang, 2015b).

There being no bridge denotes the causal relationship with the matrix clause. That is, the boldfaced absolute *there being no bridge* is the cause for the master to stop at the shore.

- (47) Result: High waves whipped up by hurricane-force winds swamped pleasure boats, **several sinking and others being carried out into the Bay of Biscay** (Adapted from Kortmann, 2013, p. 125).

In contrast to cause, the absolute in bold in (47) denotes resultative reading. That is, several people sank, and others were carried out into the Bay of Biscay because the high waves swamped their boats.

- (48) Elaboration: I too am tired with two lodgers of different nationalities, **one highly carnivorous and one very vegetarian!** (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016, p. 323).

Elaboration is used to elaborate the previous discourse (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016) by means of further specifying, describing, restating, or clarifying it (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 394). The semantic relation of elaboration could be found in the form of comments, specification, explanations, subtypes, and examples (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016). For example, the absolute clause in (48) further specifies the two lodgers of different nationalities, thereby marking the clauses as elaboration.

- (49) Simultaneity: **The rain pouring down outside the window**, he surveyed his surroundings (Van de Pol & Hoffman, 2016, p. 323).

Simultaneity, as its name suggests, sketches the time frame during which the action of matrix clauses takes place (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016, p. 323). That is, it signifies the event that co-occurs with another event. For example, *the rain pouring down outside the window* in (49) denotes *while*, indicating that the rain was pouring down while he surveyed his surroundings.

- (50) Accompanying circumstance: He turned, **his face lined and despairing in the bright morning light** (Kortmann, 2013, p. 170).

Accompanying circumstance is usually placed side by side the matrix clause to provide additional information, typically concerning postures, facial expressions, thoughts, feelings, detail of dressing, perception, holding in one's hand, sound

production, or any kind of movement (Kortmann, 2013). For instance, in (50), the absolute clause *his face lined and despairing in the bright morning light* accompanies the matrix PRN *he*.

According to the given examples, the distinction between *elaboration* and *accompanying circumstance* is concerned. As for elaboration, it is used to elaborate on the meaning of another clause by further specifying or describing it. It does not introduce a new element into the picture but rather provides a further characterization of the one already there (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 394). Accompanying circumstance, on the other hand, extends the meaning of another clause by adding something new to it. What is added may be just an addition, a replacement, or an alternative (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 405).

A scale of informativeness determines the amount of knowledge or information it requires from the readers to interpret the semantic relation between absolute and matrix propositions (Fuhre, 2010; van de Pol & Petré, 2015). The vertical arrow in Figure 3 shows that the higher the arrow is, the more knowledge/information is required. By the dotted line, the semantic relations in Figure 3 are, therefore, grouped together into two types, namely *strong adverbials* and *weak adverbials* (van de Pol & Petré, 2015), as in (51a) and (51b).

- (51) a. [cause **Politics being the natural field for such talents,**] [result he neglects his farm to attend conventions and to run for county offices] (Todorova, 2013).
 b. He entered upon the new enterprise cautiously, [accompanying circumstance **his eyes wide-open**] (He & Yang, 2015b, p. 251).

Strong adverbials are marked when prior knowledge, information, or co-contextual evidence is highly required from the readers to interpret the semantic relation between absolute and matrix clauses. As in (51a) shared/prior knowledge/information is essential to determine the causal relationship between the absolute and the matrix clause.

Weak adverbials, on the contrary, require less knowledge/information for inferential processing. They, in fact, simply provide additional, conjoining, or side-by-side information to the matrix clause (Fuhre, 2010; Kortmann, 2013, pp. 119-120), as in (51b) in which the absolute *his eyes wide-open* is placed side-by-side to the matrix clause to provide additional details about the matrix PRN *he*.

As mentioned earlier, it is believed that the augmentation of absolute clauses is due to the appearance of coreference. With no coreference, the absolute clause would increase the processing complexity, requiring the augmentation (Berent, 1975, p. 17, as cited in Kortmann, 2013, p. 200). The presence of coreference, on the other hand, would facilitate processing, making the augmentation unnecessary (Berent, 1975, as cited in Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016, p. 334). However, the statement does not cover such instances as (52a) and (52b), repeated below.

- (52) a. [Anteriority ~~*With~~ **my form filled in,**] I phoned (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016, p. 327).
 b. [Accompanying circumstance ~~With~~ **his eyes narrowed,**] he inclined his head towards her (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016, p. 324).

Both absolute clauses in (52a) and (52b) contain part-whole coreferences, which are *my form* and *I*; and *his eyes* and *he*, respectively. According to Berent (1975, as cited in Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016), due to the presence of coreference, the appearance of *with* is unnecessary and should be eliminated. When *with*-augmentor is deleted, nonetheless, it turns out the absolute clause in (52a), expressing *anteriority*, the strong adverbial, becomes ungrammatical, whereas the absolute in (52b), functioning as *accompanying circumstance*, the weak one, remains grammatical. This suggests that the absolute augmentation seems to be related to the degree of informativeness, rather than coreference. Due to the lack of this investigation, this study will explore the data to see how the degree of informativeness plays a role in determining the presence or the absence of the augmentor.

Furthermore, previous studies such as Kortmann's (2013) and Van de Pol & Hoffmann's (2016) concern coreferences and semantic relations of absolute clauses individually. In this study, these two aspects of absolute clauses will be examined both separately and together to provide the overall picture and to show their correlations.

2.8 Sentential Positions of Absolute Clauses

Regarding their positions in the sentence, both unaugmented and augmented absolutes also share a similar arrangement of constituents. Kortmann (2013) classifies sentential positions of absolute clauses into three: *initial*, *medial*, and *final*. Bosch (2009) and Van de Pol and Hoffmann (2016) propose *fragment* or *separate* as the fourth position. "Separate" is the absolute clause individually detached from the matrix clause by a period (.) rather than a comma (,). The examples of all four positions are given below.

Initial position

- (53) a. **His voice trembling and his eyes roving**, he started to cry (Kim, 2020, p. 145).
 b. **With John driving**, we won't have a lot of fun (Kortmann, 2013, p. 11).

Medial position

- (54) a. He turned slowly and faced the front door, stooping slightly, **his face heated and tired**, with an absent smile (Todorova, 2013).
 b. On a wild and windy day, **with gusts of rain driving into the side of the crematorium**, an Anglican priest waited for the next funeral to commence (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016, p. 334).

Final position

- (55) a. He shrugged, **his eyes never leaving her face** (Van de Pol & Hoffman, 2016, p. 334).
 b. John was burnt **without a hand lifted on her own side to save her** (Kortmann, 1991).

Separate position

- (56) But here were hacked limbs and truncated bodies. **Strange, greenish gold fluid staining their skin which was not quite skin and not quite leaf** (Van de Pol & Hoffman, 2016, p. 334).

The investigation regarding the positions of absolute clauses has been found in a few studies. According to Kortmann (2013), the final position is said to be the domain of weak adverbials. He and Yang (2015), meanwhile, briefly state that absolute clauses are determined by the information structure without further elaboration. In Thompson's (1978), it is stated in that languages vary owing to the influence of syntax and pragmatics on the ordering of words (as cited in Wu & Chitrakara, 2020), while the study of Mithun's (1992) also supports the role of pragmatics on the order of constituents (p. 58). However, the detailed investigation of absolute positions regarding the pragmatic and syntactic aspects, the two that predominate the ordering of constituents, has not yet been explored in absolute clauses. In later paragraphs, the pragmatic and syntactic aspects, which play an important role in determining positions of sentential constituents, are discussed.

Pragmatically, the *information structure* of *topic* and *comment* (Lambrecht, 2012) is believed to govern the positions of sentential constituents, as illustrated in (57) below.

- (57) [Scene-setting topic (clause topic) After the children went to school], [Subject topic he] [Comment had to clean the house and go shopping for the party] (Lambrecht, 2012, p. 121).

The whole adverbial clause *after the children went to school* functions as a scene-setting topic, establishing background information for the matrix clause (Lambrecht, 2012, p. 125). The subject *he* in the matrix clause, in the meantime, functions as a subject topic of the sentence (Lambrecht, 2012, p. 125, 147). This subject topic is the "center of attention," which introduces "theme of the discourse" (Li & Thompson, 1976, p. 464), whereas the predicate *had to ... party* that follows serves as a focus/comment, giving new information to the topic (Lambrecht, 2012, p. 226).

Additionally, positions could be syntactically determined, as in the following examples.

- (58) a. The waiter brought [DP the wine we had ordered] [PP to the table].
b. The waiter brought [PP to the table] [DP the wine we had ordered].

(Arnold et al., 2000, p. 28)

The End-Weight Principle (Quirk et al., 1972) is also believed to syntactically govern the ordering of constituents. That is, the heavier, longer complex constituents are prone to come last in a clause or sentence or near the ends (Behaghel, 1909/10, as cited in Arnold et al., 2000; Swan, 2016, p. 267). For example, in (58a) the longer, heavier constituent *the wine we had ordered* is shifted to the end of the sentence as in (58b), while the PP *to the table*, the shorter, lighter constituent is shifted to precede the DP *the wine we had ordered*, following the End-Weight Principle.

The other parts of the study concern syntax, semantics, and pragmatics, encompassing topics on the clausal structure, the End-Weight Principle, coreferences, and information structure. Based on their syntactic and pragmatic properties, this study is hoped to find out whether the positions of absolute clauses in the context of fiction are syntactically or pragmatically determined.

2.9 Previous Studies Regarding English Absolute Clauses

Previous studies primarily investigate English absolute clauses through quantitative and diachronic approaches. Using corpus, van de Pol and Petré (2015) diachronically study the frequency and the productivity of both types of absolute clauses in comparison with the ones in Dutch. The result reveals that the absolute clause is much more common in Present-Day English (PDE), rather than Present-Day Dutch (PDD). The productivity of absolute clauses in PDE is due to the fact that PDE grammar provides more room for unbounded narrative. That is, the whole sentence provides the whole scene with the subevents depicted by the absolute clause, as illustrated in (59) below.

- (59) a. [The whole event As depicted in the story, the British military is woefully underprepared for such an invasion and is quickly rolled over], [the absolute subevent **the British Empire falling and the world never knowing the Beatles.**]
- b. [subevent 1 The man is hearing the sound of dripping water] and [subevent 2 he is digging for the water] and [subevent 3 the sand is caving in under him] (Los & Starren, 2012).

In (59a) the whole scene is about the British military underprepared for the invasion with the absolute clause subevents additionally describing the British Empire falling and the world never knowing the Beatles. In comparison with the bounded narrative in (59b) in which subevent 1 has to occur prior to subevent 2 and this subevent 2, similarly, has to occur before subevent 3, the absolute clause in (59a) seems to fit in narration in which the subevent could freely occur to provide additional information. However, the unbounded quality of absolute clauses in narrative writings such as fiction is not specifically observed in their study.

The increasing use of absolute clauses in Present-Day English as stated by van de Pol and Petré (2015) is in line with Van de Pol and Cuyckens (2014) who state that English absolute clauses are preferred in PDE, especially in literary registers. He and Yang (2015) and Kortmann (2013) who study the distribution of (un)augmented absolutes in English across genres, using corpus-based quantitative approach, also reveal that English absolute clauses are likely to occur in the genre of fiction with the tendency to increase in Present-Day English. Similarly, Bosch (2009), Nordquist (2019), and Todorova (2013) also add that fiction seems to be the richest source of English absolute clauses, highlighting the potentially frequent occurrence of absolutes in fiction. Based on the previous studies, fiction seems to potentially accommodate English absolute clauses; no studies, however, have yet observed the reasons for their appearances in specific context such as fiction.

With respect to the investigation of augmented absolute clauses, *with*-augmented absolutes are more frequently observed than the other augmentors, i.e.,

without, *what with*, and *and*, which are marginally observed due to their limited occurrences in context (Kortmann, 2013). Pol and Cuyckens (2013) and Van de Pol and Hoffmann (2016) examine the development of the augmentor *with* through the entire history of English (Old English, Middle English, and Present-Day English), using a corpus-based dataset. The finding reveals that the augmentor *with* has been semantically bleached and has become an absolute syntactic marker, rather than a preposition, which facilitates the processing by signaling the presence of the absolute clause. Kim (2020), on the other hand, believes that *with* is a prepositional complementizer, having the property of both preposition and complementizer. Yoo (2008), in contrast, states that *with*, along with *without* and *what with*, is just a preposition. The fairly inconclusive quality of augmentors also relates to their case assignment as the absolute subject following these augmentors could have oblique or null case, depending on the status of the augmentor, either as preposition or complementizer.

With regards to the data source, which is Harry Potter series, the bestselling novels have also been the source of a few linguistic studies. Haueng (2019) studies the linguistic complexity in the books of the first and the last books of the series. The findings show that there is a clear increase in linguistic complexity with the more complicated grammatical structure, longer sentences, and lexical density. Růžicková (2019), likewise, investigates the sentence complexity in the first and the last books with the results showing that sentences in the last book are more complicated than those in the first book. Duffy (2002) also mentions that absolute clauses are “everywhere” in the series of Harry Potter with no further elaboration. Despite the findings, the structure of absolute clauses, however, is not examined in either of these studies. Since Harry Potter series is believed to be rich in absolute clauses, this study is, hence, conducted to investigate the reasons for the appearance of absolute clauses in fiction with the expectation to narrow down the research gap earlier mentioned.

2.10 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter starts with the problem of absolute terminology. For this study, the term “clause” is selected due to the fact that the absolute seems to hold the quality of being a small clause, containing an overt subject and a non-finite predicate (He & Yang, 2015; Kim, 2020; Quirk et al., 1985; Tang, 2005; Yoo, 2008). This quality is the main feature that distinguishes the absolute clause from other similar constructions. That is, the absolute clause contains its overt subject, whereas free adjuncts and control constructions are non-finite structures which have no such overt subject. With respect to the absolute and an appositive phrase, the absolute subject could be followed by a DP. This DP differs from the DP in apposition in the fact that DP in the absolute clause is a non-verbal predicate (VP), while DP in apposition is just a DP modifier. Afterwards, the two types of the absolute clauses, unaugmented and an augmented, are explained. The absolute with no introductory augmentor is typed the unaugmented absolute, while the one with such introductory augmentors as *with*, *without*, *what with*, and *and* is considered an augmented absolute.

Sections 2.2-2.4 concern the syntactic structure of the absolute with a special focus on the quality of the augmentor *with*. That is, *with*-augmentor is assumed to be similar to the complementizer *for* with the property to assign oblique case. The augmentor *with*, along with the other augmentors such as *without* and *what with*, will

be further investigated in this study. Apart from the syntactic structure, section 2.5 discusses the argument structure of the absolutes with an attempt to investigate how non-finite predicates are correlated with the assignment of the thematic roles of absolute subjects.

With respect to semantic coreferences, the absolute coreferences are divided into four types: NC, FC, PC, and CC. The absolute subject is considered NC when it does not co-refer to anything in the matrix clause, whereas the absolute subject with coreferences could be analyzed as FC, PC, or CC., depending on the degree of coreferences. Concerning the semantic relations, the relationship between the absolute and its matrix clauses are divided into two groups, namely strong adverbials and weak adverbials. If more shared knowledge/information is needed, the absolute clause is marked a strong adverbial. In contrast, if less prior knowledge/information is required, the absolute clause is considered a weak adverbial.

As for the positions, the absolute clause is observed according to the End-Weight Principle and information structure. Each instance is classified as *initial*, *medial*, *final*, and *separate* and further analyzed if it is light or heavy. The analysis in later chapters could reveal if the ordering of the absolute clause is syntactically or pragmatically determined. The overall chapter contributes to the solid background information regarding the syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic aspects of the absolute clauses for the analysis in the next chapter.



CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Data Source

The data is from the 2013 paperback edition of *Harry Potter*, a popular novel by J. K. Rowling, which was published by Bloomsbury, U.K. The book has been the source for linguistics analysis in a few studies. In Růžicková (2019), the first and the final books of *Harry Potter* were used to study sentential complexity in which the absolutes are not included. Even though Duffy (2002) mentions that the absolutes were found “everywhere” in *Harry Potter* books, there is no study regarding absolute clauses conducted from them yet.

Out of seven books in the *Harry Potter* series, *Harry Potter and the Philosopher’s Stone* and *Harry Potter and the Chamber of Secrets*, the first and the second books of the bestselling novel series, were selected as the main source of data. The text selection criteria are based on the fact that books 1 and 2 are more similar to each other than the other books. That is, they are a middle-grade fiction aimed at readers aged between eight to twelve, while the other books in the series (Books 3 – 7) are considered young adult fiction (Cunningham, 2019). The books were launched by two main publishing stores worldwide, namely Scholastic (US) and Bloomsbury (UK). Scholastic is said to adjust a certain number of words and sentences to fit the American audience (Olson et al., 2001; VanderArk, 2001); Bloomsbury, the first to start the publication, was, therefore, selected because of the originality of the language. Moreover, being sold worldwide, the language used in the books is considered widely accepted by the majority (Wu & Chitrakara, 2020). The time of publication is not primarily concerned in this study because there is no distinction between editions in terms of grammatical constructions that could affect the analysis (Peterharrington, 2018). The selection is, thus, based on the convenient edition at hand, which is the 2013 edition.

3.2 Data Collection

387 instances of absolute clauses were quoted from 474 pages of *Harry Potter and the Philosopher’s Stone* and *Harry Potter and the Chamber of Secrets*. Examples of English absolute clauses in context are shown in bold as in Excerpts 1 and 2 below.

Excerpt 1

Harry was quite sure the unsettled feeling didn’t have anything to do with work, though. He watched an owl flutter towards the school across the bright blue sky, **a note clamped in its mouth**. Hagrid was the only one who ever sent him letters. Hagrid would never betray Dumbledore. Hagrid would never tell anyone how to get past Fluffy ... never but – (Rowling, 2013b, p. 193).

Harry Potter and the Philosopher’s Stone

Excerpt 2

Harry heard from Hogwarts one sunny morning about a week after he had arrived at The Burrow. He and Ron went down to breakfast to find Mr and Mrs

Weasley and Ginny already sitting at the kitchen table. The moment she saw Harry, Ginny accidentally knocked her porridge bowl to the floor with a loud clatter. Ginny seemed very prone to knocking things over whenever Harry entered a room. She dived under the table to retrieve the bowl and emerged **with her face glowing like the setting sun**. Pretending he hadn't noticed this, Harry sat down and took the toast Mrs Weasley offered him (Rowling, 2013a, p. 37).

Harry Potter and the Chamber of Secrets

Absolute clauses are marked by the existence of their own subject and predicate with a comma, as in Excerpts 1 and 3, or an augmentor, as in Excerpt 2, or a period (.) detaching it from the matrix clause, as in Excerpt 4.

Excerpt 3

'Do I look stupid?' snarled Uncle Vernon, **a bit of fried egg dangling from his bushy moustache**. 'I know what'll happen if that owl's let out' (Rowling, 2013a, p. 7).

Harry Potter and the Chamber of Secrets

Excerpt 4

Ron dropped his wand. **Hermione Granger, telling a downright lie to a teacher?** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 131).

Harry Potter and the Philosopher's Stone

The boldfaced absolute clause in Excerpt 3 is composed of its subject DP, *a bit of fried egg*, and the predicate VP, *dangling from his bushy moustache*, which are separated from the matrix clause by a comma. On the other hand, in Excerpt 4, *Hermione Granger*, and the predicate VP, *telling a downright lie to a teacher* are detached from its matrix by a period. The matrix clause is included in the collection to provide the context to the absolute clause.

3.3 Data Analysis

The instances of absolute clauses are analyzed in accordance with four areas: (1) *unaugmented and augmented absolute identification*, (2) *coreferential property*, (3) *semantic relations*, and (4) *sentential position identification*. (1) represents syntax; (2) and (3), semantics; while (4), pragmatics.

3.3.1 Unaugmented and Augmented Absolutes

The absolute is marked "unaugmented absolute" when there is no preceding introductory augmentor, as in (1a), whereas the absolute with an introductory augmentor i.e., *with*, *without*, *what with* and *and*, is classified as "augmented absolute," as in (1b) and (1c) below.

- (1) a. 'Without any supper?' said Snape, **a triumphant smile flickering across his gaunt face**. 'I didn't think ghosts provided food fit for living people at their parties' (Rowling, 2013a, p. 109).

b. Harry and Ron stood **with their mouths open**, but Hermione shrugged wearily and said, ‘Honestly, that was almost cheerful for Myrtle... come on, let’s go’ (Rowling, 2013a, p. 119).

c. He came around, rain falling on his face, still lying on the field, **with someone leaning over him** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 129).

From the given examples, one point of concern is that commas are essential in unaugmented absolute to adhere it to the matrix clause. It can be, in some cases, that the unaugmented absolute can be detached from its matrix by a period, but this characteristic rarely occurs in comparison with commas. As for augmented absolutes, commas, in contrast, are fairly optional as they can either appear or disappear in the sentence, as shown in (1b) and (1c), respectively, suggesting the role the commas may have in both unaugmented and augmented absolutes.

3.3.1.1 Fine line between the preposition *with* and augmentor *with*

One of the problems in extracting the absolutes is distinguishing the augmented absolute headed by *with* from the prepositional phrase headed by *with*. The syntactic positions of the two are superficially identical, as shown below.

- (2) a. Dudley was dancing on the spot **with [aug] his hands clasped over his fat bottom**, howling in pain (Rowling, 2013b, p. 48).
 b. It [a gnome] was small and leathery-looking, **with [prep] a large, knobby, bald head exactly like a potato** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 33).
 c. He cleared his throat **with [prep] a small noise like chalk slipping** and continued (Rowling, 2013a, p. 113).
 d. Now they were facing a second pair of doors **with [prep] words engraved upon them** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 56).

While the bold-faced clause in (2a) is an absolute, the bold-faced phrases in (2b) – (2d) are PPs. The differences between the preposition *with* and the augmentor *with* are that the position of the augmentor *with* can also be filled by zero augmentor, its equivalence (Van de Pol & Hoffman 2016), or augmentor *and* with minor semantic alteration; on the other hand, the position of the preposition *with* cannot be filled with zero preposition or *and*. Replacing the preposition *with* with zero preposition leads to ungrammaticality, while replacing the preposition *with* with *and* or other prepositions leads to semantic anomaly and can also be ungrammatical.

- (3) a. Dudley was dancing on the spot **with/Ø/and [aug] his hands clasped over his fat bottom**, howling in pain (Rowling, 2013b, p. 48).
 b. It [a gnome] was small and leathery-looking, **with/*Ø/*and/*after [prep] a large, knobby, bald head exactly like a potato** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 33).
 c. He cleared his throat **with/*Ø/*and/*after [prep] a small noise like chalk slipping** and continued (Rowling, 2013a, p. 113).

d. Now they were facing a second pair of doors with/*Ø/#and/#after [prep] **words engraved upon them** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 56).

The PP in (3b) and (3c) are very similar to the absolute in that they modify the preceding clauses, while the PP in (3d) is the easiest to identify because it only modifies the preceding DP, thus, making it part of the DP. When a PP belongs to a DP, both can form an argument, as demonstrated in (4a) below.

- (4) a. A second pair of doors with words engraved upon them were painted in red (adapted from the PP in (3d)).
- b. #The spot with his hands clasped over his fat bottom is where they met (adapted from the absolute clause in (3a)).

Although the sentences above are grammatical, only the underlined DP+PP in (4a) is felicitous because the DP and PP together become one constituent, which can be replaced by a pronoun. As for (4b), the augmented absolute that is treated as a PP modifying a DP, the underlined phrase is grammatical but anomalous. This is because the augmented absolute *with his hands clasped over his fat bottom* is meant to modify the whole preceding matrix clause, not to be a modifying part of DP *the spot*. Moreover, the omission of the prepositional head *with* will lead to ungrammaticality because one DP cannot modify the other without being headed by a preposition.

Unlike the PP above in (4a) and (4b), the augmented absolute in (5a) below with the augmentor *with* can appear without the augmentor, as demonstrated in (5b) below.

- (5) a. Uncle Vernon stopped dead, facing the platforms **with a nasty grin on his face** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 68).
- b. Uncle Vernon stopped dead, facing the platforms, **a nasty grin on his face** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 68).

Because the boldfaced absolute clause modifies the preceding matrix CP *Uncle Vernon stopped dead, facing the platforms*, omission of the augmentor *with* does not lead to ungrammaticality. The same cannot apply to the PP modifying DP, as demonstrated in (6a) and (6b) below.

- (6) a. Inside was a large, sticky chocolate cake **with Happy Birthday Harry written on it in green icing** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 40).
- b. Inside was a large, sticky chocolate cake, ***with Happy Birthday Harry written on it in green icing** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 40).

(6b) is ungrammatical because the boldfaced DP is supposed to modify the preceding DP. The omission of the preposition is, therefore, ungrammatical. Again, being part of the preceding DP makes the PP qualify as part of an argument.

Here are some instances of the preposition *with* preceding the modifying DPs, found in this study, which were excluded from the data.

- (7) a. A low, soft hooting came from [DP a dark shop][PP **with a sign saying Eeylops Owl Emporium – Tawny, Screech, Barn, Brown and Snowy**] (Rowling, 2013a, p. 56).
- b. There was an enormous gray cake in the shape of [DP a tombstone], [PP **with tar-like icing forming the words, Sir Nicholas de Mimsy-Porpington died 31st October, 1492**] (Rowling, 2013a, p. 102).
- c. It was [DP a muggy sort of day][PP **with a hint of thunder in the air**] (Rowling, 2013a, p. 126).
- d. He held up [DP the small black book][PP **with the large hole through the center**], watching Mr. Malfoy closely (Rowling, 2013a, p. 246).

While zero augmentor is claimed to be the equivalence of *with*, the same cannot be said for other augmentors because *with* is semantically bleached. That is, it is losing its meaning; it is, therefore, fine for *with* to be omitted (Van de Pol & Hoffman 2016). Replacing *and* with zero may lead to minor semantic alteration; however, replacing *without* and *what with* with zero leads to major semantic alteration. Nevertheless, zero augmentor can be used as a test for absolute clauses (Van de Pol & Hoffman 2016).

3.3.1.2 Thematic Roles of Absolute Clauses

This section illustrates how the argument structure of absolute clauses is analyzed. There are two groups of predicates in this study, namely agentive and non-agentive predicates. Agentive predicates have AGENT as the subjects, as in (8a) and (8b) below.

- (8) a. He pulled a bag of ordinary golf balls out of his pocket, and a few minutes later, he and Harry were up in the air, [AGENT **Wood**] **throwing the golf balls as hard as he could in every direction for Harry to catch** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 126).
- b. Riddle, quiet as a shadow, edged through the door and followed, [AGENT **Harry**] **tiptoeing behind him, forgetting that he couldn't be heard** (Rowling, 2013a, p.183).

In order to test AGENT subjects, such adverbs as *carefully*, *conscientiously*, or *deliberately* are employed (Kearns, 2011). The sentence that passes the test is believed to contain an AGENT subject, as shown in (9a) and (9b).

- (9) a. He pulled a bag of ordinary golf balls out of his pocket, and a few minutes later, he and Harry were up in the air, [AGENT **Wood**] **deliberately/carefully throwing the golf balls as hard as he could in every direction for Harry to catch** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 126).
- b. Riddle, quiet as a shadow, edged through the door and followed, [AGENT **Harry**] **deliberately/carefully tiptoeing behind him, forgetting that he couldn't be heard** (Rowling, 2013a, p.183).

These adverbs help roughly divide AGENT from non-AGENT subjects. However, in order to systematically classify the thematic roles of absolute subjects, this study adopts “Feature Generalizations” by (Reinhart, 2016), as in (10a) – (10d).

- (10) a. [+c+m] = AGENT
 b. [+c-m] = INSTRUMENT
 c. [-c+m] = EXPERIENCER
 d. [-c-m] = THEME/PATIENT

[c] in the above examples refers to *cause*, while [m] involves *mental state*. Here are examples from the data.

- (11) a. Riddle, quiet as a shadow, edged through the door and followed, [_{AGENT} [+c+m] **Harry**] **tiptoeing behind him, forgetting that he couldn’t be heard** (Rowling, 2013a, p.183).
 b. They walked more slowly, [_{INSTRUMENT} [+c-m] **ears**] **straining for the faintest sound** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 184).
 c. They hurried up the street, [_{EXPERIENCER} [-c+m] **the Grangers**] **shaking with fright**. (Rowling, 2013a, p. 51).
 d. Hermione and Ron listened **with** [_{THEME} [-c-m] **their mouths**] **open** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 138).

In (11a) *Harry* is marked as an AGENT subject because it instigates the action [+c], causing the change of state and involves the mental state [+m] as *Harry* entails animacy (Reinhart, 2016). *Ears* in (11b) is an INSTRUMENT subject as it initiates the action of straining; however, it does not entail animacy, therefore showing the feature [+c-m]. *The Grangers* in (11c), in contrast, does not initiate the action, but denote the mental state; it, therefore, signifies [-c+m], the feature of EXPERIENCER. As for *their mouths* in (11d), it neither denotes a cause of change nor a mental state, so it indicates [-c-m], the feature of THEME. Although the θ -feature system does not cover some other thematic roles such as LOCATION, GOAL, SOURCE, and BENEFICIARY, it is considered sufficient for the data analysis since LOCATION, GOAL, SOURCE, and BENEFICIARY are clearly distinctive by their definitions.

As for the constructions of absolute clauses, it can be subdivided into two groups, based on the number of arguments: 1) one-place predicates with the unergative and unaccusative constructions, 2) two-place and three-place predicates with the transitive and ditransitive constructions, as demonstrated in (12a) – (12d).

One-place predicates

- (12) a. **unergative**: Without a backward glance at Harry, Filch ran flat-footed from the office, [_{AGENT} [+c+m] **Mrs. Norris**] **streaking alongside him** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 97).

b. **unaccusative**: Harry and Ron stood **with** [THEME [-C-m] **their mouths**] **open** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 120).

Two-place and three-place predicates

c. **transitive**: But how can I look **without** [EXPERIENCER [-C+m] **Quirrell**] **realising what I'm up to?** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 211).

d. **ditransitive**: Neville Longbottom had been sent letters from all the witches and wizards in his family, [AGENT [+C+m] **all**] **giving him different advice on what to choose** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 186).

3.3.2 Coreferences

Coreference is the semantic referential interaction between the overt subject of absolute clauses and the matrix constituents. This property could be divided into four subtypes, namely *No Coreference (NC)*, *Full coreference (FC)*, *Part-Whole Coreference (PC)*, and *Constituent Coreference (CC)*. Table 2 below demonstrates how coreferences in this study are analyzed.

Table 2: *Coreferences of absolute clauses*

Coreferences	Examples	Descriptions
NC	(13) Hermione was running toward them down the path, Hagrid puffing along behind her (Rowling, 2013b, p. 189).	The absolute subject is marked as NC due to the complete distinction between the overt absolute subject and matrix constituents. For instance, <i>Hagrid</i> in (13) does not refer to anything in the matrix clauses; it is, thus, considered NC.
FC	(14) He [Harry] stretched out his hand – a foot from the ground he caught <u>it</u> , just in time to pull his broom straight, and he toppled gently onto the grass with the Remembrall clutched safely in his fist (Rowling, 2013b, p. 111).	Full coreference is marked when the overt absolute subject fully co-refers to the matrix referent. In (14) the italicized absolute subject <i>the Remembrall</i> fully refers to the underlined matrix clause PRN <i>it</i> by means of DP repetition.
PC	(15) 'Ready?' <u>Harry</u> [whole] asked the other two, his hand [part] on the door handle (Rowling, 2013b p. 204).	In (15) the overt absolute DP, <i>his hand</i> , is the body part of the matrix DP, <i>Harry</i> . This coreference hence signifies part-whole relationship.
CC	(16) <u>Harry's</u> broom had given a wild jerk and Harry swung off it (Rowling, 2013b, p. 139).	For this type, the whole absolute subject refers to a certain part of matrix DP or vice versa. In (16), the whole absolute DP <i>Harry</i> refers to the matrix DP <i>Harry</i> , a certain part of whole matrix DP, <i>Harry's broom</i> .
Implied Coreference	(17) <u>Colin</u> was sitting in one of the highest seats, his camera	Superficially, it seems that there is no coreference in (17). However,

(CC subtype)	raised, taking picture after picture, the sound (of him/Colin's) strangely magnified in the deserted stadium (Rowling, 2013a, p 85).	with a closer examination reveals that <i>the sound</i> in the absolute implies the sound of him/Colin's, which refers to the whole matrix DP <i>Colin</i> , therefore suggesting an implied coreference, usually shown in parenthesis.
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3.3.3 Semantic Relations

This section focuses on the semantic relations between the absolute and its matrix clause in accordance with a scale of informativeness, which is minimally adjusted from Kortmann (2013), as shown in Figure 4 below.

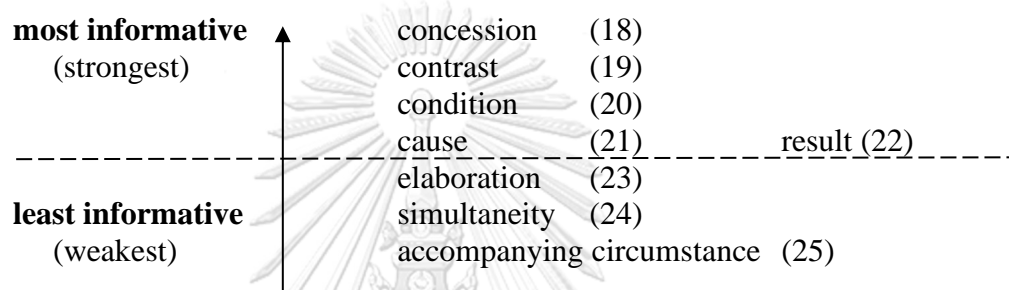


Figure 4: *A scale of informativeness of semantic relations* (Adapted from Kortmann, 2013)

Above the line are strong adverbials which are based on the fact that shared/prior knowledge, information, or co-contextual evidence is essential to determine the semantic relation between absolutes and matrix clauses with the vertical arrow showing that the higher the semantic relations are, the more information they require.

Weak adverbials, on the other hand, are considered as “less informative” due to the fact that little shared knowledge/information is required to interpret the semantic relations between the absolute and its matrix. As a matter of fact, they simply provide additional, conjoining, or side-by-side information to the matrix clause (Fuhre, 2010; Kortmann, 2013, pp. 119-120).

According to the scale of informativeness, five semantic relations are classified as strong adverbials based upon the types of adverbial phrases (Todorova, 2013); each is given with its examples and analytical descriptions as follows.

Table 3: *Strong adverbials of absolute clause with examples and explanations*

Strong adverbials	Examples	Descriptions
Concession	(18) Neville managed to have an extraordinary number of accidents even with both feet on the ground (Rowling, 2013b, p. 108).	The absolute clause that denotes the use of <i>though</i> , <i>although</i> , <i>even though</i> , and <i>even if</i> conveys a concessive reading, as shown in (18) in which the absolute clause denotes <i>even if</i> .

Contrast	(19) Marcus Flint seized the Quaffle and scored five times without anyone noticing (Rowling, 2013b, p. 140).	The absolute clause that signifies the use of <i>while/whilst</i> and <i>whereas</i> possesses a contrastive reading. This also includes the clauses coordinated by <i>but</i> and <i>however</i> (Kortmann, 2013; Quirk et al., 1985), as in (19) in which the absolute clause denotes <i>but</i> .
Condition	(20) He did wish they could have tried it on without everyone watching (Rowling, 2013b, p. 89).	The clause that denotes <i>if, on condition that, supposing, unless, etc.</i> , expresses condition, as in (20), for example, where the absolute clause denotes "if no one was watching."
Cause	(21) With Ron covered in the cloak, too , they had to walk much more slowly the next night (Rowling, 2013b, p. 154).	The absolute clause indicates the cause/reason, denoting the use of <i>because, since, or as</i> , as in (21) where the absolute <i>with Ron covered in the cloak, too</i> is the reason why they had to walk much more slowly.
Result	(22) Harry's broom had given a wild jerk and Harry swung off it (Rowling, 2013b, p. 139).	In contrast to cause/reason, the absolute clause in this case denotes a resultative reading. For example, in (22), Harry was swung off his broom because his broom had given a wild jerk.

Requiring little prior knowledge or information for inferential processing, *elaboration, simultaneity, and accompanying circumstance* are associated with weak adverbials. Table 4 below shows how weak adverbials are analyzed in this study.

Table 4: *Weak adverbials of absolute clause with examples and explanations*

Weak adverbials	Examples	Descriptions
Elaboration	(23) Next second, the sink began to move; the sink, in fact, sank, right out of sight, leaving a large pipe exposed, a pipe wide enough for a man to slide into (Rowling, 2013a, p. 222).	Elaboration elaborates on the previous discourse by further specifying, describing, restating, or clarifying it (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 394). In (23), for example, the absolute clause in bold is to elaborate on the large pipe in the matrix clause that it is wide enough for a man to slide into.
Simultaneity	(24) Chuckling about Malfoy, they waited, Norbert thrashing about in his crate (Rowling, 2013b, p. 176).	The event that co-occurs with another event refers to simultaneity, as in (24) in which Norbert was thrashing about in his crate while they waited.
Accompanying circumstance	(25) He was already dressed, his Hogwarts prefect badge pinned to his knitted tank top (Rowling, 2013a, p. 38).	The accompanying circumstance usually describes postures, facial expression, thoughts, feelings, details of dressing, perception, holding in one's hand, sound

		production, or any kind of movement (Kortmann, 2013). In example (25), the absolute accompanies the matrix clause to provide the details of dressing.
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3.3.4 Sentential Position Identification

As specified by Kortmann (2013), (Bosch, 2009), and Van de Pol and Hoffmann (2016), *initial*, *medial*, *final*, and *separate* are observed in this study, as demonstrated in table 5 below.

Table 5: *Positions of absolute clauses*

Positions	Examples	Descriptions
Initial	(26) With Dumbledore gone , fear had spread as never before (Rowling, 2013a, p. 197).	Preceding the matrix clause, the absolute position is marked <i>initial</i> .
Medial	(27) Two seconds later Harry, heart thudding madly , heard Uncle Vernon coming into the hall (Rowling, 2013a, p. 19).	Appearing in between the matrix clause, the absolute is identified as <i>medial</i> .
Final	(28) At last, he managed to control himself and sat with his great eyes fixed on Harry in an expression of watery adoration (Rowling, 2013a, p. 16).	Occurring right after the matrix clause, the absolute is labeled <i>final</i> .
Separate	(29) They were in a corridor. The forbidden corridor on the third floor . And now they knew why it was forbidden (Rowling, 2013b, p. 119).	Detached from its matrix clause by a period (.), the absolute is analyzed as <i>separate</i> .

Unlike initial, medial, and final positions, which can be easily recognized, the separate position, on the other hand, is more difficult to identify since it can be considered as a fragment or a noun phrase in apposition. In this study, to determine the separate position, merging the absolute in question with the matrix clause using a comma is suggested, as demonstrated below.

- (30) a. Ron dropped his wand. **Hermione Granger, telling a downright lie to a teacher?** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 131).
- b. Ron dropped his wand, **Hermione Granger, telling a downright lie to a teacher?**
- c. They were in a corridor. **The forbidden corridor on the third floor** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 119).
- d. They were in a corridor, **the forbidden corridor on the third floor**.

The absolute clauses in (30a) and (30c) are in the separate position as they are detached from the matrix clause by a period. When the whole absolute is attached to

the matrix clause by a comma, as in (30b) and (30d), the sentence is still grammatical, showing that the absolute clause is related to the preceding matrix clause rather than being a fragment. In addition, the absolute clause in the separate position may not be considered as an appositive as the noun phrase in apposition has to be juxtaposed to its preceding head noun with a comma, rather than a period, as shown in (31) below.

- (31) **[DP The Queen], [DP the head of the Commonwealth],** will be accompanied to the conference by the Prime Minister and the Foreign Secretary (Carter & McCarthy, 2006, p. 330).

As stated, the absolute clause in the separate position indicates that it is still related to its matrix clause, as when it is attached to the matrix with a comma, the sentence is still grammatically correct. Therefore, combining the separate instance of the absolute clause with its matrix clause is suggested to ensure that the absolute in question is the absolute clause, not a fragment.

3.3.4.1 Instance Counting

Two absolute clauses, in some sentences, may be placed side-by-side to each other, as in (32a) and (32b), or occur in different positions but sharing the same matrix clause, as in (32c).

- (32) a. Mrs. Weasley now came galloping into view, **[her handbag swinging wildly in one hand]^{1st}, [Ginny just clinging onto the other]^{2nd}** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 46).
- b. Colin Creevey came dashing down the spiral staircase, **[his camera swinging madly around his neck]^{1st} and [something clutched in his hand]^{2nd}** (Rowling, 2013a, p.82).
- c. **[Eyes still tightly shut]^{1st}**, Harry began to run blindly sideways, **[his hands outstretched]^{2nd}**, feeling his way (Rowling, 2013a, p. 234).

Since positions are taken into consideration, counting two absolutes in different positions as a single instance could result in inaccurate frequency. In this study, one occurrence of an absolute clause is, therefore, counted as a single instance to ensure accurate instance counting. For this reason, two absolutes in different positions in (32c), and two chaining absolutes, in (32a) and (32b), will be counted separately as two instances.

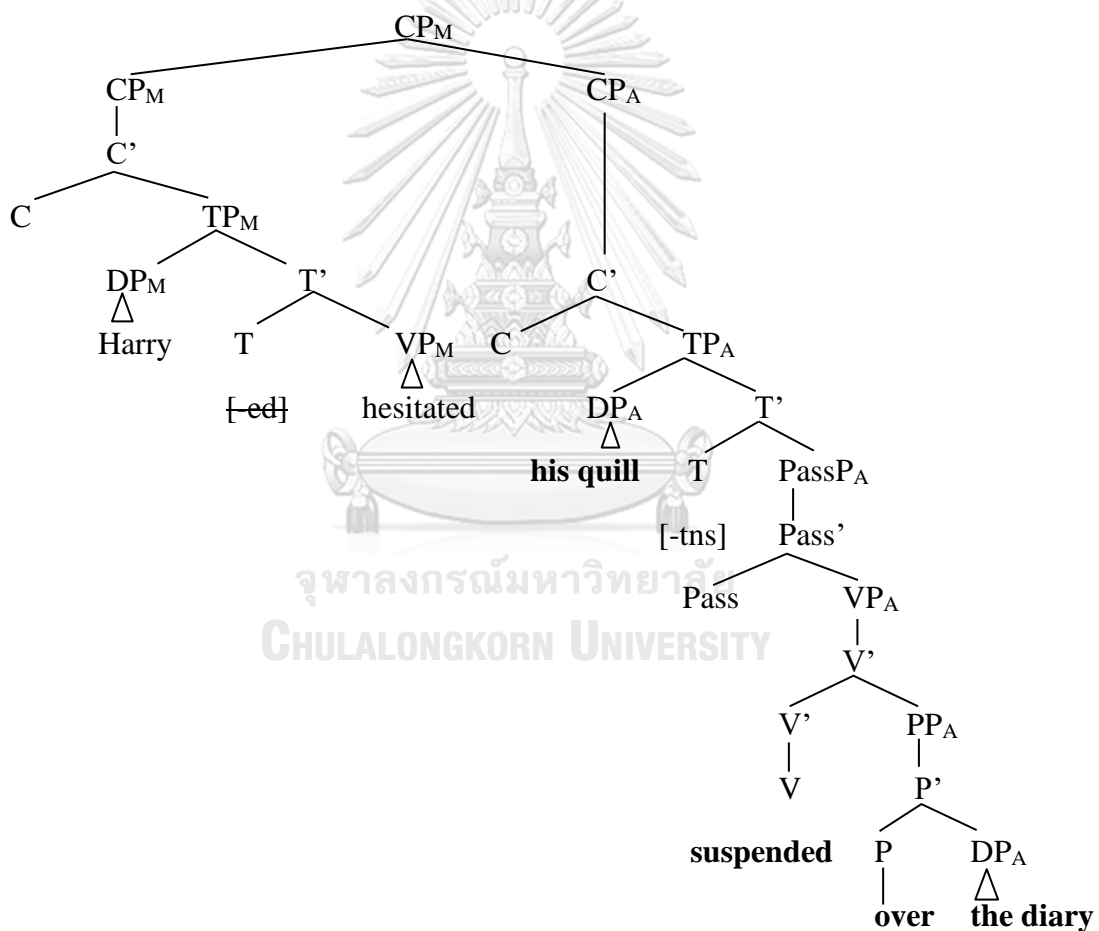
3.3.4.2 Syntactic Weight of Absolute Clauses

Constituents in many languages are prone to occur in the order of increasing size (length) or complexity, which is called *grammatical weight* (Wasow, 1997) or *syntactic weight* (Hawkins, 1994). In this study, two methods were selected to determine the syntactic weight of absolutes and matrix clauses: the number of phrasal nodes and the number of words, which are illustrated as follows.

1) The Number of Phrasal Nodes

The weight of constituents is syntactically measured by counting numbers of phrasal nodes or maximal projections, following Johnson (1966), Ferreira (1991), Hawkins (1994) (as cited in Szmrecsányi, 2004, p. 1033), and Rickford and Wasow (1995). Counting phrasal nodes seems to be an appropriate way to assess syntactic complexity since one must conform to syntactic rules before producing or constructing sentences (Szmrecsányi, 2004). This method is also in line with Chomsky's (1975), who states that the order of constituents seems to be determined by its complexity, rather than the length of words (as cited in Wasow, 1997, p. 117). Here is an example.

- (33) [matrix clause **Harry hesitated**], [absolute clause **his quill suspended over the diary**]
(Rowling, 2013a, p. 180)⁸.



The maximal projections, i.e., CP, TP, VP, DP, will be counted as one; therefore, the syntactic complexity score of the matrix clause and the absolute, as in (33), are 5 and 7, respectively. According to Hawkins (1994) (as cited in Szmrecsányi, 2004, p. 1033), counting maximal projections/phrasal nodes is

⁸ This study follows the absolute syntactic tree diagram of Kim (2020) and Tang (2008) and maximal projections of Radford (2016) and Van Gelderen (2017).

suggested as it reflects the accurate syntactic complexity (Chomsky, 1975, as cited in Wasow, 1997, p. 117).

2) The Number of Words

In case that counting phrasal nodes yields equal syntactic complexity score, word counting will be applied, as in (34) below.

- (34) He had shut his eyes, **his face turned away from his arm** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 130).

As for this method, the score depends on the number of words in a sentence (Szmrecsányi, 2004). Thus, the syntactic complexity score of the matrix and absolute clauses in (34) will be 5 and 7, respectively. Furthermore, it is also noted that the phrasal verb such as *turned away* in (34) is considered two separate words, rather than a constituent according to this method.

These two selected methods are said to work well on syntactic weight measurement (Wasow, 1997). In this study, phrasal node counting will be primarily used. Word counting, nonetheless, will be employed in case the first method still provides equal syntactic complexity score.

3.3.5 QuillBot Grammar Checker

QuillBot is a free grammar checker available online. To avoid subjectivity, the grammaticality in this study was checked by this program. This grammar checker is able to detect ungrammatical sentences and correct them. In order to check if the program can recognize the absolute clauses or not, ten sentences were put into the program, some of which are shown in (35a) – (35c) below.

- (35) a. ‘Yes, Arthur, cars,’ said Mrs. Weasley, **her eyes flashing** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 34).
 b. **With Ron covered in the cloak, too**, they had to walk much more slowly the next night (Rowling, 2013b, p. 154).
 c. She dived under the table to retrieve the bowl and emerged **with her face glowing like the setting sun** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 37).

The program did not show ungrammaticality when these three instances were put into the program. However, when some elements are deleted or added in the sentences, some errors can be found as in (36a) – (36c) below.

- (36) a. ‘Yes, Arthur, cars,’ said Mrs. Weasley ***;/: her eyes flashing**.
 b. ***(With) Ron covered in the cloak, too**, they had to walk much more slowly the next night.
 c. She dived under the table to retrieve the bowl and emerged **(with) her face glowing like the setting sun**.

The unaugmented absolute is usually attached to the matrix clause by a comma (,) or a period (.). In (36a) the program detects that there is the use of a

semicolon/colon in the sentence instead of comma; a comma is, therefore, recommended. This shows that the program knows the structure of absolute clauses. In (36b) when the augmentor *with* is deleted, the program shows the ungrammaticality with the suggestion to use *with* again. In contrast, when *with* in (36c) is omitted, the program does not mark an error on the sentence but suggests a comma to be inserted. Examples (36b) and (36c) indicate that the program knows when *with* is acceptable or unacceptable to be omitted. In this study, the program is primarily used to verify the circumstances in which the augmentor is acceptable or unacceptable to be omitted.

3.4 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter discusses the methodology of this study. Regardless of the edition, the first and the second books of *Harry Potter* series, by Bloomsbury publishing, were selected as the main source of the data. The text selection criteria are based on the fact that they are a middle-grade fiction aimed at readers aged between eight to twelve, while the other books in the series (Books 3 – 7) are considered young adult fiction (Cunningham, 2019). Moreover, since the bestselling *Harry Potter* series is sold worldwide, the language used in the books is considered widely accepted by the majority (Wu & Chitrakara, 2020).

Concerning the data collection, each absolute clause has to be collected with its matrix clause. This is because the coreferential relationship (NC, FC, PC, and CC), the semantic relations, and the positions of absolute clauses have to be analyzed together with their matrix clauses.

With respect to coreferences, the absolute subject is analyzed as NC when it does not co-refer to anything in the matrix clause. However, if there exists the degree of coreference, the absolute subject signifies the coreference, which is then further analyzed as FC, PC, or CC. Considering the semantic relations, the absolute clauses will be analyzed as strong adverbials or weak adverbials based on the degree of informativeness. If shared knowledge/information is significantly required, the absolute clause is marked a strong adverbial. In contrast, if prior knowledge/information is minimally required the absolute clause is considered a weak adverbial. As for the positions of the absolute clauses, they are observed in accordance with the End-Weight Principle and information structure. The absolute positions are classified as *initial*, *medial*, *final*, and *separate*. Each instance will be analyzed as light or heavy absolutes based on the syntactic weight concept. These syntactic weight and positions are then examined together to determine if the ordering of absolute clauses is syntactically or pragmatically governed.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

This chapter presents the findings based on the search methodology in chapter 4. It starts with the frequency of different types of absolute clauses, followed by the argument structure. After the structural investigation is the semantics, starting with the coreferences, semantic relations, and the correlation between coreferences and semantic relations. The presentation concludes with the findings on positions and syntactic weight of the absolutes. This chapter is hoped to provide findings for the analysis in chapter 5.

4.1 The Frequency of Augmented vs. Unaugmented Absolutes

The total number of absolute clauses in the first and second books of *Harry Potter* series is 387 instances with 318 instances of unaugmented absolutes and 69 instances of augmented absolutes. These 387 instances are from a total of 162,085 words with 76,944 and 85,141 words from the first and the second books, respectively (*How Many Words Are There in the Harry Potter Book Series?*, 2015). In comparison with Kortmann's (2013), who discovered the total 269 absolutes from a text corpus, comprising approximately 450,000 words, the figure of this study is believed to yield sufficient data for analysis. The frequency of both types of absolute clauses is shown in Table 6 below.

Table 6: *The frequency of unaugmented and augmented absolutes*

Absolutes	N	Percent	Examples
Unaugmented	318	82.17	(1) Mr. Dursley jumped to his feet, veins throbbing in his temples (Rowling, 2013a, p. 8).
Augmented	69	17.83	(2) At last, he managed to control himself, and sat with his great eyes fixed on Harry in an expression of watery adoration (Rowling, 2013a, p. 16).
Total	387	100	

Among these 387 instances, the majority of instances are unaugmented absolute clauses with 317 instances or 82.17 percent, while those of augmented absolute clauses are 69 or 17.83 percent. These 69 augmented-absolute instances were gathered from four types of augmentors, as displayed in Table 7 below.

Table 7: *Four augmentors of the augmented absolutes*

Augmentors	N	Percent	Examples
with	55	79.71	(3) She wrenched open doors and marched along corridors with Harry trotting miserably behind her (Rowling, 2013b, p. 112).

Augmentors	N	Percent	Examples
without	10	14.49	(4) It was their only chance of sneaking out of the school to visit Hagrid without anyone knowing about it (Rowling, 2013a, p. 192).
and	3	4.35	(5) He was carrying his large crossbow, and a quiver of arrows hung over his shoulder (Rowling, 2013b, p. 182).
what with	1	1.45	(6) Perhaps it was because he was now so busy, what with Quidditch practice three evenings a week on top of all his homework (Rowling, 2013b, p. 126).
Total	69	100	

The augmentor *with* is of the largest number with 55 instances (79.71%). The second to *with* is the augmentor *without*, with 10 instances (14.49%). The augmentors *and* and *what with*, however, are infrequent with only three instances (4.35%) and one instance (1.45%), respectively.

4.2 Argument structure

This section focuses on thematic roles of the arguments in absolute clauses. The data report the argument structure with the focus on the subject and the predicate, the main characteristic of the absolute regardless of their specific types.⁹

Table 8: *The thematic relations of absolute clauses*

Thematic Roles	Non-Finite Predicates						Total (387=100%)
	verbal heads (258)			non-verbal heads (129)			
	V-ing (196)	V-ed (61)	To-V (1)	PP (68)	AdjP (58)	DP (3)	
THEME	118	61	-	68	58	3	308 (79.59%)
AGENT	55	-	-	-	-	-	55 (14.21%)
INSTRUMENT	14	-	1	-	-	-	15 (3.88%)
EXPERIENCER	9	-	-	-	-	-	9 (2.32%)

Regarding the argument structure of the absolute clauses, THEME is of the highest frequency with 308 instances (79.59%). AGENT is the second with 55 instances (14.21%). INSTRUMENT and EXPERIENCER are comparatively

⁹ The types of absolute clauses do not affect the argument structure since THEME and AGENT are ranked first and second in both unaugmented and augmented absolutes. The numbers in Table 8, therefore, reports the findings regardless of the absolute types.

infrequent with 15 instances (3.88%) and 9 instances (2.32%), respectively. Here are examples of the thematic roles in this study.

- (7) a. The teapot went berserk and squirted boiling tea all over the place and one man ended up in the hospital **with** [THEME **the sugar tongs**] **clamped to his nose** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 29).
- b. Ginny went scarlet as Ron and Hermione fought their way over, [AGENT **both**] **clutching stacks of Lockhart's books** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 50).
- c. They walked more slowly, [INSTRUMENT **ears**] **straining for the faintest sound** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 184).
- d. Marcus Flint seized the Quaffle and scored five times **without** [EXPERIENCER **anyone**] **noticing** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 140).

In terms of verbal heads, *V-ing* forms the majority among verbal heads with 196 instances (75.97%), while *V-ed* and *To-V* are of 61 instances (23.64%) and 1 instance (0.39%), respectively. As for the non-verbal heads, PP forms the highest frequency with 68 instances (52.71%). AdjP is the second with 58 instances (44.96%). DP, meanwhile, are the least frequent with only 3 instances (2.33%). As part of copula and passive clauses, all non-verbal heads have THEME subjects.

Table 9: *The correlation between absolute thematic roles and their constructions*

Thematic Roles	Constructions					
	one-place predicate				two-place predicate	three-place predicate
	unergative	unaccusative	passive	non-verbal	(di)transitive	
AGENT (55)	43	-	-	-	11	1
THEME (308)	-	118	61	129	-	-
INSTRUMENT (15)	6	2	-	-	7	-
EXPERIENCER (9)	6	-	-	-	3	-
Total (387=100%)	55	120	61	129	21	1
	365/94.32%				22/5.68%	

Table 9 reports the correlation between thematic roles and the types of predicates. It was found that two-place and three-place transitive predicates are the minority with merely 22 instances (5.68%). Meanwhile, both AGENT and non-AGENT subjects extensively occur with one-place predicates with 365 instances (94.32%). With respect to one-place predicates, 308 instances THEME subjects, the largest frequency, are from 118 instances of unaccusative, 61 instances of passive, and 129 instances of non-verbal predicates. 43 instances of AGENT subjects, in the meantime, frequently occur with unergative predicates, rather than transitive

predicates. Unlike THEME and AGENT subjects, INSTRUMENT and EXPERIENCER subjects are rare with 8 instances of INSTRUMENT and 6 instances of EXPERIENCER. The data in Table 9 suggest that one-place predicates form the highest frequency with THEME subjects in the unaccusative, passive, and non-verbal constructions and AGENT subjects in the unergative construction.

4.3 Coreferences

The coreferential property is subdivided into four kinds, namely *No Coreference (NC)*, *Full Coreference (FC)*, *Part-Whole Coreference (PWC)*, and *Constituent Coreference (CC)*. The overall results of coreferences, ranked in descending order, are shown as in Table 10 below.

Table 10: *Coreferences of unaugmented absolute clauses*

Coreferences	N	percent	Examples
Part-whole Coreference (PC)	265	83.33	(8) ‘Harry!’ said Ron, his eyes gleaming (Rowling, 2013a, p. 55).
No Coreference (NC)	24	7.55	(9) He rolled down the burrow window, the night air whipping his hair , and looked back at the shrinking rooftops of Privet Drive (Rowling, 2013a, p. 26).
Full Coreference (FC)	23	7.23	(10) The speaker was a plump woman who was talking to four boys, all with flaming red hair (Rowling, 2013b, p. 69).
Constituent Coreference (CC)	6	1.89	(11) Marcus Flint had blocked Harry on purpose and Harry’s broom span off course, Harry holding on for dear life (Rowling, 2013b, p. 138).
Total	318	100	

Table 11: *Coreferences of augmented absolute clauses*

Coreferences	N	percent	Examples
Part-whole Coreference (PC)	33	47.82	(12) Hermione marched away with her nose in the air (Rowling, 2013b, p. 123).
No Coreference (NC)	32	46.38	(13) I couldn’t do anything with Dumbledore watching (Rowling, 2013b, p. 209).
Full Coreference (FC)	3	4.35	(14) With Ron in front of the mirror , he couldn’t see his family anymore, just Ron in his paisley pajamas (Rowling, 2013b, p. 155).
Constituent Coreference (CC)	1	1.45	(15) Harry’s broom had given a wild jerk and Harry swung off it (Rowling, 2013b, p. 139).
Total	69	100	

Regarding the unaugmented absolute clauses in Table 10, it was found that PC forms the majority with 265 instances (83.33%), while NC, FC, and CC are infrequently used with 24 instances (7.55%), 23 instances (7.23%), and 6 instances (1.89%), respectively. Meanwhile, PC and NC of augmented absolutes in Table 11 are almost equal in number with 33 instances (47.82%) and 32 instances (46.38%), respectively. These two form the greatest number of augmented absolutes with 65/69 instances, whereas the other four instances are 3 instances (4.35%) of FC and a single instance (1.45%) of CC.

According to the given data, PC is significantly frequent in unaugmented absolutes, whereas the other coreferences are uncommonly used. As for the augmented absolutes, the data show that PC is also found, but it does not appear as frequent as PC in the unaugmented type. Similarly, NC tends to be frequently found in the augmented absolute. However, these 32 NC instances are not significantly high when compared with the 24 instances of NC in the unaugmented type. Thus, it is assumed that the augmented absolute could be involved in the production of NC. As for FC and CC, these two types are merely found in both unaugmented and augmented absolutes.

4.4 Semantic Relations

This study explores two groups of semantic relations, namely *strong adverbials* and *weak adverbials*. Following is the table, introducing the overall semantic relations of absolute clauses.

Table 12: *The overall semantic relations.*

Semantic Relations	Unaug (318=100%)	Aug (69=100%)	Total (387=100%)	Examples
Weak adverbials	315 (99.06%)	41 (59.42%)	356 (91.99%)	(16) Heart hammering , Harry pushed his trolley after them (Rowling, 2013b, p. 69).
Strong Adverbials	3 (0.94%)	28 (40.58%)	31 (8.01%)	(17) With Ron covered in the cloak, too , they had to walk much more slowly the next night (Rowling, 2013b, p. 154).

According to Table 12, weak adverbials form the largest part of the overall absolutes with 356 instances (91.99%), while the other 31 instances (8.01%) are strong adverbials. In addition, a closer examination revealed that weak adverbials are the highest frequency in unaugmented absolutes with 315 instances (99.06%). Meanwhile, out the total 31 instances of strong adverbials, 28 instances of them (90.32%) are augmented absolutes. The data suggest that weak adverbials tend to predominantly occur in unaugmented absolutes, whereas strong adverbials are likely to appear in augmented absolutes.

The details of strong and weak adverbials of unaugmented and augmented absolutes are displayed in Tables 13 and 14, respectively.

Table 13: *Weak and strong adverbials as unaugmented absolute clauses*

Semantic Relations		N	Percent	Examples
Weak	Accompanying circumstance	251	78.93	(18) ‘Oh, yes,’ said Mr. Dursley, his heart sinking horribly (Rowling, 2013b, p. 11).
	Elaboration	34	10.69	(19) Fred and George were wearing blue sweaters, one with a large yellow F on it, the other a G (Rowling, 2013b, p. 149).
	Simultaneity	30	9.43	(20) Chuckling about Malfoy, they waited, Norbert thrashing about in his crate (Rowling, 2013b, p. 176).
Strong	Cause	3	0.95	(21) Even Neville scraped through, his good Herbology mark making up for his abysmal Potions one (Rowling, 2013b, p. 222).
Total		318	100	

Among the total 318 unaugmented absolutes, accompanying circumstance is of the highest frequency with 251 instances (78.93%), while elaboration and simultaneity are 34 instances (10.69%) and 30 instances (9.43%), respectively. The other three instances of strong adverbials, meanwhile, are from the semantic relation of cause (0.95%).

Table 14: *Weak and strong adverbials as augmented absolute clauses*

Semantic Relations		N	Percent	Examples
Weak	Accompanying circumstance	31	44.93	(22) Hermione marched away with her nose in the air (Rowling, 2013b, p. 123).
	Simultaneity	9	13.04	(23) A moment later, Professor McGonagall had come bursting into the room, closely followed by Snape, with Quirrell bringing up the rear (Rowling, 2013b, p. 131).
	Elaboration	1	1.45	(24) He stretched out his hand – a foot from the ground he caught it, just in time to pull his broom straight, and he toppled gently onto the grass with the Remembrall clutched safely in his fist (Rowling, 2013b, p. 111).
Strong	Cause	13	18.84	(25) It must be getting riskier and riskier to open the Chamber of Secrets, with the school so alert and suspicious (Rowling, 2013a, p. 175).

	Contrast	9	13.04	(26) What was it to the Dursleys if Harry went back to school without any of his homework done? (Rowling, 2013a, p. 9).
	Condition	2	2.90	(27) But he did wish they could have tried it on without everyone watching (Rowling, 2013b, p. 89).
	Concession	2	2.90	(28) Neville managed to have an extraordinary number of accidents even with both feet on the ground (Rowling, 2013b, p. 108).
	Result	2	2.90	(29) And saying the magic words properly is very important, too — never forget Wizard Baruffio, who said ‘s’ instead of ‘f’ and found himself on the floor with a buffalo on his chest (Rowling, 2013b, p. 126).
Total		69	100	

Of the total 69 augmented absolutes, 41 instances are weak adverbials with 31 instances of accompanying circumstance (44.93%), 9 instances of simultaneity (13.04%), and a single instance of elaboration (1.45%). The other 28 instances of strong adverbials, on the other hand, are from 13 instances of cause (18.84%), 9 instances of contrast (13.04%), 2 instances of condition (2.90%), 2 instances of concession (2.90%), and 2 instances of result (2.90%). According to Tables 13 and 14, the data suggest that weak adverbials are commonly used in unaugmented absolutes, especially as an accompanying circumstance, whereas augmented absolutes, in contrast, accommodate the majority of strong adverbials.

4.5 Coreferences and Semantic Relations

This section connects the information in 4.3 and 4.4 by presenting four kinds of coreferences and the semantic relations together to display the correlations.

Table 15: *Coreferences and semantic relations of unaugmented absolutes*

Semantic Relations		PC	NC	FC	CC	Total
weak	Accompanying Circumstance	247	4	-	-	251
	Elaboration	8	-	22	4	34
	Simultaneity	8	19	1	2	30
strong	Cause	2	1	-	-	3
		265 (83.33%)	24 (7.55%)	23 (7.23%)	6 (1.89%)	318 (100%)

Table 15 demonstrates the tendency of correlations between coreferences and semantic relations in unaugmented absolute clauses. From the table, three likely

correlations could be observed: 1) PC-Accompanying circumstance, 2) NC-Simultaneity, and 3) FC-Elaboration. The first column suggests that PC, the highest frequency of coreferences, primarily occurs with accompanying circumstance with 247 instances (93.21%), as illustrated in (30a) and (30b). The second column with the data of NC shows that NC tends to refer to simultaneity with 19 instances (79.17%), as given in (31a) and (31b). Likewise, the third column with the FC data suggests that FC correlates with the semantic relation of elaboration with 22 instances (95.65%), as shown in (32a) and (32b).

PC and Accompanying Circumstance

- (30) a. Harry saw several of [_{whole} Lockhart] in the pictures dodging out of sight, [_{part} **their hair**] in rollers (Rowling, 2013a, p. 107).

b. [_{whole} Professor McGonagall] was bent almost as close, [_{part} **her eyes**] **narrowed** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 108).

NC and Simultaneity

- (31) a. **Stars winking in front of his eyes**, he grabbed the top of the hat to pull it off and felt something long and hard beneath it (Rowling, 2013a, p. 235).

b. ‘STOP! STOP!’ he yelled, whacking the dashboard and the windshield, but they were still plummeting, **the ground flying up toward them** (Rowling, 2013a p. 59).

FC and Elaboration

- (32) a. Ginny went scarlet as Ron and Hermione fought their way over, **both clutching stacks of Lockhart’s books** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 50).

b. A second later they were facing an archway large enough even for Hagrid, **an archway onto a cobbled street which twisted and turned out of sight**. (Rowling, 2013b, p. 56).

In the last column, the data may not be sufficient to yield any significant correlation. However, one observation could be made. That is, among all of the six instances of CC, five of them are implied coreference, as exemplified in (33a). Meanwhile, the other instance of CC which is not an implied coreference is given in (33b) below.

- (33) a. The bedclothes had been pulled off his four-poster and the drawer had been pulled out of his bedside cabinet, **the contents (in the drawer) strewn over the mattress** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 187).

b. Marcus Flint had blocked Harry on purpose and Harry’s broom span off course, **Harry holding on for dear life** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 138).

The constituents in parentheses are not mentioned directly in the sentence; they are, in fact, implied from the context. For instance, in (33a), the absolute subject

the contents seems to be unrelated to any matrix constituents. The context, nonetheless, implies that the contents which were strewn over were the ones in the drawer. With surrounding context, the DP *the contents* in (33a) then suggests an implied coreference with the covert DP *the drawer* referring *the drawer* underlined in the matrix clause.

The finding from Table 15 reveals that four patterns could be observed from the correlations between coreferences and semantic relations in unaugmented absolutes, namely 1) PC and accompanying circumstances, 2) NC and simultaneity, 3) FC and elaboration, and 4) CC mainly as implied coreference. The result suggests that these patterns are quite expected in unaugmented absolute clauses.

Table 16: *Coreferences and semantic relations of augmented absolutes*

Semantic Relations		PC	NC	FC	CC	Total
weak	Accompanying Circumstance	27	4			31
	Simultaneity	2	7			9
	Elaboration			1		1
strong	Cause	1	11	1		13
	Contrast	2	6	1		9
	Condition		2			2
	Concession	1	1			2
	Result		1		1	2
		33 (47.82%)	32 (46.38%)	3 (4.35%)	1 (1.45%)	69 (100%)

According to Table 16, two likely correlations could be observed: 1) PC-accompanying circumstance and 2) NC-strong adverbials. Like unaugmented absolutes, PC in the first column tends to occur with accompanying circumstance with 27 instances (81.81%), as shown in (34a) and (34b) below. Unlike unaugmented absolutes, NC in augmented absolutes does not show any specific correlation with any semantic relations. However, the data suggest that NC probably correlates with strong adverbials since 21 instances out of the entire 28 strong adverbials (75%) are in NC absolutes, as in (35a) and (35b). This figure suggests that NC seems to be correlated with strong adverbials in augmented absolute clauses.

PC and Accompanying Circumstance

- (34) a. Fawkes was soaring around its head, and the basilisk was snapping furiously at him **with fangs long and thin as sabers** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 235).
- b. ‘Close one, Harry!’ said George, streaking past him **with his club in his hand**, ready to knock the Bludger back toward a Slytherin (Rowling, 2013a, p.126).

NC and Strong adverbials

- (35) a. **With Dumbledore gone**, fear had spread as never before, so that the sun warming the castle walls outside seemed to stop at the mullioned windows (Rowling, 2013a, p.197) (*cause*, denoting *because*).
- b. Marcus Flint seized the Quaffle and scored five times **without anyone noticing** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 140) (*contrast*, denoting *but/however*).

Since PC-Accompanying circumstance in augmented absolutes was already found in unaugmented absolutes, it will then be excluded. The patterns from Tables 15 and 16 now are five as follows: 1) PC-Accompanying circumstance, 2) NC-Simultaneity, 3) FC-Elaboration, and 4) CC mostly as implied coreference, and 5) NC-Strong adverbials. The first four patterns are from unaugmented absolutes, while the last one, augmented absolutes.

4.6 Positions and Syntactic Weight

This section illustrates the positions and syntactic weight of absolute clauses.

Table 17 presents the positions of the (un)augmented absolute clauses.

Table 17: Positions

Positions ¹⁰	N	Percent	Examples
Final	324	83.72	(36) Chuckling about Malfoy, they waited, Norbert thrashing about in his crate (Rowling, 2013b, p. 176).
Medial	34	8.79	(37) He came around, rain falling on his face , still lying on the field, with someone leaning over him (Rowling, 2013a, p. 129).
Initial	29	7.49	(38) His heart beating very fast , Harry stood listening to the chill silence (Rowling, 2013a, p. 226).
Total	387	100	

Final position is of the highest frequency with 324 instances (83.72%). The medial position and initial position, meanwhile, form the second highest and the least frequency with 34 instances (8.79%) and 29 instances (7.49%), respectively.

Table 18 below displays the syntactic weight of the absolute clauses based on their syntactic complexity score. That is, an absolute clause with fewer phrasal nodes than its matrix clause is considered less complex and lighter. Due to its light weight in relation to its matrix clause, such absolute is, thus, marked as light, as in (39) below in which the absolute clause *their throats sore* is lighter in relation to its matrix clause *They went to bed exhausted*. An absolute clause with more phrasal nodes than its

¹⁰ In this study, it was found that there were only three instances of separate, all of which occur after the matrix clause, as exemplified in “They were in a corridor. **The forbidden corridor on the third floor**” (Rowling, 2013b, p. 119). They, therefore, will be counted as final instead.

matrix clause, on the other hand, is considered more complex and heavier. It is, therefore, marked as heavy owing to its heavy weight in comparison to its matrix clause. For example, in (40) below, the absolute clause *her hand stretching toward the dungeon ceiling* is considered heavy when compared to its matrix clause *At this, Hermione stood up*; it is, hence, marked as heavy.

Table 18: *Syntactic weight*

Syntactic Weight	N	Percent	Examples
Light Absolutes	317	81.91	(39) They went to bed exhausted, their throats sore (Rowling, 2013b, p. 190).
Heavy Absolutes	70	18.09	(40) At this, Hermione stood up, her hand stretching toward the dungeon ceiling (Rowling, 2013b, p. 103).
Total	387	100	

Table 18 reveals that the absolute clause tends to be light, whereas its matrix clause tends to be heavy. The light absolutes form the largest part of the data with 317 instances (81.91%). The heavy absolutes, in contrast, are less frequent with only 70 instances (18.09%) from the data.

Table 19: *Syntactic weight and positions*

Syntactic Weight	Positions			Total (387)
	Initial	Medial	Final	
Light Absolutes	23 (7.25%)	34 (10.73%)	260 (82.02%)	317
Heavy Absolutes	6 (8.57%)	0 (0%)	64 (91.43%)	70

The results in Table 19 report that light absolutes mainly occur in the final position with 260 instances (82.02%), while the other light absolutes are in the initial and medial positions with 23 instances (7.25%) and 34 instances (10.73%), accordingly. The heavy absolutes, likewise, predominate the final position with 64 instances (91.43%). The other positions, on the contrary, are rare with merely 6 initial instances (8.57%) and no medial instance.

4.7 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter provides the results of the study in accordance with their structural, semantic, and pragmatic aspects. According to the findings, the unaugmented absolutes are of the highest frequency with 318 instances (82.17%); the augmented ones are less frequent with only 69 instances (17.83%). As for the argument structure, the absolute subjects are mostly THEME with the tendency to occur with one-place predicates.

Semantically, coreferences and semantic relations play a role in the production of absolutes. Regarding coreferences, PC predominates the other coreferences in the data. With respect to semantic relations, nearly all of the unaugmented absolutes are weak adverbials with the highly frequent appearance of accompanying circumstance. Strong adverbials, despite being infrequent, were substantially found in augmented absolutes. The two aspects of coreferences and semantic relations, which were observed individually in previous studies, were observed together. In this study, five patterns were observed, namely 1) PC and accompanying circumstance, 2) NC and simultaneity, 3) FC and elaboration, 4) CC mostly as implied coreference, and 5) NC and strong adverbials. The first four patterns are expected in unaugmented absolutes, while the last one, augmented absolutes.

Considering the positions, absolutes are usually light in syntactic weight, which are hypothesized to appear initially, following EWP. However, the findings reveal that these light absolutes primarily appear in the final position. This suggests that the ordering of absolutes is not influenced by the syntactic weight, but rather the information structure. The summary of the findings provides the background information that will lead to the in-depth discussion in chapter 5.



CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

This chapter covers the analysis of the absolutes based on their syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic aspects. The syntactic aspect concerns the Economy Principle in sections 5.1. Structurally, the majority of THEME and the minority of AGENT, EXPERIENCER, and INSTRUMENT in relation to their appearance in fiction is elaborated in section 5.2. The quality of the augmentors, being either a preposition, complementizer, or a subordinator, is also clarified in section 5.3. Semantically, the absolute coreferences and the semantic relations with their matrix clauses are discussed in sections 5.4 and 5.5. These parts are then supported by their correlations, which are in five patterns elaborated in the later section. Section 5.7 concerns the position of absolute clauses with the focus on the End-Weight Principle and information structure. The last section summarizes the overall picture of the chapter.

5.1 Syntactic aspect: The Economy Principle

Syntactic operations are believed to be governed by the *Economy Principle*, which states that structures and operations should be as economical as possible (Radford, 2016, p.23) (Section 2.4).

Since the Economy Principle is believed to universally govern the syntactic structures and operations, it is assumed that this principle also applies to the syntactic structure of absolute clauses as their structure is syntactically reduced, comprising an overt subject and a non-finite predicate, with the omission of some functional categories, as exemplified in (1a) and (1b).

- (1) a. ‘Yes, Arthur, cars,’ said Mrs. Weasley, **her eyes flashing** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 34).
 b. Hermione and Ron listened **with their mouths open** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 138).

Being syntactically reduced, the absolute clauses in (1a) and (1b) follows the Economy Principle, (Section 2.4). As in *her eyes flashing* in (1a), the unaugmented clause mainly consists of lexical categories, the DP *her eyes* and the VP *flashing*, respectively. Both provide meaning with the progressive *be* omitted. Similarly, the augmented absolute *with their mouths open* in (1b) are composed of the lexical DP *their mouths* and the AdjP *open* with the copula *be* omitted. According to Merchant (2001, p. 1), the omission of some constituents is allowed as long as there is no ambiguity. If ambiguity or misunderstanding occurs due to the omission, the economical process cannot take place (Chen, 2016, p. 393) since ambiguity and misunderstanding, owing to the economical process, could result in a clash of communication. Examples (1a) and (1b) indicate that despite being syntactically economical, the absolute clauses *her eyes flashing* and *with their mouths open* still provide sufficient information with no obscurity or ambiguity arisen. Therefore, it is assumed that the syntactic structure of absolute clauses follows the Economy Principle in producing concise and clear clauses for the readers.

The structure of absolutes is also related to unbounded narratives, as suggested by van de Pol and Petré (2015). Unlike bounded narratives in which the subevent has to be closed off before the next subevent to begin (Los & Starren, 2012), as in (2), the absolute clause provides the subevent overlapping with the whole scene (Los & Starren, 2012; van de Pol & Petré, 2015) (Section 2.9).

- (2) ‘Follow me, you two,’ said Professor McGonagall, and they marched on up the corridor, [absolute subevent **Wood looking curiously at Harry**] (Rowling, 2013b, p. 112).

The bounded narrative shows a limitation in that each subevent must end prior to the next subevent. The structure of the absolute clause, in contrast, connects another subevent to the matrix clause with a single use of comma. This absolute subevent could overlap the whole event as its appearance is to provide additional information. In (2), for instance, the absolute clause *Wood looking curiously at Harry* adds another subevent which could occur at the same time as the matrix clause event. The given example shows that the concise structure, along with the use of comma, of absolute clauses provides the chance for two events to merge together within one sentence, instead of two, due to the syntactically economical structure of absolutes, as illustrated in (3b) and (3c) below.

- (3) a. ‘Harry!’ said Ron. His eyes were gleaming.
 b. [the whole event ‘Harry!’ said Ron], [absolute subevent **his eyes gleaming**] (Rowling, 2013a, p. 55).
 c. [the whole event Ron stared after her], [absolute subevent **his mouth open**] (Rowling, 2013b, p. 120).

Example (3a) indicates that two sentences are required to express two events, which are ‘Harry!’ said Ron and *his eyes were gleaming*. With the economical construction of absolutes, together with the use of comma, these two actions can be expressed in one sentence with the whole scene, depicted by the matrix clause ‘Harry!’ said Ron and the subevent, the absolute clause *his eyes gleaming*, as shown in (3b). Likewise, the verbal and non-verbal events can be put together in a sentence with the use of the absolute clause, as in (3c) in which the verbal action of staring in the matrix clause and the non-verbal action of being open are combined. As seen, two actions/events are mingled within one sentence, rather than two separate sentences owing to the economical construction and the quality of being unbounded of absolute clauses.

5.2 Thematic Roles of Absolute Clauses

The absolute clauses comprise the subject and the predicate, which can be either one-place, two-place, or three-place predicates. The two place and three-place predicates are extremely rare with only 22 (5.68%) in the data. They are represented through 21 instances of two-place predicates and a single instance of three-place predicate, respectively, as in (4a) and (4b) below.

- (4) a. He rolled down the burrow window, **the night air whipping his hair**, and looked back at the shrinking rooftops of Privet Drive (Rowling, 2013b, p. 26).

b. Neville Longbottom had been sent letters from all the witches and wizards in his family, **all giving him different advice on what to choose** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 186).

In (4a) and (4b), the predicates are two-place and three-place, with the verbs *whip* and *give* requiring two and three arguments, respectively.

The large majority of the absolute clauses are one-place predicates with 365 instances (94.32%). Out of the 365 instances of one-place predicates, the one-place predicate with the unergative¹¹ is also a minority in the data with 43 instances of AGENT (11.78%), 8 instances of EXPERIENCER (2.19%), and 6 instances of INSTRUMENT (1.64%), as in (5a) – (5c) below, respectively.

- (5) a. ‘Follow me, you two,’ said Professor McGonagall, and they marched on up the corridor, [AGENT subject **Wood**] **looking curiously at Harry** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 112).
- b. They hurried up the street, [EXPERIENCER subject **the Grangers**] **shaking with fright** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 51).
- c. They walked more slowly, [INSTRUMENT subject **ears**] **straining for the faintest sound** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 184).

AGENT, EXPERIENCER, or INSTRUMENT are the minority of this study due to the fact that they refer to a person or thing that is not affected, as given in (6a) and (6b) below.

- (6) a. *God* made heaven and earth (Leech & Short, 2007).
- b. *The dog* ate the bone (Leech & Short, 2007).

God and *the dog* in (6a) and (6b) are the causer of the event. They instigate the action *made* and *ate*. Similarly, the AGENT subject *Wood*, the EXPERIENCER subject *the Grangers*, and the INSTRUMENT subject *ears* are in a similar fashion. In (5a), it is *Wood* that was looking curiously at Harry, not anyone. In (5b), the people who were shaking with fright in that scene is the Grangers, not anybody. *Ears* in (5c) seem to be the only instrument (organ) to strain for the faintest sound. Leech and Short (2007) state that these subjects carry much “story weight.” It is thus assumed that when it comes to the absolute, which tends to be low in informativeness (Section 4.4), they are marked.

In this study, the vast majority of the one-place predicates are with THEME subjects, which were found in 308 instances (84.38%). They are in three constructions: the non-verbal, the unaccusative, and the passive constructions with 129 (41.88%), 118 (38.31%), and 61 (19.81%) instances, respectively. Here are the examples.

¹¹ Intransitive constructions are divided into two types: the unergative and the unaccusative. The unergative has AGENT/EXPERIENCER/INSTRUMENT subjects, as in the *cat* slept on the couch. On the other hand, the unaccusative is with THEME subject, as in the *ice* melted and *the sun* rises. While *rise* does not have a transitive pair, *melt* is an unaccusative verb, which is also called the ergative, has a transitive pair (Simargool, 2006).

- (7) a. Fawkes was soaring around its head, and the basilisk was snapping furiously at him **with** [Non-verbal THEME **fangs**] **long and thin as sabers** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 235).
- b. ‘Harry!’ said Ron, [Unaccusative THEME **his eyes**] **gleaming** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 55).
- c. He watched an owl flutter toward the school across the bright blue sky, [Passive THEME **a note**] **clamped in its mouth** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 192)

The extensive use of THEME subjects corresponds with the economical syntactic structure, earlier discussed, in that they appear as a single argument in a clause. In (7), they appear in copula, unaccusative, and the passive constructions, respectively, all of which have the auxiliary *be* omitted. (7a) has copula *be*; (7b) has progressive *be*; and (7c) has passive *be*. Because THEME appears in several constructions, it, thus, dominates the data.

Another reason for THEME subjects to be productive is that THEME subjects are likely to signify part-whole coreference (PC) as in the 267 instances (86.69%). THEME subjects and PC are closely related because THEME mostly refers to inanimate subject which semantically signifies PC, as shown in (8a) and (8b) below.

- (8) a. Dobby [whole] leaned toward Harry, **his eyes** [THEME/part] **wide as headlamps** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 17).
- b. Harry looked at Ron [whole], who was still standing **with his wand** [THEME/part] **in the air** (Rowling, 2013b, 131).

THEME/PC, which usually refers to a body part, some piece of clothing, some belonging, facial expression, and so on, are the inanimate or abstract entities which do not denote cause or mental state [-c-m]. These entities are extensively employed in PC to provide background information, depict situations and actions, or describe facial expression of some elements in the matrix clause in fiction, as in (8a) and (8b) in which the absolute clauses, signifying PC, describe Dobby’s facial expression and how Ron’s wand is held, respectively. THEME as PC exists to set the scene and sentence’s context or accentuate an event, resulting in the dominance of THEME and PC in the fiction.

The high frequency of THEME in the absolute clauses disagrees with Jackendoff’s thematic hierarchy where AGENT appears on top. This is likely because the hierarchy applies to main clauses. Following information structure of which given information starts the sentence, AGENT —usually human subjects— start the main clauses as people usually talk about themselves or other humans (Fox & Thompson, 1990). Unlike main clauses, subordinate clauses, e.g., absolute clauses, which usually end the sentence, start with THEME because its reference usually exists in the main clause. Here are examples.

- (9) a. She approached Lockhart’s desk, [THEME **a piece of paper**] **clutched tightly in her hand**. (Rowling, 2013a, 123).

- b. ‘We must be miles under the school,’ said Harry, **his voice echoing in the black tunnel** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 223).

Since the AGENT subject is usually mentioned in the matrix clause, it is uneconomical to repeat the AGENT in the absolute clause. With the use of THEME, the absolute clause could provide additional information without having to repeat or mention the actor. THEME subjects of the absolute clause are usually PC, signifying that the absolute subject is part of the given AGENT in the matrix clause. Moreover, with the THEME subject, signifying PC, the focus of the story can be shifted from the given AGENT to the THEME, providing new information. For example, in (9a) with the THEME subject in the absolute, the focus of the story can be shifted from the known AGENT *she* to what is in her hand, *a piece of paper*. Similarly, the THEME subject *his voice* in (9b) smoothly shifts the focus from the AGENT who made the voice to how his voice was echoing in the black tunnel.

Due to the economical construction of absolute clauses, only necessary information such as actions are saved, encouraging the high frequency of THEME in fiction. The misinterpretation or confusion owing to the lack of the actor, in contrast, does not occur as the actor of the action is still known via coreferences.

5.3 Semantically bleached *with* and other augmentors

Several prepositions or subordinators in English, such as, *by*, *despite*, *after*, and so on, could serve as a device to mark a particular semantic reading (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016, p. 331), as in (10a) – (10c) in which *by*, *despite*, and *after* denote cause, concession, and anteriority, respectively. Similarly, *without*-, *what with*- and *and*-augmentors are likely to act accordingly in that they are like a preposition (*without* and *what with*) or a subordinator (*and*)¹² with the ability to signify a semantic relation, as shown in (10d) – (10f) in which *without*, *what with*, and *and* denote contrast, cause, and result, respectively.

- (10) a. **By women being open about sex**, it made life much easier for men (He & Yang, 2015a, p. 14) (denoting *cause*).
- b. **Despite turnover being virtually flat at 13,242 m**, Vallance said that BT had been successful in controlling operating costs (He & Yang, 2015a, p. 14) (denoting *concession*).
- c. And, **after mass done**, every clerk went their procession (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016, p. 319) (denoting *anteriority*).
- d. Marcus Flint seized the Quaffle and scored five times **without anyone noticing** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 140) (denoting *contrast*—“but no one noticed”).
- e. Perhaps it was because he was now so busy, **what with Quidditch practice three evenings a week on top of all his homework** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 126)

¹² The augmentor *and* differs from a coordinating conjunction *and* in that it does not coordinate two main clauses, as in “They left without a word, and he so sensitive” in which *they left without a word* is a main clause, while *and he so sensitive*, a subordinate clause (Quirk et.al, 1985, p. 923). Moreover, the augmentor *and* also behaves like a subordinator because *and he so sensitive* in this case refers to “though he was so sensitive” (Quirk et.al, 1985, p. 844).

(denoting *cause*– “he was so busy because Quidditch practice three evenings a week was on top of all his homework”).

f. Harry’s broom had given a wild jerk **and Harry swung off it** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 139) (denoting *result*– he was swung off it due to a wild jerk of his broom).

Under this scenario, *without*, *what with*, and *and* could be said to restrict the occurrences of English absolute with simply 14 out of 69 instances in this study. However, they are not considered as prepositions (*without* and *what with*) or a subordinator (*and*), but rather non-finite complementizers like *for*-complementizer, *because*, or *if* (Section 2.3).

This characteristic seems to apply to *without* and *what with* in absolute clauses in that they are in C position assigning a null case to the non-finite absolute clause and oblique case due to its inherent prepositional property, as in (11) below, in which *without* assigns a null case to the clause and an oblique case to *him*.

- (11) ‘All right,’ said Hermione coldly. ‘What we’d need to do is to get inside the Slytherin common room and ask Malfoy a few questions [cp [c **without him realizing it’s us**’]] (Rowling, 2013a, p. 120).

The augmentor *and* is also like such complementizers as *because* or *if* in that it does not possess a prepositional property, but rather a subordinator property. *Because* and *if* denote the semantic relations of cause/reason and condition, respectively; they are, therefore, exclusively used in those contexts. *And* in absolutes is believed to have such characteristic in that in this study, it usually appears to signify *result* and *contrast* as in (12a) – (12b), below.

- (12) a. Harry’s broom had given a wild jerk **and Harry swung off it** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 139) (*result*).
 b. He was carrying his large crossbow, **and a quiver of arrows hung over his shoulder**. (Rowling, 2013b, p. 182) (*contrast*).
 c. He got stuck in the ticket barrier on the Underground and complained loudly that the seats were too small **and the trains too slow** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 53) (*contrast*).

With-augmentor, however, seems to hold a distinctive quality that makes it different from the other augmentors in that it is said to be semantically bleached (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016). That is, *with*-augmentor cannot serve as a device to mark a certain semantic relation to the DP that follows (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016, p. 202). In order to signify a concession, for example, some adverbial particles need to be added prior to *with* as in (13a) and (13b) below (Kortmann, 2013).

- (13) a. **Even with her father out of the country and her mother decamped**, he found it incredible that safeguards for a young girl’s welfare would not be set up (Kortmann, 2013).

b. ***Even with legal test cases pending***, there was every sign that the hold-outs could fight a delaying action (Kortmann, 2013).

The adverb *even* preceding *with* in the above examples is added to help *with* mark a concessive interpretation between absolute and matrix clauses. In this study, one similar instance was found from the source, as shown in (14).

- (14) Neville managed to have an extraordinary number of accidents ***even with both feet on the ground*** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 108).

Another adverbial particle that could agree with the above statement is *not* with the only one instance found, as given in (15) in which the added *not* helps narrow down the interpretation to simultaneity, denoting *when*.

- (15) Harry didn't want to press the subject, ***not with the spiders pressing closer on all sides*** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 207).

The appearance of *even* and *not* to help specify the semantic relation strengthens the claim by Kortmann (2013) that *with*-augmentor cannot mark a semantic relation. *With*-augmentor seems to lose its compositionality as a preposition and has grammaticalized as an absolute marker/complementizer (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016). That is, *with* no longer offers a clearly identifiable semantic relation to the DP that follows but serves as a syntactic marker to signal the presence of absolute clause (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016). Thus, like the other augmentors, *with* is a non-finite complementizer in C position.

As for case assignment, *with* assigns null case to the absolute subject. However, some instances of subjects after *with* could be case marked as oblique. In this study, there is the only one instance of oblique case, as shown in (16) below.

- (16) I never went in there anyway if I could avoid it, it's awful trying to go to the loo ***with her wailing at you*** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 101).

The pronoun *her* in (16) is assigned oblique case. This is because *with* still has the property of a preposition influenced by its form like *for*-complementizer. However, *with* is more like *that*-complementizer, rather than *for*-complementizer, in that it has both overt and covert versions, as given in (17a) and (17b) below.

- (17) a. I think (that) you might be right (Radford, 2016, p. 86).

b. He stood ***(with) his hand on Draco's shoulder***, sneering in just the same way (Rowling, 2013a, p. 50).

With no semantic content, the augmentor *with* in (17b) then can be null. Due to this quality, *with* is assumed to be in C position, contradicting the analysis proposed by Kim (2020) (Section 2.3).

This study proposes that since *with* is a complementizer with its prepositional property by its form, it is located in C position, assigning oblique case to the pronoun *her*. With *with* omitted, it is still understood how *her* gets oblique case, as illustrated in (18) below.

- (18) [CP C (**With**) [TP **her** T [VP Ø v **being my friend**]]], I granted her request (Kim, 2020).

The summary of the quality of all four augmentors is described in Table 20 below.

Table 20: *The quality of four augmentors*

with	without, what with	and
semantically bleached	not semantically bleached	not semantically bleached
unable to mark a semantic relation with the following DP	able to mark a semantic relation with the following DP	able to mark a semantic relation with the following DP
able to assign oblique case due to its inherent prepositional property by its form	able to assign oblique case due to its inherent prepositional property by its form	unable to assign oblique case but denote a semantic relation
similar to <i>that</i> -complementizer	similar to <i>for</i> -complementizer	similar to <i>because, if, etc.</i> , in C position
can be covert	cannot be covert	cannot be covert
located at head C	located at head C	located at head C
non-finite complementizer	non-finite complementizer	non-finite complementizer

The discussion shows that the structure of the absolute clause follows the Economy Principle in producing concise and clear clauses for the readers. With the majority of THEME subjects, signifying PC, the absolute clause could provide background information, depict situations, describe facial expression, establish the scene, accentuate suspense, or smooth the story transition in fiction. AGENT EXPERIENCER, or INSTRUMENT subjects, however, are less frequent in absolutes in fiction as the absolute subjects tend to be inanimate entities, usually expressed by THEME. Sections 5.1 – 5.3 provide in-depth analyses regarding the syntactic aspect of absolutes, their semantic properties are discussed in later sections.

5.4 Coreferences: A semantic cohesive device of absolutes

The appearance of augmentors in augmented absolutes indicates how the clause is syntactically attached to its matrix clause, as in (19a) below.

- (19) a. She dived under the table to retrieve the bowl and emerged **with her face glowing like the setting sun** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 37).
 b. She stood in the middle of the pitch, waiting for the two teams, **her broom in her hand** (Rowling, 2013b, p.136).

In (19a), the augmentor *with* heads the absolute, attaching the absolute with its matrix clause. The unaugmented absolute with no introductory augmentor, as in

(19b), however, has no such connection. Despite its lack of overt augmentor, it is believed that the unaugmented absolute has coreferences as a cohesive device (Cook, 2001; Leech & Short, 2007).

Cook (2001) and Leech and Short (2007) propose two types of cohesive devices: *linkage* and *cross-reference*. Linkage refers to overt connectors like *while*, *meanwhile*, *but*, *or*, and *however*, which are assumed to have a similar function as absolute augmentors, which are linking absolute clauses with matrix clauses. Meanwhile, cross-reference refers to clausal relationships without overt connectors, as in unaugmented absolutes. Cross reference is of mainly three types: *anaphoric/cataphoric expressions*, *repetition*, and *ellipsis*.

Anaphoric/cataphoric expressions concern the relationship between two constituents, as in (20a) below, in which the possessive marker *my* anaphorically marks a coreference between the pronoun *I* and *my eyes*. Example (20b), likewise, expresses anaphora between *one man* and *he* with the pronoun *he* referring to *one man*.

- (20) a. And when *I* turned my head, *my eyes* followed ... (Leech & Short, 2007, p. 70).
 b. In the 1930s *one man* touched the lives of millions of women. *He* wasn't a film star or a singer but a scientist. *He* invented nylon (Cook, 2001, p. 151).
 c. *Wallace Carothers* dedicated his life to women. Nylon by *Wallace Carothers*. Nylons by Pretty Polly.

With respect to repetition, a word could be repeated or restated in another word which is different in sense but similar in reference. For example, in (20c), *Wallace Carothers* is repeated in another sentence, whereas the italicized word *one man* in (20b) is restated in another sentence as a film star, a singer, and a scientist, which are underlined. These words are different in meaning, but in terms of reference, they are all referring to *one man* in the previous sentence, suggesting the use of repetition in terms of sense.

Regarding ellipsis, some elements whose meanings are “understood” are omitted or deleted as they are recoverable from the context (Leech & Short, 2007). In (20b), for example, the phrase *but a scientist* suggests the use of ellipsis deriving from *but he was a scientist* with the pronoun *he* and the copula *be* omitted.

It is, therefore, believed that the unaugmented absolute has coreferences as a cohesive device, as shown in (21a) – (21c) below.

- (21) a. PC: Madam Hooch _[whole] was bending over Neville, **her face** _[part] **as white as his** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 110).
 b. FC: ‘Training for the ballet, Potter?’ yelled Malfoy as Harry was forced to do a stupid kind of twirl in midair to dodge the Bludger, and he fled, **the Bludger trailing a few feet behind him** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 129).

c. CC: Colin was sitting in one of the highest seats, his camera raised, taking picture after picture, **the sound (of Colin's) strangely magnified in the deserted stadium** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 85).

Examples (21a) – (21c) above show that the coreferences, either as PC in (21a), FC in (21b), or CC in (21c), seem to play a part in connecting the absolute clause with its matrix clauses through three cohesive devices. In example (21a), the absolute subject *her face* refers to the matrix referent *Madam Hooch* by being a part of it. Due to the part-whole coreference (PC), the overt absolute subject and its matrix clause are thereby connected. The connection through PC is in line with Cook (2001) and Leech and Short (2007) who suggest that anaphora plays a role in cohesively connecting clauses. With the use of possessive marker *her* in (21a), the whole absolute clause and the matrix clause are therefore anaphorically linked. Despite the lack of possessive markers, *the Bludger* in (21b) is repeated to adhere to the matrix clause. In the case of CC, as in (21c), ellipsis applies as the omitted unit is recoverable from the previous discourse to semantically link the matrix and the absolute clause (Cook, 2001; Leech & Short, 2007). That is, the absolute subject *the sound* in (21c), on the surface, is not connected to any matrix DPs. However, the surrounding context implies that the sound in that context is the sound of Collin's with the PP *of Colin's* in ellipsis (shown in the parenthesis). The omitted element *of Colin's*, in this case, is the one that co-refers to the matrix DP *Colin*. The two clauses are, as a result, connected through implied coreference which is, in nature, in the elliptical form. As shown, despite the lack of an augmentor, the unaugmented absolute is still semantically attached to its matrix clause via coreferential relation it contains.

5.5 Semantic Relations

Weak adverbials and strong adverbials are the two groups of semantic relations in this study. Weak adverbials — requiring little prior knowledge from the readers — form the highest frequency with 356 instances (91.99%), collected from 315 instances unaugmented absolutes and 41 instances of augmented absolute. Meanwhile, strong adverbials — requiring more prior knowledge from the readers — are the lowest with only 31 instances (8.01%). 28 instances of them appear in augmented absolutes.

Weak adverbials

- (22) a. Gilderoy Lockhart was striding toward them, **his turquoise robes swirling behind him** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 76) (*accompanying circumstance*).
- b. They smashed their way through the undergrowth, **Fang howling loudly in the back seat** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 207) (*simultaneity*).
- c. Fred and George were wearing blue sweaters, **one with a large yellow F on it, the other a G** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 149) (*elaboration*).

Weak adverbials are of the highest frequency because they are easier to process than strong adverbials. That is, prior knowledge/information is minimally required for interpretation (Fuhre, 2010; Kortmann, 2013), and surrounding context is

sufficient to provide a clear understanding (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016). The absolute clause in (22a), for instance, provides additional information about Gilderoy Lockhart's clothing. Example (22b) shows that Fang was howling loudly simultaneously in the back seat while they smashed their way through a mass of bushes. The absolute clause in (22c), meanwhile, elaborates the detail of blue sweaters the twins (Fred and George) were wearing. With context provided, the readers do not have to think long and hard to understand the relationship between the absolute and the matrix clause. Since less shared knowledge is required, semantic interpretation is not difficult. This therefore leads to the extensive use of weak adverbials in the data.

In contrast to weak adverbials, strong adverbials are rarely used with merely 31 instances (8.01%) in the data. 28 instances of them were found in the augmented absolutes. The reason for strong adverbials to be rarely used is that they are difficult to process; the readers have to retrieve their shared/prior knowledge for interpreting the semantic relation between absolute and matrix clauses (van de Pol & Petré, 2015), as shown in (23a) – (23c).

Strong adverbials

- (23) a. It must be getting riskier and riskier to open the Chamber of Secrets, **with the school so alert and suspicious** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 175) (*cause*).
- b. Neville managed to have an extraordinary number of accidents **even with both feet on the ground** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 108)¹³ (*concession*, denoting *even if*).
- c. He was carrying his large crossbow, **and a quiver of arrows hung over his shoulder** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 182) (*contrast*, denoting *whereas*).

In (23a) the absolute clause in bold *with the school so alert and suspicious* is the reason (*cause*) why it is risky to open the Chamber of Secrets. The readers have to retrieve their past knowledge and information from the previous chapters that there were attacks on Muggle-born students¹⁴ by the heir of Slytherin, the attacker who opened the Chamber of Secrets and released the Basilisk (the serpent) to attack Muggle-born students. Since the whole school was now alert to the attack, it is getting riskier for the heir of Slytherin to open the Chamber of Secrets.

In (23b) the absolute clause *even with both feet on the ground* denotes that even if Neville was standing on the ground, he is prone to meet with extraordinary number of accidents. In order to understand this concessive relationship, past information regarding Neville's character has to be retrieved. That is, from previous chapters, Neville is usually described as a clumsy, accidental-prone person. When he is described in (23b), the readers will understand why he managed to have an extraordinary number of accidents even if both of his feet were on the ground.

As for example (23c), the boldfaced absolute clause, on the surface, seems to describe the details of dressing. The deep interpretation, however, reveals that the

¹³ To signify a concession, some adverbial particles such as *even* can be added prior to *with* (Kortmann, 2013).

¹⁴ A Muggle-born is the witch or wizard who is born to the non-magical parents.

absolute clause denotes the contrastive relationship by showing that his large crossbow was carried, whereas a quiver of arrows was hung over his shoulder.

The examples above indicate that strong adverbials do not appear to provide side-by-side information just like weak adverbials. Past knowledge/information is crucial to facilitate semantic relation interpretation. Due to this difficulty in processing, strong adverbials are, hence, not as frequent as the weak ones.

5.5.1 The High Productivity of Weak Adverbials in Fiction

As mentioned earlier, weak adverbials are of the highest frequency with 91.99 percent. This high productivity indicates that absolute clauses largely occur as weak adverbials in fiction due to the fact that they are much easier to process and understand. The occurrence of weak adverbials seems to correspond with the concept of audience adaptation (Reid et al., 2022) referring to the fact that authors need to know their audience to communicate with them. When they know the audience, they could anticipate their needs and write in the way that meets those needs (Reid et al., 2022). In this study, the target readers of the first two books of Harry Potter series, the main source of data, are middle-graders whose ages are between eight and twelve (Cunningham, 2019). Because children to preteens are the target readers of the books, the language use should be easy to understand to keep their attention while reading. Besides, the language should be clear and concise to help the readers read the books effortlessly. If the language is too difficult, the readers could lose their interest and stop reading (*Write Clearly and Concisely*, n.d.). In order to keep their attention and interest, weak adverbials, which are easier to process, are, therefore, more preferred, resulting in their great use in the data.

The process of producing written language to satisfy the readers' needs is also in line with Leech and Short (2007) who view the language operation as a coding system. That is, the author encodes messages into the language by constructing sentences, which then become a text for the readers to decode. Since the target audience is children to pre-teens, the language use should be easy to decode in order to keep their attention to continue to read. With concise, clear, and informative messages they provide, weak adverbials therefore seem to be a proper option to meet this purpose.

5.5.2 Semantic Relations and the Appearance of Augmentors in Augmented Absolutes

As stated earlier, strong adverbials were rarely found in the data with merely 31 instances (8.01%), and 28 instances of them (90.32%) occur in augmented absolutes, suggesting the correlation between the two. In previous studies regarding absolute clauses, it is believed that there is a correlation between coreference and the augmentation of absolute clauses. That is, the absolute clause with non-coreference would increase the processing complexity; the augmentation is then needed to facilitate the processing (Berent, 1975, p. 17, as cited in Kortmann, 2013, p. 200). In the meantime, the absolute clauses with coreference would facilitate processing; the need for augmentation is therefore eliminated (Berent, 1975, as cited in Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016, p. 334), as in (24a) and (24b) below.

- (24) a. **With there being so many people in the room**, we couldn't hear each other (Berent, 1975, p. 11, as cited in Kortmann, 2013, p. 93) (without coreference).
- b. She rushed from the shop, **hat in hand** (He & Yang, 2015, p. 18) (with coreference).

However, in this study it was found that out of 69 instances of augmented absolutes, 37 instances are absolute clauses with coreferences and the overt augmentors (PC = 33, FC = 3, CC = 1), as given in (25a) – (25c) below. This suggests that although the absolute contains the subject with coreferences, the augmentor is still present, suggesting that coreference is not the primary factor that determines the absence of the augmentor. In addition, there are certain instances that signify NC but contain no overt augmentor, as in (25d) and (25e), showing that the existence of NC is not the only factor for the augmentor to appear.

- (25) a. PC: She dived under the table to retrieve the bowl and emerged **with her face glowing like the setting sun** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 37).
- b. FC: He stretched out his hand – a foot from the ground he caught it, just in time to pull his broom straight, and he toppled gently onto the grass **with the Remembrall clutched safely in his fist** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 111).
- c. CC: Harry's broom had given a wild jerk **and Harry swung off it** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 139).
- d. NC: He rolled down the burrow window, **the night air whipping his hair**, and looked back at the shrinking rooftops of Privet Drive (Rowling, 2013a, p. 26).
- e. NC: He came around, **rain falling on his face**, still lying on the field, with someone leaning over him (Rowling, 2013a, p. 129).

Aside from the role of coreference and non-coreference on the (un)augmentation of absolute clauses, it is likely that the degree of informativeness seems to play a part in the presence or the absence of the augmentor, as illustrated in (26a) and (26b) below.

- (26) a. FC: He stretched out his hand – a foot from the ground he caught it [the Remembrall], just in time to pull his broom straight, and he toppled gently onto the grass [Elaboration **(with) the Remembrall clutched safely in his fist**] (Rowling, 2013b, p. 111).
- b. PC: *[Cause **(With) Ron** [part] **covered in the cloak, too**], they [whole] had to walk much more slowly the next night (Rowling, 2013b, p. 154).

Both absolute clauses in (26a) and (26b) signify FC and PC, which are *it* and *the Remembrall* and *Ron* and *they*, respectively. According to Berent (1975, as cited in Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016), due to the presence of coreference, the appearance of *with* is unnecessary and should be eliminated. However, when *with*-augmentor in

(26a) and (26b) is omitted, it happens that the absolute clause in (26b), expressing the strong adverbial of cause, becomes ungrammatical, while the absolute in (26a), expressing the weak adverbial of elaboration, remains grammatical.¹⁵

The reason for the augmentor *with* in (26a) to be able to be omitted without being ungrammatical is that the absolute clause in (26a) refers to *elaboration*, the semantic relation of weak adverbials. Since the purpose of weak adverbials is to provide additional, side-by-side information, and little shared knowledge is required, the augmentor, then, can be omitted. The augmentor *with* in (26b), meanwhile, cannot be omitted because the absolute clause denotes *cause*, the strong adverbial which is difficult to process due to the high demand of shared knowledge. Thus, the omission of *with* could cause ungrammaticality. Based on the earlier discussion, it could be assumed that degree of informativeness plays a role in determining the presence or the absence of the augmentor. That is, strong adverbials correlate with the presence of the augmentor in the augmented absolute clauses while weak adverbials allow the augmentor to be covert. This assumption is confirmed by the result in Table 21 below.

Table 21: *The result of omitted augmentors*

Semantic Relations	Augmented Absolutes (69=100%)	Covert <i>with</i>	Covert <i>without, what with, and</i>	Obligatory <i>with</i>	Obligatory <i>without, what with, and</i>
Strong Adverbials	28	-	-	14	14
Weak Adverbials	41	39	-	2	-

Table 21 shows that all of the augmentors, i.e., *with*, *without*, *what with*, and *and*, of the strong adverbials in augmented absolutes cannot be omitted, as in (27a) – (27d).

(27) a. ***(With) Dumbledore around**, You-Know-Who won't touch you. (Rowling, 2013b, p. 190).

b. What they really needed was a nice long search ***(without) Madam Pince breathing down their necks** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 146).

c. Perhaps it was because he was now so busy, ***(what with) Quidditch practice three evenings a week on top of all his homework** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 126).

d. Harry's broom had given a wild jerk ***(and) Harry swung off it** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 139).

The augmentors *without*, *what with*, and *and* appear to mark semantic relations which could apparently facilitate processing by giving a clear interpretation. They,

¹⁵ The grammaticality of the sentence was checked by QuillBot Grammar Checker, the free online program that detects ungrammatical sentences and corrects mistakes (See section 3.3.6).

therefore, cannot be omitted. As for the augmentor *with*, although it is unable to mark a semantic relation, its appearance in strong adverbials is also believed to facilitate the semantic relation interpretation (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016). That is, by nature, strong adverbials are usually hard to process. The appearance of the augmentor *with* could increase ease of processing by signaling the presence of absolute clause to the readers (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016). When the absolute clause is realized, it could readily trigger the readers to retrieve their shared/relevant knowledge for the strong adverbial interpretation. Thus, the existence of the augmentor *with* is thereby obligatory to facilitate processing in strong adverbials.

On the other hand, the disappearance of the augmentor *with* could intensify the degree of complexity as there is no augmentor to help signal the presence of the absolute clause to the readers. Normally, strong adverbials are difficult to process. Without the facilitation by the augmentor, the degree of complexity could be even higher, leading to a substantial minority (3 instances) in the data, as shown in (28a) – (28c).

- (28) a. Even Neville scraped through, **his good Herbology mark making up for his abysmal Potions one** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 222) (*cause*).
 b. Ron dropped his wand. **Hermione Granger, telling a downright lie to a teacher?** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 131) (*cause*).
 c. Harry swerved out of the way, **one idea firmly lodged in his numb brain: get to Malfoy** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 129) (*cause*).

These three instances suggest that the appearance of the augmentors in strong adverbials is crucial in facilitating processing either through marking a clear semantic relation (*without*, *what with*, *and*) or signaling the presence of absolute clause to the readers (*with*).

As for weak adverbials in augmented absolutes, nearly all of the *with*-augmentors (no other augmentors) can be omitted, as in (29a) and (29b), with the only two instances that cannot be omitted, as in (29c) and (29d).

- (29) a. He stood **(with) his hand on Draco's shoulder**, sneering in just the same way (Rowling, 2013a, p. 50).
 b. Hermione and Ron listened **(with) their mouths open** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 138).
 c. Harry didn't want to press the subject, ***not (with) the spiders pressing closer on all sides** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 207).
 d. I never went in there anyway if I could avoid it, it's awful trying to go to the loo ***(with) her wailing at you'** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 101).

In (29c), the augmentor *with* cannot be omitted because of *not*. If *with* is omitted, *not* cannot stand alone without the head. In (29d), *with* is a complementizer with its inherent prepositional property by its form. The omission of *with* could make the sentence ungrammatical as the pronoun *her* will be left without the case marker. Due to these reasons, *with* in (29c) and (29d) are, therefore, cannot be omitted.

Regarding examples (29a) and (29b), when the augmentor *with* is omitted, a comma has to be inserted to attach the absolute clause with its matrix clause, making it an unaugmented absolute, as shown in (30a) and (30b) below.

(30) a. He stood, **his hand on Draco's shoulder**, sneering in just the same way (Rowling, 2013a, p. 50).

b. Hermione and Ron listened, **their mouths open** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 138).

Unlike *with* in strong adverbials which appears to increase ease of processing, *with* in weak adverbials is overt, despite being able to be omitted, to maintain the flow of the sentence. If *with* is omitted, a comma has to be inserted, which could interrupt the logical flow of the sentence (Bayraktar et al., 1998), as shown in (30) above. Since 32 instances (78.05%) of *with*-augmented absolutes¹⁶ contains no comma, the appearance of *with*-augmentor in weak adverbials presumably appears to maintain the logical flow of the sentence.

Based on the earlier discussion, it could be assumed that the degree of informativeness plays a more leading role than coreference in determining the presence or absence of the augmentors. That is, the existence of the augmentors *without*, *what with*, and *and* is to facilitate processing by providing a clear semantic relation. Likewise, the existence of the augmentor *with* in strong adverbials, is to facilitate the semantic relation interpretation by signaling the presence of absolute clause to the readers. Moreover, the appearance of the augmentor *with* in weak adverbial absolutes is to maintain the logical flow of the sentence, even though it can be omitted.

5.5.3 The Possible Covert *with* in Unaugmented Absolutes

As stated, the augmentor *with* has both overt and covert versions, depending on the degree of informativeness. That is, *with* appears in strong adverbials due to the higher degree of informativeness, while in weak adverbials, *with* could be null. Owing to the possible existence of covert *with*, it is hence assumed that covert *with* exists in unaugmented absolutes in weak adverbials, as demonstrated in (31a) and (31b) below.

(31) a. Harry picked it up and stared at it, **(with) his heart twanging like a giant elastic band** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 30).

b. Gilderoy Lockhart was striding toward them, **(with) his turquoise robes swirling behind him** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 76).

The assumption of covert *with* in unaugmented absolutes has been speculated among linguists such as Kim (2020), Tang (2005), and Van de Pol and Hoffmann (2016). To justify this statement, all of the unaugmented absolutes in this study were analyzed to see whether or not they could be augmented by *with*. The result reveals

¹⁶ Only *with* in weak adverbials of augmented absolute is analyzed, so the total instances to be considered in this case is 41, excluding the 14 instances of *without*, *what with*, and *and* in strong adverbials and the 14 instances of *with* in strong adverbials.

that out of 318 instances of unaugmented absolutes, there are 313 instances (98.43%) that the augmentation of *with* is acceptable, as illustrated in the following examples.

- (32) a. ‘Training for the ballet, Potter?’ yelled Malfoy as Harry was forced to do a stupid kind of twirl in midair to dodge the Bludger, and he fled, **(with) the Bludger trailing a few feet behind him** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 129).
- b. ‘Ah, sir, ask no more, ask no more of poor Dobby,’ stammered the elf, **(with) his eyes huge in the dark** (Rowling, 2013a, p.134).
- c. Feet away, towering above him, was a solid wall of spiders, clicking, **(with) their many eyes gleaming in their ugly black heads** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 207).
- d. Oh,” said Hagrid, **(with) the rooster falling limply at his side** (Rowling, 2013a, p.156).

Due to the highest frequency of plausible appearance of *with* in unaugmented absolutes — 313 instances (98.12%) — it could be assumed that there exists the covert *with* in unaugmented absolutes, supporting the speculation of Kim (2020), Tang (2005), and Van de Pol and Hoffmann (2016). The reason for *with* to be covert, rather than being overt, in unaugmented absolutes is that unaugmented absolutes are extensively used as weak adverbials with 315 instances (99.06%). Since weak adverbials are normally easier to process than strong adverbials, and surrounding context seems to provide clear interpretation, the appearance of *with* to facilitate processing is therefore eliminated, satisfying the Economy Principle.

The other five instances of unaugmented absolutes are also believed to contain covert *with*. However, *with* in this scenario is believed to be covert not because of its unnecessary in processing, but because of the attempt to avoid repetition following the *horror aequi* principle.

The *horror aequi* principle involves the tendency to avoid the use of formally (near-) identical and (near-) adjacent grammatical elements or structure (Rohdenburg, 2003, p. 236, as cited in Wongkittiporn & Chitrakara, 2019). Thus, one of near/identical structures changes, although the change might be grammatically incorrect in other contexts (Kaluga, 2021), as exemplified in (33a) and (33b).

- (33) a. I consider going to the opera (Kaluga, 2021).
- b. I am considering to go to the opera (Kaluga, 2021).

Normally, the verb *consider* requires a gerund as its complement, as in (33a). Nonetheless, when the matrix verb in (33b) takes a progressive form, the gerundial complement is then less preferred, leading to the use of *to*-infinitival complement instead. The examples reflect the avoidance due to the fear of repeating identical elements or structures, even though such grammatical change could lead to ungrammaticality in other contexts. In this study, it is assumed that *with* in weak adverbial unaugmented absolute, as shown in (34a) – (34e) is covert due to fear of repetition.

- (34) a. The speaker was a plump woman who was talking to four boys, ***(with) all with flaming red hair** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 69).
- b. Fred and George were wearing blue sweaters, ***(with) one with a large yellow F on it**, the other a G (Rowling, 2013b, p. 149).
- c. Twelve towering Christmas trees stood around the room, ***(with) some sparkling with tiny icicles**, some glittering with hundreds of candles (Rowling, 2013b, p. 144).
- d. Twelve towering Christmas trees stood around the room, some sparkling with tiny icicles, ***(with) some glittering with hundreds of candles** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 144).
- e. As half the class lumbered up to Snape's desk, ***(with) some weighted down with arms like clubs**, others unable to talk through gigantic puffed-up lips, Harry saw Hermione slide back into the dungeon, the front of her robes bulging (Rowling, 2013a, p. 140).

In examples (34a) – (34e), the overt *with* could co-occur with another “with” in the same clause in a close proximity. Therefore, in order to avoid repetition, *with*-augmentor should be covert, satisfying the *horror aequi* principle.

With no augmentor, the unaugmented absolute also makes use of commas for its own benefit. The existence of comma is to prevent the need for major reanalysis, reduce rereading the sentence, and eliminate misinterpretation (garden-path effect) (Hill & Murray, 2000), as demonstrated in (35a) and (35b) below.

- (35) a. ‘Ready?’ Ron called, **his face pale but determined** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 205).
- b. ‘Ah, sir, ask no more, ask no more of poor Dobby,’ stammered the elf, **his eyes huge in the dark** (Rowling, 2013a, p.134).

In (35a), for instance, the unaugmented absolute clause *his face pale but determined* serves as accompanying circumstance, the weak adverbial which provides conjoining information. With the clause separated by a comma, the reader would know that this part is additional information, describing Ron's facial expression. Since prior knowledge is minimally required, the need to reread or reanalyze due to misinterpretation will not happen, helping readers read effortlessly. This statement is confirmed by the result of the study with 315 instances of unaugmented absolutes attached to the matrix clauses by commas (the other three are in the separate position detached from the matrix clause with a period (..))

The use of commas could also be found in weak adverbials of *with*-augmented absolute clauses with merely 9 instances (21.95%), less than the majority with no commas, as given in (36a) and (36b) below.

- (36) a. A moment later, Professor McGonagall had come bursting into the room, closely followed by Snape, **with Quirrell bringing up the rear** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 131).

- b. He [Harry] leaned against the wooden door and looked up at Hogwarts, **with its windows glowing red in the setting sun** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 165).

The infrequent use of the overt *with*-augmentor with a comma indicates that it is not preferred in the data. That is, since weak adverbials are generally easy to process and a comma is sufficient to help avoid reanalysis, the overt augmentor, then, seems to be overused, resulting in its infrequency in the study.

Based on the aforesaid discussion, it is believed that the augmentor *with* is covert in unaugmented absolutes of weak adverbials due to its non-necessity for processing. With *with* being null, the structure of unaugmented absolutes also satisfies the Economy Principle as the unnecessary element for syntactic operations, in this case *with*, is eliminated, resulting in the high productivity of unaugmented absolutes in fiction. Moreover, commas, which are used to separate the absolute and matrix clause, also benefit the interpretation by giving a clear segmentation which helps reduce the chance to reread or reanalyze the sentence due to the confusion or misinterpretation. Due to this reason, the augmentor *with* is considered unnecessary and is therefore eliminated. The summary of the factors that govern the presence or absence of the augmentors in both augmented and unaugmented absolutes are given in the table below.

Table 22: *The summary of potential factors that determine the presence/absence of the augmentors.*

	Strong Adverbials	Weak Adverbials
Augmented Absolute	<i>Without/what with/and</i> are overt to facilitate processing by marking a clear semantic relation.	<i>Without/what with/and</i> are not found in the data of this study.
	<i>With</i> is overt to facilitate processing by signaling the presence of the absolute clause to the readers (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016).	Though being able to be covert, the augmentor <i>with</i> is overt to maintain the logical flow of the sentence.
Unaugmented Absolute	Strong adverbials are almost non-existent in unaugmented absolutes because the lack of augmentor intensifies the degree of complexity, leading to the very infrequent use of strong adverbials in the data (3 instances).	<i>With</i> -augmentor is covert as it does not facilitate processing.
		A comma helps avoid semantic relation misinterpretation. <i>With</i> -augmentor is covert to satisfy the <i>horror aequi</i> principle when the predicate is PP headed by <i>with</i> .

5.6 Coreference and Semantic Relations: Five patterns observed

With regards to the correlations between coreferences and semantic relations, five patterns emerged, namely, 1) PC and accompanying circumstance, 2) NC and simultaneity, 3) FC and elaboration, 4) CC as implied coreference, and 5) NC and strong adverbials.

1) Part-whole Coreference and Accompanying Circumstance

Part-whole coreference (PC) has the highest frequency among the coreferences with 298 instances. 274 of them (91.95%) —247 unaugmented and 27 augmented absolutes— substantially occur with accompanying circumstance, as in the following examples.

- (37) a. ‘No, I haven’t,’ said Percy _[whole], **his smile** _[part] **fading** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 137).
 b. Harry looked at Ron _[whole], who was still standing **with his wand** _[part] **in the air** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 131).

The major reason for PC to be correlated with accompanying circumstance is that both are usually used to describe body parts, postures, facial expressions, thoughts, feelings, details of dressing, clothing, perception, sound production, something held in one’s hand, or any kind of movement (Kortmann, 2013). As in examples (37a) and (37b), the absolute subjects *his smile* and *his wand*, respectively, are part of the whole bodies of *Percy* and *Ron*, showing a part-whole relationship. In the meantime, the whole absolute clauses, *his smile fading* and *with his wand in the air* express the semantic relation of accompanying circumstance, detailing Percy’s facial expression and what Ron was holding in his hand, respectively. Since PC and accompanying circumstance are likely to describe such similar things as postures, facial expression details of dressing, and so on, they are, hence, commonly used together.

2) No Coreference and Simultaneity

With 19 out of 24 instances (79.17%), no coreference (NC) in unaugmented absolutes is extensively used with simultaneity, the event that co-occurs with the matrix clause. Here are some examples from the data.

- (38) a. [_{Matrix event} Hermione was running toward them down the path], [_{simultaneous backdrop event} **Hagrid puffing along behind her**] (Rowling, 2013b, p. 189).
 b. [_{Matrix event} He rolled down the burrow window], [_{simultaneous backdrop event} **the night air whipping his hair,**] and looked back at the shrinking rooftops of Privet Drive (Rowling, 2013a, p. 26).

The absolute subjects *Hagrid* in (38a) and *the night air* (38b) have no coreferential relationship with any matrix constituents. They are in the absolute clauses to sketch a simultaneous time frame during which the action of the matrix event takes place (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016). For example, the absolute clause in (38a) suggests that while Hermione was running down the path, Hagrid was puffing along behind her. Similarly, in (38b), the absolute clause *the night air whipping his hair* depicts a simultaneous backdrop event to the matrix clause, rather than providing additional information like accompanying circumstance and elaboration (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016). Thus, due to the given data, NC is assumed to closely correlate

with simultaneity in unaugmented absolutes to describe two separate events that co-occur in a sentence.

3) Full Coreference and Elaboration

According to Kortmann (2013), full coreference (FC) in (39a) is expected to be rarely used in fiction since it can be further reduced into control clauses, as demonstrated in (39b) below.

- (39) a. ‘Training for the ballet, Potter?’ yelled Malfoy as Harry was forced to do a stupid kind of twirl in midair to dodge the Bludger, and he fled, **the Bludger trailing a few feet behind him** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 129).
 b. ‘Training for the ballet, Potter?’ yelled Malfoy as Harry was forced to do a stupid kind of twirl in midair to dodge the Bludger, and he fled, **trailing a few feet behind him**.

In (39b), with *the Bludger* omitted, the sentence is still grammatical and understandable with no absolute clause. Even though *the Bludger* can be omitted leaving the absolute clause a control clause, the DP *the Bludger* still appears as in (39a) to specifically emphasize on the underlined matrix referent *the Bludger*. Since FC is extensively used with elaboration in unaugmented absolutes with 22 instances (95.65%), exclusively for elaborating on the matrix referent it fully refers to (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016), it could be said that the occurrence of FC is to introduce elaboration to the context.

4) Constituent Coreference as Implied Coreference

In this study, there are only six instances of absolute clauses that signify constituent coreference (CC), the least frequent one, in unaugmented absolutes. Due to the small number of instances, CC has no significant correlation with the semantic relations. However, it could be observed that this type of coreference is likely to appear in the form of implied coreference, the subtype of CC. Five out of six were found, as shown in (40a) and (40b) below.

- (40) a. They could hear footsteps (of Filch), **Filch running as fast as he could towards Peeves’s shouts** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 119).
 b. Colin was sitting in one of the highest seats, his camera raised, taking picture after picture, **the sound (of him/Colin’s) strangely magnified in the deserted stadium** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 85).

The constituents in the parentheses show that they are implied. With the support of the surrounding context, the readers can perceive the hidden coreference between absolute and matrix clauses. For example, the absolute subject *Filch* in (40a), superficially, seems to be unrelated to any matrix constituents. The surrounding context, however, implies that the footsteps they hear are the footsteps of *Filch*. This suggests that there is a hidden coreference between the absolute and the matrix clause, but it is implied from the context, not stated directly. The whole absolute clause therefore signifies an implied coreference, the subtype of CC, rather than NC.

Another example is in (40b). On the surface, it seems that there is no coreference between the absolute and the matrix clause. However, the surrounding context implies a hidden coreference in that the sound that was strangely magnified in the stadium was the sound of Colin's. The context indicates that this covert adjunct (*of him/Colin's*) implicitly refers to the underlined matrix DP *Colin*. The whole clause thus marks an implied coreference.

5) No Coreference in Strong Adverbials

With respect to NC in augmented absolutes, the data suggest that NC seems to be in correlation with strong adverbials as more than half of the NC instances (21/28 or 75%) occur with strong adverbials, as shown in (41a) and (41b) below.

- (41) a. **'With you two flying around me all the time** the only way I'm going to catch the Snitch is if it flies up my sleeve' (Rowling, 2013a, p. 128) (*cause*).
- b. Marcus Flint seized the Quaffle and scored five times **without anyone noticing** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 140) (*contrast*, denoting *but*).

Strong adverbials are generally difficult to process. Along with the absolute clause without coreference, the processing complexity seems to be more intensified. The augmentation of absolute clauses is therefore needed to facilitate processing (Berent, 1975, p. 17, as cited in Kortmann, 2013). Both NC and strong adverbials are prone to be difficult to process (Berent, 1975, p. 17, as cited in Kortmann, 2013; Fuhre, 2010). They, therefore, tend to co-occur to make use of the augmentation to facilitate processing, leading to the potential correlation in the data. In (41a), for instance, the absolute subject *you two* has no coreferential connection with any matrix constituents. With the semantic relation of being a cause, denoting *because*, the complexity of processing could be even higher. However, the appearance of the augmentor *with* could increase ease of processing by signaling the presence of an absolute clause to the readers (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016). When the absolute clause is perceived, it could stimulate the readers to retrieve their shared/relevant knowledge for the strong adverbial interpretation. Since both NC and strong adverbials tend to make use of the augmentor to facilitate processing, the appearance of *with* is, hence, augmented.

Another example is in (41b). The augmentor *without* with the ability to mark a particular semantic relation could also facilitate processing by giving a clear semantic relation. In (41b), the augmentor *without* denotes the contrastive reading in that Marcus Flint seized the Quaffle and scored five times but no one noticed. This suggests that the augmentor which is not semantically empty such as *without* could also facilitate processing by giving a clearer semantic interpretation.

In the studies of Kortmann's (2013) Van de Pol and Hoffmann's (2016), coreferences are usually analyzed separately from semantic relations. Nevertheless, with the focus on the correlation between coreferences and semantic relations, it was found that each coreference tends to co-occur with a particular semantic relation or appear in a specific form. In this study, five patterns were observed, namely 1) PC and accompanying circumstance, 2) NC and simultaneity, 3) FC and elaboration, 4) CC as implied coreferences, and 5) NC and strong adverbials. The first four patterns are expected in unaugmented absolutes, while the last one, augmented absolutes. These

correlations illustrate how coreferences and semantic relations work together in producing absolute clauses in the context of fiction. Furthermore, they also suggest that the structure of absolute clauses can be clearly explained through the notions of coreferences and semantic relations.

5.7 Topic-Comment vs Syntactic Weight

There are two types of constituent ordering: syntactic weight and information structure. In this study, light absolutes form the vast majority with 317 instances (81.91%). Due to the large majority and the quality of being light in weight, these absolutes are hypothesized to follow End-Weight Principle by frequently appearing in the initial position. The data, however, show that the syntactic weight does not apply to the majority because of the high frequency of light absolutes in the final position with 260 instances (82.02%). According to information structure, the absolutes appearing at the end are considered presenting new information. Such information conforms to the topic-comment information structure, in which topic is given/old information and comment, new information. Thus, the data suggest that information structure, rather than the syntactic weight, governs the positions of absolute clauses, as demonstrated in (42a) and (42b).

- (42) a. [Topic They][Comment went to bed exhausted, **their throats sore**] (Rowling, 2013b, p. 190).
- b. [Topic She][Comment wrenched open doors and marched along corridors **with Harry trotting miserably behind her**] (Rowling, 2013b, p. 112).

In (42a) and (42b) the subjects *they* and *she* are topics, while the predicates *went to bed exhausted* and *wrenched open doors and marched along corridors* are comments (Li & Thompson, 1976). However, unlike the matrix clauses, the absolute clauses in bold cannot be further parsed into topic-comment structure because there is no such information structure partition in a subordinate clause (Komagata, 2003). Since the absolute clause is considered a subordinate clause, which functions as an adverbial clause and is unable to occur independently without the matrix clause (Tang, 2005, p. 8), it, therefore, cannot be further subdivided as topic-comment.

According to the degree of Communicative Dynamism (CD, henceforth), proposed by (Firbas, 1971), the linguistic elements that are more contextually dependent (given/old information) will appear towards the beginning, carrying the lower degree of CD. The elements that tend to be contextually independent (new information), in contrast, would come last, carrying the higher degree of CD. Based on the concept of CD, it is assumed that the matrix clause predicates in (42a) and (42b) *went to bed exhausted* and *wrenched open doors and marched along corridors* carry the lower degree of CD; therefore, they come first. On the other hand, the absolute clauses in bold *their throats sore* and *with Harry trotting miserably behind her* carry the higher degree of CD; they, therefore, come last, presenting new information to the sentence.

- (43) a. ‘That’s your problem, isn’t it?’ said Filch, **his voice cracking with glee** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 182).

- b. ‘You definitely think it is Potter, then, Ernie?’ said a girl **with blonde pigtails anxiously** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 148).

In the case of examples (43a) and (43b), the sentences start with the complement clauses ‘*That’s your problem, isn’t it?*’ and ‘*You definitely think it is Potter, then, Ernie?*’, both of which are followed by the inverted verbs and subjects *said Filch* and *said a girl*, respectively (Douglas et al., 2021, p. 198). The complement clauses are positioned initially for the purpose of being topics, while the following inverted verbs and subjects are comments. The inverted expressions *said Filch* and *said a girl* are part of the comments with the absolute clauses *his voice cracking with glee* and *with blonde pigtails anxiously* presenting the newest information at the rightmost constituent of the sentence.

Regarding the other 69 instances of heavy absolutes, the topic-comment structure also influences their ordering with 64/70 instances (91.43%) of heavy absolutes in the final position, as given in (44a) and (44b) below.

- (44) a. [Topic He][Comment walked off, **his mind still full of what Ernie had said about him**] (Rowling, 2013a, p. 150).
 b. [Topic He][Comment set off back to the castle **with Harry, who was wishing he knew a good Vanishing Spell, still clasped to his side**] (Rowling, 2013a, p. 76).

The reason for the absolute clauses to predominantly appear finally is that they serve as comments by giving new information, according to the information structure (Li & Thompson, 1976), whereas the matrix clauses, the given/old information. The topic in the matrix clause facilitates the readers’ comprehension of the story by introducing the theme of the discourse, leading them to new information. Example (44a), for instance, shows that *his mind still full of what Ernie had said about him* describes the topic *he* in the preceding clause. Similarly, the augmented absolute *with Harry, who was wishing he knew a good Vanishing Spell, still clasped to his side* in (44b) also depicts the topic *he* in the matrix clause.

As for the initial position, there are 23 instances of light absolutes that are placed sentence initially. They, however, occur initially not because they are light, but because they serve as the scene-setting topic for the matrix clause (Lambrecht, 2012). Scene-setting topics such as prepositional phrases, adverbs, and adverbial clauses are the secondary topic which establish background information for the matrix clause whose subject is the primary topic (subject topic, henceforth) (Lambrecht, 2012; Wu & Chitrakara, 2020), as shown in (45) below.

- (45) [Scene-setting topic (clause topic) **After the children went to school**], [Subject topic he]
 [Comment had to clean the house and go shopping for the party] (Lambrecht, 2012, p. 121).

The whole adverbial clause *after the children went to school* in (45) serves as the scene-setting topic (or clause topic), setting background information to the underlined matrix clause, while *he* is the subject topic of the sentence (Lambrecht, 2012, p. 125, 147; Wu & Chitrakara, 2020). Since the absolute clause is viewed as a subordinate clause, functioning as adverbials (He & Yang, 2015, p. 7; Tang, 2005, p.

8), it is, thus, assumed that the absolute clause in the initial position serves as the scene-setting topic just like the adverbial clause, as shown in (46a) and (46b) below.

- (46) a. [Scene-setting topic **His heart beating very fast**], [Subject topic *Harry*] [comment stood listening to the chill silence] (Rowling, 2013a, p. 226).
 b. [Scene-setting topic **His hands trembling slightly**], [Subject topic *he*] [comment raised the book to press his eye against the little window] (Rowling, 2013a, p. 180).

Functioning as the scene-setting topic, the boldfaced absolute clauses *his heart beating very fast* and *his hands trembling slightly* mark coherence in the text by establishing background for the subject topic *Harry* and *he*, respectively (Hasselgård, 2010). When the subject topic is read, the reader would know the feeling of Harry's from the preceding scene-setting topic.

Apart from the initial light absolutes, heavy absolutes in this study also occur initially, following the notion of topic-comment structure, as in (47a) and (47b).

- (47) a. 'Take me?' said Hagrid, who was trembling. 'Take me where?'... 'Not Azkaban?' croaked Hagrid... [Scene-setting topic **With no Hagrid visible from the castle windows, striding the grounds with Fang at his heels**], [Subject topic *the scene*] [comment didn't look right to Harry] (Excerpted from Rowling, 2013a, p. 197).
 b. The tunnel was so dark that they could only see a little distance ahead. Their shadows on the wet walls looked monstrous in the wand light... [Scene-setting topic1 **Very slowly**], [Scene-setting topic2 **his eyes as narrow as he could make them and still see,**] [Subject topic *Harry*] [comment edged forward] (Excerpted from Rowling, 2013a, p. 224).

Being the scene-setting topic of the discourse, the boldfaced absolute clause in (47a) *with no Hagrid visible from the castle windows, striding the grounds with Fang at his heels* is assumed to be known from the preceding context, suggesting that Hagrid, the gamekeeper of Hogwarts school, was taken to the Azkaban, the wizard prison. The information from the absolute clause in (47a) is set as the scene-setting topic to link with the preceding context and provides the background information for the matrix clause subject topic *the scene*. When Hagrid is not at Hogwarts, striding and patrolling around the school as usual, the scene is thereby unfamiliar to Harry.

In (47b), the heavy absolute clause *his eyes as narrow as he could make them and still see* is set as the scene-setting topic, referring to the previous context. That is, the reason Harry has to narrow his eyes to be able to see is because the tunnel was so dark. When the matrix clause subject topic *Harry*, with its preceding scene-setting topic is retrieved, the old information will be recovered, and the readers will understand why he edged forward (very slowly).

Based on the previous discussion, the initial absolute clauses serve as the scene-setting topic, which establishes background information to the matrix clause subject topic. This function is like an adverbial clause, setting a background framework to the main clause proposition (Lambrecht, 2012). Since the absolute clause is believed to be reduced from adverbial clauses (He & Yang, 2015), it could be assumed that the absolute clause, when being placed sentence initially, will serve

as the scene-setting topic just like the adverbial clause. The same analysis, however, cannot apply to the absolutes in the medial position.

With regards to medial positions, with infrequent 34 instances (10.73%) of light absolutes (no medial heavy absolutes), their occurrences are believed to be governed by information structure, as in (48a) and (48b) below.

- (48) a. [Topic Ron] [comment was standing there **with his wand still raised**, staring at what he had done] (Rowling, 2013b, p. 130).
- b. [Topic Harry], [comment **fear spreading up his numb legs**, watched Riddle stop between the high pillars and look up into the stone face of Slytherin, high above him in the half-darkness] (Rowling, 2013a, p. 234).

Thanks to the concept of CD, the arrangement of absolute clauses in the medial position, as in (48a) and (48b), can be explained. In (48a), *Ron* is the topic, while the rest is comment. *Ron* carries the lowest CD, while the predicate *was standing there* has the next lowest CD. The absolute clause *with his wand still raised* is new, carrying the higher CD; it is, therefore, placed after the predicate *was standing there*. However, the absolute clause is not as new as the present participial phrase *staring at what he had done*, it is thereby placed prior to *staring at what he had done*.

The example (48b) also shares a similar scenario in that *Harry* has the lowest CD, while the absolute *fear spreading up his numb legs* has the next lowest CD. The degree of CD increases as the sentence progresses until the highest CD is reached. The absolute clause is new, but it is not as new as the predicate *watched Riddle ... in the half-darkness*; consequently, it is located before the predicate.

The discussion above shows that the positions of absolute clauses are primarily pragmatically determined by the information structure, rather than the principle of End-Weight. The initial position is the location of a topic, and comment, the rest of the sentence. The medial position is also comment, giving new information, but it is not as new as the elements in the final position.

5.8 Summary of the Chapter

Based on the earlier discussion, the structure of the absolute clause conforms to the Economy Principle in producing a concise and informative structure for the readers. With the majority of THEME subjects, signifying PC, the absolute clause could provide background information, establish the sentence's context, and smooth the story transition in fiction. THEME subjects are the most frequent because they tend to be inanimate entities, being affected. The quality of the four augmentors in augmented absolutes is also discussed with the conclusion that they all behave like non-finite complementizers. That is, *with*, like *that*-complementizer, has both overt and covert versions. *Without* and *what with*, being overt, is like *for*-complementizer in that they are in C position. Having the forms of prepositions, most augmentors, except *and*, are able to assign oblique case to the adjacent argument. *And* is like *because* and *if* in that it does not contain the prepositional property but a specific semantics; it is, therefore, considered a non-finite complementizer.

With respect to coreferences, the unaugmented absolute makes use of its coreferences as a cohesive device to semantically adhere to its matrix clause with the majority of part-whole coreference (PC). Regarding semantic relations, weak

adverbials form the largest majority in fiction. The major factor that seems to play a role behind the high frequency is that weak adverbials are easier to process than strong adverbials. This ease of processing seems to be appropriate for children to pre-teen readers; their extreme use is, therefore, highly expected. Strong adverbials, on the other hand, are difficult to process. Their frequent use could lead to the loss of interest due to the complexity in processing. The occurrences of strong adverbials are, hence, extremely less frequent than weak adverbials in fiction. Concerning the correlation between coreferences and semantic relations, five patterns are observed, namely 1) PC and accompanying circumstance, 2) NC and simultaneity, 3) FC and elaboration, 4) CC as implied coreference, and 5) NC and strong adverbials. The first four patterns are expected in unaugmented absolutes, while the last one, augmented absolutes. These patterns show that coreferences and semantic relations are correlated with each other in fiction. In addition, the discussion also shows that there exists the augmentor *with* in unaugmented absolutes. *With* in unaugmented absolutes, especially in weak adverbials, is covert to satisfy the Economy Principle as its appearance does not facilitate the processing. *With* and other augmentors, on the other hand, are usually present in the strong adverbials of augmented absolutes to facilitate the processing complexity by signaling the presence of absolute clauses. *With*, in weak adverbials, are sometimes overt to maintain the logical flow of the sentence. However, since its appearance is uneconomical as it does not much facilitate processing, *with* in weak adverbials are less preferred, leading to *with* being the minority in the study.

With regard to the positions, the ordering of absolute clauses is pragmatically determined by the information structure of topic-comment, rather than a syntactic weight. That is, the light absolutes appear in the initial position not because they are light, but because they serve as the scene-setting by establishing background information for the matrix clause (Lambrecht, 2012). This statement is supported by a certain number of heavy absolutes which appear sentence initially, showing that even heavy constituents are in the initial position to satisfy the topic-comment structure. The absolutes in the medial position similarly serve as a comment with new information, but they precede the elements in the final position as they are not as new as them, following the concept of Communicative Dynamism (CD).

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

According to the discussion in the previous chapter, it is concluded that syntax semantics, and pragmatics play an interrelated role in determining the way the absolute clauses occur in fiction.

Syntactically, the structure of (un)augmented absolute clauses, comprising an overt subject and a non-finite predicate, is the reduced version of regular clauses. The majority of overt subjects are THEME due to its frequent appearance in copula, unaccusative, and passive constructions. The structure of absolute clauses follows the Economy Principle by forming a syntactically economical construction with clear, concise, and informative messages for the readers. In traditional grammar, the absolute clauses are said not to be linked in any other specific way to the rest of the sentence (Matthews, 2014, p. 2). However, it was found that the augmented absolute is syntactically attached to its matrix clause via its overt augmentor. With no overt augmentor, the unaugmented absolute clause, on the other hand, makes use of coreferences as a cohesive device to semantically connect to their matrix clauses. In the case of no coreference (NC), although it does not co-refer to its matrix clause directly, it is still related to the rest of the sentence through the semantic relation by functioning as a backdrop event, sketching a simultaneous time frame to the matrix clause (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016).

Coreferences are correlated with semantic relations. In this study, the correlations were observed in five patterns: 1) PC and accompanying circumstance, 2) NC and simultaneity, 3) FC and elaboration, 4) CC as implied coreference, and 5) NC and strong adverbials. These patterns illustrate how coreferences and semantic relations are correlated with each other in producing absolute clauses in the context of fiction.

Concerning semantic relations, weak adverbials form the vast majority in absolute clauses with 356 instances (91.99%). The key factor that is believed to play a role behind the high productivity of weak adverbials in unaugmented absolutes is in the fact that the author of the books knows her target audience (Reid et al., 2022), the children to preteens, aged between eight to twelve (Cunningham, 2019). She then encodes the messages into simple language constructions which are easily comprehensible to keep their attention and interest (*Write Clearly and Concisely*, n.d.). Since the encoded language is simplified, it is then easy for the readers to decode. And since weak adverbials are easier to interpret than strong adverbials, their productivity is thereby expected in the books.

With respect to the positions, English absolute clauses are apparently pragmatically determined by the information structure of topic-comment, rather than the syntactic weight. That is, light absolutes frequently occur in the final position even though they are light. This suggests their occurrences are positioned by virtue of being new or old information regardless of weight (Li & Thompson, 1976).

The results of this study present the appearance of English absolute clauses in *Harry Potter* books. The analyses reveal the intriguing syntactic structure, meaning, and function, which provide background information, establish literary genre, set the scene and the sentence's context, link two events, and smooth the story transition. Because of this construction, J.K. Rowling, the author of the *Harry Potter* series,

could accentuate the fantasy, suspense, adventure, excitement, and thrill in fiction, which could keep readers' attention to the book.

6.1 Responses to the hypotheses

This study emerged from two hypotheses, which are based on the following discussion.

The augmented absolute is expected to be less frequent than the unaugmented absolute. This is because the augmented absolute is preceded by the augmentors, such as *with*, *without*, *what with*, and *and*, which are believed to limit its occurrences. With no introductory augmentor to restrict the occurrences, the unaugmented absolute is, in contrast, believed to be more frequent. This statement, therefore, leads to the first hypothesis of the study below.

Hypothesis 1: The augmented absolute clause is less frequent than its counterpart due to the existence of the augmentors, which are also limited to only a few augmentors, such as *with* and *without*. The augmentors are believed to semantically restrict the occurrences of the augmented absolutes.

Considering the weight of the clauses, the (un)augmented absolutes are believed to be light because they are the reduced form of regular clauses. Being economical, their light structures are hypothesized to frequently appear in the initial position, following the End-Weight Principle, which states that light constituents are prone to occur before the heavy ones. (Quirk et al., 1972). Being in the initial position, the clauses are assumed to be topic, while the rest of the sentence, comment according to information structure. This discussion, therefore, leads to the second hypothesis of the study below.

Hypothesis 2: Being reduced, both clauses appear in the initial position of the sentence more frequently than other positions following the End-Weight Principle and information structure (topic-comment).

The findings from this study contribute to the responses for the hypotheses as follows.

Hypothesis 1: The augmented absolute clause is less frequent than its counterpart due to the existence of the augmentors, which are also limited to only a few augmentors, such as *with* and *without*. The augmentors are believed to semantically restrict the occurrences of the augmented absolutes.

According to the findings, the first hypothesis was partly confirmed. That is, the augmented absolute is less frequent than its counterpart with merely 69 instances (17.83%), while the majority of the instances are unaugmented absolutes with 318 instances (82.17%), as in (1a) and (1b) below.

- (1) a. **With Dumbledore around**, You-Know-Who won't touch you (Rowling, 2013b, p. 190) (*Augmented absolute*).
- b. My cat has been Petrified!" he shrieked, **his eyes popping** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 110) (*Unaugmented absolute*).

The less frequency of augmented absolutes is believed to be due to the fact that the appearance of the augmentors semantically restricts the occurrences of augmented absolute clauses. Based on the earlier discussion, it was found that the augmentors *without*, *what with*, and *and* are not semantically bleached. In other words, they are not losing their compositionality (meaning); they, therefore, are able to explicitly mark a particular reading (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016, p. 331). With the ability to mark a particular semantic relation in the absolute clauses, these three augmentors could be assumed to limit the number of augmented absolutes, as given in (2a) – (2c).

- (2) a. Perhaps it was because he was now so busy, ***what with* Quidditch practice three evenings a week on top of all his homework** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 126) (denoting *cause*)
- b. What was it to the Dursleys if Harry went back to school ***without any of his homework done?*** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 9) (denoting *contrast–but*).
- c. He was carrying his large crossbow, ***and a quiver of arrows hung over his shoulder*** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 182) (denoting *contrast–while/whereas*).

According to the findings, there are only 14 instances of *without*-, *what with*-, and *and*-augmented absolutes. They are represented through 10 instances of *without*, 3 instances of *and*, and a single instance of *what with*. This figure confirms that *without*, *what with*, and *and* limit the occurrences of augmented absolutes. That is, since they still contain meaning (not semantically bleached), their occurrences are then limited to a few semantic relations. For example, *what with* in (2a) has a single instance in the data since it is generally used in the sense of “in view of or on account of,” to state *cause/reason* (Oxford English Dictionary (n.d.), Greenbaum, 1973, p. 7, as cited in Kortmann, 2013, p. 235). *Without* also seems to be associated with a particular semantic relation that conveys such negation as *contrast*, as given in (2b) above. Similarly, *and* is likely to be linked with a specific semantic relation such as *contrast*, denoting *while/whereas*, as in (2c) above. Furthermore, all of the 14 instances of *without*-, *what with*-, and *and*-augmented absolutes occur as strong adverbials, which are difficult to process. Since they are limited to a few semantic relations, especially the hard-to-process ones, their occurrences can be limited.

In contrast to *without*, *what with*, and *and*, the augmentor *with* is semantically bleached/empty (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016). That is, *with* cannot mark a semantic relation to the absolute clause. Its appearance is to facilitate the semantic relation interpretation in strong adverbials of augmented absolutes and to maintain the logical flow of the sentence in weak adverbials of augmented absolutes, as in the following examples.

- (3) a. [_{cause} **With Dumbledore around**], [_{result} You-Know-Who won’t touch you] (Rowling, 2013b, p. 190).
- b. [_{cause} ***(With) Dumbledore around**], [_{result} You-Know-Who won’t touch you] (Rowling, 2013b, p. 190).

The appearance of the augmentor *with* in (3a) does not mark a semantic relation since it is semantically bleached. *With* is there to signal to the readers the presence of the absolute clause (Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016). When the absolute clause is perceived, it could trigger the readers to retrieve prior knowledge/information to interpret the causal relationship between the absolute and the matrix clause. The presence of *with* in strong adverbials of augmented absolutes is, therefore, to facilitate processing, not to mark a particular semantic relation like *without*, *what with*, and *and*. In addition, all of the 14 instances of *with* in strong adverbials (100%) cannot be omitted as its omission could make the sentence ungrammatical, as in (3b). This suggests that *with* has to appear to facilitate processing in strong adverbials.

- (4) a. She dived under the table to retrieve the bowl and emerged [accompanying circumstance **with her face glowing like the setting sun**] (Rowling, 2013a, p. 37).

As for *with*¹⁷ in the weak adverbials of augmented absolutes (41 instances), as given in (4a), its appearance is not to facilitate processing like the one in strong adverbials because without it, the sentence remains grammatically correct, as shown in (4b).

- b. She dived under the table to retrieve the bowl and emerged (**with**) **her face glowing like the setting sun** (Rowling, 2013a, p. 37).
c. She dived under the table to retrieve the bowl and emerged, **her face glowing like the setting sun**.

Although being able to be omitted, the augmentor *with* still appears to maintain the logical flow of the sentence. Without *with*, a comma has to be inserted and the logical flow of the sentence could be interrupted, as in (4c). Thus, it could be assumed that the purpose of *with* in weak adverbials of augmented absolutes is to maintain the logical flow of the 32 instances (78.05%) found in this study. However, since its appearance is uneconomical due to its weakness in pragmatics, it is eliminated to satisfy the Economy Principle, resulting in the finite number of 41 instances out of the entire data.

To conclude, according to the findings and discussion, the first hypothesis was partly confirmed. The augmented absolute is less frequent than the unaugmented absolute with merely 69 instances (17.83%), while the majority are unaugmented absolutes are with 318 instances (82.17%). This part was confirmed.

However, the less frequency of augmented absolutes is not entirely due to the semantic restriction of the augmentors just as hypothesized. That is, the augmentors *without*, *what with*, and *and* are in the complementizer position, like *for*-phrases, *because*, and *if*. *Without* and *what with*, like *for*-phrases, can assign oblique case due to their property of a preposition influenced by their form, while *and* is like *because* and *if*, assigning a specific semantic relation. In addition, they cannot be covert due to their specific semantic roles. Their appearance is restricted to just a few semantic relations of strong adverbials. The hypothesis is, therefore, confirmed. As for the

¹⁷ *Without*, *what with*, and *and* were not found in weak adverbials of augmented absolutes since they all occur in strong adverbials.

augmentor *with*, it is in C position. With no semantic content by its form, the augmentor *with* then can be null, which does not restrict the occurrences of augmented absolutes, contradicting the hypothesis. As for case assignment, the reason why some absolute subjects with *with* augmentor are case marked as oblique is that it still has the property of a preposition influenced by its form. The complementizer *with* is different from the preposition *with* in that *with*-preposition assigns case and semantic roles, but *with*-complementizer/augmentor, which heads a non-finite clause, assigned no semantic role because it governs a clause not a DP.

Furthermore, *with* is like *that*-complementizer, rather than *for*-complementizer, in that it has both overt and covert versions. Its covert versions appear to satisfy the Economy Principle, leading to the high frequency of unaugmented absolutes (the covert versions of *with*-augmented absolutes). Its overt version, on the other hand, is not restricted by the augmentor *with* but by the specific meaning of the clause and the Economy Principle. That is, *with* only appears in strong adverbials to facilitate processing, and since the specific use of strong adverbials is limited in the data, the appearance of *with* is likewise diminished. The overt *with* in weak adverbials, in contrast, appears to maintain the logical flow of the sentence. However, since the overt *with* in weak adverbials is not economical, their appearance is hence less preferred.

Again, the first hypothesis was partly confirmed. The low augmented absolutes are due to the semantic restriction by the augmentors *without*, *what with*, and *and*, whereas the low occurrences of *with*-augmented absolutes are limited by the Economy principle and the specific use of strong adverbials. The reason for the high unaugmented absolutes is due to the fact that the augmentor *with* is a grammatical category which are likely to have no semantic content and can be null. In addition, the covert augmentor *with* appear in weak adverbials, which are easy to process and interpret. This high productivity is thereby expected in the books whose target readers are the children to preteens, aged between eight to twelve to keep their attention.

Hypothesis 2: Being reduced, both clauses appear in the initial position of the sentence more frequently than other positions following the End-Weight Principle and information structure (topic-comment).

Both unaugmented and augmented absolute clauses are in reduced forms, satisfying the Economy Principle with clear, concise, and informative messages they provide. Being reduced, they are, therefore, considered syntactically light, which makes them easier to be located sentence initially in accordance with the End-Weight Principle. The matrix clause, on the other hand, is heavier; it is then likely to come last in the sentence. Being in the initial position, the absolute subject is believed to be the topic, while the rest, the comment.

The findings of this study, however, do not confirm the hypothesis. Both unaugmented and augmented absolutes are believed to be the reduced versions of regular finite adverbial clauses (He & Yang, 2015; Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016), as in (5a) – (5d), following the Economy Principle by forming a syntactically economical construction with clear, concise, and informative messages for readers.

- (5) a. He lay on his bed reading late into the night, **while Hedwig was swooping in and out of the open window as she pleased** (Adverb clause of time).

b. He lay on his bed reading late into the night, **Hedwig swooping in and out of the open window as she pleased** (Rowling, 2013b, p. 67).

c. **Because Ron was covered in the cloak, too**, they had to walk much more slowly the next night (Adverb clause of reason).

d. **With Ron covered in the cloak, too**, they had to walk much more slowly the next night (Rowling, 2013b, p. 154).

Being reduced, the (un)augmented absolute clauses are syntactically light and are assumed to follow the End-Weight Principle by being in the initial position as topics. However, the findings reveal that the positions of (un)augmented absolutes are pragmatically determined by the information structure of topic-comment, rather than the syntactic weight. That is, although the (un)augmented absolutes are light, they are predominantly placed sentence finally as comments to provide new, unknown information. Their matrix clauses, in contrast, are primarily in the initial position, as exemplified in (6a) and (6b) below.

(6) a. [Topic Mr. Weasley's car] [Comment was standing, empty, in the middle of a circle of thick trees under a roof of dense branches, **its headlamps ablaze**] (Rowling, 2013a, p. 203).

b. [Topic 'Yeah, I've seen those things they think are gnomes,'] [Comment said Ron, bent double **with his head in a peony bush**] (Rowling, 2013a, p. 33).

The absolute clauses *its headlamps ablaze* in (6a) and *with his head in a peony bush* in (6b) indicate that the notion of syntactic weight does not apply to these light absolutes. That is, even if they are light, they still follow the information structure by appearing finally to represent new information. This statement is confirmed by the majority of light absolutes in the final position with 260 instances (82.02%).

Similarly, the initial positions of light absolutes are governed by the information structure, as demonstrated in (7a) and (7b).

(7) a. [Scene-setting topic **His heart beating very fast**], [Subject topic Harry] [Comment stood listening to the chill silence] (Rowling, 2013a, p. 226).

b. [Scene-setting topic **With Dumbledore gone**], [Subject topic fear] [Comment had spread as never before, so that the sun warming the castle walls outside seemed to stop at the mullioned windows] (Rowling, 2013a, p. 197).

Light absolutes appear sentence initially, not because they are light, but because they serve as scene-setting topics. That is, they are in the initial position to establish background information for the subject topic in the matrix clause (Lambrecht, 2012; Wu & Chitrakara, 2020). Scene-setting topics are prepositional phrases, adverbs, and adverbial clauses. Since the absolute clause is viewed as a subordinate clause (He & Yang, 2015, p. 7; Tang, 2005, p. 8; Thompson & Longacre, 1985, as cited in Kortmann, 2013, p. 20), it is thus assumed that the absolute clause in the initial position could serve as a scene-setting topic just like an adverbial clause.

Being a scene-setting topic, it marks coherence in the text by giving necessary background information for the subject topic. As in (7a), for instance, *his heart*

beating very fast sets the background information for the subject topic *Harry*. When the subject topic *Harry* and the scene-setting topic *his heart beating very fast* are perceived, the readers would know how Harry was feeling and would understand why he stood listening to the chill silence.

In the study, the instances that strengthen the claim that the initial position is the position for a scene-setting topic, following the information structure are from the heavy absolutes in the initial position, as shown in (8a) and (8b) below.

- (8) a. [Scene-setting topic **Mind spinning over the same unanswerable questions**], [Subject topic *Harry*] [Comment *fell into an uneasy sleep*] (Rowling, 2013a, p. 22).
 b. [Scene-setting topic **With Fang scampering around them, sniffing tree roots and leaves**], [Subject topic *they*] [Comment *entered the forest*] (Rowling, 2013a, p. 202).

In this study, there are six instances of heavy absolutes (4 from unaugmented and 2 from augmented absolutes). The heavy absolutes, such as the ones in bold, suggest that the syntactic weight does not influence the ordering of constituents. Although being heavy, they still appear in the initial position, rather than the final position, to serve as scene-setting topics of the sentence. Therefore, it could be said that the initial position is the area for scene-setting topics, regardless of heaviness.

The medial position in this study is also in line with the notion of newness, as illustrated in (9a) and (9b) below.

- (9) a. [Topic *Harry*], [Comment **fear spreading up his numb legs**, watched Riddle stop between the high pillars and look up into the stone face of Slytherin, high above him in the half-darkness] (Rowling, 2013a, p. 234).
 b. [Topic *Mrs. Weasley*] [Comment **her hands on her hips**, staring from one guilty face to the next] (Rowling, 2013a, p. 30).

According to the concept of Communicative Dynamism (CD), the linguistic elements that are more contextually dependent (given/old information) will appear towards the beginning, carrying the lower degree of CD. In the meantime, the elements that are contextually independent (new information) will come last in the sentence, carrying the higher degree of CD. In (9a), *Harry* is the topic, while the rest of the sentence is the comment. *Harry* has the lowest CD, appearing at the leftmost of the sentence. The absolute clause *fear spreading up his numb legs* is the comment, but it is not as new as the matrix clause predicate *watched Riddle ... the half-darkness*. It is, therefore, placed earlier than the predicate. Similarly, in (9b), the absolute clause *her hands on her hips* is the comment. However, it is newer than the elements *came to a halt in front of them*, but not as new as the elements *staring from one guilty face to the next*. It is, therefore, placed in the middle of the matrix clause predicate.

As stated, the syntactic weight does not influence the ordering of (un)augmented absolute clauses. That is, even though they are syntactically light, they primarily occur in the final position as comments to represent new information. Meanwhile, their initial occurrences are to serve as scene-setting topics, establishing background information to the subject topic within the matrix clause. The absolute clause in the medial position also serves as a comment, providing new information,

just like the absolute in the final position. Nonetheless, according to CD, it is not as new as the piece of information provided by the matrix clause predicates or other constituents; it is, therefore, placed in the middle the sentence. With the given information, it could be concluded that the orderings of both unaugmented and augmented absolutes are pragmatically governed by the information structure of topic-comment, rather than the End-Weight Principle, contradicting the second hypothesis of the study.

6.2 Contribution of the Study

This study contributes to the linguistic studies regarding English absolute clauses appearing in context.

Firstly, it sheds some light on the quality of the augmentors. That is, augmentors *without*, *what with*, and *and* are complementizers, like *for*-phrases, *because*, and *if*. *Without* and *what with*, like *for*-phrases, can assign oblique case due to their property of prepositions influenced by their forms, while *and* is similar to *because* and *if*, as it can assign a specific semantic relation such as *result* and *contrast* to the following DP. In addition, owing to their specific meanings, these three augmentors cannot be covert. Also, *with*-augmentor is considered a complementizer/syntactic marker, rather than a preposition, following Kortmann (2013) and Van de Pol and Hoffmann (2016). It differs from the preposition *with* in that *with*-preposition assigns oblique case and semantic roles, but *with*-complementizer/augmentor, which heads a non-finite absolute clause, not a DP, has no semantic role. *With*-augmentor, however, is still able to assign oblique case like *with*-preposition as it is the inherent prepositional property of *with*-augmentor. With weak semantic content, the complementizer *with* can then be either overt or covert like *that*-complementizer which has both overt and covert versions.

Secondly, the study may clarify the concern of the violation of Case Filter in unaugmented absolutes. With no overt augmentor, unaugmented absolutes are believed to violate case filter with no case marking. However, in this study, it is assumed that there exists a covert *with* in unaugmented absolutes as 98.43 percent of them can be augmented with the augmentor *with* without causing ungrammaticality and with some traces of case oblique case marking. Since *with* seems to be covert in unaugmented absolutes, it could be assumed that unaugmented absolutes fulfill case marking with the covert augmentor *with*.

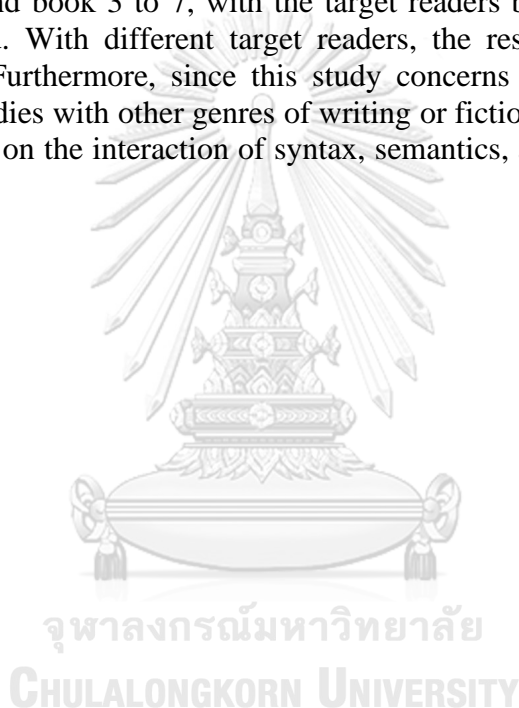
Thirdly, the study sheds some light on the correlations between coreferences and semantic relations by showing that certain patterns are expected in absolute clauses. In addition, the study also indicates that semantic relations play a major role in determining the presence or the absence of the augmentor *with*. That is, the presence of *with* in strong adverbials is obligatory, while the presence of the *with* in weak adverbials is optional. This suggests that the degree of informativeness seems to play a role in the appearance of the augmentor *with*, rather than the coreferential property. This may challenge the statement of Berent (1975, as cited in Van de Pol & Hoffmann, 2016), who states that coreferences determine the presence or the absence of the augmentors.

Finally, the findings of this study may clarify the ordering of constituents of absolute clauses. That is, the positions of absolute clauses are apparently determined

by the information structure, rather than the syntactic weight. This could contribute to the studies of absolute clauses in the field of information structure of topic-comment.

6.3 Limitations and Recommendation for Future Studies

The findings of this study report the appearance of English absolute clauses in *Harry Potter* books. They are believed to shed some light on how syntax, semantics, and pragmatics play an interrelated role in producing English absolute clauses in a specific genre of fiction. Nevertheless, the findings of this study may not cover the appearance of absolute clauses in the other books of *Harry Potter* series (Books 3 – 7), which are young adult fiction. To further explore the reasons for appearance of absolute clauses in fiction, the investigation of absolute clauses in books 3 to 7 is recommended. The comparative study, concerning books 1 and 2, with children as a target audience, and book 3 to 7, with the target readers being young adults, is also highly encouraged. With different target readers, the results may yield similar or different results. Furthermore, since this study concerns just a particular series of fiction, similar studies with other genres of writing or fiction are highly recommended to shed more light on the interaction of syntax, semantics, and pragmatics of absolute clauses.



APPENDIX

The Instances of Augmented Absolute Clauses

Harry Potter and the Philosopher's Stone

1. Dudley was dancing on the spot **with his hands clasped over his fat bottom**, howling in pain (p. 48).
2. Uncle Vernon stopped dead, facing the platforms **with a nasty grin on his face** (p.68).
3. ‘What has been going on?’ she said, looking at the sweets all over the floor **and Ron picking up Scabbers by his tail** (p. 82).
4. Professor McGonagall led the first years up here, so that they came to a halt in a line facing the other students, **with the teachers behind them** (p. 87).
5. But he did wish they could have tried it on **without everyone watching** (p. 89).
6. Potions lessons took place down in one of the dungeons. It was colder here than up in the main castle, and would have been quite creepy enough **without the pickled animals floating in glass jars all around the walls** (p. 101).
7. Neville managed to have an extraordinary number of accidents **even with both feet on the ground** (p. 108).
8. Just looking, he said, and he sloped away **with Crabbe and Goyle behind him** (p. 108).
9. He stretched out his hand – a foot from the ground he caught it, just in time to pull his broom straight, and he toppled gently onto the grass **with the Remembrall clutched safely in his fist** (p. 111).
10. She wrenched open doors and marched along corridors **with Harry trotting miserably behind her** (p. 112).
11. Ron was standing there **with his wand still raised**, staring at what he had done (p. 130).
12. That’s a broomstick, he said, throwing it back to Harry **with a mixture of jealousy and spite on his face** (p. 122).
13. Hermione marched away **with her nose in the air** (p. 123).
14. And saying the magic words properly is very important, too — never forget Wizard Baruffio, who said ‘s’ instead of ‘f’ and found himself on the floor **with a buffalo on his chest** (p. 126).
15. Perhaps it was because he was now so busy, **what with Quidditch practice three evenings a week on top of all his homework** (p. 126).
16. Howling with pain, the troll twisted and flailed its club, **with Harry clinging on for dear life**; any second, the troll was going to rip him off or catch him a terrible blow with the club (p. 130).
17. A moment later, Professor McGonagall had come bursting into the room, closely followed by Snape, **with Quirrell bringing up the rear** (p. 131).

18. Harry looked at Ron, who was still standing **with his wand in the air** (p. 131).
19. What on earth were you thinking of? said Professor McGonagall, **with cold fury in her voice** (p. 131).
20. Harry's broom had given a wild jerk **and Harry swung off it** (p. 139).
21. Marcus Flint seized the Quaffle and scored five times **without anyone noticing** (p. 140).
22. **With Ron covered in the cloak, too**, they had to walk much more slowly the next night (p. 154).
23. Ron, full of turkey and cake and **with nothing mysterious to bother him**, fell asleep almost as soon as he'd drawn the curtains of his four-poster (p. 150).
24. **With Ron in front of the mirror**, he couldn't see his family anymore, just Ron in his paisley pajamas (p. 155).
25. Harry had reached the shed. He leaned against the wooden door and looked up at Hogwarts, **with its windows glowing red in the setting sun** (p. 165).
26. It was hard to relax **with Hermione next to you reciting the twelve uses of dragon's blood or practicing wand movements** (p. 167).
27. He came back a minute later **with a pile of books in his arms** and slammed them down on the table (p. 168).
28. He was carrying his large crossbow, **and a quiver of arrows hung over his shoulder** (p. 182).
29. And Firenze whisked around; **with Harry clutching on as best he could**, they plunged off into the trees, leaving Ronan and Bane behind them (p. 188).
30. **With Dumbledore around**, You-Know-Who won't touch you (p. 190).
31. I couldn't do anything **with Dumbledore watching** (p. 209).
32. But how can I look **without Quirrell realising what I'm up to?** (p. 211).
33. He tried to edge to the left, to get in front of the glass **without Quirell noticing** (p. 211).

Harry Potter and the Chamber of Secrets

34. What was it to the Dursleys if Harry went back to school **without any of his homework done?** (p. 9).
35. At last he managed to control himself, and sat **with his great eyes fixed on Harry in an expression of watery adoration** (p. 16).
36. Hopefully we'll be able to get it back in the garage **without Mum noticing we flew it** (p. 28).
37. The teapot went berserk and squirted boiling tea all over the place and one man ended up in the hospital **with the sugar tongs clamped to his nose** (p. 29).
38. Yawning and grumbling, the Weasleys slouched outside **with Harry behind them** (p. 32).

39. Yeah, I've seen those things they think are gnomes, said Ron, bent double **with his head in a peony bush** (p. 33).
40. Mr. Weasley was slumped in a kitchen chair **with his glasses off** and (with) his eyes closed (p. 33).
41. She dived under the table to retrieve the bowl and emerged **with her face glowing like the setting sun** (p. 37).
42. He stood **with his hand on Draco's shoulder**, sneering in just the same way (p. 50).
43. Harry looked up at the giant clock **with a sickening feeling in the pit of his stomach** (p. 55).
44. He set off back to the castle **with Harry, who was wishing he knew a good Vanishing Spell, still clasped to his side** (p. 76).
45. Ron was now staring at Lockhart **with an expression of disbelief on his face**; Seamus Finnigan and Dean Thomas, who were sitting in front, were shaking with silent laughter (p. 78).
46. *Hands on?* said Harry, who was trying to grab a pixie dancing out of reach **with its tongue out** (p. 80).
47. Yes. It's been out of order all year because she keeps having tantrums and flooding the place. I never went in there anyway if I could avoid it, it's awful trying to go to the loo **with her wailing at you —**' (p. 101).
48. Harry and Ron stood **with their mouths open**, but Hermione shrugged wearily and said, "Honestly, that was almost cheerful for Myrtle... Come on, let's go (p. 119).
49. 'All right,' said Hermione coldly. 'What we'd need to do is to get inside the Slytherin common room and ask Malfoy a few questions **without him realizing it's us**' (p. 120).
50. After half an hour of lying there **with his insides churning**, he got up, dressed, and went down to breakfast early, where he found the rest of the Gryffindor team huddled at the long, empty table, all looking uptight and not speaking much (p. 125).
51. "Close one, Harry!" said George, streaking past him **with his club in his hand**, ready to knock the Bludger back toward a Slytherin (p. 126).
52. "Listen," said Harry, as she came nearer and nearer, "**with you two flying around me all the time** the only way I'm going to catch the Snitch is if it flies up my sleeve (p. 128).
53. He came around, rain falling on his face, still lying on the field, **with someone leaning over him** (p. 129).
54. Hermione and Ron listened **with their mouths open** (p. 138).
55. What they really needed was a nice long search **without Madam Pince breathing down their necks** (p. 146).

56. You definitely think it is Potter, then, Ernie?" said a girl **with blonde pigtails anxiously** (p. 148).
57. That's not the kind of thing you bandy about **with Slytherin's heir on the loose, is it?** (p. 148).
58. 'That's enough Peeves!' barked Professor McGonagall, and Peeves zoomed away backward, **with his tongue out at Harry** (p. 152).
59. It must be getting riskier and riskier to open the Chamber of Secrets, **with the school so alert and suspicious** (p. 175).
60. Confused and worried, he sat reading the subject lists **with his tongue poking out**, asking people whether they thought Arithmancy sounded more difficult than the study of Ancient Runes (p. 187).
61. It was their only chance of sneaking out of the school to visit Hagrid **without anyone knowing about it** (p. 192).
62. **With no Hagrid visible from the castle windows, striding the grounds with Fang at his heels**, the scene didn't look right to Harry (p. 197).
63. **With Dumbledore gone**, fear had spread as never before, so that the sun warming the castle walls outside seemed to stop at the mullioned windows (p. 197).
64. Hurry up, I've got to take you all to Herbology," barked Snape over the class's heads, and off they marched, **with Harry, Ron, and Dean bringing up the rear**, Ron still trying to get loose (p. 199).
65. So, **with Fang scampering around them, sniffing tree roots and leaves**, they entered the forest (p. 202).
66. Harry didn't want to press the subject, **not with the spiders pressing closer on all sides** (p. 207).
67. Studying hard! It had never occurred to Harry that there would be exams **with the castle in this state** (p. 210).
68. Ginny didn't say anything, but glanced up and down the Gryffindor table **with a scared look on her face that reminded Harry of someone, though he couldn't think who** (p. 211).
69. Fawkes was soaring around its head, and the basilisk was snapping furiously at him **with fangs long and thin as sabers** (p. 235).

The Instances of Unaugmented Absolute Clauses

Harry Potter and the Philosopher's Stone

1. Mr. Dursley arrived in the Grunnings car park, **his mind back on drills** (p. 8).
2. 'Oh, yes,' said Mr Dursley, **his heart sinking horribly** (p. 11).
3. It was sitting as still as a statue, **its eyes fixed unblinkingly on the far corner of Privet Drive** (p. 12).

4. He turned right around in his seat and yelled at Harry, **his face like a gigantic beetroot with a mustache** (p. 24).
5. Turning the envelope over, **his hand trembling**, Harry saw a purple wax seal bearing a coat of arms; a lion, an eagle, a badger and a snake surrounding a large letter 'H' (p. 30).
6. Turning the envelope over, his hand trembling, Harry saw a purple wax seal bearing a coat of arms; **a lion, an eagle, a badger and a snake surrounding a large letter 'H'** (p. 30).
7. Harry picked it up and stared at it, **his heart twanging like a giant elastic band** (p. 30).
8. Dudley won, so Harry, **his glasses dangling from one ear**, lay flat on his stomach to listen at the crack between door and floor (p. 31).
9. With a strangled cry, Uncle Vernon leapt from his seat and ran down the hall, **Harry right behind him** (p. 33).
10. He shivered and turned over, trying to get comfortable, **his stomach rumbling with hunger** (p. 38).
11. And there's Aunt Petunia knocking on the door, Harry thought, **his heart sinking** (p. 49).
12. There was an owl rapping its claw on the window, **a newspaper held in its beak** (p. 49).
13. They settled down in the boat, **Harry still staring at Hagrid**, trying to imagine him flying (p. 51).
14. He hurried out from behind the bar, rushed towards Harry and seized his hand, **tears in his eyes** (p. 54).
15. A second later they were facing an archway large enough even for Hagrid, **an archway on to a cobbled street which twisted and turned out of sight** (p. 56).
16. They climbed in – **Hagrid with some difficulty** – and were off (p. 58).
17. 'Got the lot here – **another young man being fitted up just now, in fact**' (p. 59).
18. He lay on his bed reading late into the night, **Hedwig swooping in and out of the open window as she pleased** (p. 67).
19. The speaker was a plump woman who was talking to four boys, **all with flaming red hair** (p. 69).
20. **Heart hammering**, Harry pushed his trolley after them (p. 69).
21. The first few carriages were already packed with students, **some hanging out of the window to talk to their families**, some fighting over seats. (p. 71)
22. The first few carriages were already packed with students, some hanging out of the window to talk to their families, **some fighting over seats** (p. 71).
23. Scabbers the rat was hanging off his finger, **sharp little teeth sunk deep into Goyle's knuckle** (p. 82).

24. Perched atop a high mountain on the other side, **its windows sparkling in the starry sky**, was a vast castle with many turrets and towers (p. 83).
25. Harry looked over at the Slytherin table and saw a horrible ghost sitting there, with blank staring eyes, **a gaunt face and robes stained with silver blood** (p. 93).
26. At this, Hermione stood up, **her hand stretching toward the dungeon ceiling** (p. 103).
27. Madam Hooch was bending over Neville, **her face as white as his** (p. 110).
28. Neville, **his face tear-streaked**, clutching his wrist, hobbled off with Madam Hooch, who had her arm around him (p. 110).
29. 'Follow me, you two,' said Professor McGonagall, and they marched on up the corridor, **Wood looking curiously at Harry** (p. 112).
30. They swung around the doorpost and galloped down one corridor then another, **Harry in the lead without any idea where they were or where they were going** (p. 117).
31. They were in a corridor. **The forbidden corridor on the third floor** (p. 119).
32. They could hear footsteps, **Filch running as fast as he could towards Peeves's shouts** (p. 119).
33. It was standing quite still, **all six eyes staring at them** (p. 119).
34. Three pairs of rolling, mad eyes; three noses, twitching and quivering in their direction; three drooling mouths, **saliva hanging in slippery ropes from yellowish fangs** (p. 119).
35. Ron stared after her, **his mouth open** (p. 120).
36. Very nice,' said Wood, **his eyes glinting** (p. 123).
37. He pulled a bag of ordinary golf balls out of his pocket, and a few minutes later, he and Harry were up in the air, **Wood throwing the golf balls as hard as he could in every direction for Harry to catch** (p. 126).
38. Harry was just helping himself to a jacket potato when Professor Quirrell came sprinting into the hall, **his turban askew and terror on his face** (p. 127).
39. Harry was just helping himself to a jacket potato when Professor Quirrell came sprinting into the hall, his turban askew and **terror on his face** (p. 127).
40. They edged towards the open door, **mouths dry**, praying the troll wasn't about to come out of it (p. 129).
41. But she couldn't move, she was still flat against the wall, **her mouth open with terror** (p. 130).
42. Ron dropped his wand. **Hermione Granger, telling a downright lie to a teacher?** (p. 131).
43. Then, **none of them looking at each other**, they all said 'Thanks,' and hurried off to get plates (p. 132).

44. She stood in the middle of the pitch, waiting for the two teams, **her broom in her hand** (p. 136).
45. Slytherin captain Marcus Flint gains the Quaffle and off he goes – **Flint flying like an eagle up there** (p. 137).
46. Marcus Flint had blocked Harry on purpose and Harry's broom span off course, **Harry holding on for dear life** (p. 138).
47. 'Can't have,' Hagrid said, **his voice shaking** (p. 140).
48. Twelve towering Christmas trees stood around the room, **some sparkling with tiny icicles**, some glittering with hundreds of candles (p. 144).
49. Twelve towering Christmas trees stood around the room, some sparkling with tiny icicles, **some glittering with hundreds of candles** (p. 144).
50. 'It's an invisibility cloak,' said Ron, **a look of awe on his face** (p. 148).
51. Sure enough, his reflection looked back at him, **just his head suspended in mid-air**, his body completely invisible (p. 148).
52. Sure enough, his reflection looked back at him, just his head suspended in mid-air, **his body completely invisible** (p. 148).
53. Fred and George were wearing blue sweaters, **one with a large yellow F on it**, the other a G (p. 149).
54. Fred and George were wearing blue sweaters, one with a large yellow F on it, **the other a G** (p. 149).
55. They frog-marched Percy from the room, **his arms pinned to his side by his sweater** (p. 149).
56. Harry watched Hagrid getting redder and redder in the face as he called for more wine, finally kissing Professor McGonagall on the cheek, who, to Harry's amazement, giggled and blushed, **her top hat lopsided** (p. 150).
57. He stopped, **his heart racing**, and thought (p. 151).
58. Harry and Ron barely had time to exchange mystified looks before she was dashing back, **an enormous old book in her arms** (p. 160).
59. Hermione stood up, **her crossed fingers in her mouth**, as Harry streaked toward the ground like a bullet (p. 164).
60. Harry had pulled out of the dive, **his arm raised in triumph**, the Snitch clasped in his hand (p. 164).
61. Harry had pulled out of the dive, his arm raised in triumph, **the Snitch clasped in his hand** (p. 164).
62. He walked over the damp grass, reliving the last hour in his head, which was a happy blur: **Gryffindors running to lift him onto their shoulders**; Ron and Hermione in the distance, jumping up and down, Ron cheering through a heavy nosebleed (p. 165).
63. He walked over the damp grass, reliving the last hour in his head, which was a happy blur: Gryffindors running to lift him onto their shoulders; **Ron and**

- Hermione in the distance, jumping up and down**, Ron cheering through a heavy nosebleed (p. 165).
64. He walked over the damp grass, reliving the last hour in his head, which was a happy blur: Gryffindors running to lift him onto their shoulders; Ron and Hermione in the distance, jumping up and down, **Ron cheering through a heavy nosebleed** (p. 165).
65. Oh, I thought we'd keep this private,' said Snape, **his voice icy** (p. 165).
66. They slipped back down the spiral staircase, **their hearts as light as their hands now that Norbert was off them** (p. 176).
67. Chuckling about Malfoy, they waited, **Norbert thrashing about in his crate** (p. 176).
68. Excuses, alibis, and wild cover-up stories chased each other around Harry's brain, **each more feeble than the last** (p. 177).
69. 'That's your problem, isn't it?' said Filch, **his voice cracking with glee** (p. 182).
70. Hagrid came striding toward them out of the dark, **Fang at his heel** (p. 182).
71. He turned and started back toward the castle, **his lamp bobbing away in the darkness** (p. 182).
72. They walked in silence, **their eyes on the ground** (p. 183).
73. They walked more slowly, **ears straining for the faintest sound** (p. 184).
74. He looked carefully at Harry, **his eyes lingering on the scar that stood out, livid, on Harry's forehead** (p. 187).
75. Ronan and Bane came bursting through the trees, **their flanks heaving and sweaty** (p. 187).
76. Hermione was running toward them down the path, **Hagrid puffing along behind her** (p. 189).
77. They went to bed exhausted, **their throats sore** (p. 190).
78. **His whole body rigid**, he swayed where he stood and then fell flat on his face, stiff as a board (p. 198).
79. He watched an owl flutter toward the school across the bright blue sky, **a note clamped in its mouth** (p. 192).
80. He sat up and felt around, **his eyes not used to the gloom** (p. 201).
81. They reached the end of the passageway and saw before them a brilliantly lit chamber, **its ceiling arching high above them** (p. 202).
82. They landed quickly and Harry ran to the door, **the key struggling in his hand** (p. 204).
83. 'Ready?' Harry asked the other two, **his hand on the door handle** (p. 204).
84. 'Ready?' Ron called, **his face pale but determined** (p. 205).
85. **Eyes watering**, they saw, flat on the floor in front of them, a troll even larger than the one they had tackled, out cold with a bloody lump on its head (p. 206).

86. 'Seize him! SEIZE HIM!' shrieked Voldemort again and Quirrell lunged, knocking Harry clean off his feet, landing on top of him, **both hands around Harry's neck** (p. 213).
87. Quirrell rolled off him, **his face blistering, too**, and then Harry knew (p. 214).
88. It's – all – my – ruddy – fault!' he sobbed, **his face in his hands** (p. 219).
89. Hagrid!' said Harry, shocked to see Hagrid shaking with grief and remorse, **great tears leaking down into his beard** (p. 219).
90. Even Neville scraped through, **his good Herbology mark making up for his abysmal Potions one** (p. 222).

Harry Potter and the Chamber of Secrets

91. Do I look stupid?' snarled Uncle Vernon, **a bit of fried egg dangling from his bushy mustache** (p. 7).
92. Mr. Dursley jumped to his feet, **veins throbbing in his temples** (p. 8).
93. Dudley stumbled backward at once, **a look of panic on his fat face** (p. 13).
94. Wish they could see famous Harry Potter now,' he thought savagely, as he spread manure on the flower beds, **his back aching**, sweat running down his face (p. 13).
95. Wish they could see famous Harry Potter now,' he thought savagely, as he spread manure on the flower beds, his back aching, **sweat running down his face** (p. 13).
96. Harry Potter is humble and modest,' said Dobby reverently, **his orb-like eyes aglow** (p. 17).
97. Dobby leaned toward Harry, **his eyes wide as headlamps** (p. 17).
98. Dobby shook his head, **his eyes wider than ever** (p. 18).
99. Two seconds later Harry, **heart thudding madly**, heard Uncle Vernon coming into the hall (p. 19).
100. What — the — devil—are — you — doing?' said Uncle Vernon through gritted teeth, **his face horribly close to Harry's** (p. 19).
101. **Mouth dry**, stomach lurching, Harry sprang after him, trying not to make a sound (p. 20).
102. Mouth dry, **stomach lurching**, Harry sprang after him, trying not to make a sound (p. 20).
103. Harry stood in the kitchen, clutching the mop for support as Uncle Vernon advanced on him, **a demonic glint in his tiny eyes** (p. 21).
104. You didn't tell us you weren't allowed to use magic outside school,' said Uncle Vernon, **a mad gleam dancing in his eyes** (p. 21).
105. He was bearing down on Harry like a great bulldog, **all his teeth bared** (p. 21).
106. Exhausted, **stomach rumbling**, mind spinning over the same unanswerable questions, Harry fell into an uneasy sleep. (p. 22)

107. Exhausted, stomach rumbling, **mind spinning over the same unanswerable questions**, Harry fell into an uneasy sleep. (p. 22)
108. He rolled down the burrow window, **the night air whipping his hair**, and looked back at the shrinking rooftops of Privet Drive (p. 26).
109. Mrs. Weasley came to a halt in front of them, **her hands on her hips**, staring from one guilty face to the next (p. 30).
110. Ron had gone a nasty greenish color, **his eyes fixed on the house** (p. 30).
111. Books were stacked three deep on the mantelpiece, **books with titles like Charm Your Own Cheese, Enchantment in Baking and One Minute Feasts – It's Magic!** (p. 31).
112. 'Don't be so ridiculous, Fred,' said Mrs. Weasley, **her cheeks rather pink** (p. 32).
113. Mr. Weasley was slumped in a kitchen chair with his glasses off and **his eyes closed** (p. 33).
114. Soon, the crowd of gnomes in the field started walking away in a straggling line, **their little shoulders hunched** (p. 33).
115. Yes, Arthur, cars,' said Mrs. Weasley, **her eyes flashing** (p. 34).
116. Harry stepped in, **his head almost touching the sloping ceiling**, and blinked (p. 35).
117. Ron had covered nearly every inch of the shabby wallpaper with posters of the same seven witches and wizards, **all wearing bright orange robes, carrying broomsticks, and waving energetically** (p. 35).
118. He was already dressed, **his Hogwarts prefect badge pinned to his knitted tank top** (p. 38).
119. Five minutes later they were marching up the hill, **broomsticks over their shoulders** (p. 39).
120. And then – he fell, **face forward**, onto cold stone and felt the bridge of his glasses snap (p. 42).
121. **Nose still stinging where it had hit the hearth**, Harry made his way swiftly and silently toward the door (p. 42).
122. Not with me,' said Mr. Malfoy, **his long nostrils flaring** (p. 44)
123. Hagrid, the Hogwarts' gamekeeper, came striding toward them, **beetle-black eyes flashing over his great bristling beard** (p. 45).
124. She ran down to meet them, **her bushy brown hair flying behind her** (p. 46).
125. Mrs. Weasley now came galloping into view, **her handbag swinging wildly in one hand**, Ginny just clinging onto the other (p. 46).
126. Mrs. Weasley now came galloping into view, her handbag swinging wildly in one hand, **Ginny just clinging onto the other** (p. 46).
127. And he strode away, **head and shoulders taller than anyone else in the packed street** (p. 46).

128. Gilderoy Lockhart came slowly into view, seated at a table surrounded by large pictures of his own face, **all winking and flashing dazzlingly white teeth at the crowd** (p. 49).
129. Ginny went scarlet as Ron and Hermione fought their way over, **both clutching stacks of Lockhart's books** (p. 50).
130. Clearly,' said Mr. Malfoy, **his pale eyes straying to Mr. and Mrs. Granger, who were watching apprehensively** (p. 51).
131. He thrust it at her, **his eyes glittering with malice** (p. 51).
132. They hurried up the street, **the Grangers shaking with fright** and Mrs. Weasley beside herself with fury (p. 51).
133. They hurried up the street, the Grangers shaking with fright and **Mrs. Weasley beside herself with fury** (p. 51).
134. Mr. Weasley started up the engine and they trundled out of the yard, **Harry turning back for a last look at the house** (p. 54).
135. 'Harry!' said Ron, **his eyes gleaming** (p. 55).
136. The wheels of the car skimmed the sea of fluffy cloud, **the sky a bright, endless blue under the blinding white sun** (p. 57).
137. They made regular checks on the train as they flew further and further north, **each dip beneath the clouds showing them a different view** (p. 57).
138. 'STOP! STOP!' he yelled, whacking the dashboard and the windshield, but they were still plummeting, **the ground flying up toward them** (p. 59).
139. Then, dented, scratched, and steaming, the car rumbled off into the darkness, **its rear lights blazing angrily** (p. 60).
140. Professor Dumbledore, the headmaster, sat watching the Sorting from the staff table, **his long silver beard and half-moon glasses shining brightly in the candlelight** (p. 61).
141. There, **his black robes rippling in a cold breeze**, stood Severus Snape (p. 62).
142. 'Explain,' she said, **her glasses glinting ominously** (p. 63).
143. Errol slumped, unconscious, onto the table, **his legs in the air** and a damp red envelope in his beak (p. 68).
144. Errol slumped, unconscious, onto the table, his legs in the air and **a damp red envelope in his beak** (p. 68).
145. Harry spotted the Whomping Willow in the distance, **several of its branches now in slings** (p. 70).
146. Gilderoy Lockhart, however, was immaculate in sweeping robes of turquoise, **his golden hair shining under a perfectly positioned turquoise hat with gold trimming** (p. 70).
147. 'Harry,' said Lockhart, **his large white teeth gleaming in the sunlight as he shook his head** (p. 71).
148. 'No, I'm not,' said Harry angrily, **his fists clenching** (p. 75).

149. Gilderoy Lockhart was striding toward them, **his turquoise robes swirling behind him** (p. 76).
150. Harry scribbled a note to Ron explaining where he'd gone and went down the spiral staircase to the common room, **his Nimbus Two Thousand on his shoulder** (p. 82).
151. Colin Creevey came dashing down the spiral staircase, **his camera swinging madly around his neck** and something clutched in his hand (p. 82).
152. Colin Creevey came dashing down the spiral staircase, his camera swinging madly around his neck and **something clutched in his hand** (p. 82).
153. 'It'll be really boring,' Harry said quickly, but Colin ignored him, **his face shining with excitement** (p. 82).
154. Colin was sitting in one of the highest seats, **his camera raised**, taking picture after picture, the sound strangely magnified in the deserted stadium (p. 85).
155. Several people in green robes were walking onto the pitch, **broomsticks in their hands** (p. 85).
156. Colin was sitting in one of the highest seats, his camera raised, taking picture after picture, **the sound strangely magnified in the deserted stadium** (p. 85).
157. Harry and Hermione supported Ron over the threshold, into the one-roomed cabin, which had an enormous bed in one corner, **a fire crackling merrily in the other** (p. 88).
158. Don't think he did,' said Hagrid, **his eyes twinkling** (p. 90).
159. Hagrid looked sideways at Harry, **his beard twitching** (p. 90).
160. 'I'm on'y jokin',' he said, patting Harry genially on the back and sending him, **face first**, into the table (p. 90).
161. They said good-bye to Hagrid and walked back up to the castle, **Ron hiccoughing occasionally, but only bringing up two, very small slugs** (p. 91).
162. Harry and Ron slouched into the Great Hall in states of deepest gloom, **Hermione behind them, wearing a well-you-did-break-school-rules sort of expression** (p. 91).
163. 'Filth!' he shouted, **his jowls aquiver**, his eyes popping alarmingly as he pointed at the muddy puddle that had dripped from Harry's Quidditch robes (p. 96).
164. 'Filth!' he shouted, his jowls aquiver, **his eyes popping alarmingly as he pointed at the muddy puddle that had dripped from Harry's Quidditch robes** (p. 96).
165. 'It's only a bit of mud to you, boy, but to me it's an extra hour scrubbing!' shouted Filch, **a drip shivering unpleasantly at the end of his bulbous nose** (p. 97).

166. And without a backward glance at Harry, Filch ran flat-footed from the office, **Mrs. Norris streaking alongside him** (p. 97).
167. These were long, thin, jet-black tapers, **all burning bright blue, casting a dim, ghostly light even over their own living faces** (p. 101).
168. Harry watched, amazed, as a portly ghost approached the table, crouched low, and walked through it, **his mouth held wide so that it passed through one of the stinking salmon** (p. 102).
169. 'Heard you talking about poor Myrtle,' said Peeves, **his eyes dancing** (p. 102).
170. 'You're making fun of me,' she said, **silver tears welling rapidly in her small, see-through eyes** (p. 103).
171. 'Don't lie to me,' Myrtle gasped, **tears now flooding down her face**, while Peeves chuckled happily over her shoulder (p. 103).
172. Through the dungeon wall burst a dozen ghost horses, **each ridden by a headless horseman** (p. 103).
173. 'I can't stand much more of this,' Ron muttered, **his teeth chattering**, as the orchestra ground back into action and the ghosts swept back onto the dance floor (p. 104).
174. Harry hurtled around the whole of the second floor, **Ron and Hermione panting behind him**, not stopping until they turned a corner into the last, deserted passage (p. 105).
175. Harry sprinted up the marble staircase to the first floor, **Ron and Hermione clattering behind him** (p. 105).
176. 'What's that thing — hanging underneath?' said Ron, **a slight quiver in his voice** (p. 106).
177. Ron and Hermione grabbed him, and they inched toward the message, **eyes fixed on a dark shadow beneath it** (p. 106).
178. She was stiff as a board, **her eyes wide and staring** (p. 106).
179. He had pushed to the front of the crowd, **his cold eyes alive**, his usually bloodless face flushed, as he grinned at the sight of the hanging, immobile cat (p. 106).
180. He had pushed to the front of the crowd, his cold eyes alive, **his usually bloodless face flushed**, as he grinned at the sight of the hanging, immobile cat (p. 106).
181. Harry saw several of the Lockharts in the pictures dodging out of sight, **their hair in rollers** (p. 107).
182. He was looking at her closely through his half-moon spectacles, **his long fingers gently prodding and poking** (p. 108).
183. Professor McGonagall was bent almost as close, **her eyes narrowed** (p. 108).
184. He was slumped in a chair by the desk, unable to look at Mrs. Norris, **his face in his hands** (p. 108).

185. He did it, he did it!" Filch spat, **his pouchy face purpling** (p. 108).
186. 'Potter and his friends may have simply been in the wrong place at the wrong time,' he said, **a slight sneer curling his mouth as though he doubted it** (p. 109).
187. 'But why not join the feast afterward?' said Snape, **his black eyes glittering in the candlelight** (p. 109).
188. 'Because — because —' Harry said, **his heart thumping very fast** (p. 109).
189. 'Without any supper?' said Snape, **a triumphant smile flickering across his gaunt face** (p. 109).
190. 'My cat has been Petrified!' he shrieked, **his eyes popping** (p. 110).
191. 'That I'm Slytherin's heir, I expect,' said Harry, **his stomach dropping another inch or so, as he suddenly remembered the way Justin Finch-Fletchley had run away from him at lunchtime** (p. 116).
192. Percy Weasley had stopped dead at the head of the stairs, **prefect badge agleam**, an expression of complete shock on his face (p. 119).
193. Percy Weasley had stopped dead at the head of the stairs, prefect badge agleam, **an expression of complete shock on his face** (p. 119).
194. And he strode off, **the back of his neck as red as Ron's ears** (p. 119).
195. She approached Lockhart's desk, **a piece of paper clutched tightly in her hand**, Harry and Ron right behind her (p. 123).
196. She approached Lockhart's desk, a piece of paper clutched tightly in her hand, **Harry and Ron right behind her** (p. 123).
197. She held out the piece of paper, **her hand shaking slightly** (p. 123).
198. After half an hour of lying there with his insides churning, he got up, dressed, and went down to breakfast early, where he found the rest of the Gryffindor team huddled at the long, empty table, **all looking uptight and not speaking much** (p. 126).
199. 'Training for the ballet, Potter?' yelled Malfoy as Harry was forced to do a stupid kind of twirl in midair to dodge the Bludger, and he fled, **the Bludger trailing a few feet behind him** (p. 129).
200. Harry swerved out of the way, **one idea firmly lodged in his numb brain: get to Malfoy** (p. 129).
201. He came around, **rain falling on his face**, still lying on the field, with someone leaning over him (p. 129).
202. Dimly, dazed by the searing pain in his arm, he slid sideways on his rain-drenched broom, **one knee still crooked over it**, his right arm dangling useless at his side (p. 129).
203. Dimly, dazed by the searing pain in his arm, he slid sideways on his rain-drenched broom, one knee still crooked over it, **his right arm dangling useless at his side** (p. 129).
204. He had shut his eyes, **his face turned away from his arm** (p. 130).

205. We won, though,” said Ron, **a grin breaking across his face** (p. 131).
206. ‘Your Bludger?’ said Harry, **anger rising once more** (p. 133).
207. ‘Ah, sir, ask no more, ask no more of poor Dobby,’ stammered the elf, **his eyes huge in the dark** (p. 134).
208. Dobby suddenly froze, **his bat ears quivering** (p. 134).
209. He slumped back into bed, **his eyes on the dark doorway to the hospital wing as the footsteps drew nearer** (p. 134).
210. ‘The question is not who,’ said Dumbledore, **his eyes on Colin** (p. 136).
211. ‘No, I haven’t,’ said Percy, **his smile fading** (p. 137).
212. ‘They went for Filch first,’ Neville said, **his round face fearful**, ‘and everyone knows I’m almost a Squib’ (p. 139).
213. As half the class lumbered up to Snape’s desk, **some weighted down with arms like clubs**, others unable to talk through gigantic puffed-up lips, Harry saw Hermione slide back into the dungeon, the front of her robes bulging (p. 140).
214. As half the class lumbered up to Snape’s desk, some weighted down with arms like clubs, **others unable to talk through gigantic puffed-up lips**, Harry saw Hermione slide back into the dungeon, the front of her robes bulging (p. 140).
215. Goyle blundered around, **his hands over his eyes, which had expanded to the size of a dinner plate**, while Snape was trying to restore calm and find out what had happened (p. 140).
216. Harry tried not to laugh as he watched Malfoy hurry forward, **his head drooping with the weight of a nose like a small melon** (p. 140).
217. Harry saw Hermione slide back into the dungeon, **the front of her robes bulging** (p. 140).
218. The ceiling was velvety black once more and most of the school seemed to be packed beneath it, **all carrying their wands and looking excited** (p. 141).
219. Enraged, hissing furiously, it slithered straight toward Justin Finch-Fletchley and raised itself again, **fangs exposed, poised to strike** (p. 145).
220. And miraculously — inexplicably — the snake slumped to the floor, docile as a thick, black garden hose, **its eyes now on Harry** (p. 145).
221. Ron steered him out of the hall, **Hermione hurrying alongside them** (p. 146).
222. ‘I didn’t chase it at him!’ Harry said, **his voice shaking with anger** (p. 150).
223. He walked off, **his mind still full of what Ernie had said about him** (p. 150).
224. Justin Finch-Fletchley was lying on the floor, rigid and cold, **a look of shock frozen on his face**, his eyes staring blankly at the ceiling (p. 151).
225. Justin Finch-Fletchley was lying on the floor, rigid and cold, a look of shock frozen on his face, **his eyes staring blankly at the ceiling** (p. 151).

226. Harry got to his feet, **his breathing fast and shallow**, his heart doing a kind of drumroll against his ribs (p. 151).
227. Harry got to his feet, his breathing fast and shallow, **his heart doing a kind of drumroll against his ribs** (p. 151).
228. Before Dumbledore could speak another word, however, the door of the office flew open with an almighty bang and Hagrid burst in, **a wild look in his eyes**, his balaclava perched on top of his shaggy black head and the dead rooster still swinging from his hand (p. 156).
229. Before Dumbledore could speak another word, however, the door of the office flew open with an almighty bang and Hagrid burst in, a wild look in his eyes, **his balaclava perched on top of his shaggy black head** and the dead rooster still swinging from his hand (p. 156).
230. Before Dumbledore could speak another word, however, the door of the office flew open with an almighty bang and Hagrid burst in, a wild look in his eyes, his balaclava perched on top of his shaggy black head and **the dead rooster still swinging from his hand** (p. 156).
231. 'Oh,' said Hagrid, **the rooster falling limply at his side** (p. 156).
232. Harry waited nervously while Dumbledore considered him, **the tips of his long fingers together** (p. 156).
233. Dumbledore led them in a few of his favorite carols, **Hagrid booming more and more loudly with every goblet of eggnog he consumed** (p. 159).
234. For a moment, both of them chewed greedily, **looks of triumph on their faces** (p. 160).
235. Then, **her hand trembling**, she shook Millicent Bulstrode's hair out of its bottle into the first glass (p. 161).
236. **His large hand trembling**, he pulled off his old robes, which were hanging a foot above his ankles, pulled on the spare ones, and laced up Goyle's boatlike shoes (p. 162).
237. They heard the lock slide back and Hermione emerged, sobbing, **her robes pulled up over her head** (p. 168).
238. They stood still, **their heads inclined toward Flich's voice, which sounded quite hysterical** (p. 171).
239. Trying valiantly to laugh along with everyone else, he got up, **his feet numb from the weight of the dwarf** (p. 178).
240. **Mouth hanging open**, Harry saw that the little square for June thirteenth seemed to have turned into a miniscule television screen (p. 180).
241. Harry hesitated, **his quill suspended over the diary** (p. 180).
242. **His hands trembling slightly**, he raised the book to press his eye against the little window (p. 180).
243. He was biting his lip, **his forehead furrowed** (p. 182).

244. For perhaps five minutes they followed the footsteps, until Riddle stopped suddenly, **his head inclined in the direction of new noises** (p. 183).
245. Riddle, quiet as a shadow, edged through the door and followed, **Harry tiptoeing behind him, forgetting that he couldn't be heard** (p. 183).
246. He could see the dark outline of a huge boy who was crouching in front of an open door, **a very large box next to it** (p. 183).
247. 'It wasn't him!' roared the boy, **his voice echoing in the dark passage** (p. 184).
248. The scene whirled, the darkness became complete; Harry felt himself falling and, with a crash, he landed spread-eagled on his four-poster in the Gryffindor dormitory, **Riddle's diary lying open on his stomach** (p. 184).
249. Neville Longbottom had been sent letters from all the witches and wizards in his family, **all giving him different advice on what to choose** (p. 186).
250. The bedclothes had been pulled off his four-poster and the drawer had been pulled out of his bedside cabinet, **the contents strewn over the mattress** (p. 187).
251. Harry and Ron shook their heads, **both staring at Hermione** (p. 190).
252. Hermione lay utterly still, **her eyes open and glassy** (p. 190).
253. They found themselves face-to-face with him aiming a crossbow at them, **Fang the boarhound barking loudly behind him** (p. 192).
254. 'Oh, I heard, all right,' said Hagrid, **a slight break in his voice** (p. 192).
255. Hagrid leapt to his feet, **his shaggy black head grazing the ceiling** (p. 194).
256. 'Hurry up, I've got to take you all to Herbology,' barked Snape over the class's heads, and off they marched, with Harry, Ron, and Dean bringing up the rear, **Ron still trying to get loose** (p. 199).
257. They walked for what seemed like at least half an hour, **their robes snagging on low-slung branches and brambles** (p. 202).
258. Harry!" Ron shouted, **his voice breaking with relief** (p. 202).
259. **His breathing slowing down again**, Harry stuffed his wand back into his robes (p. 203).
260. Mr. Weasley's car was standing, empty, in the middle of a circle of thick trees under a roof of dense branches, **its headlamps ablaze** (p. 203).
261. **Head hanging**, Harry saw that what had hold of him was marching on six immensely long, hairy legs, **the front two clutching him tightly below a pair of shining black pincers** (p. 204).
262. **Head hanging**, Harry saw that what had hold of him was marching on six immensely long, hairy legs, **the front two clutching him tightly below a pair of shining black pincers** (p. 204).
263. 'Is it Hagrid?' said Aragog, moving closer, **his eight milky eyes wandering vaguely** (p. 205).

264. Feet away, towering above him, was a solid wall of spiders, clicking, **their many eyes gleaming in their ugly black heads** (p. 207).
265. Mr. Weasley's car was thundering down the slope, **headlights glaring**, its horn screeching, knocking spiders aside (p. 207).
266. Mr. Weasley's car was thundering down the slope, headlights glaring, **its horn screeching, knocking spiders aside** (p. 207).
267. Several were thrown onto their backs, **their endless legs waving in the air** (p. 207).
268. They sped up the slope, out of the hollow, and they were soon crashing through the forest, **branches whipping the windows** as the car wound its way cleverly through the widest gaps, following a path it obviously knew (p. 207).
269. They smashed their way through the undergrowth, **Fang howling loudly in the back seat** (p. 207).
270. When Harry opened the door, he shot off through the trees to Hagrid's house, **tail between his legs** (p. 207).
271. 'How do you know?' said Ron, **his eyebrows raised** (p. 212).
272. They sat there, **excitement coursing through them, hardly able to believe it** (p. 216).
273. 'So I unlocked the door, to tell him to go and use his own toilet, and then —' Myrtle swelled importantly, **her face shining** (p. 221).
274. Next second, the sink began to move; the sink, in fact, sank, right out of sight, leaving a large pipe exposed, **a pipe wide enough for a man to slide into** (p. 222).
275. Lockhart was standing well back, **a look of utter terror on his face** (p. 222).
276. 'Boys,' he said, **his voice feeble** (p. 223).
277. 'We must be miles under the school,' said Harry, **his voice echoing in the black tunnel** (p. 223).
278. 'C'mon,' he said to Ron and Lockhart, and off they went, **their footsteps slapping loudly on the wet floor** (p. 223).
279. Very slowly, **his eyes as narrow as he could make them and still see**, Harry edged forward, his wand held high (p. 224).
280. Very slowly, his eyes as narrow as he could make them and still see, Harry edged forward, **his wand held high** (p. 224).
281. Harry turned back to look at the thing, **his heart beating so fast it hurt** (p. 224).
282. Harry jumped forward, but too late — Lockhart was straightening up, panting, **Ron's wand in his hand** and a gleaming smile back on his face (p. 224).
283. Harry jumped forward, but too late — Lockhart was straightening up, panting, Ron's wand in his hand and **a gleaming smile back on his face** (p. 224).

284. And then, at last, as he crept around yet another bend, he saw a solid wall ahead on which two entwined serpents were carved, **their eyes set with great, glinting emeralds** (p. 225).
285. Harry approached, **his throat very dry** (p. 225).
286. **His heart beating very fast**, Harry stood listening to the chill silence (p. 226).
287. And between the feet, **face down**, lay a small, black-robed figure with flaming-red hair (p. 226).
288. He was standing at the end of a very long, dimly lit chamber. **Towering stone pillars entwined with more carved serpents rose to support a ceiling lost in darkness, casting long, black shadows through the odd, greenish gloom that filled the place** (p. 226).
289. Tom Riddle had been at Hogwarts fifty years ago, yet here he stood, **a weird, misty light shining about him**, not a day older than sixteen (p. 227).
290. 'Listen,' said Harry urgently, **his knees sagging with Ginny's dead weight**, 'we've got to go! If the basilisk comes —' (p. 227).
291. Harry's fists were clenched, **the nails digging deep into his palms** (p. 229).
292. 'Hagrid's my friend,' said Harry, **his voice now shaking** (p. 229).
293. 'I bet Dumbledore saw right through you,' said Harry, **his teeth gritted** (p. 230).
294. 'Like what?' Harry spat, **fists still clenched** (p. 231).
295. 'You're not,' he said, **his quiet voice full of hatred** (p. 231).
296. **Eyes still tightly shut**, Harry began to run blindly sideways, his hands outstretched, feeling his way (p. 234).
297. Eyes still tightly shut, Harry began to run blindly sideways, **his hands outstretched, feeling his way** (p. 234).
298. Harry, **fear spreading up his numb legs**, watched Riddle stop between the high pillars and look up into the stone face of Slytherin, high above him in the half-darkness (p. 234).
299. Harry wheeled around to look up at the statue, **Fawkes swaying on his shoulder** (p. 234).
300. Waiting for fangs to sink through his body he heard more mad hissing, **something thrashing wildly off the pillars** (p. 234).
301. **Stars winking in front of his eyes**, he grabbed the top of the hat to pull it off and felt something long and hard beneath it (p. 235).
302. Help me — help me — Harry thought, **his eyes screwed tight under the hat** (p. 235).
303. A gleaming silver sword had appeared inside the hat, **its handle glittering with rubies the size of eggs** (p. 235).
304. The basilisk's head was falling, **its body coiling around, hitting pillars as it twisted to face him** (p. 235).

305. For a split second, both Harry and Riddle, **wand still raised**, stared at it (p. 237).
306. Ron shook his head, but Fawkes the phoenix had swooped past Harry and was now fluttering in front of him, **his beady eyes bright in the dark** (p. 239).
307. So Harry, **his voice now growing hoarse from all this talking**, told them about Fawkes's timely arrival and about the Sorting Hat giving him the sword (p. 242).
308. Instinctively, Harry looked at Dumbledore, who smiled faintly, **the firelight glancing off his halfmoon spectacles** (p. 242).
309. 'Dear me,' said Dumbledore, shaking his head, **his long silver mustache quivering** (p. 244).
310. 'First of all, Harry, I want to thank you,' said Dumbledore, **eyes twinkling again** (p. 244).
311. But he fell silent, **a lurking doubt resurfacing in his mind** (p. 244).
312. 'His own very rare gift, Parseltongue — resourcefulness — determination — a certain disregard for rules,' he added, **his moustache quivering again** (p. 245).
313. Dully, Harry turned it over, **the rubies blazing in the firelight** (p. 245).
314. Dobby went scurrying in after him, crouching at the hem of his cloak, **a look of abject terror on his face** (p. 246).
315. 'So!' said Lucius Malfoy, **his cold eyes fixed on Dumbledore** (p. 246).
316. **His great eyes fixed meaningfully on Harry**, he kept pointing at the diary, then at Mr. Malfoy, and then hitting himself hard on the head with his fist (p. 246).
317. He got up, **his face livid**, and pulled out his wand, but Dobby raised a long, threatening finger (p. 248).
318. 'Harry Potter freed Dobby!' said the elf shrilly, gazing up at Harry, **moonlight from the nearest window reflected in his orb-like eyes** (p. 249).

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