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Diplomová práce

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The Use of the Comma in the Multiple Sentence in English: An Analysis of the English Conventions and Style Specifics of the Comma in Academic Prose

Užití čárky v anglickém souvětí: Analýza konvencí a stylových specifik čárky v odborném textu

Prohlašuji, že jsem diplomovou práci vypracovala samostatně, že jsem řádně citovala všechny použité prameny a literaturu a že práce nebyla využita v rámci jiného vysokoškolského studia či k získání jiného nebo stejného titulu.

V Praze dne 26. května 2020

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ABSTRAKT

Diplomová práce analyzuje užití větné čárky v odborném textu. Hlavním cílem práce je ověřit hypotézu relativní nekonzistentnosti užití čárky v anglickém souvětí mezi rodilými mluvčími. V současné angličtině převažuje deskriptivní přístup, z čehož lze vyvodit, že úzus kolísá. Za faktory, které ovlivňují zahrnutí či vynechání čárky v souvětí, popř. k němu v rámci vzájemné interakce přispívají, byla označena délka klauze v obou typech souvětí, její pozice v souvětí a syntaktická funkce v případě příslovečných vět podřadného souvětí. U koordinovaných vět souřadného souvětí zkoumáme především přítomnost a nepřítomnost podmětu ve druhé větě či těsnost sémantického vztahu mezi klauzemi.

Na základě analýzy 200 dvouvětných souvětí excerpovaných z lingvisticky zaměřených článků (jak souvětí souřadných, tak podřadných, složených z věty řídící a věty příslovečné), jejichž autory byli angličtí rodilí mluvčí, práce kategorizuje souvětí dle závislostních vztahů vět, vyhodnocuje četnost užití čárky oproti jejímu neužití a popisuje potenciální faktory, které úzus ovlivnily. Zjištění, jež se opírala o hypotézy formulované na základě odborné literatury, se do značné míry potvrdila. Také předpoklady týkající se úzu v koordinovaných větách se prokázaly. Ve slučovacím poměru byl výskyt čárky převážně syntakticky motivovaný, s výraznými odchylkami v jejím užití, kdežto u odporovacího poměru byla čárka systematicky užívaná a sémanticky motivovaná. Naopak u vedlejších vět příslovečných se vyskytovala stabilněji, přičemž nižší podíl variability užití lze vysvětlit její stylistickou fakultativností.

Klíčová slova: čárka, užití čárky, interpunkce, souřadnost, podřadnost, souvětí, příslovečná věta, konvence

ABSTRACT

The present thesis analyses the use of the clausal comma in academic prose. The aim of this diploma thesis is to examine the hypothesis of relative inconsistency in the use of the comma in a multiple sentence formed by a native speaker of English. In Modern English, the descriptive approach prevails and therefore it is assumed that the comma usage varies. The factors that affect or, by interacting with other factors, contribute to the inclusion or the omission of the comma in a sentence are the length of the clause in both compound and complex sentences, the position of the clause in a sentence as well as the syntactic function of the adverbial clause in a complex sentence. The coordinate clauses are studied in terms of the presence and absence of the subject in the second conjoined clause and the semantic tightness of both clauses.

Based on an analysis of 200 two-clause sentences (both compound sentences and complex sentences comprised of the matrix clause and an adverbial clause) excerpted from linguistic articles written by native speakers of English, the thesis categorises the sentences according to the dependency relation between the clauses, evaluates the frequency of the inclusion of the comma against its omission, and describes the potential factors that influenced the comma usage. The analysis confirmed the findings that were hypothesised on the basis of the reviewed literature to a considerable extent. The assumptions about the comma usage in the coordinate clauses also proved correct. In copulative coordination, the comma was largely motivated syntactically, significantly varying in use, whereas in adversative coordination the comma was systematic and semantically motivated. By contrast, the comma in the adverbial clauses was rather consistent, with a lower percentage of usage variability being explained by the stylistic optionality of the comma.

Key words: comma, comma usage, punctuation, coordination, subordination, multiple sentence, adverbial clause, conventions

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ABBREVIATIONS

CGEL   *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*

CamGEL   *Cambridge Grammar of the English Language*

P   position (of adverbial clause)

I   initial position of adverbial

M   medial position of adverbial

F   final position of adverbial

A   adjunct

D   disjunct

BrE   British English

AmE   American English

CanE   Canadian English

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1   INTRODUCTION

Hardly any other punctuation mark is of such a frequent occurrence as the comma.[1] "Of all the punctuation marks the comma is the most flexible in the range of its use, and hence the most difficult to categorize" (*CGEL*: 1615). Commonly, the comma serves to delimit and "separate closely associated clauses within a sentence" (ibid.). Broadly speaking, the comma "gives a visual separation of the written elements and can also indicate a brief pause for the reader to consolidate ideas that went before it" (Allyn, 2012: 153). Unlike most punctuation marks that have rather a restricted role in text segmentation, the comma can operate on a full grammatical scale, i.e. separating both clausal units and the subclausal, such as words and phrases (Crystal, 2016: 228). The comma is therefore highly versatile; however, as Jarvie (1992: 10) points out, it is also "the most ubiquitous, elusive and discretionary of all stops" and, as a consequence, it is "probably the most used, and the most abused, punctuation mark of all" (ibid.: 17). The objective of the present thesis is to examine the hypothesis of relative inconsistency in the use of the clausal comma in a multiple sentence formed by a native speaker of English.

The theoretical part of the thesis outlines the basic approaches, gives the insights into the development of the punctuation system and the typology of the comma, and introduces the basic concept of punctuation. Following the distinction between the secondary boundary marks, i.e. comma versus other interior punctuation signalling internal text segmentation, the thesis enquires into the use of the clausal comma, paying close attention to its application in coordination and subordination. Apart from the functions and specific punctuation patterns, Chapter 2, *inter alia*, emphasises the factors behind the use of the comma in both a compound and a complex sentence (the latter focuses on adverbial clauses).

The analysis of the comma in a multiple sentence, which is described in detail in Chapters 3 and 4, is based on a sample of 200 sentences (100 compound and 100 complex, see Appendix I) excerpted from fifteen academic articles written by native speakers of English (linguists who contribute to different subdomains of linguistics). The empirical part is subdivided into main sections: the use of the clausal comma in coordination (Section 4.2) and subordination (Section 4.3). These sections are preceded by one (4.1) that discusses the hypotheses. The sentences are analysed in terms of factors (Sections 2.7.2 and 2.7.3.1) that influenced the inclusion or the omission of the comma. The present thesis also attempts to shed light on this relatively complex area of the linguistic subsystem, giving rather a descriptive treatment of the role of the comma in contemporary academic prose.

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[1] With the exception of the full stop, cf. Quirk et al.'s corpus-based research (1985: 1613n.).

2　THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1　Prescriptive vs Descriptive Approach in English

As language tends to change quite constantly, it produces many alternatives to choose from: different words, spellings, or pronunciation. Language users have always formed language by using it actively (Peters, 2004: 149–150). Either noticed or unnoticed, the changes or new use of language may be adopted in one way or the other: (a) openly and often without judgement – in a descriptive way, or (b) rather sceptically or, alternatively, not by any means – in a prescriptive way (ibid.: 149). The two basic approaches to use of language have given rise to two fundamental concepts: prescriptive linguistics and descriptive linguistics, with both being closely connected owing to the historical development of the English language. Historically, the linguistic approaches varied from typically descriptive in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries to prescriptive grammar during the eighteenth century, also in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries; with modern linguistic approaches being rather descriptive in most of the twentieth century (ibid.).

As Peters (2004: 149–150) points out, better understanding of language change and more democratic and liberal thinking on linguistic description have become more prevalent compared to its more abstract and traditional opposite. In Modern English, there are many grammars, dictionaries, and style guides that are being compiled and published in order to assure the language users that language develops constantly (ibid.: 80, 150). Their almost constant publishing can be perceived as reasonable due to the fact that there is no official institution that would have codification status and regulate the language usage of English (ibid.: 80). Yet, there were attempts to establish a language academy for English in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, which were ultimately unsuccessful (ibid.). Any attempt to establish a regulatory body of the English language has failed for political reasons (ibid.: 311).[2]

2.2　Punctuation

Punctuation is realised by various punctuation marks as an integral part of any textual material. There are the comma, full stop, colon, brackets, quotation marks, and so forth (*CamGEL*: 1724). According to Huddleston and Pullum (2002), they can indicate and delimit the grammatical structure, its scope and meaning in written text. Such indications may be classified into two groups: (a) segmental indicators and (b) non-segmental indicators (*CamGEL*: 1724). Punctuation marks are not the only devices of punctuation (see Figure 1):

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[2] Some attempts were partly successful: The American Academy of Language and Belles Lettres (1820–1822) was a short-lived language academy for AmE, operated for less than two years (Peters, 2004: 311).
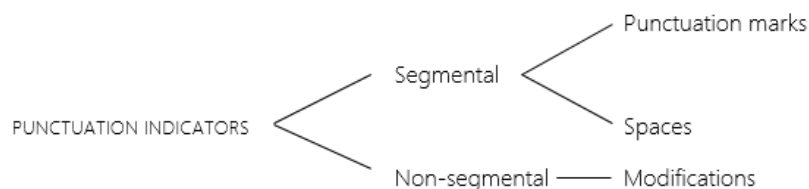
Figure 1. System of punctuation (*CamGEL*: 1724)

Punctuation marks belong to the segmental category, which means that they completely operate in linear sequences, while non-segmental features primarily modify the units in question, making them characteristic for certain purposes (e.g. italics). In general, most punctuation marks are sentential components (except for the hyphen and apostrophe being considered word-internal). Some of them can encompass larger blocks of text, going beyond a sentence, e.g. brackets, quotation marks, paragraph division (*CamGEL*: 1724f.).

Punctuation marks apply to written discourse as visually supportive devices. The question may arise whether punctuation, or at least some punctuation marks, serves as a correlate of the rhythm in speech, i.e. whether there is a direct association between spoken and written language in this domain (Peters, 2004: 447–448). Peters (2004) argues that it is most likely to be only relative because punctuation merely correlates with larger pauses across sentences or within. However, some marks functioned far more systematically in the past: the comma, semicolon, colon, and full stop were considered equal representations of their prosodic counterparts, i.e. pausing with different duration or rhythmisation with different word-stress and intonation (ibid.: 448). In Modern English, the reader distinguishes various types of pauses within the sentence structure – short, medium, longer pauses – serving as major indicators of unit boundaries (ibid.). Still, these are only suggestions on how text might be structured and divided (cf. Chafe 1988).[3]

According to Quirk et al. (1985), there are two main purposes of using punctuation: (i) separation and (ii) specification. Separation can be further divided into two subclasses: (a) separation of successive units (units in series, e.g. spaces separating successive words or full stops separating sentences) and (b) separation of included units within which punctuation marks serve as a delimiter showing the boundaries of an included unit within a larger unit, e.g. the comma. Specification includes punctuation marks with grammatical, semantic, or pragmatic functions (*CGEL*: 1610–1611).

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[3] Chafe (1988), in his research on a correlation between punctuation and prosody, demonstrated that the readers provided with punctuated texts created prosodic breaks and pauses of their own when they read them aloud. Thus, the punctuation only functioned as a relative aid in the text proceeding and reading it aloud.

Another classification according to Huddleston and Pullum (2002) groups indicators into four types (*CamGEL*: 1729–1730):

(i)　　boundaries (comma, full stop, capital letter, spaces, etc.),
(ii)　　status (question mark, 'genitive' apostrophe, etc.),
(iii)　　omission (ellipsis points, 'omission' apostrophe), and
(iv)　　linkage (slash, hyphen, dash).

2.3　　Origin and Historical Development of the Comma

As Peters (2004: 447) describes, the punctuation system of modern languages has primarily evolved from writing and printing along with how language users could respond to it and continue to use or even improve the application of punctuation. Some marks date back to medieval manuscripts, and their shapes and uses had been constantly changing until the seventeenth century, with the formalisation and the beginning of the standardisation coming into effect in the following century (ibid.). Besides, early punctuation used to be in more liberal use in comparison with the contemporary (ibid.). According to Parkes (2016), the development and early standardisation of punctuation systems are attributed to gradual regular use of different marks in ancient Greece and Rome. Originally, the system reflected the prosodic qualities of how spoken language was presented in public, i.e. to manifest shorter or longer pauses, pitch, and so forth (Parkes, 2016: 13ff.). Thus, prosodic (rhetorical) punctuation was essential back then; however, diachronically, this type is assumed to have evolved into the grammatical (Primus, 2007: 104, 108f.). It appeared to be credible and reasonable that the comma system has changed: "a prosodically determined, stylistically free system has turned into a grammaticalized rigid system in some languages. Grammaticalization is a plausible explanation for this shift" (Primus, 2007: 108). What seems to be at odds with this gradual transition, however, is the standard view that the two typological systems of the comma (i.e. prosodic comma × grammatical comma) "have functions which are too wide apart to allow for the attested historical evolution and variation" (ibid.: 108–109).

As Parkes (2016) describes, the modern use of the comma, i.e. indicating medial pauses, is descended from a mark resembling a tall slash (*virgula suspensiva*), and its first uses can be traced to the end of the Middle Ages; however, the function was not stable until the fifteenth century, with its regular occurrence becoming common since then and surviving into sixteenth-century manuscripts (Parkes, 2016: 46). The process of the evolution of the comma in the form and function known today rapidly continued and finished around the end of the eighteenth century (Primus, 2007: 109). In English, a clausal comma in certain uses, after having developed and been constantly applied, has gradually ceased to be used. Let us consider the following example, which was still legitimate at the end of the nineteenth century (ibid.):

(1) He declared**,** that he was innocent. (ibid.)

The multiple sentence in example (1) is evidence of the fact that the comma system has become more liberal (i.e. the coexistence of the two comma systems). The modern usage does not, however, allow the comma to separate the matrix clause from the dependent. This historical variation can be explained in terms of the grammaticalization of the (prosodic) comma, which prescriptively required punctuation in such cases, but subsequently the system became de-grammaticalized; thus, some syntactic constructions have lost their linguistic prescription, which gave rise to an optional (clausal) comma (ibid.).

2.4   Typology of the Comma

According to Primus (2007: 103), the comma is closely related to prosody due to the fact that "syntactic structures are marked prosodically in many instances." Primus (2007: 104) classifies the comma into two basic types: the prosodic (rhetorical) or grammatical comma, with the latter having evolved from the former. The languages that typify prosodic punctuation are English, Dutch, and the Romance languages. Prosodic punctuation is characterised by two features: (i) a close connection to prosody, intonation, and rhythmisation; and (ii) stylistically free use (particularly English and French are considered to retain stylistic freedom of use). By contrast, grammatical punctuation is assumed to be purely connected with the level of syntax and semantics. Hence, its use is strictly conventionalised (ibid.: 104). The relationship between the comma and semantics is indirect; thus, semantic distinctions are less systematic in marking by commas than the syntactic (ibid.: 105). The relationship between the comma and prosody focuses on "coding syntactic distinctions" (ibid.). The languages that belong to the grammatical type are German, Hungarian, Finnish, Russian, and Polish (ibid.: 104). As Quirk et al. (1972) point out, there has been a diachronic change in that the previously-viewed prosodic systems of punctuation are believed to have gradually passed to the grammatical:

> "[P]unctuation practice is governed primarily by grammatical considerations and is related to grammatical distinctions. Sometimes it is linked to intonation, stress, rhythm, pause, or any other of the prosodic features which convey distinctions in speech, but this is neither simple nor systematic, and traditional attempts to relate punctuation directly to (in particular) pauses are misguided. Nor, except to a minor and peripheral extent, is punctuation concerned with expressing emotive or rhetorical overtones, as prosodic features frequently are" (Quirk et al., 1972: 849f.).

Despite the fact that the comma has become conventionalised (i.e. grammatical) in its use and function, recent approaches are, in general, rather pluralistic, and the comma usage can also be stylistically motivated (Primus, 2007: 104), cf. punctuation style below.

2.5 Comma vs Semicolon

$$\text{full stop} \quad > \quad \begin{bmatrix} \text{colon} \\ \text{semicolon} \end{bmatrix} \quad > \quad \text{comma}$$
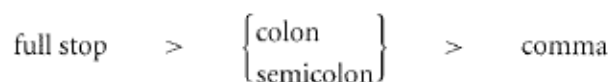
Figure 2. Hierarchy of primary and secondary boundary marks (*CamGEL*: 1735)

According to Huddleston and Pullum (2002), the comma is termed as one of the secondary boundary marks; the other marks to complete this classification are the semicolon and colon.[4] The comma is generally regarded as a weaker and less prominent punctuation divider than the semicolon (see Figure 2); thus, the clausal boundary closure and the pause created by a comma are characterised as a smoother transition from one information flow to another (*CamGEL*: 1735, 1737). However, either mark has its own specific features, allowing each to be used in different text types (e.g. the semicolon is preferred in formal style) as well as syntactic structures: "the punctuation helps in the perception of the hierarchical structure, with the semi-colon separating constituents higher in the tree structure than the commas" (*CamGEL*: 1740). Let us compare these two coordinating marks on the syntactic level (ibid.):

(2) Professor Brownstein will chair the first session**,** and the second session will be postponed**;** or I will chair both sessions. (*CamGEL*: 1740, not italicised)

Example (2) deals with two-level coordination: the comma at a lower level marks a boundary between the first two main clauses that are simultaneously joined into a single unit by the coordinator *and*. The semicolon at a higher level divides the third coordinated clause which is joined by the coordinator *or*. These marks thus created different layering of coordination (ibid.).

Quirk et al. (1985) suggest that the semicolon is considered a coordinating punctuation mark and grammatically corresponds to the coordinating conjunction *and* (*CGEL*: 1622). The following two patterns illustrate equality in hierarchy:

Pattern A: {unit 1} **;** {unit 2} = Pattern B: {unit 1} **,** {*and*} {unit 2}

Yet, the comma is more versatile, for it may be applied at different syntactic levels, whereas the semicolon (or colon) may not (the examples are cited after Huddleston and Pullum, 2002: 1737, not italicised):

(3) I wouldn't recommend it**,** but he can certainly take part**,** provided he's eighteen.

(4) *All students had to take a language**;** Sue took French**;** she already spoke it well.

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[4] All of them internally delimit the boundaries of syntactic structures in a sentence; therefore, they are considered secondary. The external sentence boundaries are marked by the primary terminals: the full stop, question mark, and exclamation mark (*CamGEL*: 1731, 1735).

Sentences in (3) and (4) comprise three clauses at different levels. Example (3) is well-formed: the first comma is an indicator of the boundary at the same syntactic level; the second comma is an indicator of the boundary at a lower syntactic level. The semicolon is not allowed in such a construction. In (4), the second clause provides the relation of the elaboration of the first clause (assuming that *Sue* is the student too); it is a supplement to the preceding unit, so is the third clause (*CamGEL*: 1737f.). The semicolon may be used as a separator of clauses at the identical hierarchical level too, as in (2), *Professor Brownstein will chair the first session …; or I will chair both sessions*. This type of division corresponds to "{comma} + {*and*}". From the point of view of semantics, Crystal (2016: 230) argues that the comma provides "a closer semantic association between the two clauses than […] the semicolon." The use of the semicolon differs in that the semantic link between the clauses is not as tight as between clauses separated by the comma (ibid.: 230–231).

2.6   Comma vs Colon vs Dash

The colon can form as strong an effect in marking unit boundaries as the semicolon can, but the comma is weaker than either one (see Figure 2). The colon therefore serves as a sharper separating mark than the comma. Even though the colon and the semicolon are placed at the same level in the hierarchy of strength, the colon is also an indicator of a closer interdependence between clausal units than the semicolon (*CGEL*: 1620).

The primary function of the colon is to separate independent units between which there is an appositive relation. As regards the semantic relationship between the units, the colon expresses e x p l i c a t i o n or s p e c i f i c a t i o n of what precedes, or f u l f i l m e n t of what may be expected from the first piece of information (*CGEL*: 1615, 1620):

(5)   I've just had some good news: I've been offered a job in a law firm. (*CGEL*: 1620)

A dash is used to mark text interruption, but unlike the colon, which is never used in pairs, it can occur as a single mark, signalling a break or pause in the information flow, or as a correlative mark in a pair that delimits included units.[5] When used in a pair, dashes mark off parenthetical elements, providing explanation, elaboration, or specification. This function can also be fulfilled by correlative/delimiting commas (*CamGEL*: 1750). However, the comma is the least intrusive correlative mark; thus, the transition from one piece of information to another

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[5] The dash is a more dramatic and more informal mark than the colon (Lutz & Stevenson, 2011: 244f.). It is also implied that the utterance using a dash is spontaneous rather than planned (*CGEL*: 1629).

is far smoother when the comma is used (*CGEL*: 1629).[6] Single dashes perform the same function as dashes in a pair, with the second of the pair being absorbed into punctuation at a higher level (*CamGEL*: 1751, not italicised):

(6)   Many of Updike's descriptions of Hollywood – the place – are nicely observed. (*CamGEL*: 1750)

(7)   We could invite one of the ladies from next door – Miss Savage, for example. (*CamGEL*: 1751)

In (6), inside the dashes, there is an appositional element, a NP, that elaborates the preceding. In (7), the second dash in a pair is superseded by the full stop (ibid.: 1750–1751).

2.7   Clausal Comma: Comma in a Sentence

Within a sentence, the comma can be used as an indicator of clause boundaries, i.e. clausal comma (cf. Primus 2007), or any constituent lower in the hierarchy of tree structures, i.e. subclausal or delimiting comma (cf. Huddleston and Pullum: 2002: 1739, 1744ff.).

As classified by Quirk et al. (1985), a s i m p l e s e n t e n c e consists of one independent clause that can stand alone and thus also be called a main clause, while a m u l t i p l e s e n t e n c e consists of one clause or more clauses functioning as the immediate constituents of the sentence. This type of a sentence can be compound or complex (*CGEL*: 719).

The compound sentence operates at the level of at least two clauses that are of the same, equal status; this relationship is called c o o r d i n a t i o n, or parataxis. In the complex sentence, there is one main (superordinate) clause upon which one clause is, or more clauses are, dependent. This syntactic relation is called s u b o r d i n a t i o n, or hypotaxis (*CGEL*: 918–920).

Quirk et al. (1985: 918) further categorise the sentence according to the type of connection. Both the compound and the complex sentence can contain a conjunction overtly signalling the type of the relation between the clauses. This connection is called syndetic. Nevertheless, there can be no conjunction involved, and this is called asyndetic coordination or subordination.[7] As opposed to syndetic coordination or subordination where the comma is more or less optional,[8]

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[6] Correlative commas cannot be used to delimit interruptive elements if these are grammatically complete sentences. In such cases, either correlative dashes or parentheses are preferred (Lutz & Stevenson, 2011: 246).

[7] Coordination between clauses linked by the conjuncts *so* and *yet* is called 'quasi-syndetic', as these linkers does not belong to the category of coordinators, but they perform a similar function (*CamGEL*: 1319, 1742).

[8] The conjunction in the compound sentence is called a coordinating conjunction, or a coordinator, and in the complex sentence a subordinating conjunction, or a subordinator. The clauses in the complex sentence can be also introduced by relative pronouns, interrogative words (*wh*-words), linked by asyndesis (no linking conjunction) or juxtaposition (zero relative pronoun: the clauses are juxtaposed, i.e. put together with no linker), inversion, non-finite constructions (*CGEL*: 918, 997ff.).

asyndetic coordination is generally marked by punctuation in writing (ibid.: 918). However, the comma should not be applied to asyndetic coordinate clauses because the comma is "not normally used to separate independent clauses unless they are linked by a coordinator" (*CGEL*: 1615).[9] Clausal asyndesis between independent clauses should be marked by the other coordinating punctuation marks, i.e. by the semicolon or colon.

2.7.1 Comma in a Multiple Sentence

As Quirk et al. (1985: 918–919) hierarchically differentiate, the information in coordinate clauses based on equality is usually of the same importance, whereas the information in subordinate clauses is in the background (somehow 'overshadowed' by that in the matrix clause). "Thus the syntactic inequality of subordination tends to bring with it a semantic inequality which is realized by syntactic hierarchization, as well as position" (*CGEL*: 919), as illustrated by the following examples (ibid.):

  (8) He has quarrelled with the chairman and he has resigned. (equality)

  (9) Since he quarrelled with the chairman**,** he has resigned. (inequality)

In (8), the information in either clause is equal, while in (9), the information in the subordinate clause is presented as already known and therefore in initial position. Both the sentences represent the 'cause-result' relationship (ibid.). Example (8) does not make use of the comma, but example (9) does so for signalling the boundaries between the clauses and for hierarchisation (hierarchically, the second clause serves as a focal point). The semantic association between the clauses in (8) is close and therefore the comma is not necessary. Cf. the linkage between the clauses in the following examples (ibid.: 920):

  (10) Mary studies at a university *and* John works at a factory.

  (11) He died *and* he was buried in the cemetery.

  (11') He was buried in the cemetery *and* he died.

The examples are based on coordination. The clauses in (10) are in semantic symmetry: the relationship between the clauses is synonymous in expressing the information equal in character. They can be reversed with no considerable change in meaning; however, (11) is different: the relationship between the sequenced clauses is rather asymmetrical, as their order is fixed. Cf. the reverse order in (11'): the meaning is changed due to the 'cause-result' relationship in the original sequence of the sentence (ibid.).

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[9] The exception that permits the comma in such cases is when there are more than two coordinated clauses in a series (cf. Section 2.7.2, Factor (v): Serial comma), or when the clauses are short or parallel in structure.

Neither example used the comma. In (11), the inclusion of the comma would be rather inappropriate because there is a close semantic relationship between the two thoughts. Also, the first clause is very short; separation is not necessary. Although the comma in (10) is omitted, its use would not be incorrect, as the link is free, and there are two explicit semantic boundaries.

2.7.2 Comma in Parataxis

The occurrence of commas in parataxis/coordination is expected to be more frequent than in hypotaxis/subordination, and it is most likely so because of "their most basic functionality as indicators of coordinated clauses/phrases" (Roth, Christodoulopoulos, and Arivazhagan, 2016: 2887). By contrast, clauses in subordination are characterised by the relation of dependence, meaning that they are in a much closer connection – in contrast to clauses in coordination that convey independent and self-contained ideas – and mostly are not separated by commas. However, there are more contributing FACTORS to consider in the comma usage (cf. Quirk et al. 1985, Crystal 2016, Huddleston and Pullum 2002):[10]

(i) LENGTH of clausal unit:
Their friendship for Augusta became rather hollow, and the news that Byron had left her practically all his money caused it to crumble to oblivion (*CamGEL*: 1739)*.*

(ii) PRESENCE VS ABSENCE of the SECOND SUBJECT:[11]
He packed up his papers and stormed out of the room (*CamGEL*: 1739).

(iii) SEMANTIC TIGHTNESS, i.e. the clauses in a close semantic relation:
Schoolchildren have adopted the fund as one of their favourite charities, and their small contributions have enabled the fund to reach its target (*CGEL*: 1615). (That is, the second clause makes use of lexical and referential devices that are semantically related to those in the first clause: *their* to *schoolchildren*, *contributions* to *the fund*, and the articles *the* in both clauses.)

(iv) Connection by an OVERT COORDINATOR, such as *and*, *but*, *or* and the conjunction-like adverbs *nor*, *neither*, *so*, *yet* (*CGEL*: 1615).[12]

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[10] In hypotaxis, it is also the position of an adverbial clause that may play a crucial role (see Section 2.7.3.1).

[11] The second subject (i.e. the subject of the second clause) in coordination can be elliptical: the comma may not be inserted in long clausal units either, if both verbs have the same subjects (Hais, 1957: 253n.). In parataxis, the subject ellipsis is possible if the referents are identical, which is never possible in hypotaxis. This can be explained by the position of the subject in coordination: "[s]ince its default position is external to the VP, the subject can enter straightforwardly into construction with a VP-coordination" (*CamGEL*: 238).

[12] If factor (iii) is applied but not factor (iv), i.e. the case of asyndesis, the comma would be usually replaced by the semicolon, cf.: *Schoolchildren have adopted the fund as one of their favourite charities; their small contributions have enabled the fund to reach its target* (*CGEL*: 1615).

(v) SERIAL COMMA, i.e. more than two clauses in a series, is obligatory between the clausal units despite the presence of only one coordinator in the final clause:

Prices fell, interest rates fell, and employment figures rose (*CGEL*: 1616).

(vi) Concept of LIGHT and HEAVY PUNCTUATION: light punctuation is characteristic of stylistically free use (comma in stylistic use) in less punctuated texts where the comma is not obligatory; still, the use of the comma must not conflict with grammar, semantics, and logical punctuation application. Heavy punctuation represents traditional use, reflecting prosodic considerations (*CamGEL*: 1727, 1739, 1746). Cf. the punctuation styles (ibid: 1746):

She was not sorry he sat by her, but in fact was flattered. (light)

She was not sorry he sat by her, but, in fact, was flattered. (heavy)

(vii) Comma as a SEMANTIC INDICATOR: the obligatory comma as the prevention of misreading and confusion, cf. (*CamGEL*: 1730):

Liz recognised the t-shirt he took from the bag and gasped.

Liz recognised the man who entered the room, and gasped.

Quirk et al. (1985) enquired into the use of the comma in coordination (namely copulative and adversative) through a corpus-based analysis. They discovered that the coordinate *but*-clauses tended to include the comma more than the coordinate *and*-clauses. As Figure 3 also illustrates, the *and*-clauses without the comma (*no*-comma use) were of the same proportion as those with the comma.[13] The *but*-clauses that expressed a contrast tended to include the comma more than the *and*-clauses, which varied in the comma use (*CGEL*: 1616).

Figure 3. Comma usage: comma vs *no*-comma use in *but*-clauses and *and*-clauses (*CGEL*: 1616)
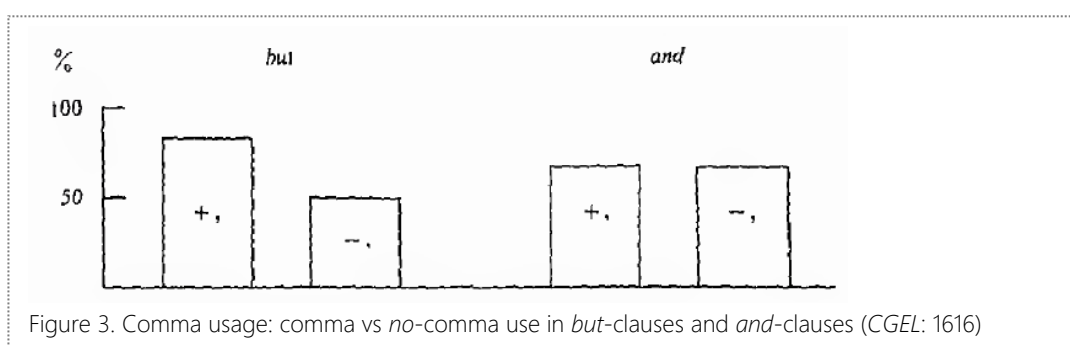
Another part of their analysis focused on the comma usage solely in copulative coordination that demonstrated how much the use of the comma can vary. They studied two variants of coordinated *and*-clauses: those with the subjects present in both clauses and those

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[13] The sample was comprised of full clauses coordinated either by the conjunction *and* or *but*, with the subjects of both clauses being present; moreover, there were clauses not having the subject of the second clause expressed, which resulted in the coordination of two predications; cf. *The hotel boasts a gourmet restaurant and offers a range of sports facilities* (*CGEL*: 1616).

having the second subject in ellipsis. As Figure 4 illustrates, the comma was applied more often in the sentences which had both subjects present: three quarters of the instances (*CGEL*: 1616f.). The results suggest that:

> "we are dealing with tendencies rather than rules. There are many sentences where despite coordination with *and* and despite subject ellipsis, a comma is nevertheless preferred. In such cases, it is probable that the generalization that punctuation conforms to grammatical rather than rhetorical considerations is in fact overridden" (ibid.: 1617).

When we compare the following examples, similar in structure, we learn that (13) corresponds to the need to match the written material to the actual spoken one – i.e. pausing between unit boundaries serves as an afterthought (ibid.: 1617).[14]

 (12) He put on his spectacles and then picked up the phone. (ibid.)

 (13) He paused for a moment**,** and then began to speak. (ibid.)

Figure 4. Comma usage: subject presence vs subject absence in second clause (*CGEL*: 1617)
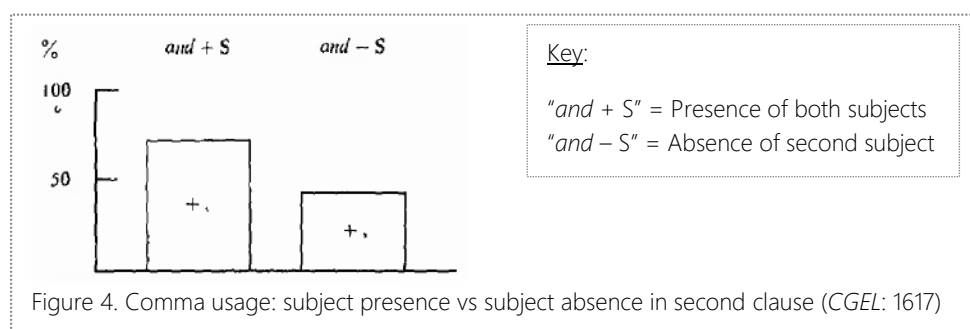
2.7.2.1 Distinction between Clause Coordination and Constituent Coordination

Returning to examples (12) and (13), we can notice that there is no explicit subject in the second coordinate clause of either sentence. As a matter of fact, if the subject is present in both coordinate clauses, it can be clearly defined as coordination of clauses (*CGEL*: 946):

 (14) The winter had come at last, and snow lay thick on the ground. (ibid.)

This type of coordination in (14) is obviously clausal, as there are complete independent clauses with the subject of either clause expressed. However, there is also another type of coordination that can be regarded as coordination of clause constituents (*CGEL*: 942):

 (15) They have already finished their work and gone home. (ibid.)

Not as simple as that, this section discusses several linguistic approaches to this matter. According to Quirk et al. (1985), categorisation of ex. (15) as well as those illustrated in (12) and (13) can be twofold: there are two different principles of analysis that may be applied in

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[14] The comma can also have a reinforcing function, irrespective of the presence or absence of the subject in the second clause, creating a 'dramatic' pause (Crystal, 2016: 235).

assessing such cases (see below). Nevertheless, the issue with the distinction is rather complex, for linguists tend to differ in their standpoint.

Dušková et al. (2012) classify such coordination as clausal: Coordinate clauses linked by the coordinators *and*, *but*, and *or* may have the subject in ellipsis provided that the referents of either subject are identical, cf.: *The passport expired a month ago and needs to be extended* (ibid.: 589).

Osborne (2019) regards such coordinate structures as that in (14) and (15) as different types in terms of dependency. In fact, the non-initial conjoin, i.e. coordinate element,[15] that had the subject ellipted, as in (15), is classified as an example of the forward sharing of string coordination (see tree structure (2) in Figure 5), which means that "the shared material appears outside of the coordinate structure" (ibid.: 307) and is only possible when present (ibid.: 316); while conjoins having either subject expressed, as in (14), represent no sharing of string coordination (structure (1) in Figure 5) in which neither element is shared (ibid.: 321).
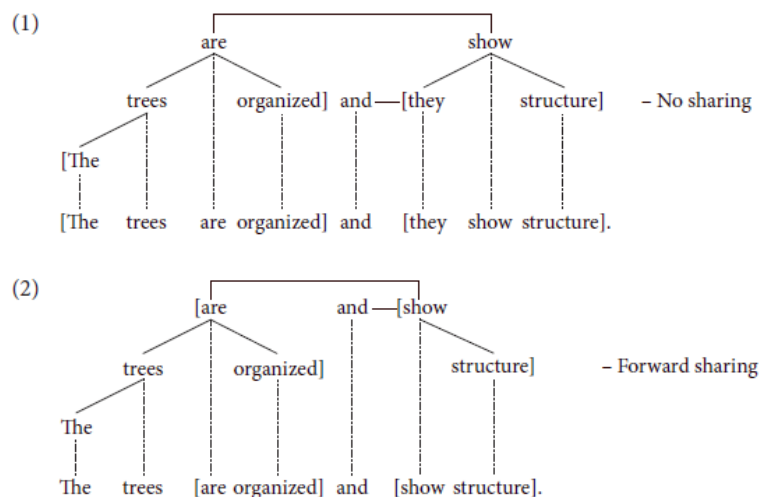
Figure 5. Distinction between no sharing and forward sharing of coordination (Osborne, 2019: 321)

Having analysed the units in (15'), Quirk et al. (1985) clearly demonstrate which material is shared (the subject, operator, and adverbial):

(15') They have already [finished their work] and [gone home]. (*CGEL*: 942)

Yet, other linguists classify this type as simple coordination of VPs. Huddleston and Pullum (2002) consider such structures as in (15) as subclausal coordination (*CamGEL*: 1280).

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[15] Apart from the term 'conjoins' (Quirk et al. 1985), cf. also the terms 'coordinates' (Huddleston and Pullum 2002) and 'conjuncts' (Osborne 2019), being used for the same purpose.

Let us compare their example of VP-coordination (i.e. on the constituent level): *He often goes to bed before nine and likes plenty of exercise* (*CamGEL*: 1286).

Above all, Quirk et al. (1985: 942ff.) adopt a more liberal and flexible approach to such a syntactic structure in which only one subject is expressed,[16] as in (15). It may be viewed either as simple coordination of clause constituents – i.e. two coordinate predicates – focusing on intersentential relations, or as an elliptical version of clause coordination – with the subject, operator, and adverbial being elliptical – focusing on the sentence structure. Accordingly, Quirk et al. (1985) regard these two approaches as complementary rather than competitive with each other (*CGEL*: 942). They go on to note that "[i]t is common to insert a comma (or other punctuation) before the coordinator in conjoined clauses, but it is much less common to insert a comma before the coordinator in conjoined predicates" (*CGEL*: 948n.). That is to say, one may view such coordinate structures as in [15] as clausal coordination, i.e. two clauses, often marked off by the commas; or, on the other hand, as two conjoined predicates without the comma, demonstrating greater cohesiveness of the conjoins (ibid.).

2.7.2.2 Semantic Relation between Coordinate Clauses: Function of the Comma

The separation by a comma of one independent clause from the other that does not include a coordinator is considered non-standard, or even ungrammatical or unacceptable (see Section 2.8): *I have lived in Seattle for 16 years*, *my mother and brother moved here a year after* (Lutz & Stevenson: 2011: 295 and Crystal, 2016: 229).[17] To insert the comma between the independent clauses – two separate ideas – is not strong enough to retain the semantic independence of the thoughts (clauses). Hence, the illustrated sentence should be reformulated, either incorporating a conjunction after the comma or using a different punctuation mark, e.g. the semicolon that indicates the boundary between grammatically parallel units being of identical grammatical status and related in meaning (Lutz & Stevenson: 2011: 235, 295).

Connecting clauses without any punctuation mark (so-called '*no*-comma usage') is considered as indicating ultimate semantic tightness – the logical interrelationship between the clauses is at the highest level. It should be noted that this particularly occurs when the length of the clauses is relatively short, and their meaning is logical (Crystal, 2016: 234–235).

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[16] Ellipsis, whether in coordinate clauses or coordinate predicates, "often occurs in a second or subsequent conjoin of the construction" (*CGEL*: 950n.).

[17] There are special cases – such as *I came, I saw, I conquered* or *Man proposes, God disposes* – which are short and clear; however, the length of the components is rather relative, so is the degree of their integration (Peters, 2004: 116). Also, such constructions are characteristic of rhythmical effects or parallelism (Crystal, 2016: 232).

The reason for omitting the comma can also be explained by maintaining the continuity (the information flow) of written or spoken material (ibid.), as is the case with elliptical subjects in second conjoined clauses (cf. Dušková et al. 2012: 589 and Quirk et al. 1985: 942), as in (12), where the comma is usually absent due to the semantic tightness, manifesting "greater cohesiveness" (Quirk et al. 1985: 948n.).

2.7.2.3 Patterns in Compound Sentences

According to Lutz and Stevenson (2011: 293–297), there are patterns into which a punctuational segmentation of two independent clauses may fall:

Pattern 1: independent clause + comma + coordinator + independent clause + full stop

This is the most common type, involving inserting the comma before a coordinator: *The end of a relationship is usually stressful for anyone, but Eloise was having an especially difficult time*. The comma may be omitted if both independent clauses are short, but such omission can diminish the readability or lead to some misreading of the sentence; thus compare: *Volunteers will help man the sale and a special pre-sale for expectant and first-time mothers is set for 6–9 p.m. Friday*. The sentence may be wrongly interpreted in regarding *pre-sale* as a second (direct) object of the verb *man* rather than the subject of the second clause.[18]

Pattern 2: clause + semicolon + clause + full stop

 A very common way of punctuating a paratactic sentence is to use the semicolon between two independent clauses. The semicolon indicates that the clauses are in a close relation; however, it cannot explicitly provide the semantic nature of the interrelationship between them: *Her brother works for an animal shelter; her sister works for a mortgage company*. It is usually of an additive character.

Pattern 3: clause + semicolon + conjunct + comma + clause + full stop

Clauses may be interconnected by using a conjunct, which can be a transitional word or phrase such as *therefore*, *nevertheless*, *also*, *that is (to say)*, *in other words*, *in fact*, *after all*, *for one thing – for another*, etc. It is the semicolon (alternatively the dash) that should precede the adverb, for it is a stronger type of punctuational divider than the comma. The semicolon can separate clauses more forcibly, appropriately signalling the exact boundary between them and

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[18] The comma is rarely used when two clauses perform different functions within one sentence; for instance, the first clause is imperative (i.e. expressing a command), and the second clause is declarative (a statement): *Give it a try for a few days and you'll see what I mean* (in this case, the relation of condition; this convention is considered as AmE usage) (Lutz & Stevenson, 2011: 294).

thus dividing one message from the other. The comma following a conjunct that can vary in length clearly indicates its actual (ending) boundary. The use of the comma, instead of the semicolon, before a conjunct usually results in an erroneous sentence structure, also known as a comma splice. Cf.: *Jennifer works for a mortgage company; however, she's looking for a less stressful job. — Jennifer works for a mortgage company, however, she's looking for a less stressful job*. The comma before *however* in the latter violates the principle in that it is unclear whether the conjunct *however* belongs to the first clause or the second.

The conjunct *however* is in fact synonymous with the coordinator *but*, but they pertain to different classes of linking elements, with each having its own specific punctuation pattern (Lutz & Stevenson, 2011: 294, 296). Cf.:

<div align="center">{unit 1} ; {<i>however</i>} , {unit 2} × {unit 1} , {<i>but</i>} {unit 2}</div>

Pattern 4: clause + semicolon + coordinating conjunction + clause + full stop

If one (or more) of the clauses in a sentence already has internal punctuation of a boundary-separating function, then there might be a semicolon inserted between the clauses: *She has recently opened restaurants in Denver, Des Moines, St. Paul, and Akron; and she has been scouting sites in Toledo and Cleveland.* This use is virtually identical to that with using the comma, cf.: *She has recently opened restaurants in Denver, and she has been scouting sites in Toledo and Cleveland* (Lutz & Stevenson, 2011: 293–297).

Pattern 5: clause + colon/dash/opening parenthesis + clause (+ closing parenthesis) + full stop

A compound sentence may be internally punctuated by using the colon, dash, or parentheses. Such patterns are considered to be more specialised in use (Lutz & Stevenson, 2011: 296f.).

2.7.3 Comma in Hypotaxis

As Quirk et al. (1985: 987) describes, hypotaxis "is an asymmetrical relation: the sentence and its subordinate clauses are in a hypotactic relationship", which means that "the subordinate clause is a constituent of the sentence as a whole" (*CGEL*: 987). This hierarchically differs from parataxis in which the coordinated main clauses "provide classic instances of a paratactic relationship […], that is they have equivalent function" (ibid.). The use of the comma in hypotaxis varies more than in coordination. This can be explained by the fact that hypotaxis, i.e. a complex sentence comprises more diverse types of clauses, having various syntactic functions and semantic roles. As to be discussed in the following parts, the comma usage differs with respect to the type of a clause.

2.7.3.1 Comma in Adverbial Clauses

The greatest inconsistency in using commas occurs in adverbial clauses; hence, this issue is discussed in more detail. There is no such conventional usage of the comma as in relative clauses or nominal content clauses (cf. 2.7.3.2 and 2.7.3.3).[19] Quirk et al. (1985) point out that punctuation usage is not consistent (*CGEL*: 1072, 1076), emphasising that it is the syntactic function of an adverbial that can be the deciding factor in the usage (ibid.: 1627–1628). The comma usage thus conforms to the basic categorisation of adverbial clauses, according to which such a clause may or may not be required in the sentence structure (cf. predication and sentence adjuncts vs disjuncts below), and therefore the semantic connection between the adverbial clause and its governing clause may or may not be entirely firm.

> "Loose attachment of an adverbial to a sentence is linked to adverbial mobility: just as the least mobile are normally those with closest and most indispensable connection with the rest of the sentence, so the least mobile are those least requiring separation by commas" (*CGEL*: 1626).

FACTOR 1) POSITION

Although there may be no need to use commas when an adverbial element is in its canonical POSITION, i.e. placed at the end, a comma usually separates such units if they are in initial or medial position; all the more so because clausal structures generally represent longer strings of words than mere phrases (*CGEL*: 1626ff.):[20]

(16)   *You'll succeed if you try hard*. (ibid.: 1627)

(16')   *If you try hard*(**,**) *you'll succeed*. (ibid.)

The examples above show that the comma in adverbial clauses can vary and be optional, as in (16'). (Cf. stylistic function of the comma in the PUNCTUATION STYLE Section below.)

Lutz and Stevenson (2011: 203f.) emphasise that introductory (i.e. sentence-opening) adverbial clauses are most likely to be delimited because the comma significantly improves readability. A subordinator is a fundamental component defining the semantic character of a dependent clause, and (apart from some special cases where it is not present, e.g. inversion in conditional clauses or supplementive clauses). In fact, the boundaries of a sentence-ending adverbial clause are formally indicated, whereas those of a sentence-opening adverbial clause followed by an asyndetically-connected independent clause may be ambiguous. Therefore, clause boundaries between an introductory adverbial clause and its matrix clause should be marked by a comma.

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[19] In grammars, the terminology of nominal clauses may vary: e.g. Quirk et al. use the term 'nominal clause'; Huddleston and Pullum 'content clause'. In this thesis, their fusion term 'nominal content clause' has been used.
[20] Medially-placed loose adverbials are not frequent, barring linking adverbials (i.e. conjuncts such as *however*, *nevertheless*, *therefore*) that are always set off by delimiting commas (*CGEL*: 1626f.).

FACTOR 2) FSP [21]

According to Downing and Locke (2006), SENTENCE ORGANISATION is related to discourse and cohesion. An adverbial clause in final position usually has tight local connections to the matrix clause, being closely integrated into the semantic sentence structure and thus not linked by a comma, as illustrated in the following example:

(17) The problem arises because there is nothing in our day-to-day life to provide us with sufficient exercise. (Downing & Locke, 2006: 298, not italicised)

However, an initial adverbial clause "tends to have wider textual connections with what preceded it, often reaching back some distance. It also provides a frame for what follows, often for the whole clause or even more, as it can be not only sentence-initial but also paragraph-initial and episode-initial" (Downing & Locke, 2006: 298). In such cases, the comma is included, as in the following example where the initial adverbial clause has a framing function:

(18) Because tranquilisers simply mask symptoms rather than provide a cure, you may need to seek help to deal with the problem which caused you to need the tablets in the first place. (ibid.)

In short, in (17), the final adverbial clause occupies the end-position, as it serves as a focal element that brings new information, while the initial adverbial clause in (18) functions as a topical element that contains given information referring to the preceding discourse (ibid.).[22]

FACTOR 3) LENGTH

It is often the LENGTH of adverbial clauses that triggers the comma to delimit otherwise scarcely recognisable clause boundaries, thus causing such adverbials to be perceived as more loosely connected to the sentence than short ones. To punctuate is appropriate for clarity and comprehension so as not to mislead the reader (*CGEL*: 1627–1628):

(19) If you prefer to wake up gradually with a cup of hot coffee rather than with fifty laps in a cool pool**,** you should set aside some time for swimming before lunch or after work. (ibid.)

According to Crystal (2016: 236ff.), the comma can have a psycholinguistic function which is closely related to the factor of length: the longer the clause is, the more likely the comma will be used, as the reader needs more time to process such increasing proportion of informational content, as in (19). This use of the comma might be an example of the writer's style and

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[21] Also known as 'Functional Sentence Perspective' (FSP), 'contextual sentence organization', 'information structure', 'topic-focus structure', and so forth (cf. Firbas 1974 and 1992).
[22] Apart from the terms 'topic' and 'focus', one may encounter different terminology, such as 'theme' and 'rheme' or 'topic-comment structure', and so on (cf. Firbas 1974 and 1992).

idiosyncrasy, particular house style, or the predominance of elocutional (prosodic) characteristics of text, yet every reader has different processing abilities. Nonetheless, there are limitations on how much information can be held in working memory at a time. From a cognitive point of view, an average human speaker is able to hold 7 ± 2 meaningful units (e.g. words, phrases and multi-word expressions, etc.).[23] The formula should be taken as a guideline, and, as Miller (1956) proposes, there might be many different factors that can affect scientific observations and the participants as well. According to Crystal (2016: 236), the greatest uncertainty occurs if a clause, especially an introductory one, contains five and more semantic units. Cf. the reformulation of (19) below, with the comma having been omitted and the subscripts been used to demonstrate how many units are required to read through until the second clause is reached. Not only has the adverbial-matrix-clause arrangement influenced the comma inclusion in the original example, but also the length of the introductory clause has so:

> (19') *If$_1$ you$_2$ prefer$_3$ to wake up$_4$ gradually$_5$ with a cup$_6$ of hot$_7$ coffee$_8$ rather than$_9$ with fifty laps$_{10}$ in a cool$_{11}$ pool$_{12}$ you should set aside some time for swimming before lunch or after work.*

FACTOR 4) STRUCTURE

Nevertheless, punctuating clauses merely on the basis of their length or STRUCTURE occurs to a lesser degree than punctuating them according to their function (below). Now let us compare the following structural differences (*CGEL*: 1627):

> (20)   Though he was suffering great pain(**,**) he walked home alone. (ibid.)

> (20')   Though suffering great pain**,** he walked home alone. (ibid.)

The finite adverbial clause in (20) is indeed longer than the shorter participial one in (20'), but the comma is rather optional in (20), as a finite clause is always more straightforward than its non-finite counterpart. As stated above, length and structure are usually less important than function, but the function of these examples is identical: disjunct clause; therefore, it was the structure of the disjunct clause that gave rise to the inclusion of the comma into the sentence structure in (20').

FACTOR 5) FUNCTION

The importance of the syntactic FUNCTION of adverbial clauses is reflected in the three major classes: adjunct, disjunct, and conjunct clauses. Adjunct clauses are not to be marked off by

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[23] Cf. George A. Miller's "The Magical Number Seven, Plus or Minus Two: Some Limits on our Capacity for Processing Information", a 1956 paper exploring average limits of human short-term memory capacity. Available at <http://psychclassics.yorku.ca/Miller/> [accessed: 12 January 2019].

commas, as they are usually closely integrated into the sentence structure, whereas disjunct or conjunct clauses need be so, for these two types have a peripheral status within the sentence. According to Quirk et al. (1985), disjunct clauses in final position are punctuated more regularly than adjunct clauses, but the usage tends to vary. Such formal separation can therefore differentiate an adjunct from a disjunct clause especially when a subordinator is identical in form. An initially-placed adverbial clause is invariably punctuated, irrespective of the function or form of an adverbial (*CGEL*: 1070–1072, 1628).

(21)   He's at home**,** because I've just spoken to him. (ibid.: 1628)

(22)   He's at home because he's not feeling well. (ibid.)

Example (21) represents a disjunct clause, whereas (22) an adjunct clause. The distinction between the two is drawn by a certain degree of clause integration and the class of an adverbial, i.e. if it is circumstantial or non-circumstantial.[24] As seen in (21), the disjunct clause is peripheral to the sentence structure and thus separated by the comma; however, the adjunct clause in (22) is integrated in the structure. Also, either example expresses different semantic interlinking. The adjunct clause denotes the circumstance of the situation in the matrix clause: the clauses are connected by direct reason. The disjunct clause comments on the manner of conveying the message in the matrix clause, expressing indirect reason (*CGEL*: 1628).

In adjunct clauses, what may also play a crucial role in comma inclusion or omission is whether the adjunct is an obligatory, optional, or merely a sentence-structure modifying element. Quirk et al. (1985) classify adjuncts into two major categories: (i) PREDICATION ADJUNCTS that are further divided into obligatory and optional adjuncts. Whether obligatory or optional, predication adjuncts invariably depend on the syntactico-semantic category of a verb, i.e. they are its complementation. An obligatory adjunct clause as a post-verbal element is required for verb complementation (in the SVA and SVOA patterns), whereas an optional adjunct is not always so (*CGEL*: 505ff. and 1074f.). Cf. an obligatory and optional adjunct clause, respectively (*CGEL*: 1074f.):

(23)   Your coat is where you left it. (ibid.: 1074)

(24)   They moved where the climate was milder. (ibid.)

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[24] Circumstantial adverbials are adjuncts, and non-circumstantial adverbials are disjuncts, or stance adverbials, and conjuncts, or linking adverbials (Biber et al., 2002: 355).

The other category of adjunct clauses is (ii) SENTENCE ADJUNCTS that only modify the sentence structure as a whole; therefore, they are not dependent on the predication, being more mobile than predication adjuncts. Cf. a predication and sentence adjunct, respectively (*CGEL*: 1074f.):

(25)   My grandparents lived before television was invented. (ibid.: 1074)

(26)   Before I could sit down, she offered me a cup of tea. (ibid.: 1075)

Unlike predication adjuncts that are typically placed finally, sentence adjunct clauses may appear in initial, final, and occasionally medial position, appropriately separated from the matrix clause (*CGEL*: 1074f.).[25]

Quirk et al. (1985: 1076f.) illustrate how an adverbial clause may be restrictive or non-restrictive. However, to some extent, this distinction overlaps with the above in that all disjunct and conjunct clauses with their peripheral status are non-restrictive. By contrast, all obligatory adjuncts are predication adjuncts and thus invariably restrictive, as they "complete the description of the situation in the matrix clause" (*CGEL*: 1076). Sentence adjunct clauses serve as modifiers of the whole sentence and thus are non-restrictive. That is, it is always the semantic difference between restrictive and non-restrictive adverbial clauses that plays a crucial role by conveying either essential or supplementary information, and the use of the comma helps the reader to differentiate between them (Lutz & Stevenson: 2011: 225). Cf. (*CGEL*: 1077):

(27)   Raven didn't leave the party early because Carol was there.

(28)   Raven didn't leave the party early**,** because Carol was there.

Non-punctuated example (27) indicates the restrictiveness of the predication adjunct *because*-clause, meaning that 'Raven did leave the party early, but not because of Carol's presence: more likely for some other reason'. On the other hand, the delimited adjunct clause in (28) is non-restrictive and interpreted as 'Raven did not leave the party early at all, and the reason why he stayed was Carol's presence'. As a matter of fact, the comma also signals its movability, cf.: *Because Carol was there, Raven didn't leave the party early* (*CGEL*: 1077).

At this level, the comma is rather of grammatical function, although not excluding the semantic. As Meyer (1987) stated, the function of the comma is not "simply syntactic, prosodic, or semantic. It involves the complex interaction of all of these factors" (as cited in Roth, Christodoulopoulos, and Arivazhagan, 2016: 2887).

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[25] In some cases, predication adjuncts can be fronted; if so, they are not marked off by commas for their strong integration into the sentence structure, cf. *To the very top of the mountain**,** they climbed (*CGEL*: 1627n.). Their fronting exceptionally occurs for rhetorical purposes (*CGEL*: 1074).

A special type of a disjunct clause is a comment clause; that is, a parenthetical disjunct that has a clausal structure and is syntactically unintegrated, hence delimited by commas. A comment clause comments on the clause to which it is linked (*CGEL*: 1112ff.).

(29)   There were no other applicants, I believe, for that job. (ibid.: 1112)

(30)   I'm working the night shift, as you know. (ibid.)

The adverbial conjunct clauses are as peripheral as disjuncts are. Clausal conjuncts are stereotyped and rather rare: *What is more, … / What interests me more, … / What is most worrying, … /* and so forth. They should be punctuated. (*CGEL*: 1069).

FACTOR 6) STYLE

Huddleston and Pullum (2002: 1727) illustrate the distinction between a light and a heavy PUNCTUATION STYLE as another factor that may influence using commas. It is related to optional and stylistically free punctuation use. McArthur (1992: 824) explains that this variation has been brought about by the historical development of English (i.e. the distinction between the prescriptive and the descriptive approach in the language). "In the 18–19c, people tended to punctuate heavily, especially in their use of commas. Currently, punctuation is more sparing, but individuals and house styles vary in what they consider necessary; the same writer may punctuate more heavily or lightly for some purposes than for others" (ibid.). Just as in coordination a punctuation style may mirror prosody (rather than grammar), so in subordination it may be applied for this purpose. Cf. light and heavy punctuation (*CamGEL*: 1727, 1745n.):

(31)   On Sundays they like to have a picnic lunch in the park if it's fine. (light)
        (*CamGEL*: 1727, not italicised)

(32)   On Sundays**,** they like to have a picnic lunch in the park**,** if it's fine. (heavy)
        (ibid.)

2.7.3.2 Comma in Relative Clauses

The comma is also used in relative clauses, though its usage varies according to their types. There are two types of (postmodifying) relative clauses: restrictive and non-restrictive. Restrictive clauses provide information essential for the identification of the antecedent upon which the clause depends. Non-restrictive clauses provide additional information. It is the non-

restrictive clause type that requires separation, i.e. usually a pause when spoken or a comma when written, signalling a unit boundary (*CGEL*: 1239ff., 1257):[26]

> (33)   This excellent book, which has only just been reviewed, was published a year ago. (*CGEL*: 1257)

> (34)   Then he met Mary, who invited him to a party. (ibid.: 1258)

2.7.3.3 Comma in Nominal Clauses

Nominal content clauses cover a broad spectrum of sentence types as well as syntactic functions. As for the most prototypical nominal clauses, i.e. *that*-clauses (dependent declarative), they can function as a subject, subject complement, direct object, and postmodifier; the more so because the English sentence structure has fixed word order. The English finite verb (or VP) cannot be separated from its complementation; that is, the basic clause elements – irrespective of their form (e.g. a single word, phrase, or subordinate clause) – should not be formally divided from each other, as they conventionally occupy their appropriate position within the particular clause pattern (Hais, 1957: 254n.).

According to Quirk et al. (1985), only under exceptional circumstances is the comma inserted between the subject and verb (see below). The separation between the verb and object is also atypical. On the other hand, the comma placed between a noun phrase (subject NP, object NP) and its clausal modification, i.e. a nominal clause in the function of a postmodifier, is permissible when the postmodification is non-restrictive (see appositive clauses below).

The verbs in nominal clauses are of cognition, perception, or reporting such as: *believe*, *feel*, *know*, *imagine*, *realize*, *recognize*, *mention*, *suppose*, *add*, *ask*, *claim*, *declare*, *insist*, *note*, *promise*, *recall*, *say*, *state*, *tell*, *think*, *wonder*, *write*, and so on (*CGEL*: 1024f.).

Huddleston and Pullum et al. (2002: 1743) point out that nominal *that*-clauses can also be found in indirect reported speech. Unlike direct speech within which the complement of a reporting verb is necessarily separated either by the comma or the colon, indirect speech structurally differs (*CamGEL*: 1743, not italicised):[27]

> (35)   He added**,** 'Some missiles missed their targets, resulting in collateral damage.'

> (36)   *He added**,** that some missiles had missed their target.

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[26] Not always is the distinction between restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses clear-cut, e.g.: *The temperatures in hydrogen clouds vary considerably but the man value is about –175°C <u>which represents the equilibrium temperature between the heat gained on</u>* … (*CamGEL*: 1745n.).

[27] The complement in reported speech can be in the function of a direct object, an extraposed subject, or a subject complement (respectively): *Neighbours said <u>that as a teenager he had earned his money by delivering newspapers</u>*; *It was said <u>that as a teenager</u> …*; *What neighbours said was <u>that as a teenager he had</u> …* (*CGEL*: 1025).

Generally, punctuation in indirect speech structures, as in (36), must not separate a verb from its complementation (*CamGEL*: 1743f.).[28] There are, of course, exceptions for clarity's sake, cf.: *It is clear to anyone who truly believes, that the power of faith is unabated even in this age* (*CamGEL*: 1744n.). As a rule, the boundary between a VP and an extraposed subject is never punctuated, but this principle may not be followed, as in the given example, when the comma helps the nominal *that*-clause to be construed correctly: as the extraposed (notional) subject, not the complementation of the verb *believe* (ibid.).

In nominal content clauses that function as a postmodifier, the comma should occur in appositive clauses, provided that they are loosely attached to its head-NP, i.e. antecedent (*CGEL*: 1049, 1051, 1260):

(37) Your criticism, that no account has been taken of psychological factors, is fully justified. (ibid.: 1049)

(38) Your original question, why he did not report it to the police earlier, has not yet been answered. (ibid.: 1051)

Both dependent clauses are appositive; the only difference is in the sentence type: dependent declarative *that*-clause in (37) vs dependent interrogative *why*-clause in (38).

2.7.3.4 Patterns in Complex Sentences

Unlike parataxis, a complex sentence deals with a much wider taxonomy of (subordinate) clause types and is classified into different classes, namely adverbial, relative, and nominal clauses, with each having its own subclasses (based on Lutz & Stevenson, 2011: 297ff. and *CGEL*: 1118, 1049).

(i)   Adverbial clauses (ADV):

Pattern 1: ADV clause + comma + independent clause + full stop

This is the most common type when considering comma inclusion: if an adverbial clause opens the sentence, and an independent clause follows, it is to be punctuated, clearly delineating the clause boundaries. If the sentence organisation (see above) is to be taken into account, and an adverbial clause is supposed to function as the thematic component (topic) of the sentence, it is placed initially. Furthermore, the sentence structure requires a clausal boundary indication – the comma – especially when there is no other formal indicator (e.g. a conjunction) that would mark a clause boundary. This type of comma serves as a segmentation marker, with purely

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[28] However, compare the so-called 'embedded reported speech' with the 'non-embedded': *She said that she lived alone* (embedded) × *She lived alone, she said* (non-embedded) (*CamGEL*: 1024).

grammatical qualities (cf. Pattern 3). *After we hired him, he enrolled in some evening courses at the community college*.

Pattern 2: independent clause + comma + non-restrictive ADV clause + full stop

The comma is inserted between an independent and adverbial clause especially when the latter is non-restrictive or functions as a disjunct or is quite long. *We didn't hire him, because he lacked the appropriate educational credentials.*

Pattern 3: independent clause + restrictive ADV clause + full stop

Provided that dependent clauses are restrictive, essential to the meaning, the comma is absent. They receive focal placement at the end, which is also their standard position within the particular clause pattern. The omission of the comma is necessary, signalling that both clauses are closely interconnected and that the dependent one is hardly moveable and detachable from its final position. *We won't hire him unless he agrees to further his education*.

Pattern 4: first half of independent clause + comma + non-restrictive ADV clause + second half of independent clause + full stop

An adverbial clause may be embedded in the independent, dividing it into two halves: *He performed well during the interview and, if his luck holds out, will be offered the job*. Such an adverbial clause must be non-restrictive (cf. comment clauses).

(ii) Relative clauses (REL):

In adjectival relative clauses, there are four patterns, with two including a comma (non-restrictive) and two omitting it (restrictive). A relative clause may be embedded in the independent or be postposed after it (Lutz & Stevenson, 2011: 298).

Pattern 1: independent clause (half) + comma + non-restrictive REL clause + comma + independent clause (half) + full stop

When a non-restrictive relative clause is inserted into two parts of an independent clause, it should be delimited by commas: *Her best friend, who works for a major airline, is being transferred to Los Angeles*.

Pattern 2: independent clause + comma + non-restrictive REL clause + full stop

There should be a comma indicating another unit boundary: *She's going to miss her best friend, who is moving to Los Angeles*. Also, this pattern includes sentential relative clauses; that is, the

antecedent to which they refer can be the predicate, a whole clause or sentence, or a group of sentences, cf.: *Things then improved, which surprises me* (*CGEL*: 1118).[29]

<u>Pattern 3: independent CL (half) + restrictive REL clause + independent CL (half) + full stop</u>

There must not be commas in constructions where a restrictive relative clause is wedged between two parts of one independent clause. The information in the relative clause is crucial to the meaning of the sentence and otherwise not derivable: *Her best friend who works for a major airline is being transferred to Los Angeles*. Let us compare this sentence with that in Pattern 1: both are very similar in structure barring the inclusion or omission of the commas (in Pattern 1 the relative clause only modifies and informationally enriches the antecedent, while in Pattern 3 it defines which 'best friend of hers is being transferred to Los Angeles').

<u>Pattern 4: independent clause + restrictive REL clause + full stop</u>

A relative clause defines its antecedent, postposed after an independent clause: *She is going to miss her friend who is moving to Los Angeles* (Lutz & Stevenson, 2011: 297ff.).

(iii)   Nominal content clauses (NOM):

As discussed above, hardly ever are nominal content clauses punctuated, since they function as a subject, an object, or a subject complement, i.e. the fundamental constituents of the sentence structure. As a rule, if such elements are in their standard pattern position, there is no-comma use. But an exception is made for postmodifying, appositive clauses that are not vital to the meaning of a sentence: *Your criticism, that no account has been taken of psychological factors, is fully justified* (*CGEL*: 1049).

2.8   Erroneous Comma: Structural, Syntactic, and Hierarchical Incorrectness

The most common sentence-structure errors when applying or not applying the comma are a comma-splice error and a fused-sentence error. These two types fall into the category of comma faults called a run-on sentence. Run-on sentences are with questionable punctuation or non-punctuation use: such a sentence consists of two (or more) clauses that run together (Allyn, 2012: 154, 157).

(a) A `comma splice` is commonly treated as a grammatical error because it merges two grammatically independent clauses together by asyndesis, but they are delimited only with

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[29] Sentential relative clauses are semantically related to comment clauses (content disjuncts) in that both types are peripheral to the sentence structure, cf.: … *which surprises me* (relative clause) × … *what surprises me* (comment clause). The difference lies in mobility: relative clauses are hardly moveable, but comment clauses can occur initially, finally, or medially (*CGEL*: 1118ff.).

the comma(s) that should be substituted with a semicolon or full stop, an appropriate conjunction, or, alternatively, a combination of the comma and a conjunction (Macpherson, 1997: 136; Peters, 2004: 116). This is illustrated in the following example:

(39)   These are all new kinds of international problem not envisaged by the founders of [*recte* the] United Nations**,** its terms of reference are not well suited for intervening in civil wars. (Peters, 2004: 116, not italicised)

The relationship between the clauses is rather unclear. However, the degree of incorrectness is relative to the length of a clause as well as the degree of its semantic integration (ibid.).[15] Prescriptively speaking, it is considered a serious sentence-structure error (Lutz & Stevenson, 2011: 295).

(b) A f u s e d   s e n t e n c e is the second structural fault in this group. It is identifiable by non-punctuation use between two independent clauses and thus fails to form the appropriate clause boundaries. In fact, a fused-sentence error is less common. Cf.: *Her brother works for an animal shelter her sister works for a mortgage company* (Lutz & Stevenson, 2011: 296).

Unlike fused sentences that are widely regarded as unacceptable, a comma splice is permissible on condition that the independent clauses punctuated by the comma are short and in a close semantic relationship; the structure must not cause any misinterpretation; and the register of the text is rather informal (Garner, 2009: 723–724).

Another type of an error in comma usage is syntactic, but it is rather rare: the separation between the obligatory clause elements that constitute the basic clause patterns is not allowed, as exemplified by the following incorrect use of the comma (*CGEL*: 1619f.):

(40)   *I know**,** that you are tired.   (clausal object separation)
(41)   *He may**,** go there.   (modal and content verb separation)
(42)   *The man in the corner is**,** drunk.   (C_S separation)

However, there is an exception on the basis of which the rule allows the comma to be applied in certain constructions: to prevent misreading (comma in semantic use), cf.: *Most of those who can, work at home*. The comma is necessary, as the verb *work* might be initially mistaken for the content part (head) of the VP *can work* (*CamGEL*: 1730).

3 MATERIAL AND METHOD

3.1 Material

The sources of data for this thesis were academic articles from linguistic journals that were available as 'open access' articles on the website of *ScienceDirect*,[30] operated by the publisher *Elsevier*, which specialises in scientific content. The articles chosen for the analysis were written by native speakers of English so as to discover how the comma is used among speakers whose first language is English and who have experience in academic writing. Due to the fact that descriptive grammar generally prevails in Modern English and that the comma usage is not completely stable, it was assumed that the usage would vary in linguistic articles too. Since joint authorship was not taken into account in order to achieve the greatest possible unity of the usage, each article was written by one author. Ten different writers were requested via email to confirm that the English language is their first language.[31]

Having gathered all the confirmation replies from the writers as well as the articles in PDF files,[32] I had to exclude the textual material that was not designated to be analysed, namely the article title, writer's name, speech transcripts, and any non-sentential material, such as graphics and tables with text, captions, references. Footnotes and acknowledgements were included on condition that they were written by the writer of the respective article.

The analysis in the following chapter was based on a sample of 200 sentences excerpted from fifteen different articles. Specifically, the sample comprised ten compound sentences (parataxis) and ten complex sentences (hypotaxis) per writer, i.e. twenty sentences from ten different writers. Following Quirk et al. (1985: 1616f.) and their analysis of the comma use, the relevant sentences in our sample were b i n a r y ,[33] i.e. two-clause sentences, in order to collect data and to obtain results as consistent as possible. In fact, three- or multi-clause sentences would considerably differ in the types and the number of clauses in a sentence. Moreover, from the semantic point of view, adversative coordination (i.e. *but*-clauses) should join only two coordinate clauses at the same level together, presenting a semantic contrast between them, as opposed to copulative and disjunctive coordination in which the coordinators *and* and *or* may link more than two clauses, thus constituting multiple coordination (*CGEL*: 925). Furthermore, I decided to focus on declarative sentences that would not consist of any clausal, sentential, or paragraph quotations (such as block quotations), whose author is different from that of the

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[30] Available at https://www.sciencedirect.com/ [last accessed 4 January 2019].
[31] See Appendix 2.
[32] See References and Sources.
[33] Cf. Huddleston and Pullum (2002) and the use of the term 'binary', as in 'binary coordination'.

respective article. However, subclausal quotations on the level of phrases and words were allowed, for such a sentence as a whole was written by the author of the article designated for the analysis. Cf. the acceptable quotations *"lingo"*, *"ghetto accent"*, *"Black English"* in [1]:

> [1] They call it a "lingo" and a "ghetto accent"**, while** the researcher, similar to the fieldworker in Preston's data (1994: 286), calls it "Black English". (RB:H#6)[34]

Also, non-finite clauses, especially in the function of an adverbial, were not under examination, for, as Quirk et al. (1985: 1627) point out, they are more straightforward and stable when using commas – being obligatorily or very commonly punctuated – than finite clauses (see also Section 2.7.3.1, Factor (4) Structure in Chapter 2). The last criterion was that the analysed complex sentences would only include those with adverbial clauses inasmuch as the use of the comma is generally expected to vary in adverbial clauses much more than in relative clauses (see Section 2.7.3.2), let alone in nominal content clauses (2.7.3.3). In compound sentences, both syndetic coordination and asyndetic coordination were included.

Let us exemplify a relevant instance, with all the criteria having been met:

> [2] The characterisation of Barnsley dialect as broad by Yorkshire speakers illustrates a similarly negative evaluation**, and** also indexes the social values of 'old fashioned' and 'unintelligible', discussed further below. (PC:P#10)

3.2   Method

The research on the use of the comma within binary coordination and subordination was conducted both quantitively and qualitatively. The quantitative analysis simply indicated in what frequency the comma was or was not used in the binary constructions. The qualitative analysis was carried out by classifying each of the sentences in terms of their syntactic and semantic categorisation: their types (subordination, coordination) and subclasses (e.g. adversative coordination), and, in the case of subordinate adverbial clauses, the semantic role of the adverbial, including its function (i.e. adjunct vs. disjunct).

In coordination, it was necessary to differentiate between c l a u s e   c o o r d i n a t i o n   and c o o r d i n a t i o n   o f   c l a u s e   c o n s t i t u e n t s : the predicates, to be precise. Coordinate elements, or conjoins, with both subjects expressed can be clearly defined as clause coordination, cf.:

> [3] The left dislocated NP has been bolded**, and** all previous NPs or pronouns referring to the same entity as the left dislocated NP are italicized. (EM:P#5)

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[34] The sentence-ending coding in the brackets represents the initials of the author ("RB" = Rebecca Babcock), the sentence type ("H" = hypotaxis), and the order of the instance in the sample ("#6" = sixth instance in hypotactic sentence). The text highlighting (the comma, if present, and a conjunction in each instance are in bold) is made for clarity's sake.

In fact, both subjects in [3] needed to be present, as they differ in reference. Such cases were, without doubt, considered as clausal coordination. However, there were also cases in which the subject of the second conjoin was absent. Under certain conditions, the subject of one conjoin may remain unexpressed, i.e. in ellipsis, cf.:

> [4] Speakers are consciously aware of these features **and** can use them for social work such as style shifting. (PC:P#3)

Ex. [4] may be viewed either as coordination of two clauses, with the subject of the second conjoin being ellipted, or as coordination of predicates, with the subject in the initial conjoin being shared in the second conjoin. The distinction between clause coordination and simple coordination of clause constituents (predicates) has been dealt with in Section 2.7.2.1 in the preceding chapter. Having concluded the discussion therein with Quirk et al.'s twofold approach (1985: 942), I decided to treat such structures as in [4] as an elliptical version of clause coordination.

Following Quirk et al. (1985: 948), the structure in [4] can be parsed as follows: $S - [V_{cop} - C_s]$ *and* $[V - O_d - A]$. Given that both conjoins differ in the valency, they may be consequently regarded as clausal conjoins, and the subject in the second conjoin as elliptical, being coreferential with the subject of the first conjoin (clause). However, instances in which conjoins (predicates) shared not only the subject but also a postverbal element (such as an object) were excluded from the analysis:

> [5] As a researcher, I cajoled **and** browbeat my subjects in an effort to elicit specific features.[35]

On the other hand, instances that did not share the same object were included into the sample, having been classified as clause coordination:

> [6] However, the theme of the final clause, *Does Mr Birt*, changes the direction of the progression **and** begins a more direct attack on the BBC. (TH:P#8)

Although the structures of either clause do syntactically correspond to each other: $S - [V - O]$ *and* $[V - O]$, the example was found relevant, since both predicates (*changes*; *begins*) modify the description of the subject by providing it with two different semantic actions.

In the analysed compound sentences, the conjoined clauses were categorised according to the type of the syntactic linkage: syndetic and asyndetic, the type of coordination: e.g.

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[35] Babcock, R. D. (2015). 'Rhetorical argument, folk linguistics, and content-oriented discourse analysis: A follow-up study' [CD]. *Ampersand*, *2*, pp. 61–69. doi.org/10.1016/j.amper.2015.04.001. (There is no sentence-ending coding, as this instance has not been used in the sample.)

copulative coordination, the inclusion or exclusion of the comma, and the contributing factor(s) that may have resulted in the presence or absence of the comma.[36] (The factors for coordinate clauses are enumerated in Chapter 2, Section 2.7.2.) Let us exemplify:

> [7] For both groups, English as well as native names are frequently used in a variety of contexts to address, summon, or refer to particular individuals**, and** personal names are widely known by members of local communities. (PM:P#10)

Ex. [7] represents syndetic copulative coordination; comma inclusion; factors responsible for the comma use: length, presence of the subject in the second clause, close semantic relation (tightness), overt coordinator.

Analysing the complex sentences was performed in adverbial clauses which were necessary to be further categorised according to their syntactic function (i.e. the adjunct clauses differentiated from the disjuncts) because this specification may have precisely been the contributing or even deciding factor in the inclusion/exclusion of the comma (see Chapter 2, Section 2.7.3.1, Factor 5). The type of the linkage was mainly syndetic – apart from three asyndetic exceptions (viz. conditional clause with inversion in [8], comment clause in [9], and conditional-concessive clause in [10]) – hence, it was not studied to a larger extent.

> [8] Were the sentence in canonical form**,** the left dislocated material would have been in subject position: my sister Chrissie's eyes were poppin' out. (EM:H#6)
>
> [9] Those with high frequencies are reduced more frequently**,** it appears**,** and without full forms to help the interpretation of the reduction. (JW:H#10)
>
> [10] However stereotypical these forms may be (see Lippi-Green, 2012 for a discussion of *aks* and others)**,** the race of the participants did not seem to affect or influence their ability or inability to provide specific features. (RB:H#7)

As stated above, the type of the complex sentence had been predetermined, inquiring into adverbial clauses. The semantic roles of the adverbials were identified as well. Just as in the compound sentences, the inclusion/exclusion of the comma was examined in terms of the respective factors (see Chapter 2, Section 2.7.3.1).[37]

> [11] Under the criteria-list approach, a linguistic variable is said to be salient if it meets a list of criteria. (BM:H#1)

The adverbial *if*-clause in [11] is an adjunct clause expressing a direct condition, so that it is integrated into the sentence structure without the comma, which is also closely connected with its restrictive status, and so is with the semantic tightness (cf. *a linguistic variable* in the first

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[36] Factor (v) Serial comma was not taken into account, as it is not of use for binary coordination of two conjoins.
[37] Factor (4) Structure is not taken into account, as all the clauses were finite.

conjoin = *it* in the second conjoin). The other factors that might have affected the *no*-comma use are the canonical final position of the adjunct and the shortness of both clauses.

4 RESEARCH PART

This chapter describes in detail the frequency of the presence and absence of the clausal comma in both compound and complex sentences. Also, the respective parts inquire into the factors that were considered responsible for including or omitting the comma. The compound sentences were subdivided into groups according to the type of the relationship between the coordinate clauses (conjoins). For analysing the comma in complex sentences, only adverbial clauses were excepted. Following the classification system of adverbial clauses developed by Quirk et al. (1985) – for it is clear and elaborate in terms of the description of syntactic and semantic functions – I further categorised the clauses according to their semantic roles and syntactic functions. Table 1 gives an overview of the nature of our sample: out of the subtotal of 100 compound sentences, copulative coordination constituted the majority (66%). As to be discussed, copulative coordination varied in comma punctuation most of all coordinate clauses. As expected, the comma in adverbial clauses – which formed the other half of 100 instances – varied in proportion to quantity of the various types of the clauses.

COMPOUND SENTENCES					
type of coordination	comma	*no*-comma	other punct.[38]	Σ	%
syndetic / copulative	43	23	–	66	66
syndetic / adversative	22	2	–	24	24
syndetic / disjunctive	1	–	1	2	2
asyndetic	2	–	6	8	8
TOTAL	68	25	7	100	100
COMPLEX SENTENCES: ADVERBIAL CLAUSES					
type of adverbial clause	comma	*no*-comma	other punct.	Σ	%
time	4	7	–	11	11
place	2	0	–	2	2
condition	7	6	–	13	13
concession	32	1	–	33	33
conditional-concessive	1	0	–	1	1
reason	10	9	–	19	19
result	1	3	–	4	4
similarity & proportion	13	2	–	15	15
comment	1	0	–	1	1
viewpoint	0	1	–	1	1
TOTAL	71	29	0	100	100

Table 1. Total frequency of the comma in binary coordination and subordination

4.1 Hypotheses

This section formulates the hypotheses that were suggested in Sections 2.7.2 (see also Figures 3 and 4) and 2.7.3.1, albeit only indirectly. The first two hypotheses concern the comma in coordinate clauses, whereas the last concerns adverbial clauses.

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[38] See Section 4.1.4

It is hypothesised that the comma in copulative sentences varies. According to the analysis of *and*-clauses by Quirk et al. (1985: 1616–1617), punctuation practice in copulative coordination is considered rather inconsistent. Furthermore, some writers may regard the coordinate structures in which the subject of the second clause is absent as coordination of predicates rather than clausal coordination (cf. 2.7.2.1), and thus there is no comma. Also, the interplay of other factors (e.g. writers' style or relative length) can contribute to the usage.

It is hypothesised that the comma in adversative sentences is included and consistent in usage. Quirk et al. (1985: 1616) argue that "there is a greater tendency to use a punctuation mark, particularly the comma" in sentences with *but* or *and yet*. As discussed in Section 2.7.2 and illustrated in Figure 3, the main factor is the meaning itself; in fact, the clauses expressing a contrast can inherently motivate the writer to include the comma.

It is hypothesised that the comma in complex sentences with adverbial clauses largely depends upon more contributing factors (cf. 2.7.3.1). The important factor is the syntactic function of adverbial clauses (*CGEL*: 1628); therefore, it is assumed that most clauses include or omit the comma accordingly. As discussed in Chapter 2, adjunct clauses are integrated into the structure; hence, the comma is not expected. By contrast, peripheral disjunct clauses should be separated. As Quirk et al. (1985) elaborate, in final position, disjuncts "tend more commonly than adjunct clauses to be separated from their matrix clauses […]. In initial position, all adverbial clauses, regardless of form or function, are separated" (*CGEL*: 1072). Clear-cut though it may seem, punctuation usage is expected to vary. Quirk et al. (1985) also point out that an initial adverbial clause is always non-restrictive and may not be separated by the comma: "punctuation is a redundant signal when the nonrestrictive clause is preposed" (*CGEL*: 1076). Yet, it is hypothesised that initial adverbials commonly need to be separated (*CGEL*: 1626), particularly for clarity's sake, since the preposing of the clause can obscure the clause boundaries – having its subordinator already displayed at the beginning – and therefore the comma serves as a reliable indicator of the boundaries. From the point of view of semantics, it is the transition from one meaning to the other that is thus indicated. This semantic aspect is stressed by Lutz & Stevenson (2011: 203f.) who state that the omission of the comma can distract the reader. If these conventions are overridden, there must be the rationale behind such discrepancies, which this chapter also attempts to provide (see Section 4.4).

4.2   Comma in Parataxis

The first point under study involved conjoined clauses in binary coordination, i.e. syndetic as well as asyndetic coordination. As stated above, copulative coordination (i.e. *and*-clauses in

particular) was the most frequent type of coordination (66 instances out of the total of 100 compound sentences, i.e. 66%). Adversative coordination (i.e. *but*-clauses) formed the second-largest group within coordination (24 instances, 24%). The third subgroup was constituted by asyndetic coordination (8 instances, 8%), and the last group represented disjunctive coordination (i.e. *or*-clauses), which had the lowest frequencies of occurrence (only 2 instances, i.e. 2%). As for the presence of the comma, the highest percentage of the occurrence of the comma, and thus the most consistent use, within the respective subgroup was found in the *but*-clauses: 91.67%, regardless of the presence or absence of the subject of the second clause. On the other hand, the lowest percentage of the comma use in the respective group was calculated in asyndetic coordination: 25% (only 2 instances). Regarding the *no*-comma use in coordination, the highest percentage of the absence of the comma in paratactic sentences was logically found in asyndetic coordination (75%) being largely comprised of the semicolon, colon, and dash. By contrast, the lowest percentage of the *no*-comma use was found in adversative coordination: 8.33%. Table 2 below displays all the figures.

Type	Frequency of Comma			Percentage (in subtype)		
	Σ–comma	Σ–*no*-comma	other punctuation	%–comma	%–*no*-comma	other punctuation
copulative	43	23	–	65.15	34.85	–
adversative	22	2	–	91.67	8.33	–
disjunctive	1	–	1	50	–	50
asyndetic	2	–	6	25	–	75

Table 2. Frequency of the comma in binary coordination

4.2.1 Comma in copulative coordination

The points to be discussed were investigated in a subtotal of 100 compound sentences, out of which 66 instances (66%) constituted coordinate clauses mainly introduced by the coordinator *and*,[39] thus having become the most frequent type of coordination. As for the inclusion or omission of the comma, this subtype varied most of all the subtypes of syndetic coordination (i.e. copulative, adversative, disjunctive). There were 43 copulative sentences that applied the comma, thus accounting for 65.15% within this subgroup and 43% of the total of 100 compound

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[39] Only marginally were there found the other copulative coordinators, namely *nor* – the negative counterpart of *and* – as in *In my data gathering I did not ask about AAE nor was that my focus* (RB:P#6). There was also found cases with the conjunct *so* introducing the second conjoin, as in *I have broken down the lines so these items appear in the beginning of a line* (RB:P#8). Such cases were treated as quasi-syndetic copulative coordination, having the coordinator *and* unexpressed. As Quirk et al. (1985: 1109) point out, such structures may be also regarded as adverbial clauses of result. "When *that* is omitted in the result clause, the conjunction *so* is indistinguishable from the conjunct *so* in asyndetic coordination. If *and* is inserted, *so* is unambiguously the conjunct" (ibid.). Huddleston and Pullum (2002) classify it as 'quasi-syndetic' (see also Note 7 in Chapter 2). From a semantic point of view, one of the categorisations employed by Dušková et al. (2012: 590) is to view the connection of '(*and*) *so*' as a blend of copulative meaning and consequence.

sentences. On the other hand, 23 instances did not apply the comma at all, i.e. 34.85% of the copulative coordination subgroup and 23% of the total of all compound sentences.

Another part of the analysis in each type of compound sentence consisted in demonstrating how frequently the subject of the second conjoin was present or absent. As illustrated in Figure 6 below, the copulative sentences having the subject in the second conjoined clause present (marked by 'S +') slightly prevailed compared to those having it absent (marked by 'S –'): **37** instances with the second subject expressed to 29 instances with the second subject in ellipsis. As for the comma use, the inclusion of the comma predominated in the sentences with the second subject expressed; by contrast, the omission of the comma prevailed in elliptical second conjoins.
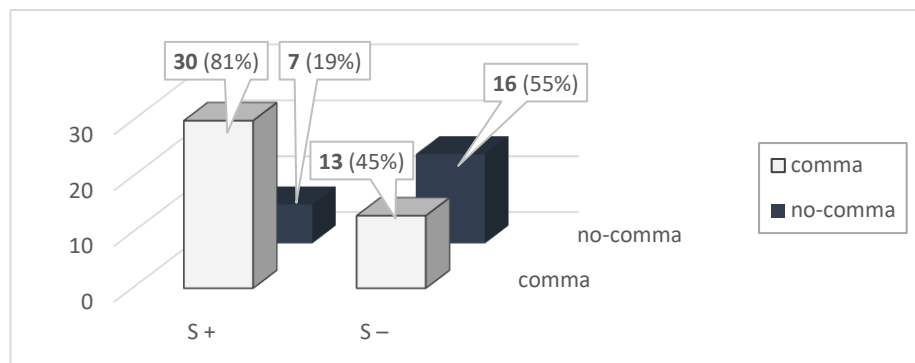
Figure 6. Comma in copulative coordination according to presence or absence of subject in second clause

This suggests that comma separation was required more in the instances where the subject of the second (i.e. non-initial) conjoin was expressed in the sentence, whereas comma omission proved to be more customary in the sentences in which the second subject was ellipted. Overall, comma inclusion averaged 63% and comma omission 37%, irrespective of the presence/absence of the subject in the second conjoin.

Not only the presence or the absence of the subject in the non-initial conjoin were the contributing factors involved in comma inclusion/omission. Another very common factor in the inclusion of the comma in copulative coordination was length. Let us compare a long example with the comma and a relatively short one without the comma, respectively:

[1] The repertoire of Yorkshire dialect set out in Table 1 indexed Yorkshire generally for the speakers surveyed in Cooper (2013) as opposed to any specific area within the county**, and** displayed links to social values at both the second and third orders of indexicality. (PC:P#5)

[2] The first approach to be reviewed is *the criteria-list approach* **and** the second *the experimental approach*. (BM:P#9)

The sentence in ex. [1] is punctuated by the comma despite the fact that the subject of the second conjoin is ellipted from the construction, but the conjoins – especially the initial – are lengthy. By contrast, ex. [2] is without the comma despite having the second subject expressed; this has been done so because both conjoins are short and parallel. In addition to ex. [2], the predicate in the second conjoin is 'gapped', i.e. ellipted from the second conjoin, which also signifies that both clauses are in a close semantic relationship. Gapping coordination is a type of ellipsis that "operates forwards only and the elided material must have a linguistic antecedent" (Osborne, 2019: 362). This means that it is only feasible in the non-initial conjoins (i.e. the second conjoins in binary coordination). Additionally, the material that remains overt (the so-called 'remnant(s)') needs to express new information, which is precisely the case in [2].

The most frequent factors in comma omission were mostly semantic tightness (i.e. the clauses were in a close semantic relationship) and prosody. Semantic tightness largely resulted from the fact that the comma was absent, whether the second subject was ellipted or not, since the presence of the subject did not decrease the degree of the tightness between the particular conjoins. Let us compare the example having the second subject expressed with that having an elliptical and therefore shared subject, respectively:

[3] In my data gathering I did not ask about AAE **nor** was that my focus. (RB:P#6)

[4] My participants acknowledged its existence **and** linked it to education, with an interesting and complicated argument. (RB:P#4)

In both [3] and [4], each conjoin is semantically very close to one another, interlinking the meaning (e.g. in [3], the thematic and context-dependent personal pronoun *I* in the first conjoin refers to the possessive *my* [*focus*] in the second conjoin, and the subject *that* in the second conjoin refers back to the whole predication of the first conjoin). Also, there is no need for the clausal comma to be included because [3] and [4] are short.

The factor of prosody occurred to a lesser extent. The comma in this use served to signal the prosodic character of the sentence. Quirk et al. (1985) conducted similar research on the comma use and discovered that in many copulative sentences in which "despite coordination with *and* and despite subject ellipsis, a comma is nevertheless preferred. In such cases, it is probable that the generalization that punctuation conforms to grammatical rather than rhetorical considerations is in fact overridden" (*CGEL*: 1617). Also, such use of the comma can occur when the writer considers the meaning in the second conjoin as "afterthought", or when the comma has a "reinforcing function" (Crystal, 2016: 235). Moreover, this rhythmisation of the written sentences paralleled the factor of a heavy punctuation style, cf. both commas in [5]:

[5] In (4), the bolded material *my sister Chrissie* has not yet been mentioned in the discourse string**, and** is therefore discourse-new. (EM:P#1)

There were only 8 instances (12% in copulative coordination and 8% of the total of compound sentences) that produced the use of the prosodic and the stylistic comma. (Two out of these eight instances also fell into the subgroup of the length factor.)

Only marginally was there found another factor that contributed to the use of the comma. This small group was constituted by non-restrictive apposition and non-finite phrases. For instance, cf. an appositive prepositional phrase:

[6] Auer et al. (1998) review criteria-list definitions of salience proposed in the sociolinguistic literature by other authors (Hinskens, 1996, Schirmunski, 1930), including Trudgill's criteria**, and** make a distinction between objective and subjective criteria for salience. (BM:P#2)

4.2.2 Comma in adversative coordination

Adversative coordination in the sample largely consisted of *but*-clauses, with one instance being the quasi-syndetic coordination with the conjunct *yet*. There was a total of 24 sentences (24% of the coordination and 12% of the whole sample). What adversative coordination by definition conveys is a contrast, i.e. separate ideas based on differences. Therefore, it was assumed that our analysis could prove the fact that mutually contrasting ideas realised by means of *but*-clauses (or clauses linked with *yet*) would reinforce a strong tendency to use the comma in adversative coordination (*CGEL*: 1616). As expected, this subgroup was the most homogeneous in using the comma. There were 22 instances that did use the comma between the conjoins and only 2 instances that did not. In addition, the *but*-clauses with the subject expressed in both conjoins (18 instances, 75%) prevailed in quantity three times more than those that had the second subject absent (6 instances, 25%). Of minor importance in considering the factors behind the inclusion of the comma in the adversative coordination proved to be the factor of the presence/absence of the subject in the second conjoin. As Figure 7 illustrates, the comma was applied in coordinate full clauses (i.e. those with both subjects expressed) slightly more (94%, out of 18 instances) than in those having the second subject absent (83%, out of 6 instances). There was only one instance of the *no*-comma use in each subcategory, i.e. one in the presence of the second subject (S +) and one in the absence of it (S −).
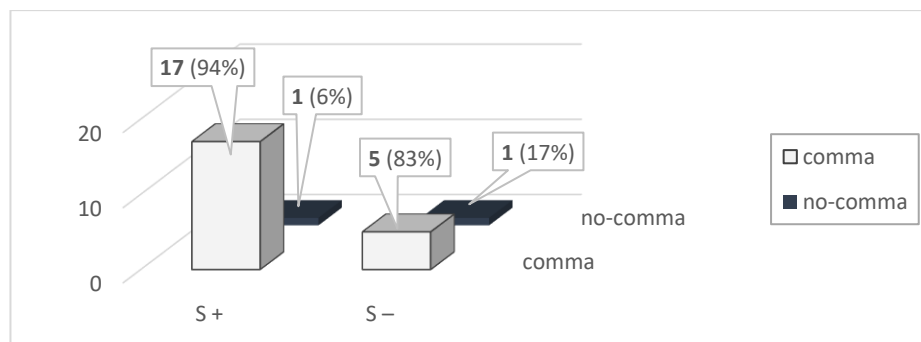
Figure 7. Comma in adversative coordination according to presence or absence of subject in second clause

Another factor that may have affected the use of the comma was length: long structures tended to be separated. However, just as in copulative coordination, length should be viewed as one of the contributing factors, since more of them were most likely to be interacting, cf.:

> [7] Johnson was interested in the social and political implications of changing listening habits over time**, but** a similar attention to the material structure of Østberg and Elveli schools can also reveal the perpetuation of contemporary social divisions between migrants and ethnic Norwegians living in Oslo. (JC:P#6)

Ex. [7] may be assessed just as the interaction of more factors, three to be precise, namely the presence of the subject in both conjoins, less close semantic tightness expressing contrasting ideas, and length (especially the second conjoin is linked with greater informativity).

According to Crystal (2016: 234f.), writers frequently use the comma in making a contrast between the clauses, for it is the gist of the whole sentence. The comma can therefore reinforce the meaning and draw the reader's attention. The contrasting ideas may be perceived as rather distanced, and the comma can reinforce the meaning. In the sample, there were only 2 instances that did not use the comma: one instance had one subject expressed and the other elliptical, thus manifesting close interconnectivity, cf. [8]. The other instance had both subjects expressed (semantically close too), but it is reasonable to suppose that the separate participial clause in the second full clause in [9] could influence the omission of the clausal comma:

> [8] Thompson's explanation relates in this instance to spoken discourse **but** is equally applicable to written text. (TH:P#7)

> [9] Simple linear progression, lastly, can lend an aura of logic to a sequence **but**, if used unimaginatively, it can also degenerate into a plodding succession of links, essentially stating no more than 'this means … this means … this means, etc'. (TH:P#9)

In fact, these examples were written by one author who otherwise varied in using the comma in adversative coordination: in his other 3 out of 5 instances, the comma did separate the conjoins, all three being full clauses.

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Another example of the closer semantic interrelationship between the conjoins was found in two sentences having certain elements in ellipsis:

> [10] For example, r-lessness is a significant predictor for the New England dialect**, but** not for the other dialects. (BM:P#8)

In [10], the subject, matrix predicate, and (head NP of) subject complement were all ellipted from the other conjoin, making the clauses semantically tight. In fact, the elided material entails its sharing and thus the meaning in the conjoins is mutually related. As a matter of fact, the ellipsis mechanism by means of which those elements were omitted is termed '*not*-stripping', a specific type of gapping (see above).[40] Also, the higher degree of semantic interconnection between the conjoins in [10] results from the fact that the second conjoin has a function of correcting and clarifying the preceding one. The comma indicates the presence of an intonation break, appropriate for rhythmisation (cf. their unequal length). Osborne (2019) emphasises that "[t]he presence of ellipsis is marked in the intonation contour, whereby the pause indicated by the comma seems appropriate" (Osborne, 2019: 416).

4.2.3   Comma in disjunctive coordination

Only in two instances did disjunctive coordination appear, accounting for 2% of the total of 100 compound sentences. Each fell into a different subgroup, with the ratio of the comma use to the *no*-comma use being 50:50. Let us look at the differences in more detail:

> [11] Instead, their actions are misread as agony, raw affect, anger, violence, or criminality**, or** they simply fail to be recognizable at all. (LM:P#3)

> [12] Positions can be *disputed* through opposition to an idea, the stance of the speaker, or moral implications**; or** *supported* through logic, evidence, or speech acts such as explanation or justification (18-19). (RB:P#3)

The uses of the *or*-conjunction which introduces an alternative idea can be classified either as an exclusive or an inclusive interpretation (*CGEL*: 932f.).[41] Ex. [11] is an example of an inclusive interpretation because both the conjoins may be construed as true statements – either meaning is included. On the other hand, ex. [12] represents an exclusive interpretation, i.e. an 'either-or' situation where the meaning of only one conjoin is to be fulfilled. Having taken a closer look, we also discovered that these sentences had their conjoins separated by the comma

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[40] "Stripping is a particular instantiation of the gapping mechanism whereby only a single remnant remains in the gapped clause (as opposed to the two or more remnants of gapping). Thus, the traits of stripping are almost identical to those of gapping" (Osborne, 2019: 365). For instance, it must have a linguistic antecedent explicit and already known (ibid.: 366). The so-called '*not*-stripping' is a particular type of stripping that involves the appearance of the negator *not* which "must precede the remnant in English; it cannot follow it" (Osborne, 2019: 367).

[41] The exclusive meaning of the *or*-conjunction is more typical and "excludes the possibility that both conjoins are true, or are to be fulfilled"; while the inclusive *or* implies "that both conjoins may be true" (*CGEL*: 932).

in [11] and by the semicolon in [12]. The semicolon in [12] is an appropriate punctuation mark hierarchically indicating the syntactic levels: the phrases in a series within the first conjoin are separated by the comma because they are at a lower level (serving as interior punctuation), while the conjoined clauses are at a higher level. The comma in [11], however, might be perceived as confusing inasmuch as the first conjoin contains the enumeration of several NPs in a series too. Hence, the comma in [11] should be replaced by the semicolon (see also Section 2.5 in Chapter 2).

The separation of the conjoins in both sentences was hardly likely to have been caused by the low degree of semantic tightness between the conjoins, which is rather high (cf. the deictic use of the demonstratives in [11] and the elliptical subject in the second conjoin in [12]). The separation, then, may be explained in terms of the presence of the subject in either conjoin in [11] and the length of the conjoins in [12].

4.2.4   Asyndetic coordination

Asyndetic coordination was found in 8 instances (i.e. 8% of the total of 100 compound sentences). Apart from two instances with the comma (see below), there were two instances of the use of the colon, two of the dash, and two of the semicolon; respectively:

> [13] Overall, the picture is simple**:** breaks occur with particular frequency in Evaluation and, therefore, at the end of a text or paragraph. (TH:P#10)

> [14] Instead of a political voice communicated through collective action and the possibility of recognition, efforts to communication appear only noise, excess, violence, the raw affect of personal pain and agony—emotion is left as the remainder outside of the political. (LM:P#4)

> [15] Defining phonetic distance between two variants is a difficult task**;** phonetic distance (or similarity) may reflect articulatory, acoustic, or perceptual similarity (Mielke, 2012). (BM:P#10)

In [13], the colon performs its distinctive function of indicating the relationship of apposition between the clauses, i.e. an explanation and elaboration of what precedes. Thus, the initial conjoin forms an expectation that is fulfilled by the meaning in the following conjoin, which is the focal point of the statement. In [14], after the introductory prepositional phrase that is appropriately delimited by the comma at the end, there are conjoins that were marked off by the dash which produced a dramatic effect in separating the ideas. The single dash generally indicates "an abrupt change or shift […] in the progression of a thought, in tone, or in the level of diction or style" (Lutz & Stevenson, 2011: 244). Also, the dash in [14] was used to demonstrate that the first conjoin expresses a valid generalisation and the second semantically enhances it. Finally, in [15], the use of the semicolon was appropriate from both a semantic and

a syntactic perspective. Semantically, neither conjoin required separation with the finality, which is the characteristic feature of the full stop (i.e. both were considered equal and related in terms of communicative value). Hence, the writer made use of the semicolon that suitably divided both statements. Syntactically, both conjoins are of identical grammatical status. In fact, all three examples of punctuation were in accordance with the rules of grammar. Specifically, the respective conjoins were at the identical hierarchical level: the colon, dash, and semicolon properly marked the boundaries between the respective conjoined clauses.

The remaining two instances used the comma for the segmentation of the conjoined clauses, one of which was assessed as a structural error, cf.:

[16] It would not be incorrect to say that without such widespread public collective assembly, the new state would not have come into being. (LM:P#10)

Ex. [16] is ill-formed in that two coordinate clauses cannot be separated only by the comma without including any conjunction or, alternatively, a conjunct. Such use should be avoided because it results in a type of mispunctuation known as a comma splice that is widely considered a serious sentence-structure error (cf. Lutz & Stevenson 2011, Garner 2009, Peters 2004). Although the degree of incorrectness is usually subject to the semantic integration of the conjoins and frequently their length too, the relationship between the conjoins in [16] is rather ambiguous.[42] The sentence should be reformulated, for instance, by replacing the comma with the semicolon or by inserting an appropriate coordinator to show the intended relationship.

The other example of asyndetic coordination with the comma represented gapping coordination, with the second predicate being 'gapped', i.e. elliptical from the second conjoin.

[17] The first is called a *nonmixed difference of opinion*, the second a *mixed difference of opinion*. (RB:P#2)

Since no coordinator was made use of, just as in [16], such clause structure with the elided material is considered non-standard but permissible under the rules of dependency grammar of English (cf. Osborne 2019). What makes it syntactically permissible, as opposed to [16], is that both conjoins are clear in meaning and structurally parallel to each other. Nevertheless, the appearance of a coordinator in a sentence is essential because it "helps identify the presence of coordination" (Osborne, 2019: 297), and its type as well.

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[42] Clauses that are short and clear, or parallel in structure could be regarded as acceptable, but this is not the case in ex. [16]. The clauses are relatively long, and they fail to be structurally parallel: [S $_{anticipatory\ it}$ − V $_{copular}$ − C$_S$ − S $_{notional\ infinitive}$], [S − V − A]. Moreover, the predicates differ in the conditional mood.

4.3   Comma in Hypotaxis: Adverbial Clauses

Firstly, the two-clause complex sentences were classified according to the semantic roles that the adverbial clauses performed: there were ten different groups of adverbials. The largest group comprised adverbial clauses of concession under which clauses of contrast were subsumed, for these represented a semantic blend of contrast and concession (*CGEL*: 1102). Secondly, the sentences were assessed according to the factors that were considered to have influenced the use of the comma. The most frequent factors were the position of the adverbial clause in the sentence (initial × final), the syntactico-semantic function of the adverbials (adjuncts × disjuncts) along with their restrictive or non-restrictive status of clause integration, and the length of the units. Punctuation style was taken into account as well, but it appeared to be only marginal. The factor of structure (finite × non-finite clause) was not allowed for because only finite adverbial clauses were subject to the analysis. The first three factors were of major importance. The data attested in the sample have been compiled in Table 3.

Semantic Role (quantity)	P	Frequency of Comma		Percentage	
		Σ–comma	Σ–*no*-comma	%–comma	%–*no*-comma
Time (11)	*I*	3	-	27.27	-
	F	1	7	9.09	63.64
Place (2)	*I*	1	-	50	-
	F	1	-	50	-
Condition (13)	*I*	7	-	53.85	-
	F	-	6	-	46.15
Concession (33)	*I*	19	-	57.58	-
	F	13	1	39.39	3.03
Conditional-concessive (1)	*I*	1	-	100	-
	F	-	-	-	-
Reason (21)	*I*	6	3	28.57	14.29
	F	5	7	23.81	33.33
Result (3)	*I*	-	-	-	-
	F	1	2	33.33	66.67
Similarity & Proportion (4)	*I*	3	-	75	-
	F	-	1	-	25
Comment (11)	*I*	4	-	36.36	-
	M	2	-	18.18	-
	F	5	-	45.45	-
Viewpoint (1)	*F*	-	1	-	100
TOTAL (100)		72	28	72	28

Table 3. Frequency of the comma in subordination with adverbial clauses (according to position)

As stated above, the three most relevant factors behind the use of the comma – position, function, and length – significantly contributed to its use in the adverbial clauses, and they often interacted. The factor of clausal length proved to be a contributing factor rather than a deciding

one. Nevertheless, all the longest sentences and those of relative length[43] divided the clauses by the comma with the exception of two instances that more or less deviated from the norm:

[18] Other assemblies organized by Telangana advocates, including a 'Million March,' many more road and rail blockades, work stoppages, rallies, hunger strikes, processions, and long-distance pilgrimages to sites of political power, as well as similar counter-demonstrations held by supporters of samaikyandhra (advocates of a 'United Andhra' opposed to the formation of the new state) became increasingly frequent **as** both Telangana supporters and opposition groups sought to publicly broadcast their opinions on the question of the proposed state formation. (LM:H#2)

[19] This resurgence of indigenous cultural practices may preclude fundamental changes of indigenous realities **because** the indigenous perspective is accorded a foundational authority by Kaskas and other indigenous groups of the region. (PM:H#5)

In [18], the basic and unmodified SVC sentence structure of the initial matrix clause is not weighty *per se*, but the subject NP is so heavily postmodified that the final *as*-clause is almost unidentifiable. The omission of the comma can be explained by the semantic role of the adverbial clause that expresses a temporal relationship and is in the function of an adjunct. If the adjunct clause in [18] was punctuated by the comma, the proper semantic relationship between the clauses could just as easily be confused with another type. *As*-clauses in particular may express time, reason, manner, or comments on the matrix clause as in the type of comment clauses introduced by *as* (see Section 4.2.10). Broadly speaking, "[s]emantic analysis of adverbial clauses is complicated by the fact that many subordinators introduce clauses with different meanings" (*CGEL*: 1077), as was the case with ex. [18]. Additionally, the final position of the adjunct *as*-clause is considered more usual (*CGEL*: 1070).

The adjunct *because*-clause in [19] is a borderline case of the missing comma, for the initial matrix clause is comprised of nine, or 7 ± 2, meaningful units, which may be widely perceived as a maximum length of semantic units in a clause. Hence, it is reasonable to suppose that the writer regarded the final position of the adjunct clause, explicitly introduced by the subordinator, as a salient feature and consequently omitted the comma.

The other two factors – position and function – have proved to be the most relevant to the research on the use of the comma in adverbial clauses. As illustrated in Figure 8, the adverbial clauses occurred initially, finally, and even medially.

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[43] Just as in Section 4.1 (Comma in Parataxis), the length of a clause should be perceived as relative and dependent upon psychological considerations because every speaker has different "processing abilities" (Crystal, 2016: 236). In the sample, the length of the clauses was assessed on the basis of Miller's 7 ± 2 formula (1956) within which an average language user can hold approximately seven meaningful units in his working memory at a time (see also Factor 3, Section 2.7.3.1 in Chapter 2).
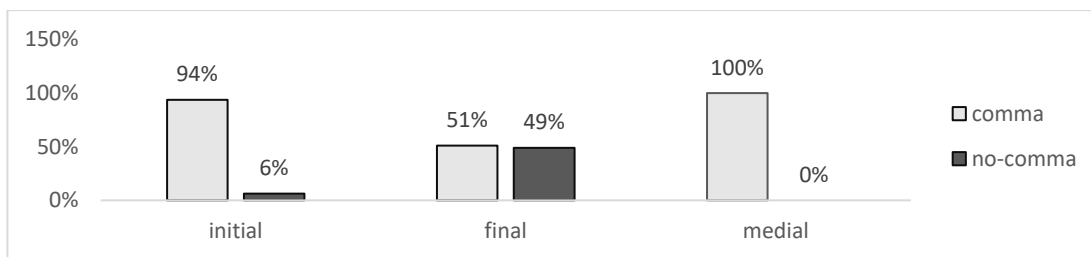
Figure 8. Use of the comma in adverbial clauses according to position

There were 47 instances of initial adverbial clauses, 44 (93.62%) of which included the comma and 3 (6.38%) omitted it. This, then, showed that the adverbial clauses in initial position significantly tended to be separated from the respective matrix clause. On the other hand, the comma usage in the final adverbial clauses markedly varied in that almost one half (26 instances, i.e. 50.98%, out of 51 final adverbials) used the comma, and the other half (25 instances, 49.02%) did not. The marginal medial adverbial clauses occurred in only 2 instances that were entirely consistent in the usage: both instances (100%) had comma punctuation at the clause boundaries.

However, these figures merely present a general overview, as they do not take account of the factor of the syntactic function which also had a substantial impact on the results. The interaction of both position and function is discussed in Section 4.4 (cf. Figure 10).

Figure 9 demonstrates the use of the comma in all functions found: adjunct, disjunct, and subjunct clauses. Roughly speaking, the disjunct clauses were rather stable in the usage, whereas the data for the adjunct clauses suggest a significant usage variation:
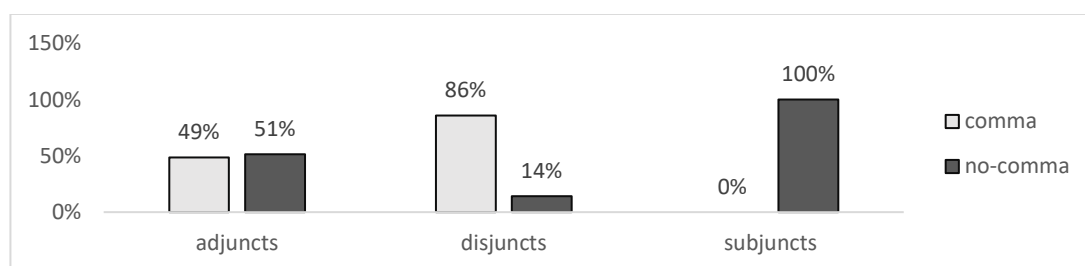
Figure 9. Use of the comma in adverbial clauses according to function

4.3.1 Clauses of time

The clauses of time in the sample accounted for 11% of all complex sentences with the adverbial clauses. Out of the total of 11 clauses, 4 (36.36%) clauses were separated from their matrix clause, and the remaining 7 (63.64%) clauses were not. All temporal adverbial clauses were adjuncts. All but one of the adjunct clauses that were in final position were not delimited by the comma, manifesting their complete integration into the superordinate clause. This, then, supports the hypothesis on the *no*-comma use when an adjunct clause is positioned finally. Cf.:

[20] Principally, the child is correct **when** he writes *pottadi*. (LM:H#1)

The only sentence-ending adjunct clause that indeed had the comma was one being preceded by a participial clause, enclosed in the commas:

[21] The men had been working at Lower Post, British Columbia, unloading supplies from a barge**, when** a plane belonging to the company landed on the river. (PM:H#8)

The initial adjunct clauses were also consistent in the usage and, as expected, separated from their matrix clause. The comma therefore demonstrated their mobility and no dependency on the matrix predication: they were non-restrictive. Quirk et al. (1985: 1076) point out that an initial adverbial clause is always non-restrictive. Furthermore, Lutz & Stevenson (2011: 203) argue that introductory adverbial clauses should be marked off by the comma so as not to distract the reader in his identifying the clause boundaries (especially when the structure is complex, as in [23]).

[22] **When** a delegation travelled to Madras to petition the Board of Trade directly**,** they received the following response from J. Gwalkin, Secretary of the Board of Trade. (LM:H#7)

[23] In January of 2002 **while** I was doing fieldwork in Hyderabad**,** ten students from the University of Hyderabad were expelled following an effort made by a group of more than one hundred members of the Ambedkar Students' Association to collectively present a list of concerns to the university's chief hostel warden. (LM:H#8)

In sum, the deciding factor behind the comma usage in the temporal clauses was their syntactic function of an adjunct as well as their position in the sentence.

4.3.2 Clauses of place

One of the least frequent adverbial clauses was that of place. Only two adjunct clauses were gathered (2%). They differed in the position: one being initial and the other final; both were delimited by the comma, however. That is to say, the factor of position seemed to be of lesser importance, if any at all. By contrast, their non-restrictive status within the sentence structure had presumably influenced the inclusion of the comma. Cf.:

[24] In fact, **where** 'broad' was discussed**,** it was frequently accompanied by references to farmers, older speakers, unintelligible speech, and Yorkshire itself. (PC:H#10)

[25] Breaks are best kept to the boundaries of ideational sequences generally**, where** they may usefully signal a change in the writer's thought process. (TH:H#7)

The initial *where*-clause in [24] is visually demarcated by the comma, improving the readability. The final *where*-clause in [25] does so too, and according to Lutz & Stevenson (2011: 225), non-restrictiveness in sentence-ending adverbial clauses is often indicated by the

comma because the contents of the clause is "only supplementary to the meaning of the independent clause."

4.3.3 Clauses of condition

Conditional clauses, accounting for 13%, achieved greater usage stability than some of the other types of adverbial clauses. There were 7 instances (53.85% within this subtype) that included the comma, and 6 instances (46.15%) that omitted it. All conditional clauses in the sample expressed a direct condition, whether open or hypothetical. No clause expressed an indirect condition, typical for a style disjunct (*CGEL*: 1089, 1095ff.). The sample was constituted by both adjunct and content disjunct clauses, both expressing a direct contingency relationship within which the comma showed great consistency in its use. The adjunct clauses were realised by *if*-clauses and one asyndetic clause with inversion, while content disjunct clauses were realised by an *unless*-clause and a *when*-clause. The adjunct clauses formed the majority (84.62%) within this subgroup; the disjunct clauses were found in only two instances (15.38%).

The adjunct clauses (6 instances) were separated by the comma only when initial, regardless of their length (cf. a short sentence in [26] and a longer one in [27]):

[26] **If** the criteria were met**,** then the variable would be considered salient. (BM:H#9)

[27] **If** the presence of a variable results in greater accuracy in identifying some social characteristic of a model speaker than another variable**,** then the first is more salient than the second within the particular context of identification. (BM:H#10)

By contrast, the adjunct clauses (5 instances) that omitted the comma were always final, despite being rather weighty in structure, e.g.:

[28] The greatest possible learner empowerment would be achieved **if** students could acquire the skill of balancing academic exposition with other more hortatory options by choosing appropriately from among a selection of progression types they have mastered. (TH:H#9)

Hence, it was the function of an adjunct and its position that were responsible for the inclusion or omission of the comma in adjunct clauses.

The two disjunct clauses were found in both initial and final position. The initial *when*-clause in [29] was separated by the comma from its matrix clause,[44] whereas the final *unless*-clause [30] was not. Thus, both demonstrated consistent comma usage, as in adjunct clauses.

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[44] The *when*-clause in [29] was classified as conditional despite being introduced by a subordinator that is more typical of a temporal relationship. As Quirk et al. (1985) clarifies, the subordinator *when* may combine condition with time (*CGEL*: 1089, 1085). Having examined the immediately preceding context, the adverbial *when*-clause in [29] expresses general recurrent contingency, reflecting the notion of condition rather than time

[29] Therefore, **when** a student visits with a difference such as deafness, blindness, or physical disability**,** tutors and administrators may not be properly prepared to accommodate them. (RB:H#9)

[30] A viable interpretation of *The converse* would be extremely hard to discern **unless** the reader is confident and interested enough to simply continue to the subsequent clause. (TH:H#8)

The analysed conditional clauses were consistent in the comma usage: all adjunct clauses in initial position had the comma, and all in final position omitted it. The disjunct *when*-clause in initial position in [29] also conforms to the conventions. The non-separation of the disjunct *unless*-clause in final position in [30] can be explained by semantic tightness, as the matrix clause is directly contingent on the conditional disjunct. Also, its position at the end could be responsible for the omission of the comma, and the clause boundaries are thus explicit owing to the subordinator. To a certain extent, the writer's style may be taken into account as well, for his use of the comma was generally rather infrequent and characteristic of light punctuation. (In hypotaxis, he systematically punctuated the initial adverbial clauses, and in parataxis, he did so in the adversative sentences with the subject being present in both conjoined clauses.)

4.3.4   Clauses of concession

Concessive clauses were the most frequent: accounting for 33% of the complex sentences. There were also clauses of contrast that were subsumed into this group too, as they conveyed a blend of concession and contrast. The clauses were introduced by the subordinators *although* (11 instances), *while* (17 instances), *whereas* (2 instances), *even if* (1 instance), *even though* (1 instance), *though* (1 instance). All but one of the clauses showed great consistency in including the comma (96.97%). Out of the total of 33 concessive clauses, there was only one instance of the omission of the comma:

[31] The majority of the pronunciations displayed an F2 in the 1200–1400 Hz range **whereas** the tokens of the specifically performed Barnsley vowel tended to have a higher F2 with an average F2 of 1462 Hz. (PC:H#2)

Just as all instances in this subgroup, the clause of contrast in [31] functions as a disjunct characterised as peripheral and therefore non-restrictive (*CGEL*: 1076), which is also the case in [31]. The contrastive meaning between the clauses would be normally expected to be separated by the comma, as in adversative sentences coordinated by *but* that express contrast as well (*CGEL*: 1102). The omission of the comma can be explained by the writer's consideration. The *whereas*-clause was apparently seen as more closely related to the matrix

clause, with the subordinator clearly signalling the boundaries of the two clauses, which were of similar length.

Except for [31], the concessive disjunct clauses formed a homogeneous group: all were punctuated with the comma irrespective of their position or length. This identical usage behaviour was presumably influenced by the concessive and contrastive meaning that is generally viewed as dissociated and distanced from the circumstances of the situation in the matrix clause (cf. Quirk et al. 1985: 15.40 and 15.43).[45]

> [32] Perhaps Cp (Un) 6Ľ Cb = (LDUn+1) would suffice**, although** many more tokens would need to be examined. (EM:H#7)

> [33] **Although** civility does not play as large a role within the arguments of agonistic pluralists**,** it is not absent from their discussions. (LM:H#9)

> [34] **While** the use of language shifts in Kaska narratives might be taken as evidence for their cultural domination and displacement by Euro-Canadians**,** from a Kaska perspective the story is more complex. (PM:H#6)

Apart from the main factor – the function of a disjunct, the first two instances in [32] and [33] demonstrate the difference in the position of the disjunct *although*-clauses, appropriately separated. The last instance in [34] illustrates the involvement of all three major factors: the disjunct function (conveying the concessive dissociation of the clauses), initial position, and length.

4.3.5   Conditional-concessive clause

The only one conditional-concessive clause in the sample (accounting for 1%) represented the subtype of a universal conditional-concessive clause:

> [35] **However** stereotypical these forms may be (see Lippi-Green, 2012 for a discussion of *aks* and others)**,** the race of the participants did not seem to affect or influence their ability or inability to provide specific features. (RB:H#7)

Ex. [35] made use of the comma demonstrating the peripheral quality of the conditional-concessive clause. Not only does the clause convey the meaning of "a free choice from any number of conditions" (*CGEL*: 1101): 'it does not matter how stereotypical/complex/simple/etc. these forms may be …', thus reflecting certain optionality; but also the clause comments on the content of what is said in the matrix clause. The initial position of the *however*-clause reinforces its mobility and non-restrictiveness.

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[45] According to Lutz & Stevenson (2011: 226), only occasionally is the concessive meaning "felt to be essential" and indispensable to the whole sentence structure, cf.: *The company continued to market the product even though serious concerns had been raised about its safety.*

4.3.6 Reason clauses

The clauses of reason were represented by 21 instances, i.e. 21% of the hypotactic group with the adverbial clauses. There were both function types of adverbial clauses: adjuncts and disjuncts. All reason clauses conveyed a direct reason and were introduced by the subordinators *because* (7 instances), *since* (6 instances), and *as* (8 instances), with the *because*-clauses functioning as adjuncts and the two latter as disjuncts. The **adjunct** *because*-clauses were mostly without the comma (5 instances representing 71.43% of the *no*-comma use within this subtype of the *because*-clauses; by contrast, the inclusion of the comma was accordingly considered less frequent with only 2 instances with the comma, i.e. 28.57% of the application). The reason why the two *because*-clauses were separated by the comma was their initial position (both were also quite long):

> [36] **Because** these two tokens of left dislocation do not conform to any of the three types identified by Prince**,** we need to find a way to identify the discourse function employed here. (EM:H#5)

> [37] **Because** the wall was not attached at the bottom, papers from the other classroom would sometimes slide into ours**,** disrupting class and creating more noise while the teacher went to return them. (JC:H#2)

Furthermore, there was one more instance of the adjunct clause in initial position without being separated:

> [38] **Because** there is no separation of human "culture" and "nature" *á'ī* also applies to forms of "respect" or "taboos" for social interaction with people. (PM:H#2)

The non-separation was perceived as rather non-standard. As Quirk et al. (1985) point out, an adjunct clause is more usual in final position (*CGEL*: 1070); however, the preposing of an adverbial clause is possible, but it commonly needs to be marked off by punctuation (ibid.: 1072); all the more so because the final matrix clause in [38] opens with a special symbol that might distract the reader's attention. Yet, punctuation usage varies (ibid.), as was the case with the adjunct in [38]. Quirk et al. (1985: 1076) also justify omitting punctuation in such cases by providing a plausible explanation: "punctuation is a redundant signal when the nonrestrictive clause is preposed, since a preposed clause is always nonrestrictive."

The rest of the adjunct *because*-clauses were final and, as expected, without the comma.

The other function category of the reason clauses to be discussed are **disjunct** clauses. One of the assumptions concerning the use of the comma was that disjunct clauses, being more peripheral to the sentence structure, would be separated from the matrix clause. This has proved true to a certain extent. There were only 5 (35.71%) out of 14 instances of the disjuncts where

the comma was omitted. The reason for not separating them from the matrix clause may be explained by the sentence length and the writer's punctuation style, respectively:

[39] **Since** this is a rhetorical argument there is no dispute (DIS). (RB:H#4)

[40] There is nothing troubling or unusual about the intelligibility of bird calls **since**, in contrast to Yoda conversing with Luke or a jaguar speaking through the body of a shaman, their "language" corresponds to their distinct bodily form. (CH:H#8)

Ex. [39] is very short, and the *since*-clause in ex. [40] has a prepositional phrase embedded in the structure, immediately after the subordinator, which the writer could view as enough punctuation.

The remaining 9 instances used the comma, accounting for 64.29% of the comma usage among the disjunct reason clauses. It was the factor of function that influenced the inclusion of the comma in these clauses (the factors of position and length contributed to a lesser extent).

In sum, the use of the comma in the reason clauses showed some variation in usage in that two content disjunct clauses in initial position and one in final position were not separated by the comma despite being peripheral to the sentence structure (which can be explained by relative length, as the clauses were rather short). As for adjunct clauses, only one in initial position was not separated (see ex. [38]). As Quirk et al. (1985) acknowledge, the usage is less consistent despite the general tendencies: "[i]n final position, content disjunct clauses tend more commonly than adjunct clauses to be separated from their matrix clauses […]. In initial position, all adverbial clauses, regardless of form or function, are separated" (*CGEL*: 1072).

4.3.7   Clauses of result

The result clauses accounted for 3% of the subordinate adverbial clauses. All functioned as disjunct clauses, but only one was separated by the comma:

[41] In the case of the token in (9) the proper name *Bingo* is mentioned in Speaker A's utterance, followed by a mention of *iguana*, **so that** the entire NP left dislocated by Speaker B is discourse-old. (EM:H#1)

It should be emphasised that the *so that*-clause in [41] is separated by the comma because it is preceded by a participle in the function of a non-restrictive postmodifier and thus delimited by the pair of ('non-clausal') commas. This, then, is seen as the writer's strongest motive behind the use of the comma before the subordinator *so that* in example [41]. The following examples are without the comma before the subordinators:

[42] In the verbal condition, the pitch contour of the speech fragments was monotonized **so that** only segmental information and non-pitch prosodic information were retained. (BM:H#5)

[43] Hung from the ceiling, they were not actually attached to the floor **so that** they could fold in and out like an accordion. (JC:H#7)

Just as in [41], all three result clauses were final due to the fact that they expressed the result that arose from the content of the respective matrix clause in initial position. Accordingly, as Quirk et al. (1985: 1109) point out, "result clauses can only appear finally." They go on to note that clauses of result are "separated by comma punctuation" (ibid.), which makes these findings discrepant with Quirk et al.'s remark and with our hypothesis too. However, the instances were neither complex nor long, and, besides, the disjunct clauses were presumably understood as semantically close to their matrix clause, which gave rise to their complete integration.

4.3.8   Clauses of similarity and proportion

The clauses of similarity and proportion (both equal in quantity), was represented by 4 instances, i.e. 4% of the total of the adverbial clauses. All clauses in this subgroup were adjuncts. This subgroup was highly consistent in punctuation practice: there was only one instance that did not include the comma (see below). The clauses of similarity (50%) were all introduced by the subordinator *as*. The clauses of proportion (50%) varied in the realisation in that one adjunct clause (25%) was introduced by *as*, and the other instance (25%) was constructed with the fronted proportional correlatives *the…the*.

[44] **The** more geographically widespread a given dialectal variant is geographically**, the** more salient it is predicted to be (areal distribution). (BM:H#2)

The correlative *the*-clauses in [44] can be reformulated onto the sentence variant with the correlative *as…so* in order to detect the subordinate clause (cf. 'As a given dialectal variant is more geographically widespread, so it is predicted to be more salient'). The subordinator *as* thus introduces the subordinate clause in initial position, and the conjunct *so* introduces the matrix clause in final position.[46] The comma was used for clarity's sake so as not to mislead the reader in identifying the clause boundaries. In addition, the combination of the comma and the rhythmically similar structure of the clauses created a certain prosodic balance between them (cf. the comparatives in both clauses).

The other clause that expressed proportionality was introduced by *as*. The adjunct clause occurred in initial position and therefore appropriately separated from its matrix clause:

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[46] The reverse ordering of the *the*-clauses would change the original meaning (*CGEL*: 1000). Cf. ***The more salient it is predicted to be, the** more geographically widespread a given dialectal variant is geographically* [*sic*]. ('As it is predicted to be more salient, so a given dialectal variant is more geographically widespread.') The adverb *geographically* in the original initial clause was probably written twice by mistake; it is semantically redundant.

[45] **As** migration increases throughout Europe**,** these regimes of hearing difference and their exclusionary consequences will only become more important. (JC:H#3)

As stated above, this group presented great consistency in comma punctuation, with only one instance (25%) not having the comma:

[46] At the same time, they come to understand their language as a different kind of force in the world **as** they struggle to translate words and concepts on a computer keyboard. (CH:H#1)

The comma in [46] was omitted because the *as*-clause of similarity functions as an adjunct that is dependent on the matrix predication, particularly on the semantic category of the VP *come to understand* (cf. 'they come to understand their language … in a way that is similar to the way that they struggle to translate words …'). Also, the adjunct clause is in its more usual end position and thus more integrated into the sentence structure.

The last example (25%) was an adjunct of similarity as well, and its separation from the matrix clause can be explained not only by its initial position within the sentence but also its length:[47]

[47] Just **as** Waorani babies become people and kin through sharing food and drink and learning to speak with people in their household**,** the close connection between language, collective consumption and the body appears to be inseparable in this wider process of becoming. (CH:H#4)

To put it briefly, the stability of the comma usage in this subgroup of adjunct clauses was achieved through having placed some of them initially, which, in turn, led to their separation and loose attachment. And, *vice versa*, the sentence-ending adjunct was closely integrated into the structure and thus not separated.

4.3.9 Comment clauses

The comment clauses in the sample (11 instances, i.e. 11%) were all parenthetical content disjuncts that expressed the writers' comments on the content of the respective matrix clauses.[48]

The parenthetical use of each comment clause was appropriately marked by the comma, which resulted in complete consistency in comma punctuation (100% of the instances had the comma). This can be explained by their syntactic non-integration into the sentence structure that generally interrupts the flow of information (*CamGEL*: 896). Comment clauses occurred in all three positions. Of the least frequent occurrence was the medial position of the comment clauses; only two instances (18.18%) were found:

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[47] Apart from similarity, the *as*-clause in ex. [47] also expresses an analogy meaning. In formal literary style, the correlative *so* may introduce the matrix clause that follows the initial *as*-clause (*CGEL*: 1110).
[48] Cf. Quirk et al. (1985), Huddleston and Pullum (2002), Brinton (2008).

[48] Those with high frequencies are reduced more frequently**,** it appears**,** and without full forms to help the interpretation of the reduction. (JW:H#10)

[49] Organizing the transcript through the use of deictics**,** **as** I have done below**,** reveals several sets of parallelisms in this article. (JC:H#10)

The comment clause in [48] performed a hedging function that expressed the writer's tentativeness over the truth value of the matrix clause (*CGEL*: 15.54), into which the comment clause was inserted. The other instance in [49] was categorised according to Quirk et al.'s classification (1985) as the type of a comment clause that is invariably introduced by *as* which can syntactically function either as a relative or as a subordinator (*CGEL*: 15.55). The comment clause in [49] consists of the *as*-relative, and the mobility of the clause, as in [48], is marked by the commas. Enclosed in the pair of commas, both medial comment clauses have acquired a peripheral status, implying prosodic interruption (*CGEL*: 15.53).

The comment clauses in final position (5 instances, 45.45%) were separated because they, *inter alia*, served "pragmatic or procedural purposes" (Brinton, 2008: 1), merely providing the reader with additional information or afterthought (ibid.: 9) that was rather extra-textual and enhanced the information structure. Cf. [50] and [51]:

[50] Today, *āvēdana* is most often used to mean 'grief, sorrow, distress, anguish**,**' **as** a 1991 dictionary confirms (Gwynn and Sastry, 1991, 54). (LM:H#4)

[51] This is something more easily achieved collectively, however**,** **as** petitioners in Telangana so well recognized. (LM:H#3)

As Brinton (2008) inquires into, comment clauses may be studied from the perspective of the discourse-pragmatic functions. For instance, the instances [50] and [51] differs from that in [48] which serves as a device of the writer's tentativeness, thus being rather writer-oriented. On the other hand, the comment clauses in [50] and [51] are reader-oriented, as their semantic content was added especially for the reader's sake.[49] Ex. [49] can be classified as writer-oriented as well, for it consists of the first-person subject (Brinton, 2008: 131n.). As independent pragmatic markers interpolated into the structure, they are separated by "comma intonation", i.e. a pause in speech or the actual comma in written discourse (Brinton, 2008: 8).

Not only did the quality of being parenthetical give rise to the comma separation in the final comment clauses, but also other factors were involved (but presumably of lesser importance). For instance, the *as*-clause in [51]: the comma was also used owing to the immediately

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[49] The content-oriented perspective in [51] and [52] may be taken into account too because the comment clauses also communicate extra-textual information that extends the reader's knowledge (cf. also Brinton 2008).

preceding adverb *however* that is a part of the initial matrix clause.[50] The other comment clause in [52] below is separated also because there is a participial clause (*with insurgency, riot, and revolt frequently serving as framing motifs*) embedded into the sentence structure:

[52] Attention to the period prior to Gandhi's rise to prominence has usually been written under the sign of violence, with insurgency, riot, and revolt frequently serving as framing motifs**, as** I have argued elsewhere (Mitchell, 2018). (LM:H#10)

[53] The notion of the Barnsley dialect described by informants was frequently and consistently linked to certain social values other than just place**, as** is often the case with enregistered varieties. (PC:H#4)

Finally, the comment clause in [53] is delimited by the comma in order to show the explicit clause boundaries and not to mislead the reader.[51] Apart from the function of the comma as prevention of misinterpretation, the comma serves as a prosodic indicator too.

The comment clauses in initial position (36.36%) were also characterised by their "positional mobility" (Brinton, 2008: 8), showing their ready acceptability in all positions within a sentence.

[54] **As** Table 1 shows**,** the majority of the instances of left dislocation were of the simplifying type, such as the token in (4). (EM:H#8)

[55] **As** we have seen**,** most individuals do lie within the standard deviation range for each process. (JW:H#9)

[56] Indeed, **as** Agha (2003, 243) goes on to note**,** enregistered repertoires become associated with 'characterological figures and social personae'. (PC:H#7)

The comment clauses in [54], [55], and [56] can be also termed "metacommunicative", which means that they "comment on the truth value of a sentence or a group of sentences, on the organization of the text or on the attitude of the speaker" (Peltola as cited in Brinton, 2008: 5). Barring the last of the three variables, i.e. the factor of the speaker's attitude, the first two variables are reflected in all three comment clauses in [54], [55], [56]. Being multifunctional, they can implicitly communicate more uses: the comment clauses above are not only units carrying meaning, but also they function as the elements of the cohesiveness, interlinkage, and organisation of the text, whether referring forwards as in [54] or backwards as in [55] or extra-textually as in [56]. Understood as parenthetical and characterised by disfluency, they are set off by punctuation in writing or intonationally separate with increased speed and lowered volume in speech (Quirk et al., 1985: 1112f.; Huddleston and Pullum, 2002: 1350). Non-

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[50] If *however* functions as the conjunct that links two clauses together to show the logical interrelationship between them, the punctuation pattern should be as follows: {unit 1}**;**{*however*}**,**{unit 2} (cf. Pattern 3 in Chapter 2.7.2.3).
[51] The relative *as* functions as the subject in the comment clause in [53], which is only possible if the operator is a copular verb, cf.: *She has married again, as was/seemed natural* (*CGEL*: 1117n).

restrictive though it is, a comment clause needs to be semantically compatible with the clause to which it is attached (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002: 1351).

To sum up, syntactically, all comment clauses confirmed their peripheral status; and because they generally lack syntactic connection with the clause with which they occur (Brinton, 2008: 7), they were all formally separated from the respective matrix clause. Semantically, they exhibited greater independence from the matrix clause.

4.3.10 Viewpoint subjunct clause

The sample also consisted of one marginal use of an adverbial clause: a subjunct clause. Generally speaking, they are not realised on the level of clauses with the exception of an adverbial clause of viewpoint (*CGEL*: 1069). Just as ex. [57], viewpoint subjunct clauses are comprised of a restricted combination of words (particularly verbs, such as *concern* in the passive) that are introduced by the subordinator *as/so far as* (ibid.). Subjunct clauses are also considered non-restrictive (ibid.: 1076).

> [57] From 1991 to 2008 there was as good as no change whatsoever in either The Sun or The Times **as far as** the format and length of their editorials is concerned (Hawes, 2010a). (TH:H#4)

The subjunct clause did not include the comma because its final position along with the explicit subordinator were most likely viewed as a sufficient indication of the clause boundaries. As deduced from the non-separation of the introductory prepositional phrase, the writer's punctuation style may be considered as a factor too: the style of this writer was characteristic of light punctuation, for he mostly separated clauses that expressed a contrast (e.g. his adverbial concessive clauses, clause of contrast, and adversative coordinate clauses with the present subject).

4.4   Discrepancies between the hypotheses and the actual usage

The last point to be discussed is evaluating those instances that were contrary to the assumptions made prior to the analysis. Given the fact that the data from coordination support the hypotheses, they are not discussed in this section. (In addition, there were no hypotheses concerning disjunctive nor asyndetic coordination.) As briefly presented above, some instances in the sample with subordination rather reject the hypotheses.

As opposed to Figures 8 and 9, Figure 10 merges function and position together and evaluates the results in more detail:
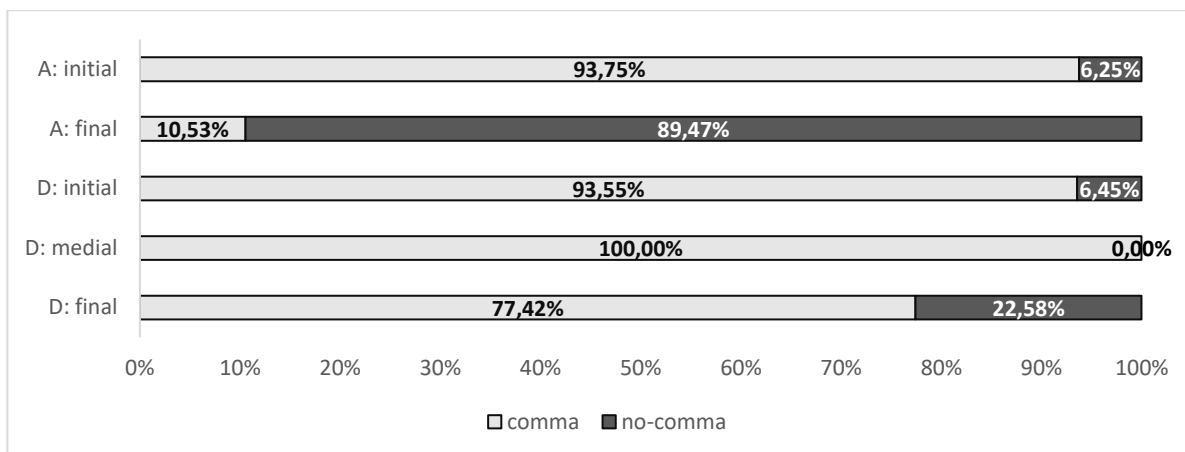
Figure 10. Use of the comma in adverbial clauses according to function and position

4.4.1 Initial adjunct: *no*-comma use

The comma in initial adjunct clauses was expected to separate them. This assumption has proved correct. There were 16 instances, only one (6.25%) of which did not use the comma to separate the adjunct clause. The clause was the reason clause in ex. [38] whose *no*-comma use was considered non-standard, inasmuch as the initially-placed adjunct was eight semantic units long and visually quite complex (consisting of several quotation marks and a special symbol as the subject of the final matrix clause).

4.4.2 Final adjunct: comma use

The comma in final adjunct clauses was not expected to occur, and if so, a rare occurrence was predicted. This assumption has been found correct too. There were two instances (10.53%), out of the total of 19 instances, that used the comma. The first instance was dealt with in Section 4.2.2: the sentence-ending temporal adjunct in [22] was separated by the comma mainly because there was a participial clause that preceded the adjunct. The second instance was described in Section 4.2.3 and characterised as purely supplementary.

4.4.3 Initial disjunct: *no*-comma use

The comma in initial disjunct clauses was assumed to be included in all instances. The data have more or less confirmed it: there were only 2 instances (6.45%) that disprove the assumption. The first instance was analysed in ex. [39] in Section 4.2.7. It was a disjunct clause of reason being very short and thus, most likely, without the comma. The other instance has not yet been described herein.

[58] **As** the Barnsley vowel is being pronounced in a similar F2 range I have transcribed the Barnsley vowel as [aː]. (PC:H#3)

As in [39], the disjunct clause of reason in [58] that omitted the comma was not found complex in structure either (comprised of 7 semantic units in the initial disjunct and 5 in the matrix clause).

4.4.4 Final disjunct: *no*-comma use

The comma in final disjunct clauses was also expected to divide them from their matrix clause. Here the final data have indicated certain variations in the usage: 7 instances (22.58%, out of 31 instances) of the final disjuncts did not use the comma.

Contrary to expectations, two sentence-ending result disjuncts in [42] and [43] had no clausal comma. As stated above, they are relatively short, and either disjunct is closely related to the respective matrix clause. Another instance in [30] was evaluated from the point of view of semantic tightness too. This sentence-ending *unless*-clause was closely related to its matrix clause by expressing direct contingency. Also, example [40] has been analysed herein: there was a prepositional phrase embedded in the disjunct clause, probably giving rise to the manifestation of light punctuation, as the cumulation of the commas close together was perhaps stylistically undesirable. The clause of contrast in [31] was eventually regarded as an anomaly because it expresses the mutual antithesis of what one would normally expect to be marked by the comma. The remaining two instances have not been described yet:

> [59] The numbers for the media, politics, gender and morphology are naturally higher **since** there are pre-seminars in those sessions. (JW:H#2)

> [60] In both languages, kinship terms are frequently used even for distant relatives **since** kinship relations are important in regulating social practices such as marriage, the structure of local groups, resource rights, and the nature of personal interactions between individuals (Honigmann 1954; McDonnell 1975). (PM:H#10)

Both result disjunct clauses in [59] and [60] lacked clausal comma punctuation. Apart from individual stylistic considerations, the length of the respective clauses was likely to have contributed to the *no*-comma use. [59] is obviously shorter, but [60] is more complex merely for the weightier apposition at the end.

5   CONCLUSION

The present thesis has attempted to confirm the hypothesis of relative inconsistency in using the clausal comma in both binary coordination and subordination. The conventions were observed in academic articles written by native speakers of English.

The quantitative analysis focused on the overall distribution of the use of the comma (including the *no*-comma use). In compound sentences (4.2), the results varied according to the type of coordination, demonstrating that the most frequent type was copulative coordination (66%). The copulative sentences (4.2.1) were also the most inconsistent in the comma usage: 65% used the comma, while 35% did not (cf. Table 2 in 4.2). Furthermore, the inclusion of the clausal comma prevailed (81%) in the instances that had an expressed subject in both coordinate clauses; their counterparts in which the subject was absent constituted 45% (cf. Figure 6 in 4.2.1). By contrast, the omission of the comma predominated in elliptical non-initial conjoins, accounting for 55% (as opposed to 19% of the *no*-comma use in the coordinate full clauses). The second-largest group (24%) was formed from adversative coordination (4.2.2). The adversative sentences proved great consistency: nearly 92% of the sentences included the comma, and only 8% omitted it, regardless of the presence/absence of the second subject. Regarding the subject presence/absence, the adversative sentences with both subjects expressed (75%) prevailed three times more than those with the second subject ellipted (25%). The disjunctive coordination (4.2.3) was the least frequent (2%) but consistent in marking the clause boundaries (cf. Table 2). The last subgroup, asyndetic coordination (4.2.4), accounted for 8%. Apart from one example of mispunctuation (a comma-splice error) and one with so-called gapping coordination, this subgroup was dominated by other punctuation marks serving as clausal separators: a colon, dash, and semicolon (accounting for 2% each).

In complex sentences with adverbial clauses (4.3), the comma usage varied considerably more than in compound sentences depending on a wider range of clause subtypes. The sample comprised eleven different types of adverbial clauses (cf. 4.3.1–4.3.10). Generally speaking, the comma separation prevailed (72% used the comma; 28% omitted it). The usage variation strongly depended on the distribution of the types of the adverbial clauses and on several factors that mostly interacted. In the comma inclusion, the greatest stability (100%) showed the conditional-concessive clause (4.3.5) in initial position, but there was no other competitor in this subclass. The lowest percentace of the comma separation (9%) was found in the temporal clauses in final position (cf. 4.3.1). On the other hand, the greatest consistency in the *no*-comma

use (100%) was achieved in one adverbial clause of viewpoint (4.3.10). The lowest percentage of the comma omission (3%) was found in one concessive clause in final position (cf. 4.3.4).

The qualitative part of the analysis focused on the factors that influenced the use of the clausal comma or, at least, contributed to it, by their interacting. In paratactic sentences, the main factors were the presence or absence of the subject in the second conjoin, length, and the degree of semantic tightness. Prosody and punctuation style affected the usage to a limited extent (they interacted rather than influenced the usage).

The inconsistency in copulative coordination was mainly caused by the fact that almost one half of the instances were full clauses (37 instances) and the other half were elliptical (29 instances). The presence of second subjects strongly favoured the comma inclusion (81%) over the comma omission (only 19%); and *vice versa*, their absence showed a certain preference for the comma omission (55%) over its inclusion (45%). These findings thus supported the first hypothesis (cf. 4.1). Another contributing factor was length: the majority of relatively short clauses (18 out of 23 instances) tended to omit the comma. By contrast, a very frequent factor behind the comma omission was the semantic tightness between the conjoins.

The highly homogeneous group of adversative coordination (92% of the comma inclusion) confirmed the second hypothesis in 4.1. The factor of the presence/absence of second subject failed to be the main deciding factor behind the comma inclusion, for the majority indeed had the comma (cf. Figure 7), regardless of whether the second subject was present (94%) or not (83%). A far more crucial role played the meaning of a contrast between the conjoins. Length was rather a contributing factor.

In disjunctive coordination, the deciding factors were the presence of the second subject and the subtype of disjunctive sentence (i.e. exclusive vs inclusive interpretation). Asyndetic coordination was largely comprised of the use of other punctuation marks capable of fulfilling specific purposes, compared to the use of the comma (cf. 2.5 and 2.6 in Chapter 2). There was no hypothesis formulated for disjunctive and asyndetic coordination.

In adverbial clauses, the most frequent factors behind the inclusion or omission of the comma were the syntactic function of the adverbial clause, its position in the sentence, and to some degree the length of the clauses. The writers' punctuation style proved marginal; in few instances was the style found responsible for the usage (cf. 4.2.12). The first two factors greatly contributed to the usage. The final data largely supported the hypotheses in 4.1 (cf. also Figure 10). As presupposed, the adjunct clauses in initial position used the comma (nearly 94%), while

the adjunct clauses in final position were rather unseparated from their matrix clauses (nearly 90%). The disjunct clauses in both initial and final position were hypothesised to include the clausal comma; however, only partially has this assumption proved correct: the initial disjuncts indeed used the comma (94%), but the data from the disjuncts in final position do not fully support the hypothesis in that seven instances did not used the comma (23%).

Since, in the adverbial clauses, the marked discrepancies between the hypotheses and the data were observed in the *no*-comma use and more often in the cases of final position, it is reasonable to infer that the sentence-ending adverbial clauses omitted the comma because these were more readily identifiable by the presence of the subordinator, indicating the boundaries. Also, according to Lutz & Stevenson (2011: 228f.) who classify sentence-ending adverbial clauses according to their (non-)restrictiveness, writers may "unintentionally force a nonessential or nonrestrictive detail into playing a restrictive role." Another plausible explanation lies in the writers' idiosyncratic punctuation style, for "it is evident, that, in many cases, its use must depend upon taste" (Cobbett as cited in Crystal, 2016: 228).

As for two disjuncts in medial position (100% of comma inclusion) and one subjunct (100% of *no*-comma use), there was no hypothesis proposed prior to the analysis.

The last point deals with further remarks on suggestions for some future research. The material analysed herein has been limited to one specific genre: linguistic texts. Other text types may indeed produce different results. Also, the similar research on the use of the comma among non-native speakers (e.g. EFL students) might prove fruitful. Alternatively, narrowing the focus on the particular types of clauses (e.g. only adverbial clauses) might provide valuable and more detailed insights into the actual usage of the comma.

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RESUMÉ

Tématem diplomové práce je užití čárky v anglickém souvětí na základě analýzy konvencí a stylových specifik užívání čárky v odborných článcích, jejichž autory jsou rodilí mluvčí angličtiny. Cílem práce je potvrdit hypotézu relativní nekonzistence užívání větné čárky. Práce vyhodnocuje četnost užití čárky oproti jejímu neužití jak v souvětí souřadném, tak v souvětí podřadném, které je složeno z věty řídící a věty příslovečné. Text se rovněž zabývá faktory, které úzus ovlivňují.

Diplomová práce se dělí na dvě hlavní kapitoly – teoretickou a empirickou část. Teoretická část v oddílu 2.1 představuje rozdíly mezi preskriptivním a deskriptivním přístupem. Důraz je kladen na současnou převahu deskriptivního přístupu (Peters, 2004: 149–150, 311). Tento se spolu s absencí jednotné kodifikace interpunkčního systému uvádí jako hlavní důvod relativní nekonzistence v užívání větné čárky. Její vývoj i užití prošly dle Peterse (2004: 447) změnami od liberálnějšího používání, které reflektovalo zejména prozodické rysy v psaném textu (Parkes, 2016: 13ff.), k raným fázím standardizace (Peters, 2004: 447), díky nimž se z prozodického typu čárky vyvinul typ gramatický (Primusová, 2007: 104, 108f.), aby bylo od tohoto úzu větné čárky následně upuštěno (Primusová, 2007: 109). Oddíl 2.2, na základě výkladu Huddlestona a Pulluma (2002: 1724), zasazuje čárku do interpunkčního systému současné angličtiny a kategorizuje ji jednak do segmentálního typu interpunkčních indikátorů (ibid.), a jednak do indikátorů, které vyznačují větné hranice (ibid.: 1729f.). Pro srovnání je zde uvedena klasifikace dle Quirka a kol. (1985: 1610f.), v níž čárka náleží do skupiny separačních znamének, které oddělují jednotky a zároveň indikují hranice mezi nimi. Oddíl 2.4 hlouběji porovnává charakteristické rozdíly mezi prozodickou a gramatickou čárkou na pozadí krátkého vhledu do dalších jazyků. Následující oddíly 2.5 a 2.6 předkládají hierarchické členění primárních a sekundárních znamének (které v textu vyznačují hranice jednotek) a porovnávají užití čárky v souvětí proti středníku, dvojtečce a pomlčce. Oddíl 2.7 a jeho pododdíly jsou věnovány větné čárce. Po stručném rozlišení mezi větou jednoduchou a souvětím na základě systému Quirka a kol. (1985: 719) je zde uvedeno užší dělení na souřadnost (koordinace či parataxe) a podřadnost (subordinace či hypotaxe). Oddíl 2.7.1 navazuje na přechozí oddíl a porovnává užití čárky v souřadném a podřadném souvětí. Další oddíl 2.7.2 je věnován ryze souřadnému souvětí: co do užití čárky je třeba zvážit několik faktorů, které tento úzus zpravidla ovlivňují, příp. v interakci k němu přispívají. Tyto byly sestaveny dle prostudované literatury – především se opíráme o prameny Quirka a kol. (1985), Crystala (2016), Huddlestona a Pulluma (2002): (i) délka věty; (ii) skutečnost vyjádřeného proti nevyjádřenému podmětu v druhé

koordinované větě; (iii) těsnost sémantického vztahu mezi větami; (iv) spojení vět za použití spojky (nikoli tedy spojení asyndezí); (v) tzv. „serial comma", obligatorní užití čárky, která rozděluje více vět v řadě; (vi) koncept tzv. „light punctuation" a „heavy punctuation"; (vii) sémantická indikace. Pododdíl 2.7.2.1 předkládá rozlišení mezi koordinací větnou a větněčlenskou, konkrétně koordinací predikátů s nevyjádřeným podmětem ve druhé větě. Srovnáváme zde, jak ke klasifikaci přistupují Dušková a kol. (2012), Osborne (2019), Huddleston a Pullum (2002), Quirk a kol. (1985). Oddíl 2.7.2.2 se věnuje funkci čárky coby segmentačnímu a formálnímu indikátoru vymezujícímu větné hranice. Dále je zde popsána varianta bez použití čárky (tzv. „*no*-comma usage") a její dopady na text z pohledu sémantiky a koheze (srov. Crystal, 2016: 234f. a Quirk a kol. 1985: 948n.). Následuje oddíl 2.7.2.3, jenž se věnuje obvyklým vzorcům s uplatněním čárky v souřadném souvětí (klasifikace čerpá z literatury Lutze a Stevensonové, 2011: 293–297). Oddíl 2.7.3 uvádí použití čárky v podřadném souvětí, přičemž následující pododdíl zevrubně popisuje její užití u příslovečných vět – u tohoto typu vedlejší věty úzus značně kolísá. Kategorizace faktorů, které mají na úzus vliv, vychází zejména z Quirka a kol. (1985), jejichž systém nabízí nejen propracovaný výklad týkající se užití čárky u příslovečných vět, ale i jejich přehledné klasifikování. U příslovečných vět se užití čárky může řídit: 1) pozicí příslovečné věty v souvětí; 2) AČV, tj. aktuálním členěním větným; 3) délkou vět; 4) strukturou, resp. jedná-li se o finitní, či nefinitní větu; 5) syntaktickou funkcí příslovečné věty, kdy angličtina tyto věty klasifikuje dle míry jejich (ne)začleněnosti do větné stavby, tzv. „adjuncts", „disjuncts", „conjuncts"; 6) „light/heavy punctuation", tedy idiosynkratickým autorským přístupem. Pododdíl 2.7.3.2 popisuje, jak se k úzu přistupuje ve vztažných větách (srov. Quirk a kol. 1985: 1239ff., 1257), a následující 2.7.3.3 prezentuje akceptovatelné užití čárky u závislých vět obsahových (srov. Quirk a kol. 1985, Huddleston a Pullum 2002). Nato pokračuje pododdíl 2.7.3.4 vyjmenováním vzorců, které lze v rámci příslovečných, vztažných i obsahových vět při užívání čárky uplatnit. Poslední oddíl 2.8 řeší problematiku chybného použití čárky, co se týká struktury a syntaxe (např. tzv. „comma splice").

Metodologická část popisuje způsob sběru dat. Jako relevantní zdrojové materiály byly vybrány lingvistické články z vědecké databáze *ScienceDirect*. Mezi hlavní kritéria patřil rozsah vzorku (200 souvětí, z toho 100 souřadných a 100 podřadných) a jazyková příslušnost 10 autorů článků (pouze rodilí mluvčí angličtiny), která byla ověřena prostřednictvím přímého kontaktování autorů. Dále byla vybírána pouze dvouvětná souvětí z důvodu konzistentnosti výsledků; relevantní souvětí obsahovala jen deklarativní finitní věty bez citací (s výjimkou

citací na úrovni slov/frází), aby bylo dosaženo co nevyšší autenticity autorství (spoluautorství nebylo zahrnuto).

4. kapitola se zaměřuje na analýzu. V její kvantitativní části sledujeme četnost užití/neužití čárky ve větách souřadných i podřadných. V souřadných větách (4.2) se výsledek lišil podle typu koordinačního spojení. Věty ve slučovacím poměru (66 %) byly nejméně konzistentní, co se celkového užití čárky týká: 65 % těchto vět čárku obsahovalo, 35 % nikoli. Užití čárky převládalo (81 %) v situacích, kdy byl podmět vyjádřen v obou koordinovaných větách. V případě, že podmět ve druhé větě absentoval, vyskytla se čárka ve 45 % případů. Vynechání čárky se výrazněji projevilo v případě eliptických spojení, a to v 55 %.

Pro slučovací poměr (4.2.1) představovalo hlavní faktor pro užití/neužití čárky vyjádření nebo nevyjádření podmětu ve druhé větě, délka a míra těsnosti sémantického vztahu mezi větami. Prosodie a autorský přístup ovlivnily výskyty pouze minimálně.

Druhou největší skupinu (24 %) tvořila souvětí v poměru odporovacím (4.2.2). V užívání čárky byla velmi konzistentní: 92 % vět čárku obsahovalo, pouze 8 % nikoliv. Nicméně u vět s oběma podměty vyjádřenými (v 18 případech, tj. 75 %) převládalo užití čárky třikrát více než ve větách, kde byl podmět vyjádřen elipticky (6 případů, tj. 25 %).

Odporovací věty tvoří velmi homogenní skupinu: většina případů obsahovala čárku, což potvrdilo naši druhou hypotézu (srov. 4.1). Ukázalo se, že faktor vyjádřenost/nevyjádřenost podmětu ve druhé větě není hlavním důvodem pro inkluzi čárky – většina případů čárku obsahovala nehledě na to, zda byl druhý podmět vyjádřen (94 %), či nikoli (83 %). Daleko výraznější faktor tvořil významový protiklad mezi promluvami (větami); délka vět je spíše druhotným důvodem (v interakci s ostatními komponenty).

Vylučovací poměr (4.2.3) byl s 2% výskytem nejméně frekventovaný: nalezli jsme pouze 2 případy, jeden čárku obsahoval (50 %), druhý nikoli (50 %), avšak v druhém případě se separace vět realizovala středníkem. Poslední podskupinu tvořila asyndetická spojení (4.2.4) s 8% výskytem.

Nekonzistenci v souřadných souvětích nejčastěji zapříčinilo vyjádření/nevyjádření podmětu ve druhé větě, a to u vět ve slučovacím poměru. Jeho vyjádření přispívalo k využití čárky (v 81 % ku 19 %). Naopak nevyjádření znamenalo ve většině případů její vynechání (v 55 %). Ostatní typy vět vykazovaly vyšší míru stability v užití čárky. Tyto údaje podpořily naši vstupní hypotézu (srov. 4.1).

V případě podřadných souvětí s příslovečnými větami (4.3) se výskyt čárky lišil mnohem výrazněji dle typu příslovečné věty a její syntaktické funkce. Vzorek obsahoval 11 různých typů příslovečných vět (4.3.1–4.3.10). Obecně vzato převládala separace pomocí čárky (v 72 výskytech ku 28), přesto její ne/využití kolísalo (v závislosti na větší variabilitě typů příslovečných vět ve srovnání se souřadným souvětím). Nejpravidelněji (100 %) se čárka vyskytovala v podmínkově-přípustkové větě v počáteční pozici (4.3.5), ovšem vzorek tvořila pouze jediná věta. Nejnižší výskyt čárky (9 %) evidujeme v časových větách v koncové pozici (4.3.1). Nejvyšší konzistenci (100 %) v neužívání čárky dosáhla příslovečná věta zřetelová (4.3.10), ale i zde evidujeme pouze jediný výskyt. Nejnižší četnost nevyužití čárky nacházíme v přípustkových větách v koncové pozici (4.3.4).

Výsledná data podpořila naši vstupní hypotézu. Tzv. „adjunct clauses" (tj. adverbiale začleněné do větné stavby) v počáteční pozici vedly k využití čárky (téměř v 94 % případů), zatímco v koncové pozici byly spíše neoddělené od řídících vět (téměř 90 %). Do větné stavby neintegrované disjunktivní věty neboli „disjunct clauses" na počáteční pozici autoři často čárku dle předpokladu zahrnuli (v 94 %), zatímco u disjunktivních vět v koncové pozici nebyla hypotéza zcela potvrzena: některé případy čárku neobsahovaly (23 %).

V poslední, 5. kapitole práce jsou vyhodnoceny a shrnuty závěry našeho zkoumání.

APPENDIX I: EXCERPTION

SAMPLE A: PARATAXIS

Comma in copulative coordination

1	EM:P#1	In (4), the bolded material *my sister Chrissie* has not yet been mentioned in the discourse string, and is therefore discourse-new.
2	EM:P#3	A resumptive pronoun thus salvages these instances of topicalization, and makes them appear as left dislocation.
3	EM:P#4	In (8), the site of extraction would have been inside a relative clause, and so topicalization would have been impossible.
4	EM:P#5	The left dislocated NP has been bolded, and all previous NPs or pronouns referring to the same entity as the left dislocated NP are italicized.
5	EM:P#6	For every utterance there is a set of forward looking centers Cf (U), and there is a backward looking center Cb (U).
6	EM:P#8	Previous versions of this work were presented at the Pragmatics Workshop at University of Pennsylvania and in the Centering Theory Reading Group at the University of California, Santa Cruz, and I have benefited from the comments of these audiences.
7	EM:P#10	In each of these approaches, the causative morpheme instantiates a functional head separate from the verb root, and multiple arguments such as causer and causee may be introduced into distinct specifier.
8	BM:P#2	Auer et al. (1998) review criteria-list definitions of salience proposed in the sociolinguistic literature by other authors (Hinskens, 1996, Schirmunski, 1930), including Trudgill's criteria, and make a distinction between objective and subjective criteria for salience.
9	BM:P#3	Objective criteria are based on a description of the structural properties of a dialect and do not necessarily reflect the speakers' actual perceptions.
10	BM:P#4	The authors synthesized the vowels to vary between front and back realizations and embedded them in two sentences produced by White speakers and Black speakers.
11	BM:P#9	The first approach to be reviewed is *the criteria-list approach* and the second *the experimental approach*.
12	CH:P#1	Most bird names in Wao-Terero correspond to the sounds associated with them (as ideophones), and in some cases their calls are interpreted as messages with reference to specific mythic narratives.
13	CH:P#4	Several young adults worked full-time on the project collecting videos and transcribing texts, and many other Waorani from several different communities worked occasionally on specific recordings, with the linguist managing the data and the growing electronic database resulting from it.
14	CH:P#5	The sense of temporal rupture in memories of conversion illustrates Waorani understandings of transformation and highlights the centrality of autonomy and individual experience in Waorani epistemology.
15	CH:P#6	Rather than a fixed and bounded essential state based on birth, descent, or lineage, people are made and transformed in life by the collective actions of their kin.
16	CH:P#7	Despite the difficulties of bringing rival groups together to live in a single settlement, with the new diseases and dependencies that followed, the majority of Waorani people had converted to Christianity by the 1970s and regularly attended church services at the mission settlement (Yost 1981).
17	CH:P#8	As the first Waorani convert, she joined Saint and Elliott in establishing the mission and helped garner support for it by touring the United States with Saint.
18	CH:P#9	Not only had they lost close kin to Waorani violence, they were willing to risk life and limb to carry on the mission project.

19	CH:P#10	The sense of rupture in memories of conversion illustrates Waorani understandings of transformation and highlights the centrality of autonomy and singular experiences in Waorani epistemology.
20	LM:P#1	Early twentieth-century Telugu language reformers, however, advocated for the wider use of *śiṣṭa jana vyavahārika bhāṣa*, or 'the polished speech of the educated people' (Ramakrishna, 1990, 570), and used the speech of dominant caste groups from the most agriculturally prosperous and economically powerful Telugu-speaking districts to define the new standard Telugu.
21	LM:P#5	The Ambedkar Students' Association (ASA) was founded in 1993 by a small group of Dalit students, and has since grown into an important organization advocating for the rights of Dalits (those regarded as 'untouchable' by orthodox Hinduism) within the university.
22	LM:P#6	No action was taken in reaction to their repeated efforts to raise their concerns, nor was any response received from university officials to their petition or formal complaint.
23	LM:P#7	The *maha garjana* followed longstanding efforts to communicate widespread support for the bifurcation of the existing Indian state of Andhra Pradesh, and sought to hold elected officials accountable for unfulfilled campaign promises pledging the formation of the new separate state of Telangana within the Indian nation.
24	JW:P#1	A wide variety of processes are attested in the literature, and we find different forms of clippings in our data, including mixtures of different clippings, homophone respellings, phonetic respellings including informal oral forms, initialisms (but no acronyms), and mixtures of clipping together with homophone and phonetic respellings.
25	JW:P#4	Androutsopolous (2000) distinguishes phonetic from colloquial spellings (non-standard orthography, like *wuz* for *was* vs. reductions typical of colloquial speech, like *wud* for *would*), and gives homophone respelling as a separate category.
26	JW:P#5	We recognise the very broad categories for now, and will develop a detailed classification later.
27	JW:P#7	Students are discussing a political speech, and are looking for rhetorical devices such as three-part statements.
28	JW:P#8	Interjections are also likely to be present in an oral discourse type like textchat very frequently as well, and can also subsequently be expected to be reduced more often.
29	JW:P#9	Thus, the latter three are more consequences of uneven distribution across the categories, and are the result of relative percentages.
30	JW:P#10	Of those under the −1 standard deviation range, Students 6, 23, 24 and 27 produced no homophone respellings at all; and Students 13 and 19 produced just a single token.
31	JC:P#3	Watching films was a relatively common occurrence at Østberg, and the speakers hanging from each classroom's walls would reverberate through to the room on the other side.
32	JC:P#4	That school had been built in the 1920s, more than 50 years before Østberg, and the walls were made of thick plaster, connected firmly to the floor and the ceiling.
33	JC:P#5	This kind of imitation was popular during Astrid's poetry exercise mentioned at the beginning of this paper, and I also often heard these students speaking what Jane Hill (1998) might call 'mock' versions of classmates' languages out during recess, denying the students' speech the status of denotational text by limiting it to strange *sounds*.
34	JC:P#7	Østberg is seen as a more 'difficult' school than Elveli, so more experienced teachers tend to move to schools like Elveli after starting out at schools like Østberg.
35	JC:P#8	Frequently, Astrid would say this word when disciplining the students, like *ikke inne* (not inside) and *ikke prate med hverandre* (don't speak to each other), so students would repeat the entire phrase, teasing Astrid by both echoing and mocking her strange sound and her command.
36	JC:P#9	Through their imitations and repetitions of Astrid, the students were not only producing echoing noises, they are also denying her this respect and questioning Astrid's authority in the classroom.

37	JC:P#10	Migrants are accused of constantly screaming instead of speaking to each other normally, and a school administrator shows her open-mindedness through narrating migrant children as just as quiet as Norwegians.
38	RB:P#1	Discourse analysis is a well-established approach to analyzing data, and folk linguistics is becoming more so, with publications, conference presentations and even a special issue of the *AILA Review*.
39	RB:P#4	My participants acknowledged its existence and linked it to education, with an interesting and complicated argument.
40	RB:P#5	In this paper, I follow Preston (1994) and analyze the transcript using Schiffrin's (1985) model of argument.
41	RB:P#6	In my data gathering I did not ask about AAE nor was that my focus.
42	RB:P#8	I have broken down the lines so these items appear in the beginning of a line.
43	RB:P#9	Participation in sports is often stereotypically seen as a lucrative career choice for African-Americans, and participation in college athletics is also seen as a stereotypical way for African-Americans to get an education.
44	PM:P#1	Despite the major social and economic changes experienced by Kaskas, the basic features of their lived reality remain unchanged, and they remain open to understanding the *k'éh* "ways" of other *dene* "people", including those of animals and other animate beings.
45	PM:P#2	The Kaska expression *enét'ē gūlīn* "whatever exists" could be offered as a near translational equivalent to "reality", and for Kaskas animate beings have their own perspectives, lives, cultures, personalities, as *dene* "people".
46	PM:P#3	Married women should avoid talking directly to their father-in-law, and men would similarly not talk directly to their mother-in-law.
47	PM:P#4	*Dene* can be Kaskas, non-Kaska indigenous people, any people, or any animate beings, and in this way their lived reality is similar to that described for groups in Amazonia.
48	PM:P#5	Similar sorts of mental flexibility and perspectival perception are required for both, and all animate beings are, after all, also *dene*.
49	PM:P#7	John lived to be well over a hundred years old, and at the time of his death in 2014, he and his wife Alice were the oldest couple in Canada.
50	PM:P#8	While working with Tidd Dickson expanded his knowledge of English and networked with Kaskas to eventually assume leadership of one of the two group traplines uniquely allotted to Kaskas in the Yukon.
51	PM:P#9	One route to understanding reality and modes of being for both Kaskas and non-Kaskas is through stories, and it was through a story told to me and Kaska language teacher Ann Mercier by Kaska Elder John Dickson at his home in *Dene Kēyeh* (Kaska Territory), Upper Liard, Yukon in 1987 that I began to appreciate Kaska ontology.
52	PM:P#10	For both groups, English as well as native names are frequently used in a variety of contexts to address, summon, or refer to particular individuals, and personal names are widely known by members of local communities.
53	PC:P#1	Furthermore, Barnsley shares a border with West Yorkshire and boundary changes of administrative areas in recent decades has had an impact on local identity in the region.
54	PC:P#2	Burland (2017) later study of Barnsley English focuses on the realisations of the FACE and GOAT diphthongs and considers differences within the region.
55	PC:P#3	Speakers are consciously aware of these features and can use them for social work such as style shifting.
56	PC:P#4	The description of Yorkshire varieties as broad clearly indexes many additional social values for Yorkshire speakers and can apply to repertoires associated with different areas in Yorkshire, as well as different ideologies surrounding characterological figures (see also Johnstone, 2017) relating to Yorkshire speakers.

57	PC:P#5	The repertoire of Yorkshire dialect set out in Table 1 indexed Yorkshire generally for the speakers surveyed in Cooper (2013) as opposed to any specific area within the county, and displayed links to social values at both the second and third orders of indexicality.
58	PC:P#6	Most interviews lasted between 40–60 min, and I identified 64 usable tokens of the word 'Barnsley' from 14 informants.
59	PC:P#7	The vowel in the first syllable in each token was extracted manually using Praat (Boersma and Weenink, 2017) and formant frequency measurements were taken for F2 to investigate the degree of fronting in each token of this vowel.
60	PC:P#8	None of these three speakers is from Barnsley, so the higher F2 represented by the Barnsley vowel is a performance of their perception of a variety other than their own.
61	PC:P#9	They also display a higher F2 range for this vowel relative to the other speakers, and their range of pronunciations is very similar to that displayed by Pam.
62	PC:P#10	The characterisation of Barnsley dialect as broad by Yorkshire speakers illustrates a similarly negative evaluation, and also indexes the social values of 'old fashioned' and 'unintelligible', discussed further below.
63	TH:P#2	According to Alonso, Belmonte & McCabe, ESL/EFL teachers have focused too much on intra-clausal grammatical errors and neglected to train students in the production of coherent discourse (1998:15).
64	TH:P#3	With *simple linear progression*, a theme repeats or transforms the rheme of the preceding clause and this may be depicted as Rh1–Th2, Rh2–Th3, Rh3-TH4, etc (Rh denoting rheme).
65	TH:P#4	This grammatical change in mood overrides the effect of the lexical repetition and changes its rhetorical direction, rising to a different level of attack.
66	TH:P#8	However, the theme of the final clause, *Does Mr Birt*, changes the direction of the progression and begins a more direct attack on the BBC.

Comma in adversative coordination

67	EM:P#9	Bhatt & Embick's account is relatively wide-ranging, attempting to explain a number of details concerning verbal morphology and syntax in Hindi-Urdu, but I will present here only the portion of the account most relevant to the questions at hand.
68	BM:P#1	Similarly, fricative voicing of /s/ is significant for the Southern talkers, but not for other dialects.
69	BM:P#5	The mean accuracy rate for this difference was 82%, but the accuracy rates for the individual participants ranged from 36% to 100%.
70	BM:P#6	For the Dutch experiment, the %-correct for the integral and verbal conditions were comparable (90% and 83%, respectively), but the %-correct for the prosodic condition was significantly lower than the other two (61%).
71	BM:P#7	The above studies rely on either ratings of a social characteristic (e.g. Very Southern, or Very Black) or the value of %-correct to quantify salience, but other studies take a different approach.
72	BM:P#8	For example, r-lessness is a significant predictor for the New England dialect, but not for the other dialects.
73	CH:P#3	We *kowori* do have human bodies (and thus human language), but our bodies (like our languages) are different.
74	LM:P#2	Even a movement like the Telangana movement did not seek to leave the Indian union, but rather desired formal state recognition.

75	LM:P#8	The new state contains some of the region's poorest districts, but also includes India's 4th largest city, Hyderabad, an important center of industrialization, research and development—home to state-run Bharat Heavy Electricals Limited, the National Geophysical Research Institute, and the Centre for Cellular and Molecular Biology, and to new special economic zones and knowledge parks (styled HITEC City or Cyberabad, the Financial District, and Genome Valley).
76	LM:P#9	The original meaning was pride, but the current usage — anger, or something close to it, at being upset with a loved one.
77	JW:P#2	There were different ways of metalinguistically marking reduction, but capitalisation was by far the most frequent.
78	JW:P#3	Herring and Zelenkauskaite (2009) identified more functions for such reductions than simply efficient and fast communication, but the exact functions of reduction are not the focus of this work.
79	JW:P#6	Clipping and homophone respelling seemed to be subject to much more individual variation than the others, but in general most individuals followed the norms of the cohort as a whole.
80	JC:P#1	Similarity is never inherent in objects (Goodman, 1972), but must be constructed, generally through the context of differentiations (Gal, 2013, 34; Irvine and Gal, 2000).
81	JC:P#2	Students were phonically producing language, but their peers denied its status as language by taking it up sonically as non-linguistic sounds.
82	JC:P#6	Johnson was interested in the social and political implications of changing listening habits over time, but a similar attention to the material structure of Østberg and Elveli schools can also reveal the perpetuation of contemporary social divisions between migrants and ethnic Norwegians living in Oslo.
83	RB:P#7	The researcher cajoled them, trying to get her information (i.e., specifics, features), but the folk persisted in their analysis of education or of speech mirroring education.
84	RB:P#10	Preston's fieldworker also had trouble eliciting specific forms from his African-American participants, but he did manage to elicit the items *man*, *girl*, *bro*, and *jive turkey*, as well as such phrases as "What's happening?" and "What's going down?".
85	PM:P#6	The medicine man alternates languages, but the girl's mother uses only Kaska, perhaps reflecting the restricted use of English by most women of Dickson's generation.
86	TH:P#1	Space does not permit a detailed review of the different positions here, but they have included Firbas, 1995, Fries, 1981, Halliday, 1985, Thomas, 1991, Davies, 1993, Hasan and Fries, 1995, Ravelli, 1995, Berry, 1995, Hawes and Thomas, 1997, Hawes, 2001, and Fawcett (2007).
87	TH:P#5	If used consciously, this can be sophisticated strategic ellipsis, but it too often betrays a simple lack of control on the part of the student.
88	TH:P#6	All the ideas expressed are both logical and relevant, yet poor thematisation in at least three cases makes this passage difficult to process.
89	TH:P#7	Thompson's explanation relates in this instance to spoken discourse but is equally applicable to written text.
90	TH:P#9	Simple linear progression, lastly, can lend an aura of logic to a sequence but, if used unimaginatively, it can also degenerate into a plodding succession of links, essentially stating no more than 'this means … this means … this means, etc'.

Comma in disjunctive coordination

91	LM:P#3	Instead, their actions are misread as agony, raw affect, anger, violence, or criminality, or they simply fail to be recognizable at all.
92	RB:P#3	Positions can be *disputed* through opposition to an idea, the stance of the speaker, or moral implications; or *supported* through logic, evidence, or speech acts such as explanation or justification (18-19).

Comma in asyndetic coordination

93	EM:P#2	Immediately the contrast between (4) and (6) is clear: *my youngest brother* is not discourse-new.
94	EM:P#7	(16c) flouts this expectation—the speaker SHIFTS to *boarding school*.
95	BM:P#10	Defining phonetic distance between two variants is a difficult task; phonetic distance (or similarity) may reflect articulatory, acoustic, or perceptual similarity (Mielke, 2012).
96	CH:P#2	Of course, Waorani today are not only aware of *kowori* languages; many of them are bilingual in Spanish or Quichua as a result of schooling, interethnic marriages with Quichua speakers, or experiences outside their home communities.
97	LM:P#4	Instead of a political voice communicated through collective action and the possibility of recognition, efforts to communication appear only noise, excess, violence, the raw affect of personal pain and agony—emotion is left as the remainder outside of the political.
98	LM:P#10	It would not be incorrect to say that without such widespread public collective assembly, the new state would not have come into being.
99	RB:P#2	The first is called a *nonmixed difference of opinion*, the second a *mixed difference of opinion*.
100	TH:P#10	Overall, the picture is simple: breaks occur with particular frequency in Evaluation and, therefore, at the end of a text or paragraph.

SAMPLE B: HYPOTAXIS (adverbial clauses)

Clauses of time

101	LM:H#1	Principally, the child is correct when he writes *pottadi*.
102	LM:H#2	Other assemblies organized by Telangana advocates, including a 'Million March,' many more road and rail blockades, work stoppages, rallies, hunger strikes, processions, and long-distance pilgrimages to sites of political power, as well as similar counter-demonstrations held by supporters of *samaikyandhra* (advocates of a 'United Andhra' opposed to the formation of the new state) became increasingly frequent **as** both Telangana supporters and opposition groups sought to publicly broadcast their opinions on the question of the proposed state formation.
103	LM:H#5	When their objections to the new policies were ignored, they set out to march toward Masulipatnam, gathering with them the weavers in each of the villages they passed through on their way.
104	LM:H#6	Resistance to economic policies and administrative practices was widespread whenever such innovations were locally seen as unjust.
105	LM:H#7	When a delegation travelled to Madras to petition the Board of Trade directly, they received the following response from J. Gwalkin, Secretary of the Board of Trade.
106	LM:H#8	In January of 2002 while I was doing fieldwork in Hyderabad, ten students from the University of Hyderabad were expelled following an effort made by a group of more than one hundred members of the Ambedkar Students' Association to collectively present a list of concerns to the university's chief hostel warden.
107	JC:H#5	Noise and quiet also come up when school employees talk about the students at these schools.
108	RB:H#3	*Critical discussion* ensues when the two parties aim to resolve their differences through the stages of *confrontation*, *opening*, *argumentation*, and *conclusion*.
109	RB:H#8	This policy works as long as students present familiar issues and identities.
110	PM:H#8	The men had been working at Lower Post, British Columbia, unloading supplies from a barge, when a plane belonging to the company landed on the river.
111	PC:H#8	It is also only salient for speakers when it is pronounced in the name of the town.

Clauses of place

112	PC:H#10	In fact, where 'broad' was discussed, it was frequently accompanied by references to farmers, older speakers, unintelligible speech, and Yorkshire itself.
113	TH:H#7	Breaks are best kept to the boundaries of ideational sequences generally, where they may usefully signal a change in the writer's thought process.

Clauses of condition

114	EM:H#3	If this were the case, it could potentially be viewed as a left dislocation of the Simplifying type.
115	EM:H#6	Were the sentence in canonical form, the left dislocated material would have been in subject position: *my sister Chrissie's eyes were poppin' out*.
116	BM:H#1	Under the criteria-list approach, a linguistic variable is said to be salient if it meets a list of criteria.
117	BM:H#3	Lastly, if the difference between a D1 and a D2 variant is likely to hinder comprehensibility, then the difference is said to be salient.
118	BM:H#8	A variant is predicted to be salient if it is used in code-switching (usage in code-alternation) or in writings by non-linguists (representation in lay dialect writing).
119	BM:H#9	If the criteria were met, then the variable would be considered salient.
120	BM:H#10	If the presence of a variable results in greater accuracy in identifying some social characteristic of a model speaker than another variable, then the first is more salient than the second within the particular context of identification.
121	RB:H#2	A *modal qualifier* (*probably*, *possibly*) may be used if there are any exceptional conditions bearing on the link between the warrant and the conclusion.
122	RB:H#5	Participant D seems to disapprove if Black people "bring the ghetto with them" into a wider society.
123	RB:H#9	Therefore, when a student visits with a difference such as deafness, blindness, or physical disability, tutors and administrators may not be properly prepared to accommodate them.
124	TH:H#8	A viable interpretation of *The converse* would be extremely hard to discern unless the reader is confident and interested enough to simply continue to the subsequent clause.
125	TH:H#9	The greatest possible learner empowerment would be achieved if students could acquire the skill of balancing academic exposition with other more hortatory options by choosing appropriately from among a selection of progression types they have mastered.
126	TH:H#10	If students' assignments are to be clear in their development but also varied and interesting for the reader, additional progression skills are required.

Clauses of concession

127	EM:H#4	While it is difficult to be certain without access to the entire discourse string, this token is possibly a left dislocation of this new type as well.
128	EM:H#7	Perhaps Cp (Un) 6Ľ Cb = (LDUn+1) would suffice, although many more tokens would need to be examined.
129	EM:H#9	Initials of each speaker's pseudonym are given for the adult speakers, while the abbreviation *KIDS* stands for all the children in the group interviews.

130	BM:H#4	The two variables with medium salience were lost at rates of 25% and 39%, while the three most salient variables were lost at rates of 26%, 30%, and 47%.
131	BM:H#6	While acoustic measurement allows us to quantify similarity to some degree, there are some difficulties with this method.
132	BM:H#7	Although spectrally the French vowel pair /i/-/y/ is much more similar than the pair /y/-/u/, the participants in Levy and Strange's study nevertheless were much more accurate at discriminating between the former pair than the latter, indicating that spectral similarity is not the only factor at play in determining how well listeners can distinguish between vowels.
133	CH:H#2	While I am interested in the differences between Waorani and Western understandings of language, I also want to resist the tendency in previous work on ontology to posit them simply as polar opposites.
134	CH:H#3	While jaguar speech is said to bring about successful hunting, it is also associated with a dangerous predatory perspective (High, 2012a).
135	CH:H#5	While I can only speculate about this process historically, a close connection between the capacity to speak their language and becoming part of proper human sociality was evident in my own fieldwork decades later.
136	CH:H#7	Although Waorani are able to learn the meanings of their calls, they draw a clear distinction between bird messages and human language.
137	CH:H#9	Other Ecuadorians and foreigners are still *kowori*, even if this category no longer denotes cannibalism.
138	LM:H#9	Although civility does not play as large a role within the arguments of agonistic pluralists, it is not absent from their discussions.
139	JW:H#1	There is much individual variation in the frequencies of the different processes, although most were within normal distribution.
140	JW:H#3	When comparing the languages, German exhibits more initialisms, while English has more clipping, contractions, homophone respellings, phonetic respellings and word-value characters.
141	JW:H#5	The term *abbreviation* is often used by authors to refer to clipping processes in general (by Murray, 2000, Herring, 2012, for example), although for Werry (1996) the term refers to reduction in general.
142	JW:H#6	Students 4, 7, 10, 14 and 16 lie above +1 standard deviation, while Students 6, 13, 19, 23, 24 and 27 lie under −1 standard deviation.
143	JC:H#1	In this segment, Astrid, the teacher, was outside in the hallway, working with a student individually, while the rest of the class was supposed to be reading silently.
144	JC:H#4	While buildings like Østberg School exist in many parts of Oslo, as the result of a large population increase in the decades following World War II, they are not popular among middle-class residents.
145	JC:H#8	While the teachers tried to respond jokingly in front of their students, the flimsy quality of the walls was a popular source of complaint during lunch in the staffroom.
146	JC:H#9	While Norway professes weak standard ideologies and values speaking one's regional dialect over the Oslo-influenced Standard, this tolerance does not extend to the registers associated with migrants and youth in Eastern Oslo (Opsahl and Røyneland, 2009; Røyneland and Mæhlum, 2009).
147	RB:H#6	They call it a "lingo" and a "ghetto accent", while the researcher, similar to the fieldworker in Preston's data (1994: 286), calls it "Black English".
148	RB:H#10	Even though North called for research in 1984b, little research on the effectiveness of actual specific tutoring practices has been conducted (Jones, 2001).
149	PM:H#1	The rules are especially comprehensive for the large game animals, although there are general and particular forms of respect for every animate being.

150	PM:H#4	While some Kaska women married white traders or prospectors, they did not achieve the same level of prestige as the Kaska men in paid positions.
151	PM:H#6	While the use of language shifts in Kaska narratives might be taken as evidence for their cultural domination and displacement by Euro-Canadians, from a Kaska perspective the story is more complex.
152	PM:H#7	Although the system of two-part names was initially imposed on the Dene Tha as part of the practices of missionaries and other colonial agents, Christian first names were eventually adopted as loanwords in their language.
153	PC:H#1	Features at the first order of indexicality do not have any social meaning for speakers, although a linguist may observe that correlate with a particular group.
154	PC:H#2	The majority of the pronunciations displayed an F2 in the 1200–1400 Hz range whereas the tokens of the specifically performed Barnsley vowel tended to have a higher F2 with an average F2 of 1462 Hz.
155	PC:H#5	Indeed, although such a pun could arguably have been made without the existence of a distinctive pronunciation of Barnsley (based solely on the noise made by sheep), the Black Bee Creative blog post explicitly makes reference to the Barnsley accent, highlighting that this pronunciation is something that local people are consciously aware of.
156	TH:H#2	While these newspapers are of course especially relevant to media students, an increased understanding of thematic progression per se, including of variations on Daneš' progression types and *breaks* (outlined in the section *Theoretical model*), should be helpful with any manner of writing tasks.
157	TH:H#3	Whereas a journalistic article could potentially be of almost any length, depending on the importance of the topic to the paper or its owner and the projected interest value for the reader, a newspaper editorial is a relatively stable subgenre, fixed over the years through practice becoming 'tradition'.
158	TH:H#5	Although this final theme involves repetition of Mr Birt, the sense of a continuing progression sequence is not nearly as strong as the effect produced by the mood switch to interrogative.
159	TH:H#6	Without going into great detail, the occurrence patterns of certain breaks stand out as significant, though more research would be necessary to authoritatively confirm or disconfirm this.

Conditional-concessive clause

160	RB:H#7	However stereotypical these forms may be (see Lippi-Green, 2012 for a discussion of *aks* and others), the race of the participants did not seem to affect or influence their ability or inability to provide specific features.

Reason clauses

161	EM:H#2	Since, as discussed in the paragraph above, these left dislocated NPs do not stand in any poset relation to entities already evoked in the discourse-model, this cannot be a failed topicalization environment.
162	EM:H#5	Because these two tokens of left dislocation do not conform to any of the three types identified by Prince, we need to find a way to identify the discourse function employed here.
163	EM:H#10	Crucially, since the verbal domain consists of only a single phase in the CAUSEP account, the internal argument is accessible to the T probe.
164	CH:H#8	There is nothing troubling or unusual about the intelligibility of bird calls since, in contrast to Yoda conversing with Luke or a jaguar speaking through the body of a shaman, their "language" corresponds to their distinct bodily form.

165	CH:H#10	Ideophones are particularly interesting in this respect because they do not lend themselves well to being translated as an abstract representational form.
166	JW:H#2	The numbers for the media, politics, gender and morphology are naturally higher since there are pre-seminars in those sessions.
167	JW:H#4	We also recognise combinations of homophone and phonetic respellings and clippings, as the latter in particular are frequently attested.
168	JW:H#7	This is a clear difference from usage mentioned in previous literature, as there is far more variety in the homophone respellings found.
169	JW:H#8	Students 25 and 26 were clearer examples of variation, as their distribution over the processes was more even.
170	JC:H#2	Because the wall was not attached at the bottom, papers from the other classroom would sometimes slide into ours, disrupting class and creating more noise while the teacher went to return them.
171	JC:H#6	Coincidentally, this sound is also very politicized in Oslo, as it is the result of an ongoing merger between two sounds, [ʂ] and [ç].
172	RB:H#4	Since this is a rhetorical argument there is no dispute (DIS).
173	PM:H#2	Because there is no separation of human "culture" and "nature" $\acute{a}'\bar{\imath}$ also applies to forms of "respect" or "taboos" for social interaction with people.
174	PM:H#3	In the accounts from the adjacent Tagish, Inland Tlingit, and Tutchone analyzed by ethnographer Catherine McClellan (1970) the woman was taken because she talked disparagingly about the animal's droppings.
175	PM:H#5	This resurgence of indigenous cultural practices may preclude fundamental changes of indigenous realities because the indigenous perspective is accorded a foundational authority by Kaskas and other indigenous groups of the region.
176	PM:H#9	As it became more acceptable to publicly assert native Identity, many individuals increasingly made public use of their Kaska names.
177	PM:H#10	In both languages, kinship terms are frequently used even for distant relatives since kinship relations are important in regulating social practices such as marriage, the structure of local groups, resource rights, and the nature of personal interactions between individuals (Honigmann 1954; McDonnell 1975).
178	PC:H#3	As the Barnsley vowel is being pronounced in a similar F2 range I have transcribed the Barnsley vowel as [aː].
179	PC:H#6	The concept of 'broad' also has links with additional social values for Yorkshire speakers, as we see references to varieties associated with being broad as similarly being used by older speakers and more traditional speakers.
180	PC:H#9	As many informants described Barnsley dialect as being 'broad', 'traditional', and 'old fashioned', the archaic nature of these pronouns may explain their association with this specific localised variety despite their broader association with Yorkshire.
181	TH:H#1	It is a key factor in the structuring of information because it acts as a bridge between sentence level and discourse level, coordinating cohesion and coherence.

Clauses of result

182	EM:H#1	In the case of the token in (9) the proper name *Bingo* is mentioned in Speaker A's utterance, followed by a mention of *iguana*, **so that** the entire NP left dislocated by Speaker B is discourse-old.
183	BM:H#5	In the verbal condition, the pitch contour of the speech fragments was monotonized so that only segmental information and non-pitch prosodic information were retained.

184	JC:H#7	Hung from the ceiling, they were not actually attached to the floor so that they could fold in and out like an accordion.

Clauses of similarity and proportion

185	BM:H#2	The more geographically widespread a given dialectal variant is geographically, the more salient it is predicted to be (areal distribution).
186	CH:H#1	At the same time, they come to understand their language as a different kind of force in the world as they struggle to translate words and concepts on a computer keyboard.
187	CH:H#4	Just as Waorani babies become people and kin through sharing food and drink and learning to speak with people in their household, the close connection between language, collective consumption and the body appears to be inseparable in this wider process of becoming.
188	JC:H#3	As migration increases throughout Europe, these regimes of hearing difference and their exclusionary consequences will only become more important.

Comment clauses

189	EM:H#8	As Table 1 shows, the majority of the instances of left dislocation were of the simplifying type, such as the token in (4).
190	CH:H#6	As the practice of speaking "French" to separate the dead through intentional unintelligibility illustrates, Wao-Terero and *kowori* languages appear to evoke distinct bodily forms and corresponding affective properties.
191	LM:H#3	This is something more easily achieved collectively, however, as petitioners in Telangana so well recognized.
192	LM:H#4	Today, *āvēdana* is most often used to mean 'grief, sorrow, distress, anguish,' as a 1991 dictionary confirms (Gwynn and Sastry, 1991, 54).
193	LM:H#10	Attention to the period prior to Gandhi's rise to prominence has usually been written under the sign of violence, with insurgency, riot, and revolt frequently serving as framing motifs, as I have argued elsewhere (Mitchell, 2018).
194	JW:H#9	As we have seen, most individuals do lie within the standard deviation range for each process.
195	JW:H#10	Those with high frequencies are reduced more frequently, it appears, and without full forms to help the interpretation of the reduction.
196	JC:H#10	Organizing the transcript through the use of deictics, as I have done below, reveals several sets of parallelisms in this article.
197	RB:H#1	The present study applies Schiffrin's analysis to similar folk-linguistic data, as both Preston's and my subjects discussed African American English.
198	PC:H#4	The notion of the Barnsley dialect described by informants was frequently and consistently linked to certain social values other than just place, as is often the case with enregistered varieties.
199	PC:H#7	Indeed, as Agha (2003, 243) goes on to note, enregistered repertoires become associated with 'characterological figures and social personae'.

Viewpoint clause

200	TH:H#4	From 1991 to 2008 there was as good as no change whatsoever in either The Sun or The Times as far as the format and length of their editorials is concerned (Hawes, 2010a).

APPENDIX II: WRITERS' CONFIRMATION

<table>
<tr>
<td rowspan="1" style="writing-mode: vertical">enquiry</td>
<td>

Dear [*Name*],

I am a student of English studies at Charles University in Prague. I am currently writing my master's thesis on the use of the comma in academic prose — in academic articles written by native speakers of the English language.

I would very much like to make use of your article "[*Title*]" — open to the public on the website of ScienceDirect (https://www.sciencedirect.com/) — as the source material for my research.

Therefore, I would appreciate it if you might **reply** to this e-mail with your confirmation that **you are a native speaker** of English.

Thank you very much in advance.

Yours sincerely,
Irena Krejcova

</td>
</tr>
</table>

#	author's name	code	variety	confirmation
1	Emily Manetta	**EM**	AmE	**Emily Manetta** <Emily.Manetta@uvm.edu> 4 Jan 2019, 04:24 to me Greetings Irena, Yes, I am a native speaker of American English. I hope that is helpful. Best, Emily --- Emily Manetta, PhD Associate Professor of Linguistics Chair, Department of Anthropology University of Vermont 509 Williams Hall 72 University Place Burlington, VT 05405 Emily.Manetta@uvm.edu http://www.uvm.edu/~emanetta
2	Beth MacLeod	**BM**	CanE	**Beth MacLeod** <BethMacLeod@cunet.carleton.ca> Fri, 4 Jan 2019, 14:25 to me Hi Irena, Yes, I am a native speaker of English. Good luck with your thesis, Beth ••• -- Beth MacLeod Assistant Professor & Assistant Director (LING) School of Linguistics and Language Studies Carleton University Paterson Hall 239 beth_macleod@carleton.ca 613-520-2600 x5229

3	Casey High	CH	n/a	**HIGH Casey** <C.High@ed.ac.uk>　　　　　Wed, 25 Sep 2019, 14:14 to me ▼ Dear Irena, Yes, I am a native speaker of English. Best, Casey
4	Lisa Mitchell	LM	n/a	**Mitchell, Lisa A** <lmitch@sas.upenn.edu>　　　Wed, 16 Jan 2019, 16:05 to me ▼ Yes, I am a native speaker of English. In future, I would encourage you to send out emails like this from an official university email account rather than from a private gmail account. It may be taken more seriously. Very best, Lisa Mitchell ••• -- Lisa Mitchell Associate Professor Department of South Asia Studies University of Pennsylvania 820 Williams Hall, 255 South 36th Street Philadelphia, PA 19104-6305 (USA)
5	Jonathan R. White	JW	BrE	**Jonathan White (HDa)** <jwh@du.se>　　　　Sat, 5 Jan 2019, 10:22 to me ▼ Hello, Yes, I am a native speaker of British English 😊 Good luck with your writing Best regards Jonathan
6	Janet E. Connor	JC	AmE	**Janet Connor** <jeconnor@uchicago.edu>　　　Mon, 7 Jan 2019, 12:29 to me ▼ Dear Irena, What an interesting project. Yes, I'm a native speaker of (American) English. Good luck with the thesis. Best wishes, Janet
7	Rebecca Day Babcock	RB	AmE	**Rebecca Babcock** <babcock_r@utpb.edu>　　　Sat, 5 Jan 2019, 00:09 to me ▼ Yes, I am a native speaker of English and I would like to know the result of your research.
8	Patrick Moore	PM	CanE	**Moore, Patrick** <Patrick.Moore@ubc.ca>　　　Fri, 4 Jan 2019, 22:44 to me ▼ Irena, I am indeed a native speaker of English. Pat Moore

9	Paul Cooper	PC	BrE	Cooper, Paul <P.Cooper@liverpool.ac.uk>　　　Mon, 7 Jan 2019, 12:58 to me ▾ Dear Irena, Thanks for your email. This sounds like a very interesting project. I'd be delighted for you to use my paper and I can confirm that I am a native speaker of English. I'd be very interested to learn about your findings – would you mind sending me an update when you've completed your analysis? This is motivated out of curiosity regarding how I use commas! All the best, Paul
10	Thomas Hawes	TH	BrE	Thomas Hawes <tomhawes2004@yahoo.co.uk>　　　Sat, 5 Jan 2019, 00:19 to me ▾ Dear Irena Thanks for your message. Yes, I can confirm that I am a native speaker of English. Good luck with your masters! Tom Hawes