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Multiple sentence as a style marker of academic prose:
Analysis of sentences composed of five and more finite clauses

DIPLOMOVÁ PRÁCE

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List of abbreviations

Adj _{comp}	Adjectival complementation
AdjRelNR	Adjectival relative clause – non-restrictive
AdjRelR	Adjectival relative clause – restrictive
Adv	Adverbial
AdvCC	Adverbial conditional concessive clause
Adv _{comp}	Adverbial clause of comparison
Adv _{conc}	Adverbial clause of concession
Adv _{cond}	Adverbial clause of condition
Adv _{cont}	Adverbial clause of contrast
Adv _{manner}	Adverbial clause of manner
Adv _{loc}	Adverbial clause of place
Adv _{prop}	Adverbial clause of proportion
Adv _{pur}	Adverbial clause of purpose
Adv _{ref}	Adverbial clause of reference
Adv _{cause}	Adverbial clause of reason
Adv _{fin}	Adverbial clause of result
Adv _{temp}	Adverbial clause of time
Adv _{exc}	Adverbial clause of exception
Adv _{sim}	Adverbial clause of similarity
App	Appositive
Asynd	Asyndetic coordination
ComCl	Disjunct clause – comment clause
ConjCl	Conjunct clause
Cop	Copulative/additive relation
C _O	Object complement
C _S	Subject complement
DCl	Dependent (subordinate) clause
Ellip	Ellipsis
It-cleft	It-cleft sentence
Juxt	Juxtaposition
NomContDecl	Nominal content dependent declarative clause
NomContExcl	Nominal content dependent exclamative clause
NomContImp	Nominal content dependent imperative clause
NomContInterrog	Nominal content dependent interrogative clause
NomRel	Nominal relative clause
O	Object
O _D	Direct object
O _I	Indirect object
O _{prep}	Prepositional object
Postmod	Postmodification
S	Subject
MCl	Superordinate clause
V _{cop}	Copular verb

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to analyse the occurrence of multiple sentences in a technical text as a style marker. This work is supposed to be a continuation of a research previously done by Černý (1998) and Poláčková (2000), both of whom aimed at proving the appearance of complex and compound sentences as a style marker. We will focus on multiple sentences comprising at least five finite clauses (clauses containing at least five finite verb forms) in technical (academic) texts, and compare our findings with the results of the study by Poláčková (2000). Poláčková compared two types of texts – literary and technical. In our paper we will compare our results with those concerning the technical writings.

In this paper we will be dealing with four samples of academic prose, and we will analyse the frequency, structure and characteristics of multiple sentences comprising at least five finite clauses found in each text. The reason for such a comparison is to prove that the frequency of multiple sentences comprising at least five clauses is supposed to be similar in all four texts, since they are all considered as technical texts.

The work is divided into two parts. The first part contains theoretical preliminaries, the second the description of the research itself. The sample sentences (excerpts) with diagrams are listed at the end in the appendix. The theoretical part contains hypothesis, summary of the previous research done by Poláčková (2000), a characteristic of academic text, and sentence typology on which the sentence typology used in this research is based.

The second part contains a short characteristic of the used texts, explanation of the schemes used for the excerpted sentences, and description of the phenomena found in our research. All phenomena are presented in Tables in chapter 5 of the second part. The research part of this study is then concluded by a comparison of the two studies.

I THEORETICAL PART

1 Previous research

A similar research has been done in the thesis of Poláčková (Poláčková 2000), who compared multiple sentences with four clauses in two types of texts – literary and technical. She based her research on the hypothesis of greater frequency of multiple sentences with four clauses in the complicated, explicit language of the technical style. She also predicted a larger number of adverbial clauses of causality (in particular clauses of reason and condition) in the technical texts. Since technical writing tends to be highly explicit, she assumed that the independent clauses there would be joined with a coordinating conjunction more often than those in the literary style.

She studied the extracted sentences for numerous features. One result was that the average rate of occurrence of the multiple sentence with four clauses in the technical style was found to be twice as high as that in the literary style. This proves that technical writing tends to greater complexity of sentence structure. This probably reflects the need for explicitness, the necessity of a detailed description of complicated extralingual relations.

Another substantial difference between the two styles has been found in the proportion of the independent and dependent clauses in the multiple sentences. In the technical texts, there was only one sentence with four independent clauses; in the texts of the literary style there were sixteen such sentences. In both of the examined styles, the multiple sentences usually had two to three dependent clauses.

The conclusion drawn was that the literary excerpts had fewer dependent clauses and more independent clauses than the excerpts from the technical writing. One hundred multiple sentences from literary prose contained 196 dependent clauses, whereas an equal number of multiple sentences from technical writing included 249 dependent clauses.

Among other differences she noted a difference in the occurrence of some types of dependent clauses – the proportion of nominal clauses – 31% of all dependent clauses in the technical writing. The technical writing contained more dependent declarative clauses. In the

technical writing, the largest group of dependent clauses were relative clauses (43% of all dependent clauses in the excerpts from technical writing).

Syntactic functions of the nominal clauses and the nominal relative clauses in the matrix clause: the technical writing had more subject and predicate clauses than the literary style, whereas the literary style included more object clauses than the technical texts. The more frequent occurrence of subject and predicate clauses in technical style may be due to the probable use of constructions such as: *the question/problem is, it is believed that...*

The proportion of the adverbial clauses in the technical style (24% of all dependent clauses) approached that in the literary style (29%). The technical writing exceeded the literary style primarily in the occurrence of clauses of reason and clauses of condition. Contrary to her hypothesis, no clauses of place appeared in the literary texts. Moreover, two of these clauses were found in the excerpts from technical style.

Differences appeared in the combinations of the various types of dependent clauses in multiple sentences. In the technical texts, relative clauses were more frequent. The excerpts from the technical writing most often included a combination of one relative clause with one adverbial or one nominal clause. The multiple sentences with one independent and three dependent clauses in the technical writing contained more combinations of nominal and relative clauses.

The independent clauses in technical writing were much more often linked with a coordinating conjunction than without it. This was probably due to the need for explicitness and accuracy in this style.

Three types of dependency structure occur in multiple sentences with one independent and three dependent clauses: all three dependent clauses stand on the same hierarchical level in the sentence structure; one of them is superordinated to one or both of the other dependent clauses; one dependent clause is subordinated to another dependent clause which is further subordinated to the third dependent clause. There was no remarkable difference between the technical and the literary style. Distribution of the dependency structure in the sentences was very similar in technical writing, while in literary style there was more variability – the depth of the dependency structure cannot be assigned the function of a style marker.

No significant differences between the two styles have been found in the semantic relations and the punctuation between independent clauses and the occurrence of cleft sentences.

To sum up the results of Poláčková's investigation – the multiple sentence with four finite clauses was proved to serve as a style marker. The major points of relevance are a different frequency in the occurrence of the multiple sentence in her two investigated styles, a different proportion of independent and dependent clauses, a different occurrence of certain types of dependent clauses, and the presence or the absence of coordinating conjunctions between independent clauses – in technical style there were fewer temporal clauses and more clauses of reason and condition. The most frequent dependent clause in technical writing is the relative clause.

2 Technical and academic style

As far as “style” is concerned, according to the Dictionary of Stylistics it is difficult to define, and there are several broad areas in which it is used. In the simplest way style refers to the manner of expression in writing or speaking. Its implication is that there are different styles in different situations, and so “style can be seen as variation in language use, whether literary or non-literary. The term ‘register’ is commonly used for those systematic variations in linguistic features common to particular non-literary situations, e.g. advertising, legal language, sports commentary” (Wales 1991, 436). Style is thus seen as the sum of linguistic features that seem to be characteristic of expression in different situations.

The term “register” (in stylistics and sociolinguistics) is used to refer to a variety of language defined according to the situation. The term, first introduced in the 1950s, implies the degree of formality (scale of differences) in different social uses of language. The codification of the significant linguistic features, which determine overall the style of the register was done mostly in the 1960s, in the work of N. E. Enkvist, J. W. Spenser and M. J. Gregory *Linguistics and style* (Oxford University Press, 1964), and particularly M. A. K.

Halliday, A. McIntosh and P. Strevens in *Linguistic sciences and language teaching* (Longman, 1964).

In general, we can determine the type (variety) of the given language by three main elements of the language, that is by the role of the speaker or writer of the text, by the number and status of its recipients, and whether the message is written or spoken. This is how we get three main ranges of variation in register according to which of these elements is dominant. The first defines a range of technicality, the second a range of formality and the third determines whether speaker and hearer are within audible range. A 'variety' can be identified by more than one range of variation at a time (Turner 1973, p. 168).

The technical text we are working with can be characterized as formal and written. The text is considered to be highly academic, not only because of its subject matter and vocabulary, but also because of its form (quotations, references etc). Subject matter alone does not prescribe a special language or register. "True technical language is the language of specialists addressing other specialists." (Turner 1973, p. 170) Sometimes the border line between general and technical (scientific, academic) text is somehow blurred. It happens that "technical language becomes so widely known that it is accessible to everyone, it ceases to be technicality and becomes part of the general language" (Turner 1973, *ibid*).

Academic text can be described as abstract, intellectualised, well structured, condensed yet unambiguous, exact and explicit. The individuality of the author should be suppressed (this can be proved by the use of more neutral *we: as we shall see, we shall assume* etc.), which contributes to the impersonality of the academic or technical writing, but at the same time addresses the reader.

On the other hand, academic or technical text displays popularising, didactic and/or essayistic features. Especially those with essayistic features can be characterized as more artistic. In essayistic writing the artistic features might act against the prerequisite of accuracy, which is essential for academic texts.

It would be wrong to characterize a text as either formal or informal; it is more appropriate to recognize the degree of formality. "Linguists generally recognize a scale or continuum ranging from very formal to very informal." (Wales 1991, p.185) We can also

assume that the texts used in our analysis, although all four considered as academic, will differ in the degree of incidence of the formal features.

Our hypothesis is that academic text is stylistically marked with a high degree of formality and specific vocabulary. However, as the title of this work tells us, we will be dealing with the formal features only on the syntactic level; further analysis of other features typical for technical and academic texts on other levels would be a matter of different work.

As the Dictionary of Stylistics tells us, “the co-ordinate constructions appear more informal than the subordinate. Generally, complex sentences with strings of subordinate clauses are much more characteristic of written and formal registers than speech: e.g. technical and legal discourse” (Wales 1991, p. 442). From this we could assume that the formal (i.e. academic and technical) writings contain more subordinate clauses than co-ordinate ones. Also, “subordination is an important means of distributing information within a sentence according to its value: the most important information is normally expressed in the main clause, that of lesser significance in the subordinate clause(s): pattern of foregrounding and backgrounding” (Wales 1992, *ibid*).

3 Sentence typology

Since the subject of this paper is the analysis of multiple sentences in a text, it will be very useful to provide here a typology of sentences. However, since the typology and characteristics of subordinate clauses and the functions they may have within a multiple sentences (their syntactic functions and semantic roles) are quite thoroughly dealt with in the work of Poláčková (2000), we will provide here only a brief overview of these functions so as to recall what syntactic and semantic functions subordinate clauses may display. The only type of subordinate (dependent) clause that we characterize here in more detail is the nominal interrogative clause and nominal relative clause, and comment clause. The reason is that the two types of nominal clauses are sometimes quite difficult to distinguish since they have similar features, and we had to tackle this difficulty in our analysis; comment clauses, on the

other hand, appear in our text very frequently and thus we considered it useful to include an account of them before proceeding to the analysis itself.

For our purpose the sentence typology in *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* is too complicated, for this reason we use the sentence typology of Quirk et al. (1985), modified by the system in Dušková (1994).

In this work we analyse the occurrence of multiple sentences that consist of five and more clauses in academic texts and we also look closer on their structure. A vast majority of these sentences are complex sentences (where at least one of the elements is realized by a subordinate clause). Only one sentence containing at least five finite verbs found in the analysed texts comprised only main clauses¹.

3.1 Simple and multiple sentences

Sentences are either simple or multiple. A simple sentence consists of a single independent clause in which each of its elements (subject, object, adverbial etc.) is realized by a subclausal unit – a phrase. The multiple sentence contains one or more clauses as its immediate constituents. Multiple sentences are either compound or complex. In a compound sentence the immediate constituents are two or more coordinate clauses. In a complex sentence one or more of its elements (subject, object, adverbial etc.) are realized by a subordinate clause.

3.2 Compound sentence, complex sentence and complex compound sentence

A compound sentence consists of two or more coordinated main clauses that have equivalent function, i.e. they are in paratactic relationship (“equal arrangement”), they are

¹ See sentence CD18.

equal constituents of a sentence. Example: *I admire her reasoning but I reject her conclusions.* (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 988)

A complex sentence is like a simple sentence in that it consists of only one main clause, but unlike a simple sentence it has one or more subordinate clauses functioning as an element of the sentence. Subordination is an asymmetrical relation: the sentence and its subordinate clauses are in a hypotactic relationship (“underneath arrangement”). Example: *Although I admire her reasoning, I reject her conclusions.* (Quirk et al. 1895, p. 988)

We also have compound complex sentence, a structure in which a main clause in a compound sentence contains one or more subordinate clauses. (Dušková 1994, p. 646)

Also, a clause may be a part of more than one relationships: it may be subordinate to one clause and superordinate to another. Example: *He predicted that he would discover the tiny particle when he conducted his next experiment* (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 989). The clause *that he would discover the tiny particle* is subordinate to the first clause (*he predicted*), and superordinate to the clause *when he conducted his next experiment*. The subordinate clause is included in its superordinate clause.

A subordinate (dependent) clause is thus a part of its superordinate clause and functions as one of its elements (subject, object, adverbial etc.). It is called dependent since it cannot stand (unlike the main clause) on its own.

We should also distinguish the terms main or superordinate clause and matrix clause. The term matrix clause is used to designate the superordinate clause minus its subordinate clause (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 991). In the example above the matrix clause would be the first part (*he predicted*).

3.3 Coordination and subordination

Explicit indicators of subordination are called subordinating conjunctions or subordinators. Indicators of coordination are coordinating conjunctions or coordinators. In coordination (paratactic relation) the clauses are constituents at the same level of constituent structure (coordination of two main, or of two dependent clauses); in subordination

(hypotactic relation) they form a hierarchy and the subordinate unit is a constituent of the superordinate clause (dependent clause is subordinate to the main clause).

Parataxis (equal arrangement) however, does not apply only to coordinate constructions, but also where two clauses of equivalent status are juxtaposed. Similarly, there are other hypotactic relations (such as the embedding of one phrase in another). A major difference between coordination and subordination of clauses is that the information in a subordinate clause is often placed in the background with respect to the superordinate clause. Coordination is also a more frequent device of cohesion (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 1474).

3.3.1 Syndetic and asyndetic coordination

Syndetic coordination is linked coordination by a coordinator (*and, or, but*), asyndetic coordination is unlinked coordination, it is not marked. The possibility of inserting the coordinator *and* with little alteration of meaning is evidence that a construction is one of asyndetic coordination. Syndetic coordination is the more usual form, asyndetic coordination is usually stylistically marked (eg. it is used for dramatic intensification).

In asyndetic coordination, the conjoins are generally separated by a tone-unit boundary in speech or by a non-terminal punctuation mark in writing.

3.3.2 Asyndetic connection and juxtaposition

Not all juxtaposed words, phrases, or clauses, however, are manifestations of asyndetic coordination. Mere juxtaposition (parataxis rather than asyndeton) is an icon of connectedness, even where the juxtaposed parts have no grammatical or lexical feature in common:

Go and visit your father; it's New Year's Day.

It's New Year's Day. Go and visit your father.

3.4 Syntactic functions of subordinate clauses

Subordinate clauses may function as subject, object, complement or adverbial, postmodifier, prepositional complement or adjectival complementation in a superordinate clause (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 1047).

Subject: *That we need a larger computer* has become obvious.

Direct object: He doesn't know *where he should go*.

Indirect object: You can give it to *whoever wants it*.

Subject complement: One likely result of the postponement is *that the cost of constructing the college will be much higher*.

Object complement: I know her *to be reliable*. – non-finite clause

Adverbial: *When you come home*, call me.

Postmodifier: the clothes *they have brought with them*.

Adjectival complementation: (I am not) sure *that I can remember it*.

We have to note that the clause displaying the role of object complement is non-finite.

3.4.1 Functional classes of subordinate clauses

We distinguish four major types of subordinate clauses: nominal, relative, adverbial and comparative (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 1047). This classification resembles the classification of clausal elements such as noun phrases and adverbs.

Nominal clauses act like a noun phrase, that means they can function as subject, object, complement, appositive and prepositional complement. They may also function as adjective complementation without a preposition (I'm not sure *(that) I can remember the exact details*).

Relative clauses generally function as restrictive or nonrestrictive modifiers of noun phrases, and are therefore similar to attributive adjectives. However, unlike attributive adjectives they are positioned in postmodification (a man *who is lonely*).

Adverbial clauses function mainly as adjuncts or disjuncts. In these functions they are like adverb phrases, but due to their greater explicitness they act more often like prepositional phrases (We left *after the speeches ended*).

Quirk et al. (1985, p.1110) also distinguish comparative clauses; however, in our classification they will be part of the adverbial clauses of manner since semantically they are equivalent to degree adverbs.

3.5 Nominal clauses

According to the system presented in *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 1048), nominal clauses fall into six major categories:

- *that*-clauses, or subordinate declarative clauses
- subordinate interrogative clauses
- subordinate exclamative clauses
- nominal relative clauses
- *to*-infinitive clauses
- *-ing* clauses.

3.5.1 Subordinate declarative clauses

Nominal *That*-clauses may function as:

subject: *That the invading troops have been withdrawn* has not affected our government's trade sanctions.

direct object: I noticed *that he spoke English with an Australian accent*.

subject complement: My assumption is *that interest rates will soon fall*.

appositive: Your criticism, *that no account has been taken of psychological factors*, is fully justified.

adjectival complementation: We are glad *that you are able to join us on our wedding anniversary*.

That-clause may not function as object complement or as prepositional complement. Also, when a *that*-clause displays the role of direct object or complement, the conjunction *that* is frequently omitted (I know *it's late*.). Also, *that*-clauses displaying the function of a subject are usually extraposed (are in postverbal position).

3.5.2 Subordinate interrogative clause

Subordinate interrogative clause (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 1948) (*wh*-interrogative clauses, *yes-no* and alternative interrogative clauses) occur in the whole range of functions available to the nominal *that*-clauses and in addition may function as prepositional complement.

subject: *How the book will sell* depends on the reviewers.

direct object: I can't imagine *what they want with your address*.

subject complement: The problem is *who will water my plants when I am away*.

appositive: Your original question, *why he did not report it to the police earlier*, has not yet been answered.

prepositional complement: They did not consult us on *whose names should be put forward*.

Wh-interrogative clauses leave a gap of unknown information, represented by the *wh*-element. Subordinate *yes-no* interrogative clauses and subordinate alternative interrogative clauses may include infinitive clauses.

The *yes-no* clause is introduced by the subordinators *whether* or *if*:

Do you know *whether the banks are open*?

I wonder *if you can help me*.

The alternative clauses are formed with the correlatives *whether... or* or *if...or*:

I can't find out *whether the flight has been delayed or whether it has been cancelled*.

3.5.3 Subordinate exclamative clauses

Subordinate exclamative clauses generally function as extraposed subject, direct object or prepositional complement (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 1055):

extraposed subject: It's incredible *how fast she can run*.

direct object: I remember *what a good time I had at your party*.

prepositional complement: I read an account of *what an impression you had made*.

Subordinate exclamative clauses generally have the same form as subordinate interrogative clauses introduced by *what* or *how*. However, in exclamative clauses *what* is a predeterminer (preceding the indefinite article), while in interrogative clauses *what* is either a central determiner or a pronoun:

They didn't know *what a crime he had committed*. – exclamative clause

They didn't know *what crime he had committed*. – interrogative clause

The distinction between predeterminer and central determiner *what* is neutralized for noncount nouns (*what foolishness*) and plural nouns (*what crimes*).

If the superordinate clause has a predication appropriate for both types of clauses and the *wh*-words are *how* or *what* with a noncount or plural noun, the subordinate clause may be ambiguous:

You can't imagine *what difficulties I have with my children*.

The sentence might be interpreted as either "You can't imagine the great difficulties I have with my children" (exclamatory interpretation), or "You can't imagine the kinds of difficulty I have with my children" (interrogative interpretation).

3.5.4 Nominal relative clauses

Nominal relative clauses resemble *wh*-interrogative clauses in that they are also introduced by a *wh*-element. Sometimes it is not easy to distinguish them from nominal interrogative clauses; for this reason we will give more space to their explanation in this work. In the system of Quirk et al. they appear in the same group of dependent clauses (nominal clauses).

Nominal relative clauses are relative clauses that act like noun phrases (they can be concrete as well as abstract or refer to persons) – they are a noun phrase modified by an adnominal relative clause where the *wh*-element is merged with its antecedent (the phrase to which the *wh*-element refers). They may display number concord with the verb of the sentence. The nominal relative clause is more independent than the adnominal relative clause and can thus function as an element in a superordinate clause.

Whoever did that should admit it frankly.

I took *what they offered me*.

Macy's is *where I buy my clothes*.

Whatever books I have in the house are borrowed from the library.

The *wh*-element may function within the nominal relative clause as subject, direct object, subject complement, object complement, adverbial, or prepositional complement:

Subject: *What* happened (upset him).

Direct object: (She took) *what* she needed.

Subject complement: *What* she became in later life (distressed her friends).

Object complement: (That's) *what* she calls her sister.

Adverbial: *Where* she went (was Manchester).

Prepositional complement: (I'll show you) *what* you can open the bottle with.

Nominal relative clauses have the same range of functions as noun phrases. In addition to the functions available generally to nominal clauses, they can function as indirect object and object complement:

Subject: *What I want* is a cup of tea.

Direct object: You should see *whoever deals with complaints*.

Indirect object: He gave *whoever asked for it* a copy of his latest paper.

Subject complement: April is *when the lilacs bloom*.

Object complement: You can call me *what(ever) you like*.

Appositive: I'll pay you the whole debt: *what I originally borrowed and what I owe you in interest*.

Prepositional complement: You should vote for *which(ever) candidate you think best*.

Nominal relative clauses in adjectival complementation require prepositions:

He's aware *of what I write*.

As we mentioned above, there are problems in some instances in distinguishing nominal relative clauses from *wh*-interrogative clauses. They differ syntactically in several respects:

- an interrogative clause as subject must take a singular verb, while a nominal relative clause may take either a singular or a plural verb, depending on the meaning of the *wh*-element (What possessions I have *are* yours. What were left behind *were* five empty bottles.);
- while an interrogative clause allows a choice in the placement of the preposition in a *wh*-element, a nominal relative clause requires the *wh*-word to be placed first and the preposition to be deferred:

They ate *what they paid for*. – nominal relative clause

* They ate *for what they paid*.

- *who*, *whom*, and *which* are common in interrogative clauses, but in nominal relative clauses they are restricted to co-occurrence with a small semantic class of verbs (*choose*, *like*, *please*, *want*, *wish*);
- the compound forms in *-ever* are used in nominal relative clauses, but not in interrogative clauses. While *They asked me what I didn't know* is ambiguous, *They asked me whatever I didn't know* is unambiguously nominal relative;
- unlike in interrogative clauses, determiner *what* in nominal relative clauses has a paucal meaning: *What friends she has* are out of the country. ('The few friends she has are out of the country.') Here the determiner *what* can be followed by only the "paucal" quantifiers *few* and *little*, and not by the "multal" quantifiers *many* and *much* or by cardinal numerals.

(Quirk et al. 1985, pp. 1056-61)

The semantic distinction between the interrogative *wh*-clause and the nominal relative clause is easier to exemplify than to define. The interrogative clause contains a gap of unknown information, expressed by the *wh*-element, and its superordinate clause expresses some concern with the closing of that gap, with supplying the missing information. The nominal relative clause does not contain a gap in information, and therefore the superordinate clause is not concerned with the closing of that gap (*I sent him what he needed*. – nominal relative clause).

Other ambiguous examples:

Do you remember *when we got lost?* ('Do you remember the time we got lost?' x 'Do you remember when it was we got lost?')

What she wrote was a mystery. (She wrote a mystery story. x 'I don't know what she wrote.')

Quirk et al. also distinguish *to*-infinitive clauses, *-ing* clauses, bare infinitive clauses and verbless clauses in the group of nominal clauses. However, since in this study we work with finite clauses only, we will not further discuss these types of nominal clauses, although non-finite clauses as a stylistic marker in academic (technical) text would be also worth a closer look (especially as far as Ellias and Dunning's text is concerned).

3.6 Adjectival (adnominal) clauses

Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1244) distinguish two major types of postmodifying finite clauses, relative clauses (a) and appositive clauses (b):

- (a) The news *that appeared in the papers this morning* was well received.
- (b) The news *that the team had won* calls for a celebration.

The difference between these two types of finite clauses is that in (a) *that* can be replaced by *which*. In (b) this change cannot be made. In the classification used in this work we label the appositive finite clauses as postmodifying nominal content clauses.

Quirk et al. also distinguish sentential relative clauses, in which the antecedent is not nominal but clausal:

They are fond of snakes and lizards, *which surprises me*.

In this sentence, *They are fond of snakes and lizards* is postmodified by *which surprises me*.

3.6.1 Adnominal relative clauses

Adnominal relative clauses are the major type of relative clause. The relative pronoun shows concord with its antecedent (*ie* the preceding part of the noun phrase of which the relative clause is a postmodifier), and indicates its function within the relative clause either as an element of clause structure (S, O, C, A), or as a constituent of an element in the relative clause (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 1245).

In Quirk (1985) and Dušková (1994) we distinguish restrictive (i) and non-restrictive (ii) relative clause:

- (i) Snakes *which are poisonous*, should be avoided.
- (ii) Rattlesnakes, *which are poisonous*, should be avoided.

The modification is restrictive when the reference of the head is a member of the class which can be identified only through the modification that has been supplied. We talk about non-restrictive modification when the postmodifying relative clause provides additional information to the head noun. As is proved by our further research, restrictive modification is the more common.

3.6.2 Appositive clauses

Appositive clauses are postmodifying clauses (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 1261). They resemble the restrictive relative clauses in that they are introduced by unstressed *that*, but also nominal content clauses. In our analysis we label them as nominal content clauses with postmodifying function.

She objected to *the fact that a reply had not been sent earlier*. – restrictive appositive clause

The appositive clause differs from the relative clause in that

- the particle *that* is not an element in the clause structure but a conjunction, as is the case in nominal *that*-clauses;
- both restrictive and non-restrictive appositive clauses have the introductory *that*;
- the head of the noun phrase must be a general abstract noun such as *fact*, *idea*, *answer* etc.

In our analysis we label these clauses as postmodifying nominal content clauses (see Table 5.7).

3.6.3 Sentential relative clauses

Unlike adnominal relative clauses, which have a noun phrase as antecedent, the sentential relative clause refers back to the predicate or predication of a clause, or to a whole clause or sentence, or even to a series of sentences:

Things then improved, *which surprises me*.

Colin married my sister and I married his brother, *which makes Colin and me double in-laws*.

Sentential relative clauses are similar to non-restrictive postmodifying clauses in noun phrases in that they are separated by intonation or punctuation from their antecedent. They are commonly introduced by the relative word *which*, and must have final position. They are closely related to comment clauses (see further).

3.7 Adverbial clauses

3.7.1 Syntactic functions of adverbial clauses

Adverbial finite clauses function mainly as adjuncts and disjuncts. Only a few adverbial clauses function as conjuncts (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 1069).

Adjuncts and disjuncts differ semantically in that adjuncts denote circumstances of the situation in the matrix clause, whereas disjuncts comment on the style or form of what is said in the matrix clause (style disjuncts) or on its content (content or attitudinal disjuncts). The primary difference is that they differ syntactically in that disjuncts are peripheral to the clause to which they are attached.

In our work, however, we will use a more simplified classification of adverbial clauses: we will not distinguish adverbial clauses from the point of their syntactic function, we will classify them only according to their semantic role. The only disjunct clause we use in our classification is the comment clause.

The reason for such decision is that the difference in the syntactic function is displayed only as far as the applicability of syntactic tests is concerned; from the point of view of the semantic role its informative value is not significant. The only disjunct type of adverbial clause treated separately is the comment clauses, for the difference in syntactic function is related to their semantic role.

3.7.2 Semantic roles of adverbial finite clauses

3.7.2.1 Adverbial clauses of time

Adverbial finite clauses of time are introduced by one of the following subordinators: *after, as, before, once, since, till, until, when, whenever, while, whilst, now (that), as long as, so long as, as soon as, immediately, directly.*

Buy your ticket *as soon as you reach the station*.

When I last saw you, you lived in Washington.

An adverbial clause of time relates the time of the situation denoted in its clause to the time of the situation denoted in the matrix clause. The time of the matrix clause may be previous to, subsequent to, or simultaneous with the time of the adverbial clause. The situations in the clause may be viewed as occurring once or as recurring. The time relationship may additionally convey duration and the relative proximity in time of the two situations (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 1080).

3.7.2.2 Adverbial clauses of place

Adverbial clauses of place are introduced mainly by *where* or *wherever*. The clause may indicate position or direction.

Where the fire had been, we saw nothing but blackened ruins.

They went *wherever they could find work*.

3.7.2.3 Adverbial clause of reason

Quirk et al. (1985, p. 1103) subsume under clauses of reason several types of subordinate clauses that convey basic similarities of relationship to their matrix clauses. For all types there is generally a temporal sequence such that the situation in the subordinate clause precedes in time the situation of the matrix clause. The relationship between reason clause and the matrix clause may be:

- cause and effect: He's thin *because he doesn't eat enough*.

- reason and consequence: She watered the flowers *because they were dry*.
- motivation and result: I watered the flowers *because my parents told me to do so*.
- circumstances and consequence: *Since the weather has improved*, the game will be held as planned.

More peripheral uses of reason clauses express an indirect reason, i.e. the reason is not related to the situation in the matrix clause, but is a motivation for the implicit speech act of the utterance:

Percy is in Washington, *for he phoned me from there*.

These types of adverbial clauses are disjuncts. It should be mentioned that no example of these was found in the sentences analysed in this work.

Reason clauses are most commonly introduced by the subordinators *because* and *since*. Other subordinators are *as* and *for*.

3.7.2.4 Adverbial clause of purpose

Clauses of purpose, which are adjuncts, are more often infinitival than finite. Finite clauses of purpose are introduced by *so that* or by *so* and *in order that*:

The school closes earlier *so (that) the children can get home before dark*.

3.7.2.5 Adverbial clause of result

Clauses of result can be introduced by the subordinators *so that* and *so*. These clauses overlap with those of purpose both in meaning and in subordinators. The main semantic

difference is that in the result clause the result is achieved, whereas in the purpose clause it is yet to be achieved.

We paid him immediately, *so (that) he left contented.* – result

We paid him immediately *so (that) he would leave contented.* – purpose

Result clauses differ syntactically from purpose clauses in that result clauses are disjuncts whereas purpose clauses are adjuncts. Result clauses can only appear finally. Unlike the purpose clause, the result clause introduced by *so (that)* is separated by comma punctuation. (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 1109)

3.7.2.6 Adverbial clause of manner

Quirk et al. also distinguish clauses of similarity and comparison (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 1110). They are introduced by *as* and *like*. In our research paper we label them as adverbial clauses of manner.

She cooks a turkey (*just*) *as her mother did.* – How? In a way...

She treats me *as of I was a stranger.*

3.7.2.7 Adverbial clause of condition

The central uses of conditional clauses express a direct condition, i.e. the truth of the proposition in the matrix clause is a consequence of the fulfilment of the condition in the conditional clause:

If you put the baby down, she'll scream.

A direct condition may be either an open or hypothetical. Open conditions are neutral: they leave unresolved the question of the fulfilment or nonfulfilment of the condition. Hypothetical condition conveys the speaker's belief that the condition will not be fulfilled, is not fulfilled or was not fulfilled, and thus the probable or certain falsity of the proposition expressed by the matrix clause.

Adverbial clause with indirect condition is used less (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 1089); this kind of condition is not related to the situation in the matrix clause:

She's far too considerate, *if I may say so*.

Indirect conditions are open conditions that are dependent on an implicit speech act of the utterance, and are therefore style disjuncts, realized mainly by *if*-clauses (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 1095).

The two simple subordinators for conditional clauses are *if* and *unless*. Other conditional subordinators are: *as long as*, *so long as*, *given (that)*, *provided (that)*, *in case* etc.

3.7.2.8 Adverbial clause of concession

Clauses of concession are introduced chiefly by *although* or more informal *though*. Other subordinators used with concessive clauses are *if*, *even if*, *even though*, *when*, *whereas*, *while* and *whilst*. Concessive clauses indicate that the situation in the matrix clause is contrary to expectation in the light of what is said in the concessive clause. In consequence of the mutuality, it is often purely a matter of choice which clause is made subordinate:

No goals were scored, *although it was an exciting game*.

It was an exciting game, *although no goals were scored*.

3.7.2.9 Conditional-concessive clauses

Some adverbial sentences display an overlap between condition and concession. Quirk et al. (1985) distinguish “alternative conditional-concessive” and “universal conditional-concessive” clauses (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 1099). The most common subordinator for this type of clauses is *even if*. The contrast between alternative clauses and universal clauses is similar to that between alternative questions and *wh*-questions, or to that between their corresponding dependent clauses. The alternative conditional-concessive clause gives a choice between two (occasionally more) stated conditions in opposition, the universal conditional-concessive clause indicates a free choice from any number of conditions.

Whether I shout at them or plead with them, I can't keep them quiet. – two alternatives
Whatever I say to them, I can't keep them quiet. – number of choices.

Quirk et al. also distinguish adverbial clauses of contingency and clauses of contrast (1985, pp. 1086-1087). However, we do not use these categories of adverbial clauses in our study since they combine meanings of other adverbial clauses (of time, place, condition, concession etc.). Their categorization could be a matter of further research.

3.7.2.10 Adverbial clause of proportion

Proportional clauses involve a kind of comparison; they express a proportionality or equivalence of tendency or degree between two situations. They may be introduced by *as*, with or without correlative *so*, or by the fronted correlative *the...the* followed by comparative forms:

As he grew disheartened, his work deteriorated.

The more she thought about it, *the less* she liked.

3.7.2.11 Comment Clauses

Comment Clauses are parenthetical disjuncts. They may have initial, final or medial position. They have a separate tone unit. Comment clauses are either content disjuncts that express the speakers' comments on the content of the matrix clause, or style disjuncts that convey the speakers' views on the way they are speaking (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 1112).

R. Quirk et al. distinguish the following types:

a) matrix of a main clause:

There were no other applicants, *I believe*, for that job.

b) adverbial finite clause (introduce by *as*):

I'm working the night shift, *as you know*.

c) nominal relative clause:

What was more upsetting, we lost all our luggage.

Quirk also distinguishes three more types of style disjuncts (*to*-infinitive clause as style disjunct, *ing*-clause as style disjunct, and *-ed* clause as style disjuncts). However, since these do not contain a finite verb form, they do not appear in our analysis.

It should be mentioned that the type a) of comment clauses, which are the most important, generally contain a transitive verb or an adjective which elsewhere requires a nominal *that*-clause as complementation. Such clause could thus be viewed also as a sentence containing indirect statements (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 1113).

Compare:

1. I think it is fair to say that they have been less influential. (Ly1)
2. It is fair to say, I think, that they have been less influential.

In our analysis we consider the expression *I think*, separated by commas, as comment clause (example 2), and the expression *I think* directly integrated into the sentence structure as

a main clause (example 1). Comment clause in ex. 2 expresses the speaker's attitude towards the truth value of the matrix clause, and are used to claim the hearer's attention. The subject of the comment clause is commonly *I*, but may be also *one* or *they* or *it*.

Type b) comment clauses are introduced by *as*, which serves as a relative or as a subordinator. In its relative function, *as* introduces a type of sentential relative clause that may precede or be inserted in its antecedent, in this case the clause or sentence to which it is attached. Due to this mobility, the *as*-clause has characteristics both of relative and adverbial construction.

Type c) comment clauses are nominal relative clauses introduced by *what*. The *what*-clause must be initial. It also corresponds to a sentential relative clause, except that a sentential relative clause must be final.

Compare:

What's more surprising, he didn't inform his parents.

He didn't inform his parents, *which is more surprising*.

3.8 Cleft and pseudo-cleft sentences

Cleft and pseudo-cleft constructions are means of grammatical focussing. It is formed by subject pronoun empty *it* followed by the verb *be* and is used to achieve focus on the item that follows. In writing it is a convenient means of focussing, which is in spoken English realised by prosody. Cleft sentence can be used to focussing on any clause element except the verb and subject complement (Dušková, 1994, p. 353).

It was John that wore a white suit at the dance last night. (John wore a white suit at the dance last night.)

The second clause in a cleft sentence is obviously similar in structure to a restrictive relative clause (eg. pronouns used in relative clauses (*who*, *that*, 'zero' pronoun) are also used

to introduce cleft sentences). However, there are considerable differences (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 1386): the differences from relative clauses are that the *wh*-forms are rare in cleft sentences in comparison with *that* and zero.

Pseudo-cleft sentences

The pseudo-cleft sentence is another device which like the cleft sentence proper can make explicit the division between given and new parts of the communication. It is essentially an *SVC* sentence with a nominal relative clause as subject or complement. It thus differs from the ordinary cleft sentence in being completely accountable in terms of the categories of main clause and subordinate clause.

What you need most is a good rest.

4 Analysed phenomena and hypothesis

In this study we work with 200 excerpted sentences comprising at least five finite clauses and analyse their frequency, structure and other characteristics. The texts we excerpted the sentences from are from the field of Social Sciences, in particular Psychology (more precisely, from the field on the border line of Psychology and Philosophy), Economics, Linguistics and Sociology; we excerpted fifty sentences from each text for analysis.

As was proved by Poláčková in her study, it may be expected that the presence of multiple sentences comprising at least five clauses will be higher in technical texts than in literary writings. Another expectation is that the multiple sentences will contain higher percentage of dependent clauses than the literary text. The reason for this hypothesis is that technical texts tend to be more explicative. We also expect that the frequency of multiple sentences comprising at least five clauses will be smaller than the frequency of multiple sentences comprising four clauses in technical texts. The reason for this expectation is that

although technical writing tends to be very explicit, the more complex the multiple sentences are, the smaller percentage of their appearance in the text can be expected. Although the text contains complicated, explicit sentences, the content of the text still has to be clear. Also, multiple sentences comprising at least five clauses should be less common since they are less frequent in general than multiple sentences comprising four clauses. However, we must admit that in order to prove this expectation and reach even more reliable results, it would be preferable to work also with the samples of literary texts, which could do not be done within the scope of one diploma dissertation. Even in the present extent the total number of finite clauses found in the 200 analysed sentences was 1157.

II RESEARCH PART

1 Sources of the excerpts

As we mentioned earlier, we extracted 200 complex compound sentences comprising at least five finite clauses from four different texts, 50 from each. We used four different texts, from the fields of philosophy (Lyons, William. 1980. *Emotion*. Cambridge University Press. Cambridge), economics (Stiglitz, Joseph E. 2003. *Globalization and its Discontents*. W. W. Norton&Company. New York), linguistics (Crystal, D. and Davy, D. 1973. *Investigating English Style*. Longman. London) and sociology (Elias, Norbert and Dunning, Eric. 1986. *Quest for excitement: Sport and Leisure in the Civilizing Process*. Basil Blackwell. Oxford). The texts are all considered as academic texts, although with a different degree of formality (with varying formal features).

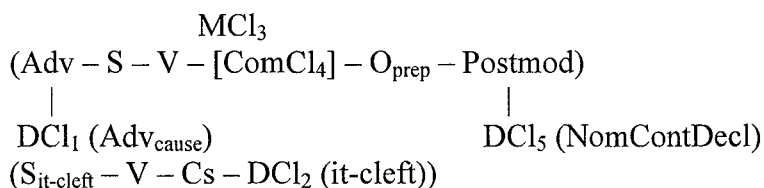
We extracted sentences comprising at least five finite clauses, i.e. sentences containing at least five finite verbs. The formal criterion for the beginning of the sentence was the capital letter, for the end of a sentence a full stop. Other punctuation marks, like dash, colon, semicolon or parenthesis were viewed as means of expressing the relationship between the clauses within the sentence. The only finite verbs that were not taken into account were *is* in “that is”, which introduces an appositive, and discourse particles like *say*.

2 Diagrams of the analysed sentences

For the analysis of the excerpted sentences we used special scheme, which made it easier to observe and work with different phenomena. As an example, let us have a look at sentence Ly23:

Ly23. Because it ¹was Descartes' view of emotion that ²came to influence the early attempts to make psychology into an experimental science, this ³resulted in some instances, as Kenny ⁴puts it, in the belief 'that the study of the emotions ⁵could be made scientific only by training introspectors in precise observation and accurate measurement of their interior states' (Kenny, 1963, p. 29). (Lyons, 1980, p. 12)

This sentence, containing five finite verbs, has the following diagram:



The number of the sentence, Ly23, helps us with the orientation within the analysed sentences. It is the twenty-third sentence extracted from the text of Lyons (each example is followed by exact reference (in brackets) to the respective source).

The low index numbers above the underlined verbs show the predicate of each finite clause. This complex sentence comprises one main clause (MCl₃), its predicate is the verb *resulted*. The structure of this main clause is shown on the second line of the diagram. The adverbial (Adv) is realised by the first dependent clause (DCI₁) – adverbial clause of reason (Adv_{cause}). The adverbial clause of reason is realised by a cleft-sentence. The main clause also contains inserted comment clause ([ComCl₄] – *as Kenny puts it*). The other clausal constituents of the main clause are subject (S), verb (V), and prepositional object (O_{prep}). The prepositional object *in the belief* is postmodified (Postmod) by the fifth finite clause – *that*-clause or nominal content declarative clause (NomContDecl). The sentence has one main clause and one dependency level. The sentence also contains a quotation, but since it is integrated into the sentence structure, it is regarded as part of the sentence.

3 Classification of sentences

As we mentioned earlier (part I chapter 3), we use the classification of sentences of Quirk et al. (1985) modified by the system of Dušková (1994). The classification is also in accord with the classification of Poláčková (2000); this was done in order to achieve the possibility of the most precise comparison of the results of both works.

Nominal clauses, classified in Quirk's system as *that*-clauses (or subordinate declarative clauses), subordinate interrogative clauses and subordinate exclamative clauses we classify as nominal content clauses: nominal content dependent declarative clauses, nominal content dependent interrogative clauses, nominal content dependent imperative clauses, nominal content dependent exclamative clauses, and nominal content dependent optative clauses (see Table 5.5). On the other hand, nominal relative clauses are classified as relative clauses; the classification of these is found in the same group as adjectival relative clauses and relative clauses with clausal antecedent (see Table 5.6).

Adverbial clauses are divided into the same categories as in the work of Poláčková (2000). Thus in our classification we can find the adverbial clauses of time, place, manner, result, reason, purpose, condition, concession, adverbial conditional-concessive clauses, and comment clauses.

4 Comment on the results

4.1 The density of analysed sentences

To get 50 compound sentences, we needed to read 9.432 words in Lyons, twice as many in Stiglitz (18.920), 15.120 words in Crystal & Davy, and 23.382 words in Elias & Dunning. The average number of words needed to obtain one sentence containing five or more finite clauses was the smallest in Lyons (189 words), 384 words in Stiglitz's text, 302 words in Crystal & Davy, and 467 word in Elias & Dunning. The number of words needed to obtain one sentence for our analysis was 334 in average (see Table 5.1).

From the point of view of quantity, the density of examined sentences is the highest in Lyons' text, and the least frequent in Elias & Dunning's text. According to our hypothesis we could assume from these results that Lyons' text is the most formal and Elias & Dunning's text the least formal. This assumption would be very simplified, since other features typical for formal text are not taken into account in our work. Although Elias & Dunning's text has the smallest frequency of complex sentences comprising at least five finite clauses, its sentences have a high number of non-finite clauses, which in some way replace dependent finite clauses. However, the research of non-finite clauses is not a matter of this study.

In this study we analyse sentences that contain at least five finite clauses; that means that sentences with more than five finite clauses are also taken into account. However, sentences of five finite clauses account for more than 50% of all sentences (103 out of 200), sentences of six finite clauses for more than 30% (64 out of 200), and only 16.5% of sentences contain more than six (i.e. seven and more) finite clauses (see Table 5.2).

4.2 The structure of examined sentences

For the exact numbers of finite clauses found within one examined sentence see Table 5.2. The ratio of sentences of five finite clauses and sentences with more than five finite clauses is approx. 1:1 (103 : 97). The portion of sentences of five clauses is 51.5 %, the number of sentences comprising six clauses is 64 out of 200, i.e. 32 %, and sentences with seven finite clauses make 7.5 % (15). There are 9% left, out of which there are 10 examples of sentences containing eight finite clauses, 7 containing nine finite clauses and 1 comprising ten finite clauses (see Table 5.2). Also, it can be said that the sentences with the same number of finite clauses are distributed more or less evenly among the four analysed texts.

Example of a sentence with five finite clauses:

Ly5. Descartes then ¹goes on to explain that 'the principal effect of all the passions in men ²is that

³incite and dispose their soul to desire those things for which they ⁴prepare their body, so ⁵they that the feeling of fear incites it to desire to fly, that of courage to desire to fight, and so on' (1911-12, Art. XL). (Lyons, 1980, p. 3)

Sentence of six finite clauses:

CD22. A feature which ¹demands reference to a number of levels simultaneously ²must either be described at each of the levels involved (which ³is uneconomic), or treated at one of the levels only, with a reference under the others (which ⁴gives undue prominence to the level chosen), or treated as a 'bundle' feature, described separately at the end of an analysis, after the levels ⁵have been gone through independently of one another (which ⁶is rather cumbersome). (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 20)

Sentence of seven finite clauses:

ED18. Moreover, if one ¹evaluates a more civilized form of conduct and feeling as 'better' than less civilized forms, if one ²considers that mankind ³has made progress by arriving at one's own standards of revulsion and repugnance against forms of violence which ⁴were common in former days, one ⁵is confronted by the problem of why an unplanned development ⁶has resulted in something which one ⁷evaluates as progress. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 144)

Sentence of eight finite clauses:

CD14. The central requirement of any linguistically orientated approach to the clarification of stylistic effect ¹is that it ²should provide a single, clear technique of description which ³will allow the student to cope with *any* piece of language he ⁴wants to study – one procedure which, if followed, ⁵will focus the attention on *all* that ⁶is interesting in a piece of language and ⁷carefully of potential significance ⁸is overlooked. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 13)

Sentence of nine finite clauses:

ED6. This process – one might ¹ call it the ‘sportization’ of game-contests if that ² did not sound rather unattractive – ³ points to a problem which ⁴ is fairly clear: ⁵ can one discover in the recent development of the structure and organization of those leisure activities which we ⁶ call sport trends which ⁷ are as unique as those in the structure and organization of work which we ⁸ refer to when we ⁹ speak of a process of industrialization? (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 129)

And the only example of a sentence containing ten finite clauses:

ED35. This ¹ means, positively, that I ² shall seek an explanation in terms of the immanent structure and dynamics of social relationships *per se*, and, negatively, that I ³ shall eschew three kinds of sociological explanations that ⁴ are common, namely: (1) explanations in terms of psychological or ‘action’ principles that ⁵ ignore the patterns of interdependence within which human beings ⁶ live; (2) explanations in terms of ideas and beliefs that ⁷ are conceptually ⁸ treated as ‘free-floating’, that is to say in abstraction from the social settings in which ideas are always developed and expressed; and (3) explanations in terms of abstract and impersonal ⁹ social forces – for example ‘economic’ forces – that are reified and considered as existing ¹⁰ independently of the interdependent human beings who generate them. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 170)

As far as the structure of the examined sentences is concerned, the most common is the combination of one main clause and four dependent clauses (49 out of 200 complex sentences, i.e. 24.5%), followed by 34 sentences containing two main and three dependent clauses (17%). 13.5 % is represented by sentences of two main and four dependent clauses and 11.5% of sentences with one main and five dependent clauses. A point worth mentioning is also the structure of three main and two dependent clauses (6.5%), and sentences of three main and three dependent clauses (5 %) (see Tables 5.3.1 and 5.3.2).

An example of one main clause combined with four dependent clauses:

St42. A perhaps apocryphal story has it that on one occasion a word processor failed to do a “search and replace,” and the name of the country from which a report had been borrowed almost in its entirety was left in a document that was circulated. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 47)

An example of a sentence of two main and three dependent clauses:

CD3. This is where the danger lies: it is necessary to replace, by a more controlled, sensitive, and responsible reaction, our hazy awareness of how language should be used in the less familiar situations in which we find ourselves. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 4)

An example of a sentence with two main and four dependent clauses:

Ly30. He took the feeling out of the soul and put it into the purely bodily arena, for his feeling was just the subjective side of the physiological changes involved, so that if the feeling was different for each emotion it was because the physiological changes accompanying each emotion must be different as well. (Lyons, 1980, p. 15)

A sentence with one main and five dependent clauses:

ED5. If one speaks of ‘sport’, however, one still uses the term indiscriminately both in a wider sense in which it refers to the game-contests and physical exercise of all societies and in a narrower sense in which it refers to the specific type of game-contests, which like the term itself, originated in England and spread from there to other societies. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 129)

A sentence with three main and two dependent clauses:

CD6. He too needs to be made aware of the difference between common and rare types of language behavior, and of the alternatives available in particular situations; he too needs to react appropriately to language, if he wants to be accepted – and the same applies to the native speaker of English when he learns another language. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 6)

And a sentence with three main and three dependent clauses:

Ly10. Nor can anyone know what he means by the word himself; for to know the meaning of a word is to know how to use it rightly; and where there can be no check on how a man uses a word there is no room to talk of ‘right’ or ‘wrong’ use. (Lyons, 1980, p. 5)

If we look closer at the number of main clauses, the highest percentage of main clauses is found in Crystal & Davy’s text. In this text the average number of main clauses in one

analysed sentence is 2.68 (in all the other three texts this number is less than 2, see Table 5.4). Also, in this text we found the only representative complex sentences with more than four main clauses combined with more than two dependent clauses (see Table 5.3.2):

CD9. Most people are consciously aware of only some of the correlations between language and extra-linguistic context: they vary in the degree of confidence with which they posit that a linguistic feature is stylistically significant (if asked to comment on a piece of language, someone may be more sure of feature X having a certain range of extra-linguistic associations than feature Y), and people differ in their assessment of the obviousness of a correlation between language and extra-linguistic context (person A may note feature X as being associated with context P, whereas person B may not, or may associate it with context Q, or with no context at all, and so on). (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 11)

And it is also the text of Crystal & Davy in which the ratio of main to dependent clauses is close to 1 : 1 (unlike the other texts where the ratio of main to dependent clauses is more than 1 : 2). It is only this text in which we found more than four main clauses in one sentence, and the only representative compound sentences comprising five main clauses:

CD18: The type of contrast involved at this level is very different from that found at the phonological/graphological level discussed below, however: contrasts at the former level are not so discrete, identifiable or systematic; they have more of a direct, naturalistic link with non-linguistic features, and do not display the arbitrariness of other aspects of language organization; moreover they frequently transcend language boundaries – type-size, like shouting, has a fairly universal range of function. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 17)

On the other hand, in the texts of Lyons and Elias & Dunning, we found only one sentence with more than three main clauses in each of the texts. Elias & Dunning is the text with the lowest percentage of main clauses (1.42 main clauses per one sentence of five or more finite clauses), and the highest portion of dependent clauses (4.46 dependent clauses per one sentence with five or more finite clauses). Lyons' text has also a high average number of dependent clauses per one analysed sentence (4.1).

ED3. It is difficult to clarify the question whether the type of game-contests which developed in England under the name 'sport' during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries and which spread from there to other countries was something relatively new or whether it was a revival of something old which had unaccountably lapsed, without looking briefly into the question of whether in fact the game-contests of ancient Greece had the characteristic of what we now regard as 'sport'. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 129)

Also, as we mentioned above, the density of co-ordinate constructions is higher in informal language than in the subordinate constructions and “complex sentences with strings of subordinate clauses are much more characteristic of written and formal registers than speech” (Wales 1991, p. 442). From this point of view, the text of Elias & Dunning together with Lyons’ text could be considered as more formal than those of Stiglitz and Crystal & Davy.

In the text of Elias and Dunning we found two examples of interrogative sentences:

ED8. In that case, would it not perhaps be preferable to examine realistically the specific conditions which account for the genesis and rise of the sports movement of our time, to face up to the fact that game-contests of the type which we call ‘sport’, like the industrial nation-states where they take place, have certain unique characteristics which distinguish them from other types, and to start the difficult task of enquiring into and explaining the nature of these distinguishing characteristics? (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 131)

4.3 Types of dependent clauses

As far as dependent clauses are concerned, from the total number of dependent clauses, the most frequent ones are relative clauses (41.6 % of all dependent clauses – see Table 5.6), followed by nominal content clauses (31.6 % – see Table 5.5), with adverbial clauses ranking third on the frequency scale (26.8 % – see Table 5.8.11). However, in each of the text the proportions differ, and so we have to look closer separately on each of the text.

The proportions of the total numbers are the same only in Stiglitz and Crystal & Davy (relative clauses : nominal content clauses : adverbial clauses – see Table 5.9). In Lyons, the ratios are completely different: the most frequent dependent clause is the nominal content clause (41.1 % of all dependent clauses in the selected sentences), the second most frequent is the adverbial clause (31.3 %), and the lowest representation is in the case of relative clause (27.5 %). In Elias & Dunning, the most frequent is the relative clause (its percentage is very high – 53.5 %), however, the nominal content clauses are the least frequent (only 21.2 %).

4.3.1 Relative clauses

Relative clauses are from the general point of view the most common type of all dependent clauses. In Elias & Dunning text, relative sentences form half of all dependent clauses in the analysed sentences found in this text, in David & Crystal their use also reached almost fifty per cent of dependent clauses. The most frequent relative clause is the adjectival relative restrictive clause (see Table 5.6). As we have already stated above, it is most frequent in the text of Elias & Dunning's text – almost one third of all adjectival relative restrictive clauses contained in the analysed sentences were found in this text. On the other hand, only a little more than 11 % were found in the text of Lyons. Also, the number of nominal relative clauses is approximately the same in all three texts (10, resp. 12 in each of the texts), in Elias & Dunning it was less than half compared to Lyons or Crystal & Davy, and one third compared to Stiglitz.

An example of adjectival relative restrictive clause:

ED9. On closer inspection, it is not difficult to see that the game-contests of classical antiquity, which are often represented as the great paradigm of sport, had a number of features and grew up under conditions *which were very different from those of our own game-contests*. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 132)

Adjectival relative non-restrictive clause:

ED9. On closer inspection, it is not difficult to see that the game-contests of classical antiquity, *which are often represented as the great paradigm of sport*, had a number of features and grew up under conditions which were very different from those of our own game-contests. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 132)

Nominal relative clause displaying the syntactic function of subject complement:

Ly18. It is the beauty of the house which causes the pleasure (which is the basic sensation part of pride), for that is *what beauty naturally does to humans*, but the object of pride is oneself or oneself as owner of the house. (Lyons, 1980, p. 9)

And an example of a sentence containing an adjectival relative clause modifying the preceding clause (with clausal antecedent):

CD22. A feature which demands reference to a number of levels simultaneously must either be described at each of the levels involved (*which is uneconomic*), or treated at one of the levels only, with a reference under the others (*which gives undue prominence to the level chosen*), or treated as a 'bundle' feature, described separately at the end of an analysis, after the levels have been gone through independently of one another (*which is rather cumbersome*). (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 20)

4.3.2 Nominal content clauses

Nominal content clauses were the second largest group represented in the sample sentences analysed in this work. The most frequent type is the nominal content dependent declarative clause, with more than 70 % in each of the text (see Table 5.5). Other types of nominal content clauses are interrogative clauses, of which *yes/no* question, *wh*-question, and alternative question are represented (the most frequent of these three types of nominal interrogative dependent clauses is the *wh*-question). Other types of nominal content clauses were not found.

Nominal content interrogative clause – *yes/no* question:

ED27. But for purposes of observation and study, it is useful to enquire *whether changes in the game-pattern are due to* what are felt to be deficiencies in the game-pattern itself at a time when conditions for playing the game in society at large remain largely unchanged, or *whether changes in the game pattern are due to felt deficiencies* which arise largely from changing conditions of the game in society at large. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 158)

Nominal content interrogative clause – *wh*-question:

ED21. One is prevented from asking *how and why the particular rules and conventions developed* which now determine the conduct of players when they play the game and without which the game would not be 'football' in our sense of the word. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 152)

Nominal content interrogative clause – alternative question:

Ly22. It must be hard to find shame, remorse and disgust pleasant, yet I can imagine someone seeking to be in such emotional situations, and so giving us *prima facie* evidence that they find them pleasant (at least in Humean sense where the test would be *whether they seek out such emotions or not*). (Lyons, 1980, p. 12)

4.3.2.1 Syntactic functions of nominal clauses

Nominal content clauses and nominal relative clauses display the syntactic function of a subject, object, subject complement or object complement. Almost 70 % of the nominal clauses in the excerpted sentences have the function of object (162 out of 248 – see Table 5.7). A small number of nominal clauses (approx. 6.9 % of nominal clauses) display the role of subject; the majority of these nominal clauses are placed in the post-verbal position (see Table 5.7.1). Eleven dependent clauses in Lyons's text and two in the text of Crystal & Davy display the function of subject complement. Quite significant is the function of appositive (postmodifying nominal content clause) (22.2 % – 55 examples). We found no dependent clause in the function of object complement.

Nominal relative clause in the function of subject in the initial position:

Ly25. *What I think is uncontroversial* is that James' theory of the emotions has been one of the reasons why many psychologists nowadays fasten almost exclusively upon physiological changes, and the feelings resulting from them, as being the essence of emotion. (Lyons, 1980, p. 12)

An example of a nominal content clause displaying the function of object:

St5. Advocates said *this would provide them more incentive to innovate*; but the increased profits from sales in the developing world were small, since few could afford the drugs, and hence the incentive effect, at best, might be limited. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 8)

Nominal relative clause as subject complement:

CD3. This is *where the danger lies*: it is necessary to replace, by a more controlled, sensitive, and responsible reaction, our hazy awareness of how language should be used in the less familiar situations in which we find ourselves. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 4)

An example of an appositive clause (postmodifying nominal content clause):

CD35. Meanwhile, therefore, the stylistician must proceed by making use of what information is available, adding to it where he can, and being aware of the fact *that he is probably leaving out a great deal that is of potential relevance*. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 41)

4.3.3 Adverbial clauses

As was stated above, adverbial clauses in general are the least represented group in the total number of all dependent clauses. However, the occurrence of adverbial clauses is not distributed evenly in all four texts, and so we have to look closer at each of the texts and types of adverbial clauses separately.

In Lyons, adverbial clauses represent the second largest group of dependent clauses (approx. one third), in all three other texts their usage ranks between 21 and 27 per cent of dependent clauses (see Table 5.9). The type of adverbial clause represented most in the analysed sentences from the text of Lyons is the adverbial clause of condition (27 %), followed by comment clauses (21 %) and adverbial clauses of reason (18 % – see Tables 5.8.1 to 5.8.11).

Adverbial clauses of condition:

Ly3. But this process of realisation and comparison is surmise, for all that Descartes says on this point is that *'if this figure [of an animal approaching] is very strange and frightful – that is, if it has a close relationship with the things which have been formerly hurtful to the body, that excites the passion of apprehension in the soul and then that of courage, or else that of fear and consternation according to the particular temperament of the body or the strength of the soul'* (1911-12, Art. XXXVI). (Lyons, 1980, p. 3)

Comment clause:

Ly15. I think Descartes himself realised that his theory was not able to make much sense of the connection between emotions and behaviour because, *as we have seen*, he does write that 'principal effect of all the passions in men is that they incite and dispose their soul to desire those things for

which they prepare their body, so that the feeling of fear incites it to desire to fly' (1911-12, Art. XL). (Lyons, 1980, p. 7)

Adverbial clause of reason:

Ly6. This perception, on the other hand, is to be called 'wonder' *because the action in the brain – there is no general commotion in heart and blood with this one, he tells us – which is reflected on is caused by an object* which is 'rare and extraordinary' (1911-12, Art. LXX). (Lyons, 1980, p. 4)

The adverbial clause of reason contains two dependent clauses (adjectival relative restrictive clauses).

In Stiglitz, adverbial clauses are the least represented group of dependent clauses (approx. a quarter of all dependent clauses). The most frequent adverbial clause is the adverbial clause of reason (30.6 % of all adverbial clauses represented in the excerpted sentences), followed by adverbial clause of time (22.4 %). A point worth mentioning is also the adverbial clause of condition (14.3 %), and adverbial clauses of concession and conditional-concessive clauses (these two types together also make 14.3 %). No comment clause was found in the excerpted sentences.

Adverbial clause of concession:

St37. When, in Seoul, I asked the IMF team why they were doing this, I found the answer shocking (*though by then it should not have come as a surprise*): We always insist that countries have an independent central bank focusing on inflation. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 45)

Conditional-concessive clauses:

St15. *Even if it did not engage in the kinds of active redistribution policies*, at least it had programs whose benefits were widely shared – not just those that extended education and improved agricultural productivity, but also land grants that provided a minimum opportunity for all Americans. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 21)

In the sentences selected from the text of Crystal & David, where the adverbial clauses were represented only by 21.4 % in all dependent clauses that appeared in the sentences

selected from this text, the most frequent was the adverbial clause of time (41.2 % of adverbial clauses), and was followed by adverbial clauses of condition (26.5 %).

Adverbial clause of time:

CD1. *When we talk about a 'language' – in our case, 'the English language' – we must not be misled into thinking that the label should in some way refer to a readily identifiable object in reality, which we can isolate and examine in a classroom as we might a test-tube mixture, a piece of rock, or a poem.* (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 3)

In the text of Elias & Dunning, the appearance of adverbial clause is quite low, it is only one quarter of all dependent clauses represented in the sample sentences. The most frequent (40 % of adverbial clauses that appeared in the excerpted sentences) was the adverbial clause of condition, followed by adverbial clauses of time (25.5 %), and comment clauses (16.4 %).

From the general point of view, if all texts are taken into account, the most frequent type is the adverbial clause of condition (27.5 % of all adverbial clauses) and adverbial clause of time (22.5 %). Adverbial clauses of reason are also quite frequent (14.2 %); however, they are distributed in a vast majority in the first two texts (Lyons and Stiglitz). The same can be said about comment clauses (11.8 %), which appear mostly in Lyons and Elias & Dunning. A significant point is also the use of adverbial clause of concession (about 10 per cent of adverbial clauses), of which the distribution is more or less regular in between all four texts.

4.4 Combinations of dependent clauses within the sentence

In our research we also observed the type of dependent clauses that occur together. If we look at Tables 5.10.1-4 and Tables 5.11.1-5, we can see that the types of sentences are distributed more or less evenly.

Combinations worth mentioning are the combination of one nominal content clause, two relative clauses and one adverbial clause in a sentence containing one main and four dependent clauses (we found nine samples in all four texts – see Table 5.10.4), and a combination of nominal content clause with relative clause and two adverbial clauses in the

sentence comprising one main and four dependent clauses. We also found seven representative sentences of a main clause combined with one nominal content and three relative clauses, and seven representatives of a sentence comprising one nominal content clauses with one relative and one adverbial clause (see Table 5.10.3). All other combinations were represented to an insignificant degree.

4.5 Cleft and pseudo-cleft sentence

We also found eight examples of cleft sentence (see Table 5.12) in our research, and two examples of pseudo-cleft sentences.

Cleft-sentence:

Ly27. *It is only after he has given this central account of emotion, in terms of what he calls the 'coarser emotions', such as rage, grief and fear, that James turns to what he terms the 'subtler emotions', such as love, indignation and pride.* (Lyons, 1980, p. 14)

And an example of inverted pseudo-cleft construction:

CD3. This is *where the danger lies*: it is necessary to replace, by a more controlled, sensitive, and responsible reaction, our hazy awareness of how language should be used in the less familiar situations in which we find ourselves. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 4)

4.6 Relations between clauses in coordination

The use of punctuation would deserve more attention and more detailed analysis; in the excerpted sentences, various semantic uses of individual punctuation marks (comma, colon, semicolon, parenthesis etc.) can be found. Due to the given space for this work we will limit ourselves only to some general observations: as for the linking of main clauses, as in Poláčková, the independent clauses in technical writing were much more often linked with a coordinating conjunction than without it. This was probably due to the aim for explicitness and accuracy in this style. In our research the most common is the copulative relation

followed by adversative relation. However, in our research appositive relation and juxtaposition are also significant (see Table 5.13).

In the case of coordinated dependent clauses, the results are slightly different: the copulative relation with a coordinating conjunction is also the most frequent, but the second most frequent is the alternative relation. Appositive, juxtaposition and asyndetic copulative relations are also quite significant (see Table 5.14).

4.7 The depth of dependency relations

The most common level of dependency is the two-level dependency structure – 48.5% of all sentences contain two levels of dependency (97 out of 200); 30% of sentences have one level dependency structure. The deepest structure contains four levels of dependency (only 3% of all sentences). And we found only one example of zero-dependency level (sentence comprising only main clauses):

CD18. The type of contrast involved at this level is very different from that found at the phonological/graphological level discussed below, however: contrasts at the former level are not so discrete, identifiable or systematic; they have more of a direct, naturalistic link with non-linguistic features, and do not display the arbitrariness of other aspects of language organization; moreover they frequently transcend language boundaries – type-size, like shouting, has a fairly universal range of function. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 17)

An example of four levels of dependency:

Ly11. For the following seems to be an uncontroversial case of emotions: O'Reilly is so taken up by the discussion at the curriculum meeting that he does not realise that he is becoming very angry with Macdonald who is suggesting that the central texts in the first year course should consist only of the writings of the Existentialists. (Lyons, 1980, p. 6)

However, if we look closer at the Table 5.16, we can see that whereas the texts of Lyons, Stiglitz, and Elias & Dunning have similar numbers for the dependency levels and the tendencies are those described above, the text of Crystal and Davy most commonly displays the structure of only one dependency level (26 out of 50).

One dependency level:

CD6. He too needs to be made aware of the difference between common and rare types of language behavior, and of the alternatives available in particular situations; he too needs to react appropriately to language, if he wants to be accepted – and the same applies to the native speaker of English when he learns another language. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 6)

5 Tables

5.1 Density of the examined phenomenon – sentences with five and more finite clauses

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning
Average number of words on one page	393	344	420	433
Number of pages	24	55	36	54
Total number of words	9432	18920	15120	23382
Average number of words needed in order to find one sentence	189	384	302	467
	334			

5.2 Examined sentences – number of finite clauses found within one sentence

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning
5 finite clauses	23	28	27	25
	103 (51.5%)			
6 finite clauses	17	17	13	17
	64 (37%)			
7 finite clauses	5	4	4	2
	15 (7.5%)			
8 finite clauses	3	0	5	2
	10 (5%)			
9 finite clauses	2	1	1	3
	7 (3.5%)			
10 finite clauses	0	0	0	1
	1 (0.5%)			
Total number of sentences	200 (100 %)			

5.3 Structure of examined sentences – number of main and dependent clauses found within one sentence

5.3.1 Sentences with five finite clauses

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning
5 main clauses	0	0	1	0
	1 (0.5 %)			
4 main clauses and 1 dependent clause	0	1	4	1
	6 (3 %)			
3 main clauses and 2 dependent clauses	1	4	7	1
	13 (6.5 %)			
2 main clauses and 3 dependent clauses	8	12	8	6
	34 (17 %)			
1 main clause and 4 dependent clauses	14	11	7	17
	49 (24.5 %)			

5.3.2 Sentences with more than five finite clauses

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning	Total
1 main clause and 5 dependent clauses	3	5	4	11	23 (11.5 %)
1 main clause and 6 dependent clauses	0	2	0	1	3 (1.5 %)
1 main clause and 7 dependent clauses	0	0	1	1	2 (1 %)
1 main clause and 8 dependent clauses	1	1	0	2	4 (2 %)
1 main clause and 9 dependent clauses	0	0	0	1	1 (0.5 %)
2 main clauses and 4 dependent clauses	9	9	4	5	27 (13.5 %)
2 main clauses and 5 dependent clauses	5	1	0	1	7 (3.5 %)
2 main clauses and 6 dependent clauses	3	0	2	1	6 (3 %)
2 main clauses and 7 dependent clauses	0	0	0	1	1 (0.5 %)
3 main clauses and 3 dependent clauses	5	3	1	1	10 (5 %)

3 main clauses and 4 dependent clauses	0	1	1	0	2 (1 %)
3 main clauses and 6 dependent clauses	1	0	0	0	1 (0.5 %)
4 main clauses and 2 dependent clauses	0	0	3	0	3 (1.5 %)
4 main clauses and 3 dependent clauses	0	0	2	0	2 (1 %)
4 main clauses and 4 dependent clauses	0	0	1	0	1 (0.5 %)
5 main clauses and 1 dependent clause	0	0	1	0	1 (0.5 %)
5 main clauses and 2 dependent clauses	0	0	1	0	1 (0.5 %)
5 main clauses and 4 dependent clauses	0	0	1	0	1 (0.5 %)
7 main clauses and 1 dependent clauses	0	0	1	0	1 (0.5 %)

5.4 Main and dependent clauses in the excerpted sentences

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning
Total number of main clauses	89	91	134	71
	385 (33.3 %)			
Total number of dependent clauses	205	188	156	223
	772 (66.7 %)			
Total number of finite clauses	294	279	285	294
	1157 (100 %)			
Average number of main clauses in one sentence	1.78	1.82	2.68	1.42
Average number of main clauses in one sentence	1.925			
Average number of dependent clauses in one sentence	4.1	3.76	3.04	4.46
Average number of dependent clauses in one sentence	3.84			
Main clauses : dependent clauses	1 : 2.30	1 : 2.07	1 : 1.13	1 : 3.14
Main clauses : dependent clauses	1 : 1.99			

5.5 Occurrence of nominal content clauses

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning
Nominal content dependent declarative	81	54	35	36
Nominal content dependent interrogative (yes/no question)	1	2	5	8
Nominal content dependent interrogative (wh-question)	4	6	7	2
Nominal content dependent interrogative (alternative)	1	-	-	-
Nominal content dependent imperative	-	-	-	-
Nominal content dependent exclamative	-	-	-	-
Nominal content dependent optative	-	-	-	-
Total of nominal content clauses	87 (36%)	62 (25.6%)	47 (19.4%)	46 (19%)
	242 (31.6%)			

5.6 Occurrence of relative clauses

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning
Nominal relative clauses	10	12	10	4
Adjectival relative restrictive clauses	37	42	60	100
Adjectival relative non-restrictive	10	13	4	12
Adjectival relative non-restrictive with clausal antecedent	1	0	4	0
Total of relative clauses	58 (18%)	67 (21%)	78 (24.5%)	116 (36.5%)
	319 (41.6%)			

5.7 Nominal content clauses and nominal relative clauses according to their syntactic function

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning
Subject clause	7	4	4	2
	17 (6.9 %)			
Object clause	60	44	28	30
	162 (65.5 %)			
Subject complement clause	11	-	2	-
	13 (5.4 %)			
Object complement clause	-	-	-	-
	-			
Appositive clauses	14	17	9	15
	55 (22.2 %)			
Total of nominal clauses	97	65	39	47
	248			

5.7.1 Position of nominal content clauses with the function of subject

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning
Initial position	4	-	-	-
	4			
Postverbal position	3	4	4	2
	13			

Initial position: Ly25, Ly41, Ly43

Postverbal position: Ly1, Ly19, Ly31, St2, St31, CD37, CD39, CD47, CD50, ED8, ED9, ED38, ED46

5.8 Occurrence of adverbial clauses

5.8.1 Adverbial clauses of place

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning
Adverbial clauses of place	2	-	1	2
	5 (2.5 %)			

5.8.2 Adverbial clauses of time

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning
Adverbial clauses of time	7	11	14	14
	46 (22.7 %)			

5.8.3 Adverbial clauses of manner

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning
Adverbial clauses of manner	2	6	2	1
	11 (5.3 %)			

5.8.4 Adverbial clauses of result

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning
Adverbial clauses of result	5	1	3	-
	9 (4.3 %)			

5.8.5 Adverbial clauses of reason

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning
Adverbial clauses of reason	12	15	1	1
	29 (14.2 %)			

5.8.6 Adverbial clauses of purpose

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning
Adverbial clauses of purpose	1	2	-	-
	3 (1.4 %)			

5.8.7 Adverbial clauses of concession

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning
Adverbial clauses of concession	3	5	3	5
	16 (7.8 %)			

5.8.8 Conditional clauses

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning
Adverbial clauses of condition	18	7	8	22
	55 (27 %)			

5.8.9 Conditional concessive clauses

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning
Conditional concessive clauses	2	2	1	1
	6 (3 %)			

5.8.10 Comment clauses

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning
Comment clauses	14	-	1	9
	24 (11.8 %)			

Found in: Ly2, Ly6, Ly8, Ly9, Ly15, Ly23, Ly25, Ly28, Ly29, Ly34, Ly36, Ly38, Ly50, St12, St21, St37, St48, CD32, ED6, ED26, ED37, ED38

5.8.11 Total of adverbial clauses

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning
Adverbial clauses	66 (33%)	49 (24%)	33 (16%)	55 (27%)
	203 (26.8%)			

5.9 Percentage of each of the types of dependent clauses within the total number of dependent clauses in each of the texts

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning
Nominal content clauses	87 (41.2 %)	62 (34.8 %)	47 (29.6 %)	46 (21.2 %)
Relative clauses	58 (27.5 %)	67 (37.6 %)	78 (49.1 %)	116 (53.5 %)
Adverbial clauses	66 (31.3 %)	49 (27.5 %)	33 (21.4 %)	55 (25.3 %)
Total	211 (100 %)	178 (100 %)	158 (100 %)	217 (100 %)

Note.: Measurement error: 0.39%

5.10 Combinations of dependent clauses within the sentences – sentences of five finite clauses

5.10.1 Dependent clauses within a sentence with four main clauses and one dependent clause

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning	Total
Nominal content clause	-	-	1	-	1
Relative clause	-	-	1	-	1
Adverbial clause	-	1	1	1	3
Total	0	1	3	1	5

Nominal content clause: CD20

Relative clause: CD8

Adverbial clause: St 12, CD 13, ED 40

5.10.2 Dependent clauses within sentences with three main clauses and two dependent clauses

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning	Total
2 nom. cont. clauses	-	-	-	-	0
1 nom. cont. clause and 1 relative clause	-	2	1	-	3
1 nom. cont. cl. and 1 adv. cl.	-	1	1	-	2
2 relative clauses	-	1	4	-	5
1 relative clause and 1 adv. cl.	-	-	-	-	0
2 adverbial clauses	-	-	1	1	2
Total	0	4	7	1	12

Two nom. cont. clauses: -

Nom. cont. clause and relative clause: St10, St19, CD15

Nom. cont. clause and adv. cl.: St9, CD48

Two relative clauses: St11, CD16, CD26, CD45, CD31

Relative clause and adv. cl.: -

Two adverbial clauses: CD6, ED32

5.10.3 Dependent clauses within sentences with two main and three dependent clauses

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning	Total
3 nom. content clauses	1	1	1	-	3
2 nom. cont. cl., 1 rel. cl.	2	1	-	-	3
2 nom. cont. cl., 1 adv. cl.	1	1	1	-	3
1 nom. cont. cl., 2 rel. cl.	-	1	2	-	3
1 nom. cont. cl., 2 adv. cl.	-	3	1	2	6
1 nom. cont. cl., 1 rel. cl., 1 adv. cl.	4	3	-	-	7
3 relative clauses	-	1	1	4	6
2 rel. cl., 1 adv. cl.	1	2	2	-	5
1 rel. cl., 2 adv. clauses	-	-	-	-	0
3 adverbial clauses	-	-	-	-	0
Total	9	13	8	6	36

Three nom. content clauses: Ly44, St34, CD47

Two nom. cont. cl., one rel. cl.: Ly22, Ly31, St31

Two nom. cont. cl., one adv. cl.: Ly32, St25

Nom. cont. cl., two rel. cl.: St32, CD33, CD39

Nom. cont. cl., two adv. cl.: St5, St23, St43, CD38, ED17, ED46

Nom. cont. cl., rel. cl., adv. cl.: Ly8, Ly26, Ly29, Ly38, St22, St38, St45

Three relative clauses: St48, CD3, ED14, ED19, ED33, ED41

Two rel. cl., adv. cl.: Ly42, St18, St26, CD17, CD49

5.10.4 Dependent clauses within sentences with one main clause and four dependent clauses

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning	Total
4 nominal content clauses	1	-	-	-	1
3 cont. cl., 1 rel. cl.	-	-	-	-	0
3 cont. cl., 1 adv. cl.	-	-	-	-	0
2 cont. cl., 2 rel. cl.	2	1	1	1	5
2 cont. cl., 2 adv. cl.	2	-	-	-	2
2 cont. cl., 1 rel. cl., 1 adv. cl.	1	-	1	1	3
Nom. cont. cl., 3 rel. cl.	1	2	1	3	7
Nom. cont. cl., 3 adv. cl.	-	-	-	2	2
Nom. cont. cl., 2 rel. cl., adv. cl.	3	3	1	2	9
Nom. cont. cl., rel. cl., 2 adv. cl.	3	-	2	3	8
2 rel. cl., 2 adv. cl.	1	1	-	1	3
3 rel. cl., 1 adv. cl.	-	2	1	1	4
1 rel. cl., 3 adv. cl.	-	-	-	1	1
4 relative clauses	-	-	-	2	2
4 adverbial clauses	-	1	1	-	2
Total	14	10	8	17	49

Four content clauses: Ly14

Three cont. cl., rel. cl.: -

Three cont. cl., adv. cl.: -

Two cont. cl., two rel. cl.: Ly43, Ly45, St42, CD5, ED9

Two cont. cl., two adv. cl.: Ly9, Ly37, CD30

Two cont. cl., rel. cl., adv. cl.: Ly5, CD11, ED2

Nom. cont. cl., three rel. cl.: Ly7, St3, St49, CD44, ED10, ED44, ED49

Nom. cont. cl., three adv. cl.: ED7, ED12

Nom. cont. cl., two rel. cl., adv. cl.: Ly25, Ly27, Ly33, St24, St30, St40, CD4, ED21, ED25

Nom. cont. cl., rel. cl., two adv. cl.: Ly23, Ly28, Ly40, CD1, CD50, ED11, ED15, ED48

Two rel. cl., two adv. cl.: Ly13, St29, ED29

Three rel. cl., adv. cl.: St33, St36, CD35, ED16

Rel. cl., three adv. cl.: ED26

Four relative clauses: St7, ED31, ED34

Four adverbial clauses: St41, CD41

5.11 Sentences with more than five finite clauses

5.11.1 Dependent clauses within sentences with six finite clauses

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning	Total
Five main clauses, one dependent clause					
1 relative clause	-	-	1	-	1
Total	0	0	1	0	1
Four main clauses, two dependent clauses					
2 content clauses	-	-	1	-	1
1 cont. clause, 1 rel. cl.	-	-	1	-	1
2 relative clauses	-	-	1	-	1
Total	0	0	3	0	3
Three main clauses, three dependent clauses					
2 nom. cont. cl., rel. clause	1	-	-	-	1
1 cont. clause, 2 rel. cl.	-	-	1	-	1
2 rel. clauses, adv. clause	-	1	-	-	1
3 relative clauses	1	-	-	-	1
3 adv. cl.	-	-	-	1	1
Nom. cont. clause, 2 adv. cl.	1	-	-	-	1
Rel. clause, 2 adv. clauses	1	-	-	-	1
Cont. cl., rel. cl., adv. clause	1	1	-	-	2
Total	5	2	1	1	9
Two main clauses, four dependent clauses					
4 nominal content clauses	-	1	-	-	1
3 cont. cl., rel. cl.	1	1	-	-	2
3 cont. cl., adv. cl.	3	-	-	-	3
2 cont. cl., 2 rel. cl.	1	1	-	-	2
2 cont. cl., 2 adv. cl.	-	1	-	1	2
2 cont. cl., rel. cl., adv. cl.	1	1	1	1	4
1 nom. cont. cl., 2 rel. cl., adv. cl.	-	2	-	2	4
1 nom. cont. cl., rel. cl., 2 adv. cl.	-	1	1	-	2
2 rel. cl., 2 adv. cl.	1	1	-	-	2
1 rel. cl., 3 adv. cl.	-	-	-	1	1
4 relative clauses	-	-	2	1	3
4 adverbial clauses	1	-	-	-	1
Total	8	9	4	6	27
One main clause, five dependent clauses					
4 cont. cl., 1 rel. clause	-	1	-	-	1
3 cont. cl., 2 adv. clauses	1	2	-	-	3
3 cont. cl., 1 rel. cl., 1 adv. cl.	-	-	1	2	3
2 cont. cl., 2 rel. cl., 1 adv. cl.	-	1	-	4	5
2 cont. cl., 1 rel. cl., 2 adv. cl.	2	-	-	-	2
2 cont. cl., 3 rel. cl.	-	-	1	-	1

1 cont. cl., 3 rel. cl., 1 adv. cl.	-	-	-	1	1
1 cont. cl., 1 rel.cl., 3 adv. cl.	-	-	1	-	1
4 rel. cl., 1 adv. cl	-	1	1	2	4
5 relative clauses	-	-	-	1	1
5 adverbial clauses	-	1	-	-	1
Total	3	6	4	10	23

5 main and 1 dependent clauses: CD46

4 main and 2 dependent clauses: CD7, CD34, CD40

3 main and 3 dependent clauses: Ly10, Ly16, Ly18, Ly36, Ly47, St27, St46, CD19, ED13

2 main and 4 dependent clauses: Ly1, Ly6, Ly11, Ly17, Ly20, Ly30, Ly39, Ly46, Ly48, St2, St4, St13, St17, St20, St21, St28, St37, St47, CD10, CD23, CD28, CD32, ED1, ED30, ED38, ED39, ED43, ED50

1 main and 5 dependent clauses: Ly19, Ly34, Ly49, St6, St14, St15, St39, St50, CD21, CD22, CD29, CD43, ED4, ED5, ED8, ED20, ED22, ED23, ED24, ED27, ED28, ED37

5.11.2 Dependent clauses within sentences with seven finite clauses

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning	Total
Five main clauses, two dependent clauses					
2 relative clauses	-	-	1	-	1
Total	0	0	1	0	1
Four main clauses, three dependent clauses					
1 cont. cl., 1 rel. cl., 1 adv. cl.	-	-	1	-	1
1 rel. cl., 2 adv. clauses	-	-	1	-	1
Total	0	0	2	0	2
Three main, four dependent clauses					
2 cont. cl., 1 rel. cl., 1 adv. cl.	-	1	-	-	1
1 cont. cl., 3 rel. clauses	-	-	1	-	1
Total	0	1	1	0	2
Two main, five dependent clauses					
4 cont. cl., 1 adv. cl.	1	-	-	-	1
4 rel. cl., 1 adv. clause	-	-	-	1	1
3 cont. cl., 1 rel. cl., 1 adv. cl.	1	-	-	-	1
1 cont. cl., 3 rel. cl., 1 adv. cl.	1	-	-	-	1
1 cont. cl., 1 rel. cl., 3 adv. cl.	1	-	-	-	1
1 cont. cl., 2 rel. cl., 2 adv. cl.	1	1	-	-	2
Total	5	1	0	1	7
One main, six dependent clauses					
4 cont. cl., 1 rel. cl., 1 adv. cl.	-	1	-	-	1
1 cont. cl., 4 rel. cl., 1 adv. cl.	-	1	-	-	1
2 cont. cl., 2 rel. cl., 2 adv. cl.	1	-	-	1	2
Total	1	2	0	1	4

5 main and 2 dependent clauses: CD25
 4 main and 3 dependent clauses: CD24, CD37
 3 main and 4 dependent clauses: St35, CD42
 2 main and 5 dependent clauses: Ly17, Ly2, Ly3, Ly12, Ly24, St16, ED47
 1 main and 6 dependent clauses: Ly50, St1, St8, ED18

5.11.3 Dependent clauses within sentences with eight finite clauses

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning	Total
Seven main clauses, one dependent clause					
1 relative clause	-	-	1	-	1
Total	0	0	1	0	1
Four main clauses, four dependent clauses					
4 relative clauses	-	-	1	-	1
Total	0	0	1	0	1
Two main, six dependent clauses					
5 cont. cl., 1 adv. clause	-	-	1	-	1
4 cont. cl., 2 rel. clauses	-	-	1	-	1
3 cont. cl., 3 rel. clauses	1	-	-	-	1
3 cont. cl., 1 rel. cl., 2 adv. cl.	1	-	-	-	1
2 cont. cl., 3 rel. cl., 1 adv. cl.	1	-	-	-	1
1 cont. cl., 4 rel. cl., 1 adv. cl.	-	-	-	1	1
Total	3	0	2	1	6
One main, seven dependent clauses					
3 cont. cl., 4 rel. clauses	-	-	-	1	1
2 cont. cl., 5 rel. clauses	-	-	1	-	1
Total	0	0	1	1	2

7 main clauses and 1 dependent clause: CD27
 4 main and 4 dependent clauses: CD12
 2 main and 6 dependent clauses: Ly4, Ly35, Ly41, CD2, CD36, ED42
 1 main clause and 7 dependent clauses: CD4, ED3

5.11.4 Dependent clauses within sentences with nine finite clauses

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning	Total
Five main clauses, four dependent clauses					
1 cont. cl., 1 rel. cl., 2 adv. cl.	-	-	1	-	1
Total	-	0	1	0	1
Three main clauses, six dependent clauses					
3 content cl., 3 adv. clauses	1	-	-	-	1
Total	1	0	0	0	1
Two main clauses, seven dependent clauses					

1 cont. cl., 4 relative cl., 2 adv. cl.	-	-	-	1	1
Total	0	0	0	1	1
One main, eight dependent clauses					
4 cont. cl., 1 rel. cl., 4 adv. cl.	1	-	-	-	1
7 cont. cl., 1 rel. cl.	-	1	-	-	1
8 relative clauses	-	-	-	1	1
1 cont. cl., 1 rel. cl., 6 adv. cl.	-	-	-	1	1
Total	1	1	0	2	4

5 main and 4 dependent clauses: CD9

3 main clauses and 6 dependent clauses: Ly21

2 main clauses and 7 dependent clauses: ED6

1 main and 8 dependent clauses: Ly15, St44, ED36, ED45

5.11.5 Dependent clauses within sentences with ten finite clauses

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning	Total
One main clauses, nine dependent clauses					
2 cont. cl., 7 relative cl.	-	-	-	1	1
Total	0	0	0	1	1

1 main and 9 dependent clauses: ED35

5.12 Sentences with cleft-sentence and pseudo-cleft sentence

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning
It-cleft sentence	5	3	-	-
It-cleft sentence	8			
Pseudo-cleft sentence	1	-	1	-
Pseudo-cleft sentence	2			

It-cleft sentence: Ly2, Ly12, Ly18, Ly27, Ly23, St7, St23

Pseudo-cleft sentence: Ly18, CD3

5.13 Relations between main clauses

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning
Copulative relation	15	9	19	8
Copulative relation	51			
Copulative r. asyndetic	-	2	9	-
Copulative r. asyndetic	11			
Adversative relation	7	9	10	6
Adversative relation	32			
Adversative r. asyndetic	-	-	-	-
Adversative r. asyndetic	0			
Alternative relation	-	-	2	-
Alternative relation	2			
Alternative r. asyndetic	-	-	-	-
Alternative r. asyndetic	0			
Appositive	-	5	23	4
Appositive	32			
Juxtaposition	4	10	10	4
Juxtaposition	32			

5.14 Relations between coordinated dependent clauses

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning
Copulative relation	7	9	9	24
Copulative relation	49			
Copulative r. asyndetic	-	3	4	3
Copulative r. asyndetic	10			
Adversative relation	-	2	-	1
Adversative relation	3			
Adversative r. asyndetic	-	-	-	-
Adversative r. asyndetic	0			
Alternative relation	2	5	4	6
Alternative relation	17			
Alternative asyndetic r.	-	-	1	-
Alternative asyndetic r.	1			
Asyndetic relation	1	6	1	3
Asyndetic relation	11			
Appositive	1	9	-	1
Appositive	11			

5.15 Punctuation between main clauses with asyndetic relation

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning
Comma	-	-	3	1
Colon	1	4	16	3
Semicolon	2	10	19	3
Dash	1	-	2	1
Brackets (parenthesis)	-	-	2	-
Asyndetic relations between main clauses	4	14	42	8
	68			

5.16 The depth of dependency relations

Text	Lyons	Stiglitz	Crystal & Davy	Elias & Dunning
Zero dependency	-	-	1	-
	1			
One dependency level	9	15	26	10
	60			
Two levels of dependency	28	27	18	24
	97			
Three levels of dependency	10	8	4	14
	36			
Four levels of dependency	3	-	1	2
	6			

6 Comparison with previous research

Let us now try to compare the examined phenomena with the results of Poláčková's work (Poláčková 2000). We must not forget that Poláčková examined sentences comprising four finite clauses, and compared two types of texts (technical and literary style).

The number of words needed to obtain one sentence containing five finite verbs was 334 in average (see Table 5.1). In the work of Poláčková, the average number of words needed to obtain one sentence containing four finite clauses was 286 in technical texts, and 600 words in fiction.

As far as the proportion of the independent and dependent clauses in the multiple sentences are concerned, as in Poláčková, who found only one sentence with four independent clauses in the technical texts, we found only one sentence comprising five main clauses; in the texts of the literary style there were sixteen such sentences. In both of the examined styles, the multiple sentences usually had two to three dependent clauses. In our work, the most common combination is one main clause and four dependent clauses (49 out of 200 complex sentences, i.e. 24.5 %), followed by 34 sentences containing two main and three dependent clauses (17 %).

As for the total number of dependent clauses found in the excerpted sentences, no conclusion can be made, since we also worked with the sentences containing five and more finite clauses. It can be stated that we found 768 dependent clauses and 385 main clauses in two hundred excerpted sentences; the average number of dependent clauses per one sentence was 3.84, i.e. almost four dependent clauses per one sentence, and 1.93 main clauses per one sentence. In Poláčková's research, one hundred multiple sentences from literary prose contained 196 dependent clauses, whereas an equal number of multiple sentences from technical writing included 249 dependent clauses.

As far as the occurrence of various types of dependent clauses, in Poláčková's work the nominal clauses were represented by 31% of all dependent clauses in the technical writing (of which a majority were nominal declarative clauses), and the largest group of dependent clauses in the technical texts were relative clauses (43% of all dependent clauses in the excerpts from technical writing). In our research, the results are almost the same: although the

percentage varies in each of the texts, from the general point of view the relative clauses were represented by 41.6 % (most of them are adjectival relative restrictive clauses), nominal clauses were represented by 31.6 % (a vast majority of nominal clauses are declarative clauses).

Adverbial clauses form the smallest group of dependent clauses (they represent only a little more than a quarter from the total number of dependent clauses in this research). In Poláčková, the results are also similar – the proportion of the adverbial clauses in the technical style (24 % of all dependent clauses) approached that in the literary style (29 %). As far as the types of the adverbial clauses are concerned, the technical writing exceeded the literary style primarily in the occurrence of clauses of reason and clauses of condition. In our work, the most common adverbial clauses are also the conditional clause (27.4 % of all adverbial clauses); however, the second most represented type of adverbial clauses is the adverbial clause of time (22.5 %). The adverbial clause of reason represents the third largest group (14.2 %).

On the other hand, if the syntactic function of the nominal clauses and the nominal relative clauses in the matrix clause is taken into account, there was no similarity found at all: in Poláčková, the technical writing had more subject and predicate clauses than the literary style, whereas the literary style included more object clauses than the technical texts. In our work, where we analyse academic prose, the results are the opposite – almost 70% of nominal clauses display the function of an object. Poláčková also draws the conclusion that the more frequent occurrence of subject and predicate clauses in technical style may be due to the likely use of constructions such as: *the question/problem is, it is believed that...*

As for the combinations of the various types of dependent clauses in multiple sentences, the results show similar tendencies as in Poláčková: the excerpts from the technical writing most often included a combination of one relative clause with one adverbial or one nominal clause. The multiple sentences with one independent and three dependent clauses in the technical writing contained more combinations of nominal and relative clauses. However, it must be stated that the combinations of dependent clauses found in our research showed a high degree of diversity; hardly any tendencies can be considered as more significant than others.

As for the linking of main clauses, in Poláčková the independent clauses in technical writing were much more often linked with a coordinating conjunction than without it. This was probably due to the need for explicitness and accuracy in this style. In our research the most common relation is the copulative followed by the adversative relation. However, in our research appositive relation and juxtaposition are also significant.

In Poláčková, who analysed sentences of four finite clauses, three types of dependency structure occurred in multiple sentences with one independent and three dependent clauses: all three dependent clauses stand on the same hierarchical level in the sentence structure; one of them is superordinated to one or both of the other dependent clauses; one dependent clause is subordinated to another dependent clause which is further subordinated to the third dependent clause. Poláčková found that there was no remarkable difference between the technical and the literary style. The distribution of dependency structure in the sentences was very similar in technical writing, although in literary style the depth of the dependency structure could not be assigned the function of a style marker.

In our analysis the most common level of dependency is the two-level dependency structure – 48.5 % of all sentences contain two levels of dependency (97 out of 200); 30 % of sentence contain have one level dependency structure. The deepest structure contains four levels of dependency (only 3 % of all sentences). And we found only one example of zero-dependency level (sentence comprising only main clauses).

Poláčková concludes that the multiple sentence with four finite clauses was proved to serve as a style marker. The major points of relevance are a different frequency in the occurrence of the multiple sentence in her two investigated styles, a different proportion of independent and dependent clauses, a different occurrence of certain types of dependent clauses, and the presence or the absence of coordinating conjunction between independent clauses – technical style fewer temporal clauses and more clauses of reason and condition. The most frequent dependent clause in technical writing is the relative clause.

Conclusion

For the purpose of the research done in this diploma dissertation we extracted 200 multiple sentences with five and more finite clauses from four different academic texts (all from the field of social sciences), fifty sentences from each text. Then we analysed the frequency, structure and characteristics of the extracted sentences. Finally, we compared our findings with those of the previous research done by Poláčková (2000).

Our hypothesis was that the academic texts would be stylistically marked with formal features on the syntactic level. We expected that the presence of multiple sentences comprising at least five finite clauses would be higher in technical texts than in literary writings. Another expectation was that the multiple sentences would contain higher percentage of dependent clauses than literary text. We also assumed that the frequency and structure of the analysed multiple sentences would be more or less the same in all four types of academic prose, since they are all considered as similar texts.

We found that from the point of view of quantity, the density of examined sentences was the highest in Lyons' text, and the least frequent in Elias & Dunning's text. Although Elias & Dunning's text has the smallest frequency of complex sentences comprising at least five finite clauses, its sentences have a high number of non-finite clauses, which in some way replace dependent finite clauses.

In this study we analysed sentences containing at least five finite clauses, which means that sentences with more than five finite clauses were also taken into account. Sentences of five finite clauses account for more than a half of all sentences, sentences of six finite clauses for approx. one third, and only 16.5 % of sentences contain more than six (i.e. seven and more) finite clauses. The sentences with the same number of finite clauses are distributed more or less evenly among the four analysed texts.

As far as the structure of the examined sentences is concerned, the most common is the combination of one main clause and four dependent clauses (24.5 %), followed by sentences containing two main and three dependent clauses (17 %). 13.5 % is represented by sentences of two main and four dependent clauses and 11.5 % of sentences with one main and five

dependent clauses. A point worth mentioning is also the structure of three main and two dependent clauses (6.5 %), and sentences of three main and three dependent clauses (5 %).

The Crystal & Davy's text displayed the highest percentage of main clauses found in one sentence: the average number of main clauses in one analysed sentence was 2.68 (in all the other three texts this number is less than 2). Coordinated clauses were a significant feature of this particular text.

Elias & Dunning is the text with the lowest percentage of main clauses (1.42 main clauses per one sentence of five or more finite clauses), and the highest portion of dependent clauses (4.46 dependent clauses per one sentence with five or more finite clauses). Lyons' text has also a high average number of dependent clauses per one analysed sentence (4.1).

As far as dependent clauses are concerned, the most frequent ones are relative clauses (41.6 % of all dependent clauses), followed by nominal content clauses (31.6 %), with adverbial clauses ranking third on the frequency scale (26.8 %). However, the ratios differ in each of the texts: in Lyons, the most frequent dependent clause is the nominal content clause (41.1 % of all dependent clauses), the second most frequent is the adverbial clause (31.3 %), and the lowest representation is in the case of relative clause (27.5 %). In Elias & Dunning, the most frequent is the relative clause (53.5 %), the least frequent are the nominal content clauses (only 21.2 %).

As for the relative clauses, the most frequent type of relative clause is the adjectival relative restrictive clause. The number of nominal relative clauses is approximately the same in all three texts.

Nominal content clauses were the second largest group of dependent clauses. The most frequent type is the nominal content dependent declarative clause (more than 70 % in each of the texts). Other types of nominal content clauses are interrogative clauses, of which *yes/no* question, *wh*-question, and alternative question are represented (the most frequent of these three types of nominal interrogative dependent clauses is the *wh*-question). Other types of nominal content clauses were not found. Almost 70 % of the nominal clauses in the excerpted sentences have the function of object, a small number of nominal clauses (approx. 6.9 % of nominal clauses) display the role of subject; the majority of these nominal clauses are placed in the post-verbal position. Quite significant is the function of appositive

(postmodifying nominal content clause – 22.2 %). No dependent clause in the function of object complement was found.

Adverbial clauses are the least represented group in the total number of all dependent clauses, and their occurrence is not distributed evenly. In Lyons, adverbial clauses represent the second largest group of dependent clauses (approx. one third), in all three other texts their usage ranks between 21 and 27 per cent of dependent clauses. The type of adverbial clause represented most in the text of Lyons is the adverbial clause of condition (27 %), followed by comment clauses (21 %) and adverbial clauses of reason (18 %).

In Stiglitz, adverbial clauses are the least represented group of dependent clauses (approx. a quarter of all dependent clauses). The most frequent adverbial clause is the adverbial clause of reason (30.6 %), followed by adverbial clause of time (22.4 %). A point worth mentioning is also the adverbial clause of condition (14.3 %), and adverbial clauses of concession and conditional-concessive clauses (these two types together also make 14.3 %). No comment clause was found in the excerpted sentences.

In the text of Crystal & David, the adverbial clauses were represented only by 21.4 %; the most frequent was the adverbial clause of time (41.2 % of adverbial clauses), and was followed by adverbial clause of condition (26.5 %).

In the text of Elias & Dunning, the appearance of adverbial clause is quite low, it is only one quarter of all dependent clauses represented in the sample sentences. The most frequent (40 % of adverbial clauses) was the adverbial clause of condition, followed by adverbial clauses of time (25.5 %), and comment clauses (16.4 %).

From the general point of view, if all texts are taken into account, the most frequent type is the adverbial clause of condition (27.5 % of all adverbial clauses) and adverbial clause of time (22.5 %). Adverbial clauses of reason are also quite frequent (14.2 %); however, they are distributed in a vast majority in the first two texts (Lyons and Stiglitz). The same can be said about comment clauses (11.8 %), which appear mostly in Lyons and Elias & Dunning. A significant point is also the use of adverbial clause of concession (about 10 per cent of adverbial clauses), of which the distribution is more or less even in between all four texts.

As for the linking of main clauses, the independent clauses are much more often linked with a coordinating conjunction than without it. This was probably due to the aim for

explicitness and accuracy in this style. In our research the most common is the copulative relation followed by adversative relation. Appositive relation and juxtaposition are also significant.

In the case of coordinated dependent clauses, the results are slightly different: the copulative relation with a coordinating conjunction is also the most frequent, but the second most frequent is the alternative relation.

The most common level of dependency is the two-level dependency structure (48.5%); 30% of sentences have one level dependency structure. The deepest structure contains four levels of dependency (only 3% of all sentences). We found only one example of zero-dependency level (sentence comprising only main clauses). The texts of Lyons, Stiglitz, and Elias & Dunning have similar numbers for the dependency levels and the tendencies are those described above, the text of Crystal and Davy most commonly displays the structure of only one dependency level.

It can be stated that the tendencies found in Poláčková's research are to some extent similar to those proven by our analysis: the number of words needed to obtain one sentence in our work is higher than that needed to obtain a sentence of four finite clauses, but is smaller than that needed to obtain one such sentence in literary style; just as in Poláčková, the most common type of dependent clause is the adjectival relative restrictive clause; there were small differences in the types of adverbial clauses; however, their frequency was more or less the same. Just like Poláčková in the technical style, we found only one sentence comprising only main clauses; the most common relationship between coordinating main clauses is the copulative relation; some differences were found as regards the syntactical function of nominal clause. Although no comparison has been made with literary style, we can say that the tendencies are similar to those in technical style analyzed by Poláčková.

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Shrnutí

Cílem této diplomové práce je zkoumání výskytu složitého souvětí o pěti a více větách v odborném (akademickém) textu. Záměrem je zjistit, zda může tento typ souvětí sloužit jako stylový ukazatel. Práce je současně pokračováním dřívějších diplomových prací zkoumajících výskyt složitých souvětí o třech, resp. čtyřech větách R. Černého (1998) a L. Poláčkové (2000).

Práce je rozdělena do dvou částí. První, teoretická část obsahuje úvod, pracovní hypotézu, shrnutí výsledků předchozího výzkumu Poláčkové (2000), charakteristiku odborného textu a typologii vedlejších vět, která byla pro analýzu souvětí použita. Druhá část obsahuje popis vlastního výzkumu, tj. krátkou charakteristiku analyzovaných textů, popis diagramů použitých pro grafického znázornění stavby souvětí, popis výsledků, jevů a tendencí nalezených v analyzovaných souvětích. Druhá část rovněž obsahuje tabulky s přehledy zkoumaných jevů a srovnání s výsledky práce Poláčkové (2000). Seznam všech nalezených a analyzovaných souvětí spolu s větnými diagramy je prezentován v příloze.

Pro excerpci souvětí byly použity čtyři vzorky akademických textů z oblasti společenských věd, které reprezentují současný jazyk. Z každého vzorku bylo vyexcerptováno padesát souvětí o pěti a více větách, celkem dvě stě souvětí. Za kritérium věty bylo bráno určité sloveso. Měřítkem hustoty zkoumaných jevů byla délka textu měřená celkovým počtem slov, kterých bylo třeba na získání padesáti souvětí o pěti a více větách v každém vzorku. Vybraná souvětí byla následně analyzována z hlediska jejich struktury a vlastností. Pozornost je věnována typům vedlejších vět, četnosti jejich výskytu, syntaktickým funkcím a sémantickým rolím, vzájemným kombinacím, hloubce závislostních struktur a interpunkci. Závěr práce obsahuje srovnání s výsledky práce Poláčkové (2000).

Vzhledem k tomu, že práce zkoumá souvětí ve čtyřech vzorcích odborného textu, pracovní hypotéza obsahuje předpoklad, že všechny čtyři vzorky textu budou vykazovat podobné tendence. Podle dalšího předpokladu by měl být počet složitých souvětí obsahujících pět a více vět v odborném textu vyšší než počet obdobných souvětí v textu literárním. Zkoumaná souvětí by měla obsahovat vyšší počet vedlejších vět, a to z důvodu větší míry explicitnosti odborného textu. Dále byl očekáván menší počet souvětí obsahujících šest a více

vět než souvětí o pěti větách, a menší hustota souvětí o pěti větách než hustota souvětí o čtyřech větách ve studii Poláčkové.

Podle Turnera (1973) lze druh textu obecně charakterizovat podle toho, jaká je role mluvčího, role příjemce a zda je text psaný nebo mluvený. První kritérium určuje, do jaké míry se jedná o text technický, podle druhého hlediska určíme míru formálnosti a třetí kritérium určuje, v jakém vztahu se mluvčí a příjemce textu nacházejí. Texty, které jsou v této práci analyzovány, lze charakterizovat jako formální a psané. Jde o texty akademické, nejen co do obsahu a použité terminologie, ale též proto, že obsahují odkazy a citace. Samotný obsah ještě k určení stylu nestačí. Někdy je dokonce hranice mezi obecným a odborným (technickým) textem velmi nejasná, především tehdy, pokud se začnou odborné výrazy používat obecně.

Akademický text je tedy možný popsat jako abstraktní, dobře strukturovaný, věcný a nedvojsmyslný, přesný a explicitní. Osobnost autora by měla být potlačena. Z tohoto důvodu se používá neutrálnější autorský plurál (např. *as we shall see*), zároveň však zůstává zachována adresnost vůči příjemci. Akademický text může rovněž vykazovat popularizační či výchovné prvky. Esejistické rysy naopak akademický text mohou posouvat směrem k rovině umělecké, občas na úkor přesnosti, která by měla být akademickému textu vlastní. Co se týká kritéria formálnosti, spíše než stanovit, zda se jedná o text formální nebo neformální, určuje se míra formálnosti. I texty zvolené pro naši analýzu se v míře, do jaké se formální kritéria v textu vyskytují, liší. Naší hypotézou bylo, že výskyt formálních kritérií bude vyšší než u literárního textu, dále že texty budou obsahovat specifickou terminologii. Tato práce se zabývá formálními prvky na syntaktické rovině.

Důkazem větší míry formálnosti textu měl být vyšší výskyt vedlejších vět, koordinace se jeví jako prvek neformální. Z obecného hlediska jsou složitá souvětí s hlubokou závislostní strukturou spíše typická pro psaný text a formální styly (především text právníký), než pro jazyk mluvený. Z toho vyplývá hypotéza, že akademické texty by měly vykazovat větší počet vět vedlejších než vět hlavních.

Práce rovněž obsahuje stručnou typologii vět, na základě které je větný rozbor prováděn. Pro tento účel je použit systém R. Quirka *et al.* (1985), modifikovaný systémem Duškové (1994). Stejný přístup zvolila ve své práci L. Poláčková (2000), a aby bylo možné

výsledky obou prací porovnat, byl použit i v této práci. Zvýšená pozornost je věnována obsahovým větám tázacím a substantivním větám vztažným, neboť se oba typy vedlejších vět v mnohém shodují, což ztěžuje jejich rozlišení. Vzhledem k častému výskytu obou těchto větných typů byla jejich podrobnější charakteristika považována v této práci za užitečnou. Separátně je též pojednáno o disjunktivních větách komentujících.

Nominální věty oznamovací, podle Quirkovy klasifikace tzv. *that*-clauses, vedlejší věty tázací a zvolací jsou v této práci klasifikovány jako závislé věty obsahové: závislé věty obsahové oznamovací, závislé věty obsahové tázací, obsahové věty rozkazovací a přací. Substantivní věty vztažné (nominal relative clauses) jsou na rozdíl od Quirkovy klasifikace řazeny v této práci do skupiny spolu s adjektivními větami vztažnými. Vedlejší věty příslovečné (adverbial clauses) jsou rozděleny do stejných kategorií jako v práci Poláčkové (2000), a to za účelem srovnání výsledků obou prací. V práci tak najdeme příslovečné věty časové, příslovečné věty místa, způsobu, účinku, příčiny, důvodu, věty podmínkové, podmínkově přípustkové a disjunktivní věty komentující.

Ze čtyř vzorků odborného textu bylo vyexcerptováno dvě stě souvětí obsahujících pět a více vět, padesát z každého textu. Formálním kritériem pro začátek složitějšího souvětí bylo velké písmeno, pro konec souvětí tečka a pro větu v rámci souvětí pak sloveso ve finitním tvaru. Jedinou výjimku představovalo sloveso *is* v „*that is*“ a částice *say*. Dvě stě nalezených souvětí obsahovalo celkem 1 157 vět, z toho 385 hlavních a 772 vedlejších.

Hustota zkoumaného jevu, tedy souvětí o pěti a více větách, byla nejvyšší v textu W. Lyonse (1980), nejnižší pak v textu N. Eliase a E. Dunninga (1986). V prvním případě bylo k získání jednoho souvětí třeba v průměru 189 slov, ve druhém pak 467. Nižší výskyt zkoumaných souvětí v textu N. Eliase a E. Dunninga byl vyvážen vyšším výskytem slovesných složek v nefinitním tvaru. Zbylé dva texty se pohybovaly v těchto mezích. Pokud byly brány v úvahu všechny čtyři texty, k získání jednoho souvětí bylo v průměru třeba 334 slov. Přibližně padesát procent vybraných souvětí tvořila souvětí o pěti větách (103 ze 200), 64 souvětí byla tvořena šesti větami a pouze 16,7 % byla souvětí o více než šesti větách (sedm a více vět). Pouze jedno souvětí obsahovalo deset vět.

Všechny čtyři zkoumané vzorky obsahovaly přibližně stejný počet souvětí se stejným počtem vět. Nejčastěji se vyskytuje kombinace jedné hlavní věty a čtyř vět vedlejších (49

souvětí), následuje souvětí o dvou hlavních a třech vedlejších větách (17%). Častá byla rovněž souvětí o šesti větách, která kombinují dvě hlavní se čtyřmi vedlejšími větami a souvětí o jedné hlavní větě s pěti vedlejšími větami. 6,5% souvětí obsahovala tři hlavní a dvě vedlejší věty, 5% pak bylo tvořeno souvětími o třech hlavních a třech vedlejších větách. Nalezeno bylo pouze jedno souvětí souřadné (o pěti větách), tj. takové, které obsahuje pouze věty hlavní.

Souvětí s nejvyšším počtem hlavních vět se vyskytovala v textu D. Crystala & D. Davyho (1973), průměrný počet hlavních vět na jedno souvětí představoval 2,68 (ve všech ostatních textech bylo toto číslo nižší než 2). Rovněž tento text obsahoval jediný příklad souvětí o pěti hlavních větách. V tomto textu byl poměr hlavních vět k větám vedlejšími blízký 1 : 1, ve zbylých třech textech se tento poměr přibližoval 1 : 2. Souvětí, která obsahovala čtyři a více hlavních vět, se vyskytovala pouze v tomto textu. V textu W. Lyonse připadalo v průměru 4,1 vedlejších vět na jednu větu hlavní, souvětí v textu N. Eliase & E. Dunninga měla v průměru nejnižší počet hlavních vět na jedno souvětí (pouze 1,42) a nejvyšší počet vět vedlejší (4,46).

Nejčastěji se vyskytujícím typem vedlejší věty jsou věty vztažné (41,6 % ze všech vedlejších vět), 31,6 % vedlejších vět tvoří věty obsahové. Nejméně častým typem jsou věty adverbialní (26,8 %). Proporce vedlejších vět se však v jednotlivých textech liší. Nejblíže jsou si z tohoto hlediska texty J. Stiglitze a D. Crystala & D. Davyho, v nichž výskyt jednotlivých typů vedlejších vět odpovídá výše zmíněným tendencím. V textu W. Lyonse je nejčastěji se vyskytujícím typem vedlejších vět věta obsahová (41,1 %), následuje ji věta adverbialní (31,3 %) a nejméně zastoupena je věta vztažná (pouze 27,5 %). V textu N. Eliase & E. Dunninga se nejčastěji vyskytuje věta vztažná (53,5 %), nejméně častá je věta obsahová (pouze 21,2 %).

Jak již bylo zmíněno, nejčastěji se vyskytující je věta vztažná, konkrétně adjektivní věta vztažná restriktivní, která tvoří naprostou většinu vztažných vět. Počet vztažných vět substantivních je přibližně stejný ve všech vzorcích textu (kolem 5 %) kromě textu N. Eliase & E. Dunninga.

Druhým nejčastěji se vyskytujícím typem vedlejší věty je věta obsahová, především pak věta substantivní obsahová oznamovací (více než 70 % všech obsahových vět). Dalšími vyskytujícími se typy je věta obsahová tázací (zastoupeny jsou obsahové věty s otázkou

rozlučovací, doplňovací i zjišťovací). Jiné typy obsahových vět nalezeny nebyly. V námi analyzovaných vzorcích zastávají věty substantivní nejčastěji syntaktickou funkci předmětu (téměř 70 % substantivních vět), poměrně malé procento (6,9 %) obsahových vět má funkci podmětu a nejčastěji se nacházejí v postverbální pozici. Za zmínku stojí rovněž obsahová věta ve funkci přívlastku (22,2 %). Jedenáct obsahových vět zastává funkci doplňku podmětu, ve funkci doplňku předmětu žádné substantivní věty nalezeny nebyly.

Jak již bylo zmíněno výše, adverbialní věty jsou ve sledovaných vzorcích zastoupeny nejméně. Jejich výskyt v jednotlivých textech se liší. V textu W. Lyonse představují druhou nejvýše zastoupenou skupinu vedlejších vět (cca 1/3), ve zbylých třech textech se jejich výskyt pohybuje v rozmezí 21 a 27 %. V Lyonsově textu je nejčastějším typem adverbialní věty věta podmínková (27 % adverbialních vět), disjunktivní věta komentující (21 %) a věta příslovečná důvodová (18 %). V textu J. Stiglitze tvoří adverbialní věty přibližně čtvrtinu vedlejších vět, nejčastějším typem je příslovečná věta důvodová (30,6 % adverbialních vět) a věta časová (22,4 %). Poměrně významně jsou zastoupeny věta podmínková a podmínkově přípustková (každý typ je zastoupen 14,3 %). V textu D. Crystala & D. Davyho jsou adverbialní věty zastoupeny nejméně (pouze 21,4 %), nejvíce se vyskytuje věta příslovečná časová (41,2 % adverbialních vět) a věta podmínková (26,5 %). Ve vzorku N. Eliase & E. Dunninga jsou adverbialní věty rovněž zastoupeny přibližně 25 % z vedlejších vět, nejčastěji se vyskytuje věta podmínková (40 % vět příslovečných) a věta časová (25,5 %). Z celkového hlediska je nejčastějším typem věty příslovečné věta podmínková (27,5 % všech adverbialních vět) a věta časová (22,5 %). Poměrně časté jsou rovněž věty důvodové, které jsou distribuovány především v textech Lyonse a Stiglitze. Zmínit je rovněž třeba disjunktivní věty komentující, které tvoří 11,8 % adverbialních vět, a věty příslovečné přípustkové (10 %). Posledně jmenované jsou ve čtyřech vzorcích textu zastoupeny rovnoměrně.

Co se týká kombinací vět vedlejších v jednotlivých souvětích, žádná z nich se nevyskytovala natolik často, aby bylo možné dovozovat jednoznačné tendence. Přesto se některé z kombinací vyskytovaly častěji než jiné: bylo nalezeno devět příkladů souvětí tvořených dvěma hlavními a čtyřmi vedlejšími větami, z nichž jedna je obsahová, dvě vztažné a jedna příslovečná. Osmkrát se v textech vyskytuje souvětí o pěti větách (jedné hlavní a čtyřech vedlejších větách), z nichž ty vedlejší jsou obsahová, vztažná a dvě příslovečné. Dále

bylo nalezeno sedm příkladů souvětí, v nichž je hlavní věta doplněna větou obsahovou a třemi vztahnými, a sedm příkladů kombinace věty obsahové, věty vztahné a věty adverbiální se dvěma větami hlavními. Souvětí jsou mezi jednotlivé texty rozložena rovnoměrně.

Ve vybraných souvětích byly rovněž nalezeny vytýkácí konstrukce, celkem bylo nalezeno osm příkladů, z nichž se všechny nacházejí pouze v textech W. Lyonse a J. Stiglitze.

Pozornost byla též věnována vztahům mezi jednotlivými větami. Hlavní věty byly nejčastěji ve vztahu slučovací, spojeny byly v převážné většině koordinační spojkou (spojení asyndetické se vyskytuje méně často). Významný podíl tvořila též spojení odporovací a juxtaopozice. V případě vedlejších vět v koordinaci se rovněž nejčastěji vyskytovalo spojení slučovací, následováno bylo vztahem rozlučovací. V případě vedlejších vět v koordinačním vztahu byla rovněž častá juxtaopozice. Co se týká použité interpunkce ve vybraných souvětích, ve značném počtu se vyskytuje čárka, pomlčka, dvojtečka, středník i závorky. Tato práce hlubší analýzu jejich použití neobsahuje, prozkoumání využití jednotlivých interpunkčních znamének k vyjádření různých typů vztahů mezi jednotlivými větami by mohlo být předmětem dalšího výzkumu.

Ve vybraných souvětích byla rovněž sledována hloubka závislostních vztahů. Nejčastěji se vyskytovala struktura dvou závislostních rovin (jedna hlavní a dvě roviny podřadné), ta tvořila téměř 50 % všech souvětí. Přibližně třetina souvětí obsahovala pouze jednu závislostní rovinu. Nejhlubším nalezeným závislostním vztahem byla struktura o čtyřech závislostních rovinách. Pouze jedno souvětí sestávalo jen z hlavních vět, neobsahovalo tedy žádnou závislostní rovinu. Tyto tendence platí pouze pro tři vzorky textů, souvětí vybraná z textu D. Crystala & D. Davyho obsahovala z padesáti procent jen jednu závislostní rovinu.

Srovnáme-li výsledky této studie s výsledky práce Poláčkové, která porovnávala odborný styl se stylem literárním, můžeme říct, že některé tendence se do značné míry shodují. Přestože tato práce nesrovnává odborný styl s literárním textem, nalezená souvětí o pěti a více větách v odborných textech vykazují vyšší hustotu (v průměru 334 slov na jedno souvětí) než nalezená souvětí o čtyřech větách v literárním textu (v průměru 600 slov) v případě studie Poláčkové. Stejně jako v práci Poláčkové i zde bylo v odborných textech nalezeno pouze jedno souvětí souřadné (sestavující pouze z vět hlavních). Poláčková našla v literárním stylu

šestnáct takových souvětí. U Poláčkové obsahovala nalezená souvětí v obou stylech v průměru dvě až tři vedlejší věty, v naší práci byla nejčastější kombinace jedné věty hlavní se čtyřmi větami vedlejšími (cca 25 %), 17 % tvořila souvětí o dvou větách hlavních se třemi větami vedlejšími. V průměru obsahovalo jedno souvětí 3,84 závislých vět a 1,93 vět hlavních.

Obě práce se shodují co do četnosti typů vedlejších vět: nejčastějším typem věty závislé byla v případě Poláčkové věta vztažná (43 %), častý výskyt vykazovaly vedlejší věty substantivní (31 % všech závislých vět), konkrétně obsahové věty oznamovací. Náš výzkum tyto tendence s drobnými odchylkami v jednotlivých textech potvrdil: adjektivní věty vztažné tvoří 41,6 % závislých vět, věty substantivní jsou zastoupeny 31,6 procenty. Adverbiální věty jsou zastoupeny nejméně, a to jak v odborném textu (24 % závislých vět), tak ve stylu literárním (29 %). V odborném textu se nejčastěji vyskytovaly příslovečné věty příčinné a věty podmínkové. V námi analyzovaných odborných textech se nejčastěji vyskytuje příslovečná věta podmínková, druhým nejčastěji zastoupeným typem pak je příslovečná věta časová. Adverbiální věta příčinná představuje třetí nejčastěji zastoupený typ.

Naopak v případě syntaktických funkcí substantivních vět nebyly nalezeny žádné shodné tendence: v odborných textech analyzovaných Poláčkovou zastávaly nominální věty nejčastěji funkci podmětu, v literárním stylu pak funkci předmětu. V námi analyzovaných odborných textech měly substantivní věty nejčastěji funkci předmětu.

Co se týká kombinací různých typů vět závislých v jednotlivých souvětích, tendence se opět částečně shodují: souvětí vybraná z technických textů Poláčkovou často obsahovala kombinaci jedné věty vztažné s větou příslovečnou nebo větou nominální, souvětí o jedné větě hlavní a třech závislých obsahovala kombinaci nominálních vět spolu se vztažnými. Je však nutno zmínit, že co se týká kombinací jednotlivých závislých vět, v našich textech souvětí vykazovala větší míru variability.

Podobnost byla nalezena i v případě spojení hlavních vět: v odborných textech Poláčkové i našich byly hlavní věty nejčastěji spojeny souřadnou spojkou, což lze vysvětlit většími nároky na přesnost vyjadřování v odborných textech. V námi nalezených souvětích však bylo zastoupení asyndetických spojení rovněž významné. Nejčastěji se věty souřadné nacházely ve vztahu slučovacím a následně pak odporovacím.

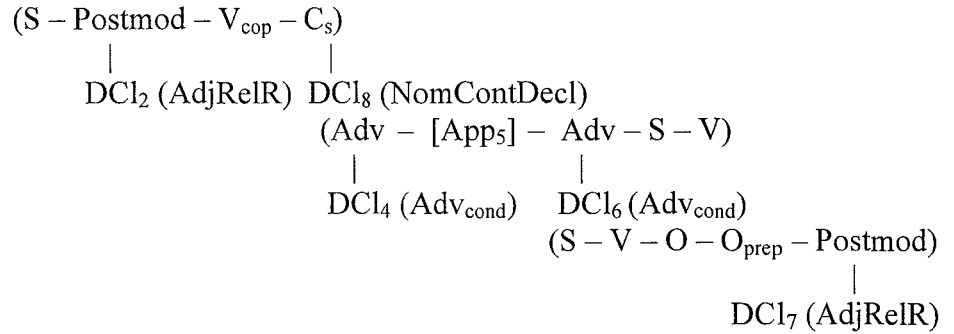
Co se hloubky závislostních struktur týká, v analýze Poláčkové nevykazovala souvětí o čtyřech větách v odborném a literárním textu žádný významný rozdíl. Poláčková zaznamenala tři druhy závislostních struktur v případě souvětí sestávajícího z jedné věty hlavní a třech závislých: závislé věty se nacházely na stejné závislostní rovině, jedna věta závislá byla nadřazena jedné či dvěma závislým větám na stejné rovině, nebo byla jedna závislá věta nadřazena druhé a ta následně nadřazena třetí. Vzhledem k vyššímu počtu závislých vět v jednom souvětí v námi analyzovaných textech, vyskytovala se i větší míra variability, co se závislostních struktur týká. V našich textech se nejčastěji objevuje struktura dvou závislostních rovin (48,5 %), druhá nejčastěji zastoupená je překvapivě struktura o jedné závislostní rovině (30 %). Nejhlubší nalezená závislostní struktura obsahovala čtyři roviny závislosti. Poláčková nezaznamenala žádný významný rozdíl mezi styly, co se sémantických vztahů a použité interpunkce mezi hlavními větami týká.

Poláčková dochází k závěru, že složité souvětí o čtyřech větách může sloužit jako stylový ukazatel, což dokládá především větší hustotou zkoumaných souvětí v odborném textu, rozdílným poměrem vět hlavních k větám vedlejších v jednom souvětí a výskytem odlišných typů závislých vět v každém ze stylů.

– that ⁵is, if it ⁶has a close relationship with the things which ⁷have been formerly hurtful

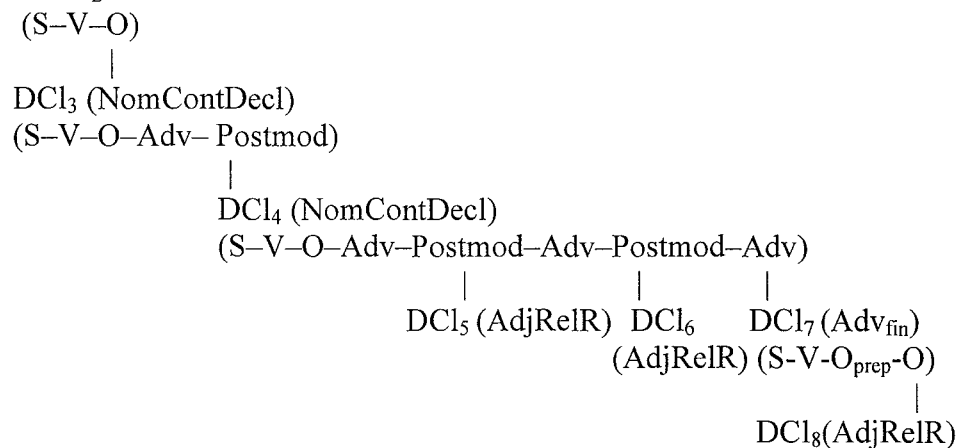
to the body, that ⁸excites the passion of apprehension in the soul and then that of courage, or else that of fear and consternation according to the particular temperament of the body or the strength of the soul’ (1911-12, Art. XXXVI). (Lyons, 1980, p. 3)

But MCl₁ – for MCl₃

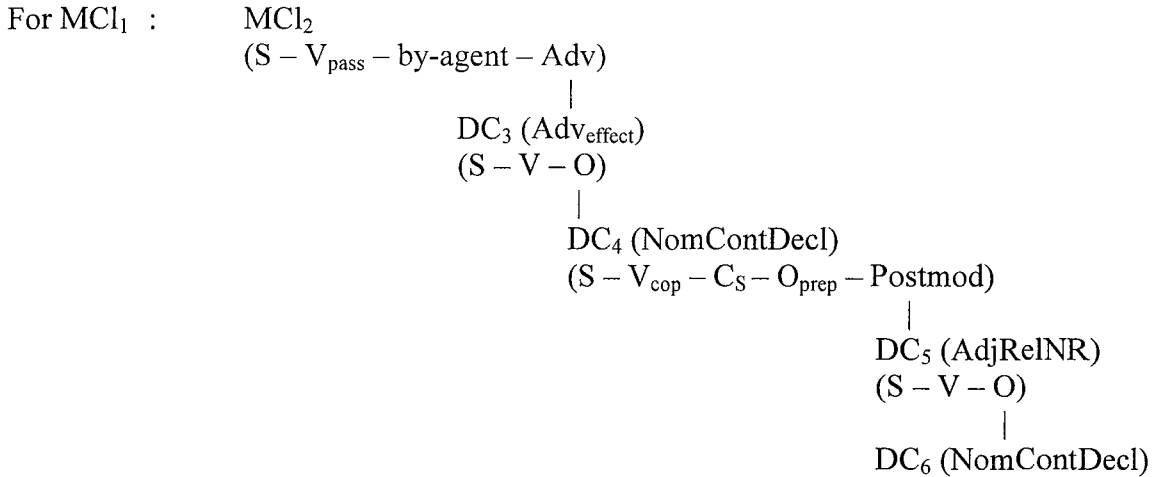


Ly4. But in point of fact, Descartes’ account ¹may be less cognitive than that, for he ²goes on to explain that the impression in the soul caused by the perception of the ‘strange and frightful’ animal, after being related in some unspecified way to previous experiences of such animals and, again in some unspecified way, judged in consequence to be of something harmful, ³‘disposes the brain in such a way that the spirits reflected from the image thus formed on the gland, ⁴proceed thence to take their places partly in the nerves which ⁵serve to turn the back and dispose the legs for flight, and partly in those which so ⁶increase or ⁷diminish the orifices of the heart... [that it] ⁸sends to the brain the spirits which are adapted for the maintenance and strengthening of the passion of fear’ (1911-12, Art. XXXVI). (Lyons, 1980, p. 3)

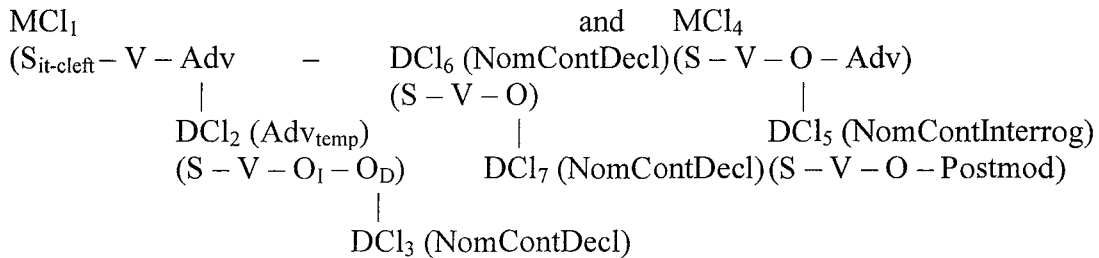
But MCl₁– for MCl₂



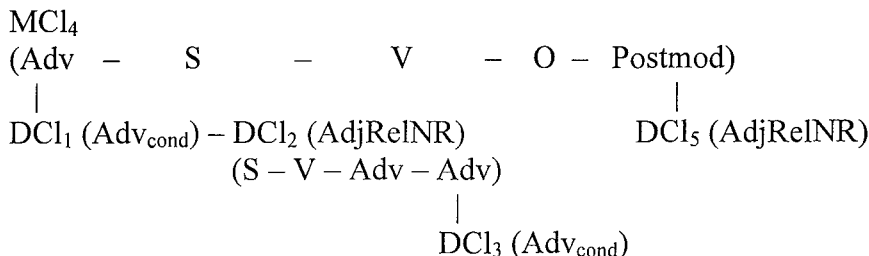
becoming very angry with Macdonald who is suggesting that the central texts in the first
 year course should consist only of the writings of the Existentialists. (Lyons, 1980, p. 6)



Ly12. It ¹is only later on, when Macdonald curly ²remarks to O'Reilly that there ³was no need
 to get so heated, and he ⁴overhears MacFee wonder why he ⁵got so angry, that O'Reilly
⁶realises that he ⁷must have become very angry during the meeting. (Lyons, 1980, p. 6)



Ly13. Now, if we ¹substituted the phrase 'a particular feeling' for 'jealousy' in the sentence –
 which we ²should be able to do without oddity if Descartes' view ³is correct – we ⁴get, 'A
 particular feeling caused Jones to stab his wife outside the bar', which ⁵begins to look odd.
 (Lyons, 1980, p. 6)



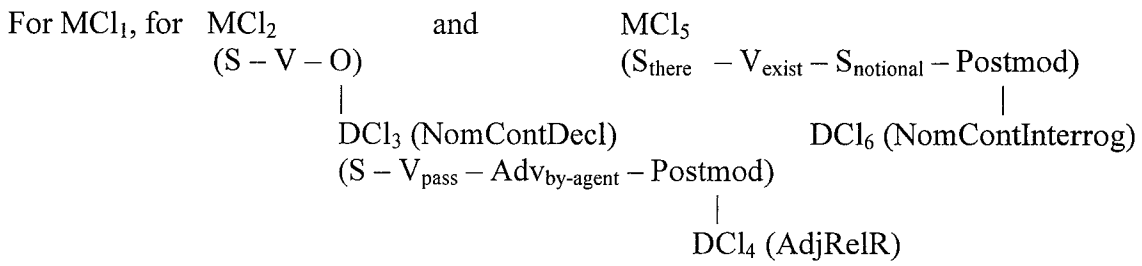
Ly14. To say that I ¹ am ² hot ³ is not to say that I want to do anything or ⁴ am liable to do anything, much less that I ⁵ will do anything. (Lyons, 1980, p. 7)

MCl₂
 (S – V_{cop} – C_s)
 (V_{inf} – O) (V_{inf} – O) or O – Adv_{comp}
 | | | |
 DCI₁(NomContDecl) DCI₃(NomContDecl) DCI₄(NomContDecl) DCI₅(NomContDecl)

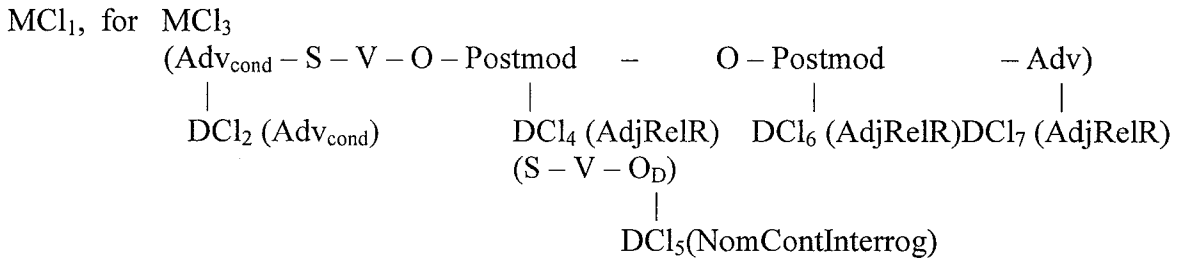
Ly15. I ¹ think Descartes himself ² realised that his theory ³ was not able to make much sense of the connection between emotions and behaviour because, as we ⁴ have seen, he ⁵ does write that ‘principal effect of all the passions in men ⁶ is that they ⁷ incite and dispose their soul to desire those things for which they ⁸ prepare their body, so that the feeling of fear ⁹ incites it to desire to fly’ (1911-12, Art. XL). (Lyons, 1980, p. 7)

MCl₁
 (S – V – O) – Adv) – [ComCl₄]
 | |
 DCI₂(NomContDecl) DCI₅(Adv_{cause})
 (S – V – O) (S – V – O)
 | |
 DCI₃(NomContDecl) DCI₆(NomContDecl)
 (S – V_{cop} – C_s) – Adv)
 | |
 DCI₇(NomContDecl) DCI₉(Adv_{effect})
 (S – V – O – Postmod)
 |
 DCI₈(AdjRelR)

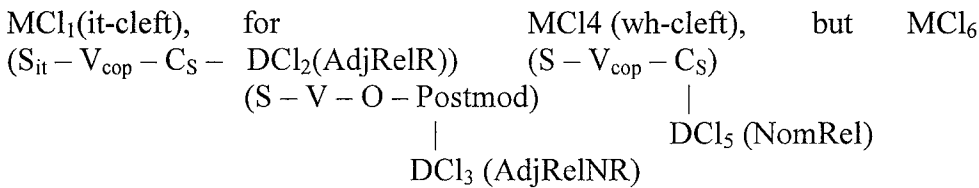
Ly16. For after all the perception of the external object ¹ is not central to Descartes’ account of emotion nor even central to his account of the causal antecedents of emotion, for he ² does allow that some emotions, such as objectless and imaginary-object fears ³ are caused entirely by ‘temperaments of the body or... impressions which ⁴ are fortuitously met with in the brain’ (1911-12, Art. LI), and there ⁵ is no rubric laid down as to how these in turn ⁶ must be caused. (Lyons, 1980, p. 8)



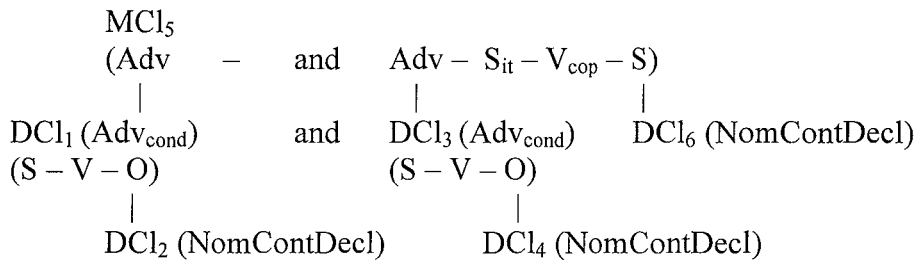
Ly17. This ¹seems to me ²to be a valid point, for if emotions can be judged in this way, they ³must include something which ⁴can be looked at to see whether it ⁵is backed up by reasons, and reasons which ⁶are appropriate to the circumstances, and so ⁷can be said to be justified in the circumstances. (Lyons, 1980, p. 8)



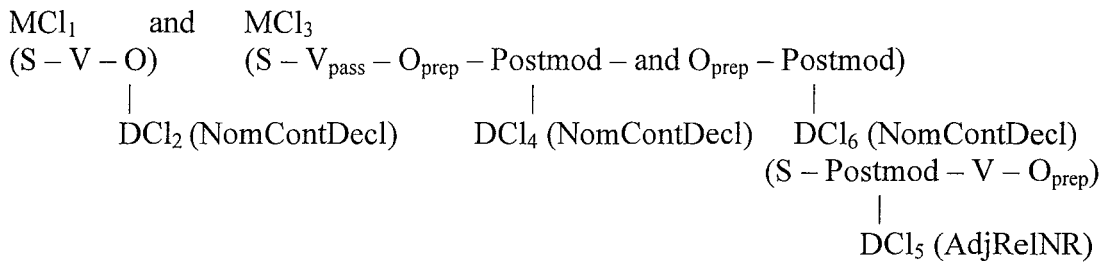
Ly18. It ¹is the beauty of the house which ²causes the pleasure (which ³is the basic sensation part of pride), for that ⁴is what beauty naturally ⁵does to humans, but the object of pride ⁶is oneself or oneself as owner of the house (Hume, 1978, Bk. II, Part I, Section VIII, pp. 300-1). (Lyons, 1980, p. 9)



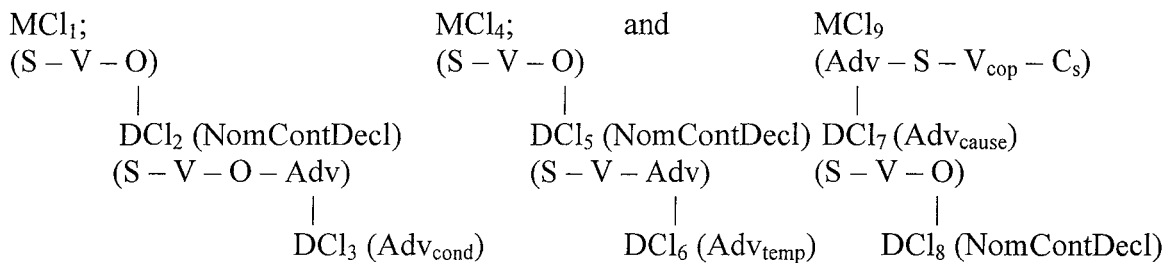
Ly19. Now, if we ¹realise that good and evil ²are ‘in other words, pain and pleasure’ (p. 215) and ³recall that ‘the passions, both direct and indirect, ⁴are founded on pain and pleasure’ (p. 214), then it ⁵is not difficult to see that the passions, being sensations resulting from associating pain or pleasure with people, things or events, ⁶will naturally incline us to seek out the source of the pleasure and to avoid the sources of pain. (Lyons, 1980, p. 10)



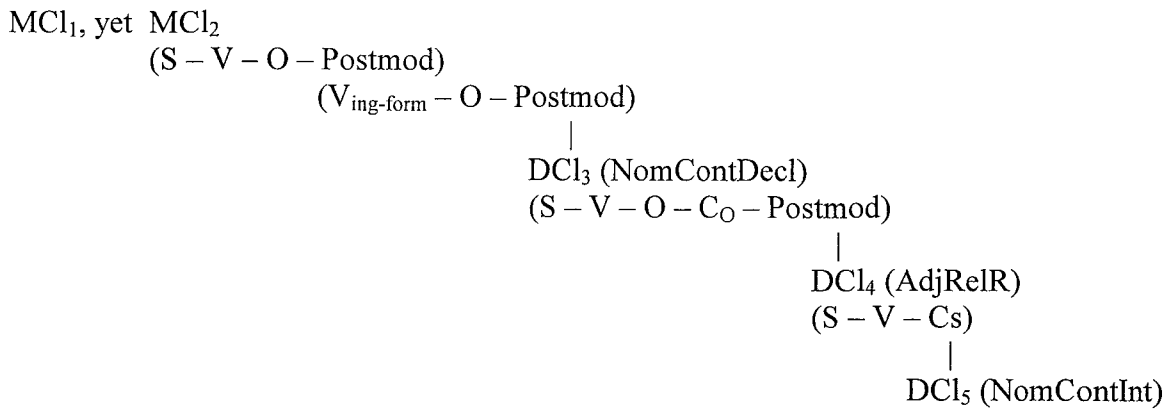
Ly20. Hume ¹ does see that an adequate theory of emotion ² must give some such account, and his account ³ is based on the general psychological principle that we always ⁴ act so as to gain pleasure and avoid pain, and on the claim that the peculiar sensation of the soul ⁵ which is the emotion ⁶ is always causally linked to a first-order or original impression of pain or pleasure. (Lyons, 1980, p. 11)



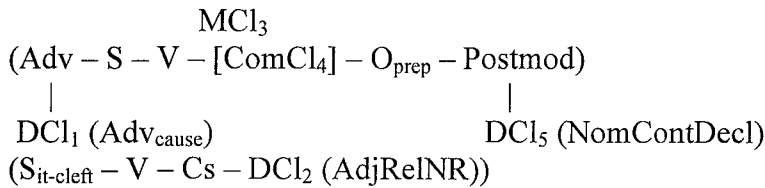
Ly21. Some people ¹ may declare that they ² enjoyed the experience, especially if it ³ was cathartic; some ⁴ may even admit that they positively ⁵ wallowed in it when the anger ⁶ was righteous anger or anger denouncing injustice; and as we ⁷ are told that revenge ⁸ is sweet, so perhaps vengeful anger ⁹ is as well. (Lyons, 1980, p. 11)



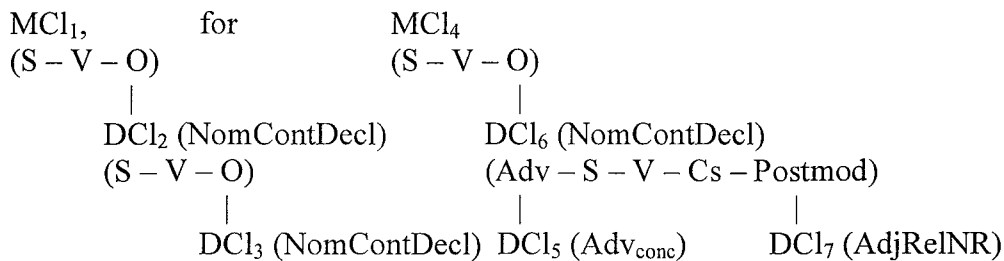
Ly22. It ¹ must be hard to find shame, remorse and disgust pleasant, yet I ² can imagine someone seeking to be in such emotional situations, and so giving us *prima facie* ³ evidence that they find them pleasant (at least in Humean sense where the test ⁴ would ⁵ be whether they seek out such emotions or not). (Lyons, 1980, p. 12)



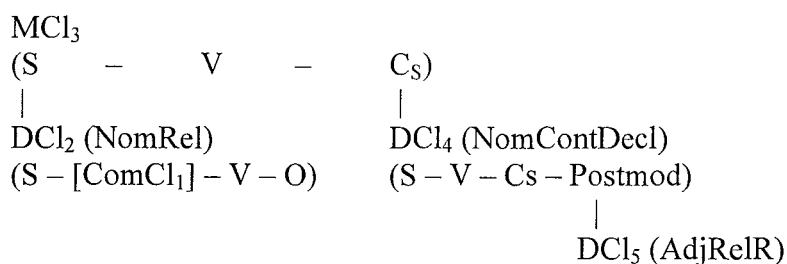
Ly23. Because it ¹was Descartes' view of emotion that ²came to influence the early attempts
 to make psychology into an experimental science, this ³resulted in some instances, as
 Kenny ⁴puts it, in the belief 'that the study of the emotions ⁵could be made scientific
 only by training introspectors in precise observation and accurate measurement of
 their interior states' (Kenny, 1963, p. 29). (Lyons, 1980, p. 12)



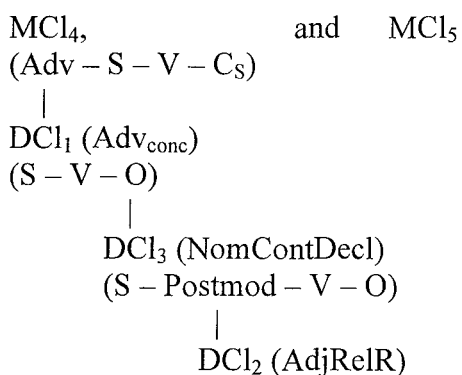
Ly24. I ¹believe that William James ²thought he ³was changing the Cartesian doctrine of
 emotion in an important way, for James ⁴made it clear that, while he still ⁵saw emotions
 as feelings, these feelings ⁶were of the physiological changes and disturbances that
⁷went on during an emotional occurrence. (Lyons, 1980, p. 12)



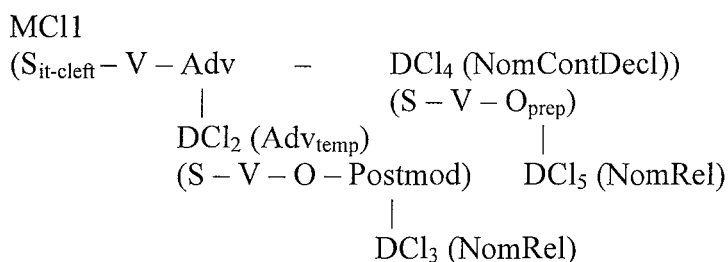
Ly25. What I ¹think ²is uncontroversial ³is that James' theory of the emotions ⁴has been one of
 the reasons why many psychologists nowadays ⁵fasten almost exclusively upon
 physiological changes, and the feelings resulting from them, as being the essence of
 emotion. (Lyons, 1980, p. 12)



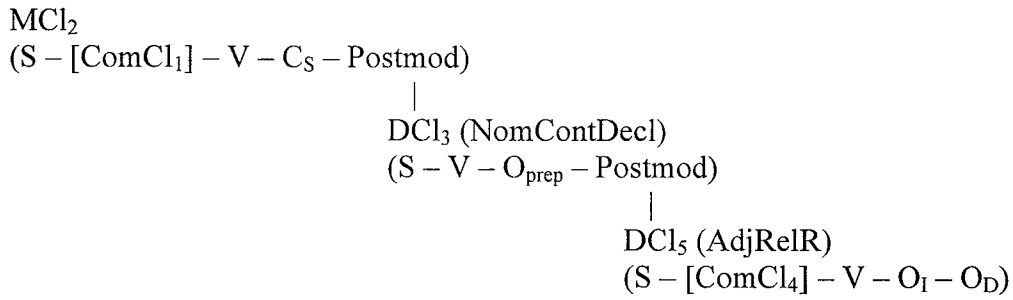
Ly26. Though he ¹allows that objects which ²arouse emotions in us usually ³arouse instincts in us as well, this ⁴is not always so, and emotions ⁵must be clearly distinguished from instincts to behave in certain ways. (Lyons, 1980, p. 13)



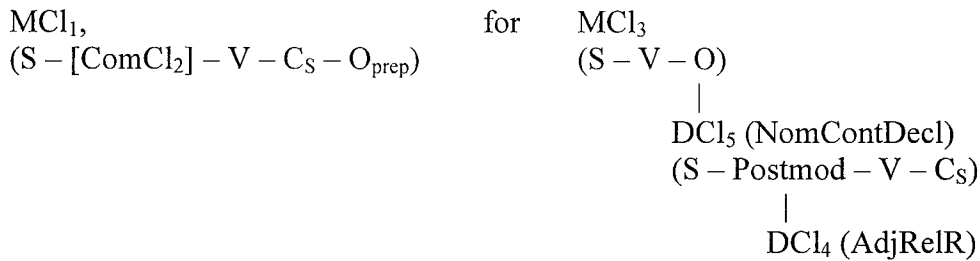
Ly27. It ¹is only after he ²has given this central account of emotion, in terms of what he ³calls the ‘coarser emotions’, such as rage, grief and fear, that James ⁴turns to what he ⁵terms the ‘subtler emotions’, such as love, indignation and pride. (Lyons, 1980, p. 14)



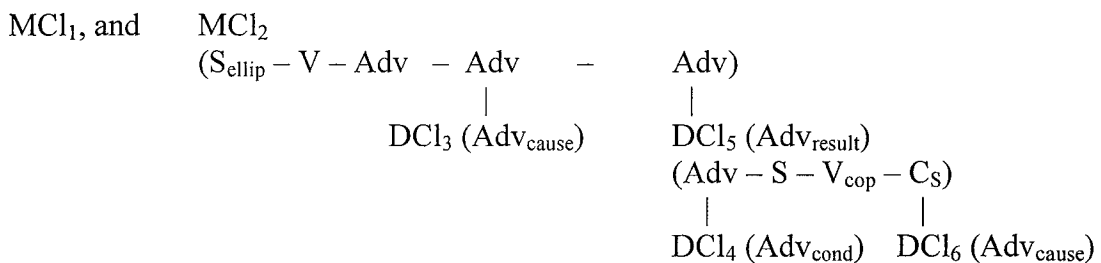
Ly28. An immediate attraction of this view, as we ¹shall see, ²has been the fact that it clearly ³makes sense of such cases as electrically stimulating the cortex and causing physiological changes which the subject ⁴says ⁵gave him or her feelings of, say, rage. (Lyons, 1980, p. 14)



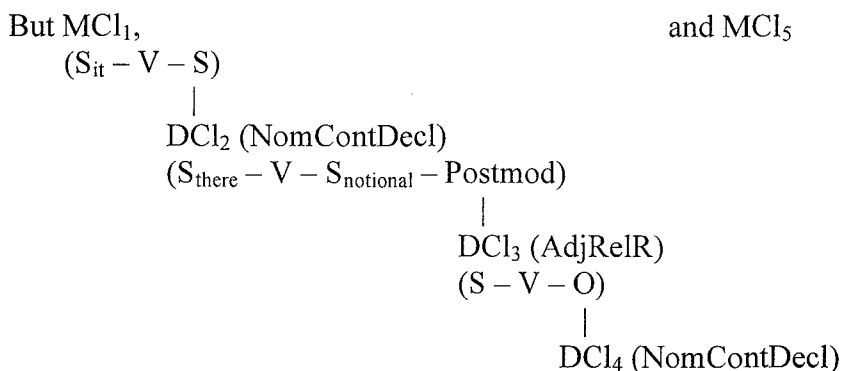
Ly29. This ¹is, I ²think, peculiar to the James version of the Cartesian theory of the emotions, for only he ³suggests that the feeling which ⁴is the emotion ⁵is merely the feeling of the physiological changes involved. (Lyons, 1980, p. 14)



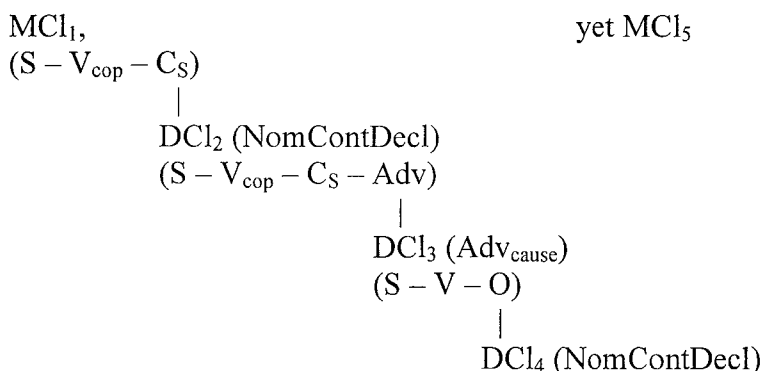
Ly30. He ¹took the feeling out of the soul and ²put it into the purely bodily arena, for his feeling ³was just the subjective side of the physiological changes involved, so that if the feeling ⁴was different for each emotion it ⁵was because the physiological changes accompanying each emotion ⁶must be different as well. (Lyons, 1980, p. 15)



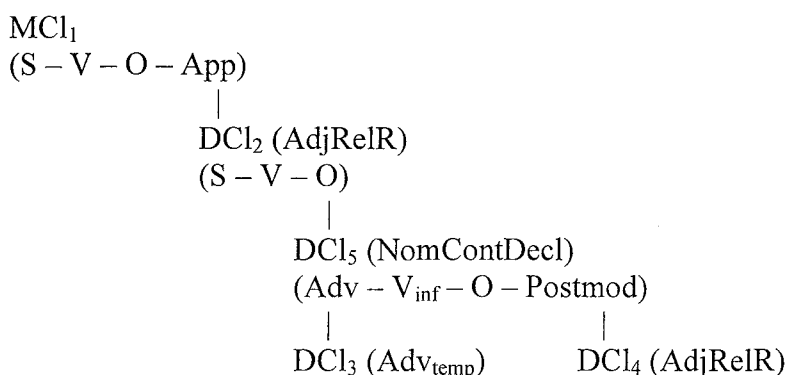
Ly31. But it ¹should be mentioned also that there ²are others who ³believe that they ⁴have had some success in distinguishing some emotions, or some emotions in certain experimental circumstances, by reference to physiological changes, and this ⁵might be seen as some hope for future confirmation of the James version of the Cartesian theory. (Lyons, 1980, p. 15)



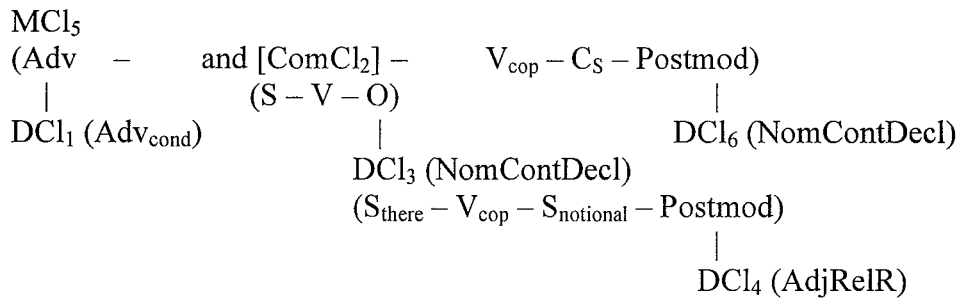
Ly32. One of Cannon's arguments ¹ was that the James-Lange theory of emotions ² was false because it ³ stated that an emotion ⁴ was a feeling, yet this ⁵ could be shown experimentally to be false. (Lyons, 1980, p. 16)



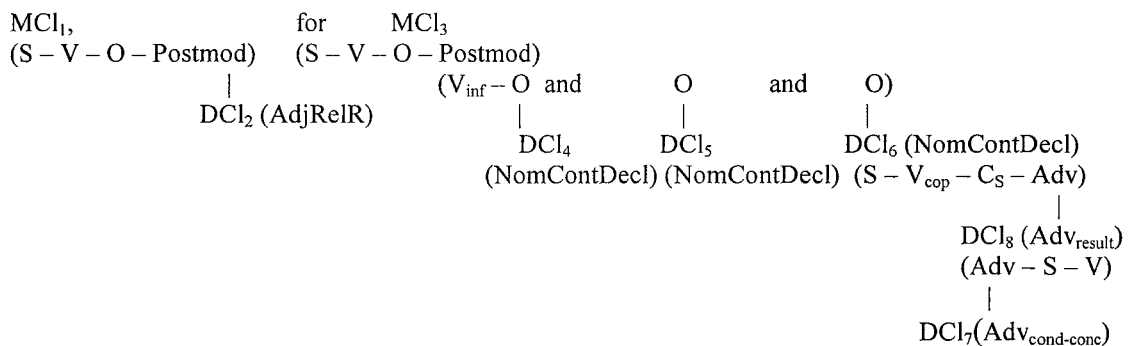
Ly33. Cannon then ¹ went on to cite experiments, such as those of Sherrington (1900) which ² claimed that when the experimenter ³ 'transected the spinal cord and the vagus nerves of dogs so as to destroy any connexion of the brain with the heart, the lungs, the stomach and the bowels, the spleen, the liver and other abdominal organs – indeed, to isolate all the structures in which formerly feelings ⁴ were supposed to reside', nevertheless 'these ⁵ extensively disturbing operations had little if any effect on the emotional responses of the animals' (Arnold, 1968, p. 45). (Lyons, 1980, p. 16)



Ly34. For only if one ¹ accepts a behaviourist position – and I ² shall argue in the next section that there ³ are good reasons why one ⁴ should not – ⁵ will behaviour alone be sufficient evidence for the presence of an emotion, and so sufficient evidence that Sherrington’s ⁶ dogs underwent emotions while not undergoing feelings. (Lyons, 1980, p. 16)



Ly35. Cannon, of course, ¹ did bring forward other evidence which ² does seriously cast doubt on the James-Lange theory, for Cannon ³ brought forward experimental evidence to suggest that ‘the same visceral changes ⁴ occur in very different emotional states and in non-emotional states’ (Arnold, 1968, p. 46) and so ⁵ are not a very good basis for distinguishing emotions, and that ‘visceral processes ⁶ are fortunately not a considerable source of sensation’ (p. 51) so that, even if distinctive changes ⁷ did occur, they ⁸ would probably not be mirrored in feelings. (Lyons, 1980, p. 16)



Ly36. Indeed, because, as we ¹ shall see, he ² found it difficult to establish anything very definite about emotions by his methods, he ³ was content to state that ‘hard and fast definitions ⁴ are not possible in the psychology of emotion, but formulations ⁵ are possible and sometimes ⁶ help us to group our facts’ (p. 195). (Lyons, 1980, p. 17)

MCl₃, but MCl₅ and MCl₆
 (Adv – [ComCl₁] – V – C_s – O)
 | |
 DCl₂ (Adv_{cause}) DC₄ (NomContDecl)

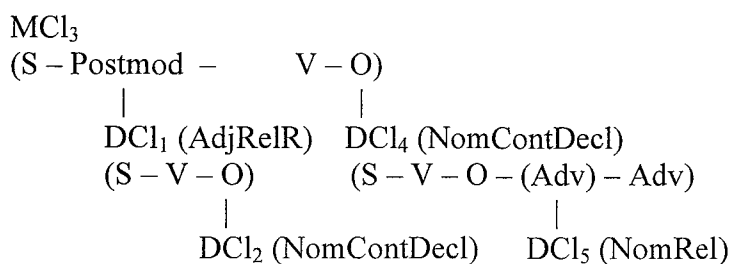
Ly37. Thus an emotion ¹differs from an instinctive reaction in that ‘when the adjustments called out by the stimulus ²are internal and confined to the subject’s body, we ³have emotion, for example, blushing; when the stimulus ⁴leads to adjustment of the organism as a whole to objects, we ⁵have instinct, for example, defence responses, grasping, etc.’ (Watson, 1919, p. 197). (Lyons, 1980, p. 18)

MCl₁
 (S – V – O_{prep} ; asynd O_{prep})
 | |
 DCl₃ (NomContDecl) DCl₅ (NomContDecl)
 (Adv – S – V – O) (Adv – S – V – O)
 | |
 DCl₂ (Adv_{cond}) DCl₄ (Adv_{cond})

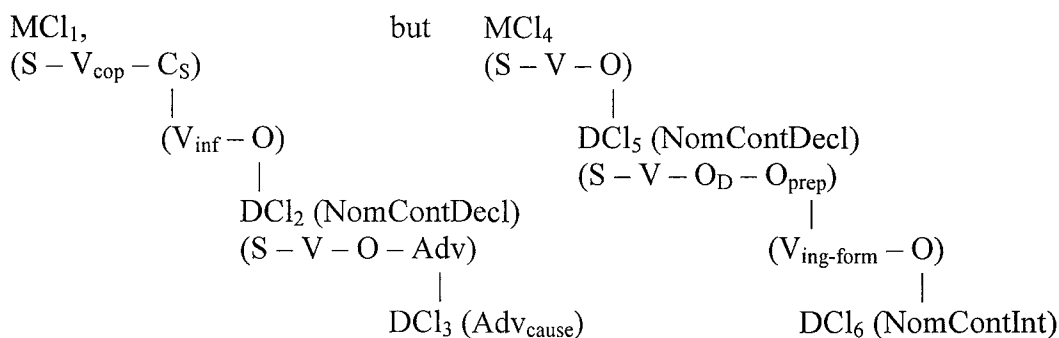
Ly38. As we ¹shall see in a later chapter, where I ²discuss in some detail the relation between physiological changes and the emotions, the claim that there ³are patterns of physiological changes peculiar to each emotion ⁴is at best supported by conflicting evidence and at worst ⁵should be considered falsified. (Lyons, 1980, p. 19)

[ComCl₁] – MCl₄ and MCl₅
 (S – V – O_{prep} – Postmod) (S – Postmod – V – By-agent)
 | |
 DCl₂ (AdjRelNR) DCl₃ (NomContDecl)

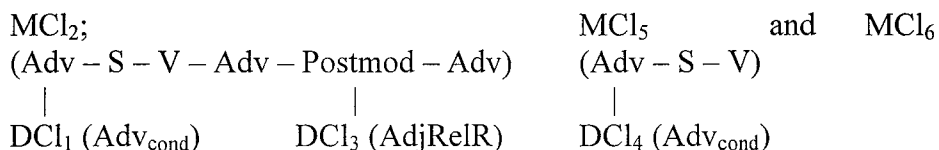
Ly39. Watson himself ¹realises that the evidence ²is wanting, and ³tries to explain this by suggesting that ‘if this formulation ⁴is to fit the facts, the general condition of the organism ⁵must be such that the stimulus ⁶can produce its effect’ (Watson, 1919, p. 195). (Lyons, 1980, p. 19)



Ly46. Indeed the tendency ¹is for behaviourists to say that the decerebrate and decorticate animals ²exhibit rage because it ³is like ‘normal rage’ or ‘rage in the normal cat’, but ⁴this presupposes that one ⁵has already an independent criterion for deciding what ⁶is normal rage or rage in a normal cat. (Lyons, 1980, p. 24)

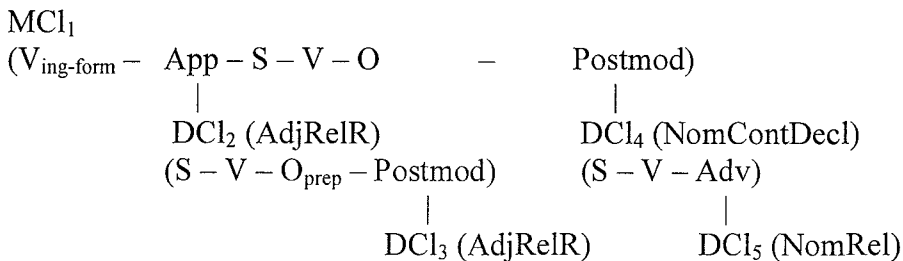


Ly47. Now if this independent criterion ¹is a behaviourist one, it ²runs into the immense difficulties I ³mentioned when discussing Watson’s and Skinner’s theoretical accounts; if it ⁴is not a behaviourist criterion, then behaviourism ⁵would turn out to be propped up by some non-behaviourist account and so ⁶would not be behaviourism at all. (Lyons, 1980, p. 24)

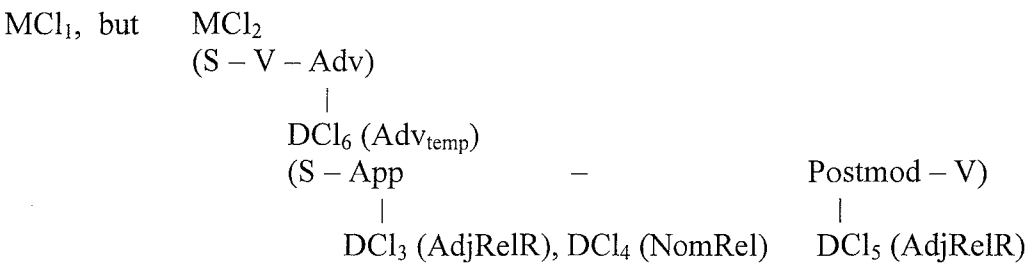


Ly48. Harlow and Stagner ¹pointed out that the behaviour said to be rage ²could as easily be ³interpreted as being fear (Harlow and Stagner, 1933) and Elizabeth Duffy ³pointed out that, even if it ⁴is considered to be ragelike behaviour, it ⁵differs significantly from normal animal rage in that it ⁶is undirected or else misdirected (Duffy, 1962, p. 12). (Lyons, 1980, p. 24)

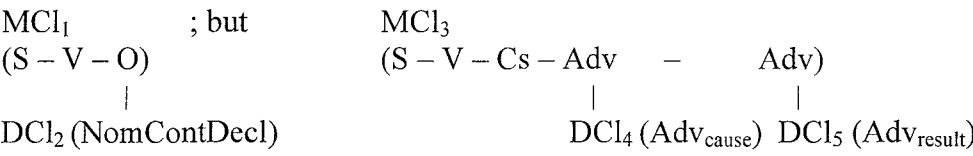
St3. Looking at the “terms of trade” – the prices which developed and less developed countries ² get for the products they ³ produce – after the last trade agreement in 1995 (the eighth), the *net* effect ¹ was to lower the prices some of the poorest countries in the world ⁴ received relative to what they ⁵ paid for their imports. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 7)



St4. Western banks ¹ benefited from the loosening of capital market controls in Latin America and Asia, but those regions ² suffered when inflows of speculative hot money (money that ³ comes into and out of a country, often overnight, often little more than betting on whether a currency ⁴ is going to appreciate or depreciate) that ⁵ had poured into countries suddenly ⁶ reversed. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 7)



St5. Advocates ¹ said this ² would provide them more incentive to innovate; but the increased profits from sales in the developing world ³ were small, since few ⁴ could afford the drugs, and hence the incentive effect, at best, ⁵ might be limited. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 8)



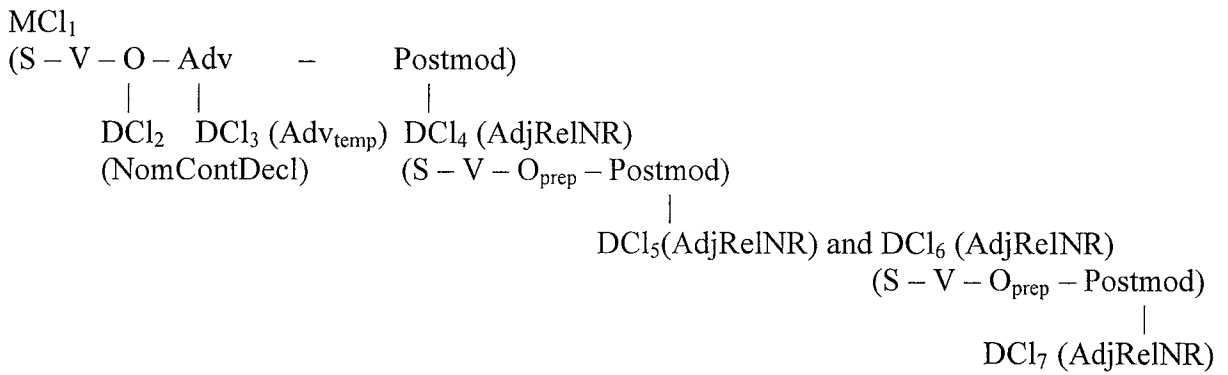
St6. If, in too many instances, the benefits of globalization ¹ have been less than its advocates ² claim, the price paid ³ has been greater, as the environment ⁴ has been destroyed, as political processes ⁵ have been corrupted, and as the rapid pace of change ⁶ has not allowed countries time for cultural adaptation. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 8)

MCl₃
 (Adv – S – V – O – Adv – Adv and Adv)
 | | | |
 DCI₁ (Adv_{cond}) DCI₄ (Adv_{cause}) DCI₅ (Adv_{cause}) DCI₆ (Adv_{cause})
 (S-V-Adv)
 |
 DCI₂ (Adv_{comp})

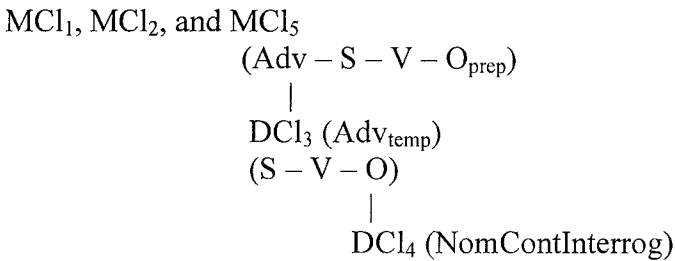
St7. It ¹ is the more narrowly defined *economic* aspects of globalization that ² have been the subject of controversy, and the international institutions that ³ have written the rules, which ⁴ mandate or push things like liberalization of capital markets (the elimination of the rules and regulations in many developing countries that ⁵ are designed to stabilize the flows of volatile money into and out of the country). (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 10)

MCl₁
 (S_{it-cleft} – V – Cs – DCI₂ (it-cleft), and Cs – DCI₃ (it-cleft) – Postmod – App)
 | |
 DCI₄ (AdjRelR) DCI₅ (AdjRelR)

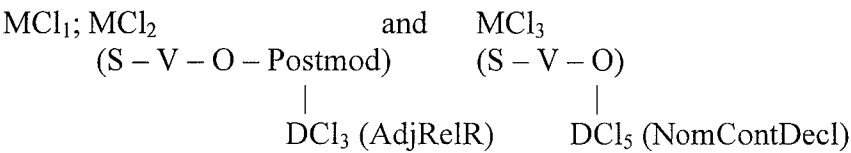
St8. The ILO, for example, ¹ worries that the IMF ² pays too little attention to workers’ rights, while the Asian Development Bank ³ argues for “competitive pluralism,” whereby developing countries ⁴ will be provided with alternative views of development strategies, including the “Asian model” – in which governments, while relying on markets, ⁵ have taken an active role in creating, shaping, and guiding markets, including promoting new technologies, and in which firms ⁶ take considerable responsibility for the social welfare of their employees – which the Asian Development Bank ⁷ sees as distinctly different from the American model pushed by the Washington-based institutions. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 10)



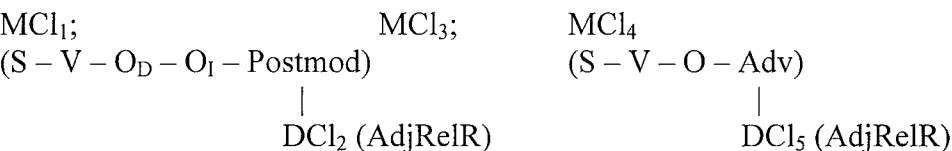
St9. The IMF ¹had the answers (basically, the same ones for every country), ²didn't see the need for all this discussion, and while the World Bank ³debated what ⁴should be done, ⁵saw itself as stepping into the vacuum to provide the answers. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 14)



St10. It ¹does not set rules itself; rather, it ²provides a forum in which trade negotiations ³go on and it ⁴ensures that its agreements ⁵are lived up to. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 16)



St11. Structural adjustment programs ¹did not bring sustained growth even to those, like Bolivia, that ²adhered to its strictures; in many countries, excessive austerity ³stifled growth; successful economic programs ⁴require extreme care in *sequencing* – the order in which reforms ⁵occur – and pacing. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 18)



St12. Free market reforms in Latin America ¹ have had one or two successes – Chile ² is repeatedly cited – but much of the rest of the continent ³ has still to make up for the lost decade of growth following the so-called successful IMF bailouts of the early 1980s, and many today ⁴ have persistently high rates of unemployment – in Argentina, for instance, at double-digit levels since 1995 – even as inflation ⁵ has been brought down. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 18)

MCl₁ – App – MCl₂, but MCl₃, and MCl₄
 (S – V – O – Adv)
 |
 DCI₅ (Adv_{conc})

St13. The fact that the trade barriers ¹ raise the prices consumers ² pay or that the subsidies ³ impose burdens on taxpayers ⁴ is of less concern than the profits of the producers – and environmental and labor issues ⁵ are of even less concern, other than as obstacles that ⁶ have to be overcome. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 19)

MCl₄ and MCl₅
 (S – Postmod or Postmod – V) (S – V – Adv)
 | | |
 DCI₁ (NomContDecl) DCI₃ (NomContDecl) DCI₆ (AdjRelR)
 (S – V – O – Postmod)
 |
 DCI₂ (AdjRelR)

St14. It ¹ has become increasingly clear not to just ordinary citizens but to policy makers as well, and not just those in the developing countries but those in the developed countries as well, that globalization as it ² has been practiced ³ has not lived up to what its advocates ⁴ promised ⁵ it would accomplish – or to what it ⁶ can and should do. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 20)

MCl₁
 (S – V – C_S – O₁ – O)
 |
 DCI₃ (NomContDecl)
 (S – Adv – V – O_{prep} or O_{prep})
 | | |
 DCI₂ (Adv_{manner}) DCI₄ (NomRel) DCI₆ (NomRel)
 (S – V – O)
 |
 DCI₅ (NomContDecl)

St15. Even if it ¹did not engage in the kinds of active redistribution policies, at least it ²had programs whose benefits ³were widely shared – not just those that ⁴extended education and ⁵improved agricultural productivity, but also land grants that ⁶provided a minimum opportunity for all Americans. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 21)

MCl₂

(Adv – S – V – O – Postmod – not just O – Postmod, but also O – Postmod)

| DCl₁(Adv_{cond-conc}) | DCl₃ (AdjRelR) | DCl₄ and DCl₅ (AdjRelR) | DCl₆ (AdjRelR)

St16. Globalization ¹can be reshaped, and when it ²is, when it ³is properly, fairly run, with all counties having a voice in policies affecting them, there ⁴is a possibility that it ⁵will help create a new global economy in which growth ⁶is not only more sustainable and less volatile but the fruits of this growth ⁷are more equitably shared. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 22)

MCl₁, and MCl₄

(Adv – S_{there} – V – S_{notional} – Postmod)

| DCl₂, App DCl₃ (Adv_{temp})

| DCl₅ (NomContDecl)
(S – V – O – Postmod)

| DCl₆ (AdjRelNR), but DCl₇ (AdjRelNR)

St17. While both ¹have teams of economists flying into developing countries for three-week missions, the World Bank ²has worked hard to make sure that a substantial fraction of its staff ³live permanently in the country they ⁴are trying to assist; the IMF generally ⁵has only a single “resident representative,” whose powers ⁶are limited. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 23)

MCl₂;

(Adv – S – V – Adv_{fin})

| DCl₁ (Adv_{conc}) (V_{inf} – O)

MCl₅

(S – V – O – Postmod)

| DCl₆ (AdjRelNR)

| DCl₃ (NomContDecl)

(S – V – Adv – Postmod)

| DCl₄ (AdjRelR)

St18. Modern economic management ¹is similar: from one's luxury hotel, one ²can callously impose policies about which one ³would think twice if one ⁴knew the people whose lives one ⁵was destroying. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 24)

MCl₁: MCl₂
 (Adv – S – V – O – Postmod – Adv)
 | |
 DCI₃ (AdjRelR) DCI₄ (Adv_{cond})
 (S – V – O – Postmod)
 |
 DCI₅ (AdjRelR)

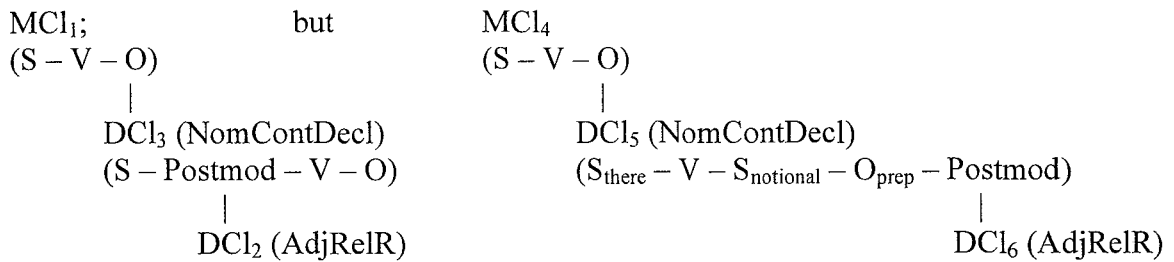
St19. Statistics ¹bear out what those who ²travel outside the capital ³see in the villages of Africa, Nepal, Mindanao, or Ethiopia; the gap between the poor and the rich ⁴has been growing, and even the number in absolutely poverty – living on less than a dollar a day – ⁵has increased. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 24)

MCl₁; MCl₄, and MCl₅
 (S – V – O)
 |
 DCI₃ (NomContInterrog)
 (S – Postmod – V – Adv)
 |
 DCI₂ (AdjRelR)

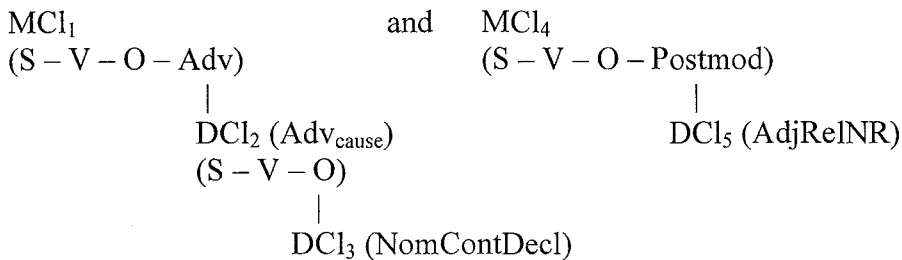
St20. I ¹knew the tasks ²were difficult, but I never ³dreamed that one of the major obstacles the developing countries ⁴faced ⁵was man-made, totally unnecessary, and ⁶lay right across the street – at my “sister” institution, the IMF. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 25)

MCl₁ , but MCl₃
 (S – V – O) (S – V – O)
 | |
 DCI₂ (NomContDecl) DCI₅ (NomContDecl) and DCI₆ (NomContDecl)
 (S – Postmod – V – Cs)
 |
 DCI₄ (AdjRelR)

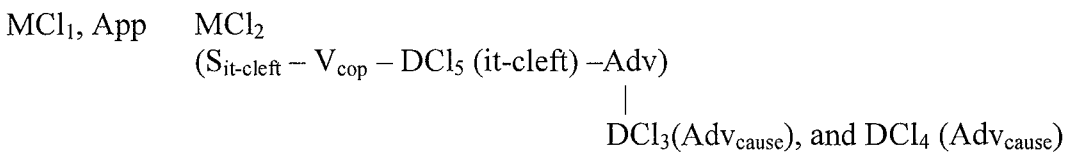
St21. I ¹had expected that not everyone in the international financial institutions or in the governments that ²supported them ³was committed to the goal of eliminating poverty; but I ⁴thought there ⁵would be an open debate about strategies – strategies which in so many areas ⁶seem to be failing, and especially failing the poor. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 25)



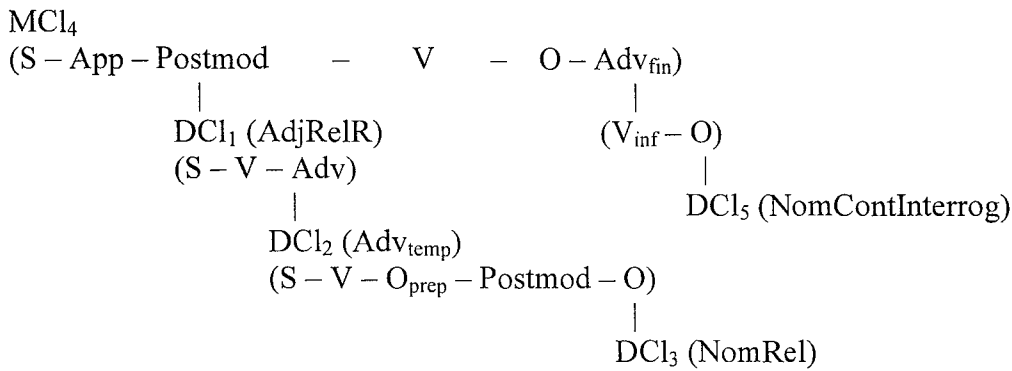
St22. A doctor by training, Meles ¹had formally studied economics because he ²knew that to bring his country out of centuries of poverty ³would require nothing less than economic transformation, and he ⁴demonstrated a knowledge of economics – and indeed a creativity – that ⁵would have put him at the head of any of my university classes. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 26)



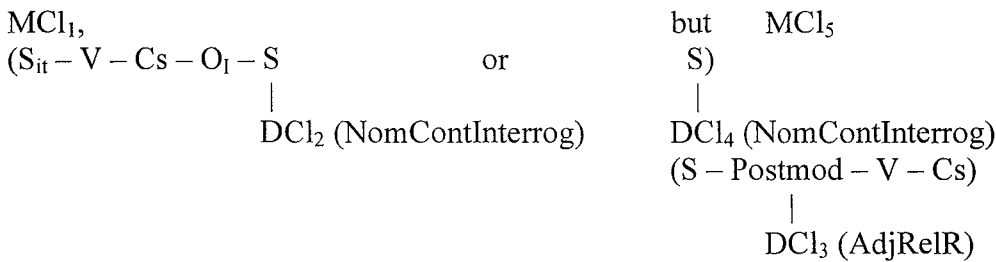
St23. To most economists, inflation is ¹not so much an end in itself, but a means to an end: it ²is because *excessively* high inflation often ³leads to low growth, and low growth ⁴leads to high unemployment, that inflation ⁵is so frowned upon. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 27)



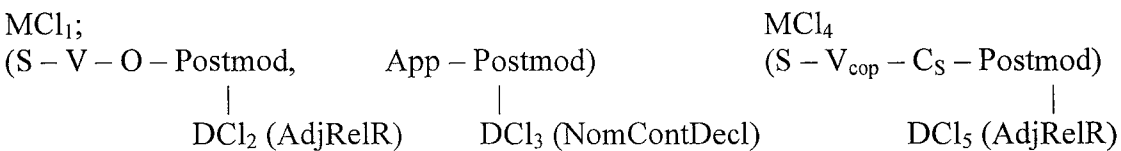
St24. It ¹had dramatically cut back on military expenditures – remarkable for a government which ²had come to power through military means – because it ³knew that funds spent on weapons ⁴were funds that ⁵could not be spent on fighting poverty. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 28)



St31. It ¹might be of some interest to psychologists why there ²was this sudden change in the desire for leisure, or why those who ³were supposed to be enjoying this leisure ⁴seemed so unhappy, but according to the standard model these questions ⁵go beyond the scope of economics. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 35)



St32. IMF economists ¹could ignore the short-term effects their policies ²might have on the country, content in the belief that *in the long run* the country ³would be better off; any adverse short-run impacts ⁴would be merely pain that ⁵was necessary as part of the process. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 36)



St33. While the IMF ¹is vilified almost everywhere in the developing world, the warm relationship that ²was created between Botswana and its advisers ³was symbolized by the awarding of that country's highest medal to Steve Lewis, who at the time he ⁴advised Botswana ⁵was a professor of development economics at Williams. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 37)

MCL₃
 (Adv – S – Postmod – V – O₁ – Postmod)
 | | |
 DCI₁ (Adv_{temp}) DCI₂ (AdjRelR) DCI₅ (AdjRelNR)
 (Adv – Postmod – V_{cop} – C_S)
 |
 DCI₄ (AdjRelR)

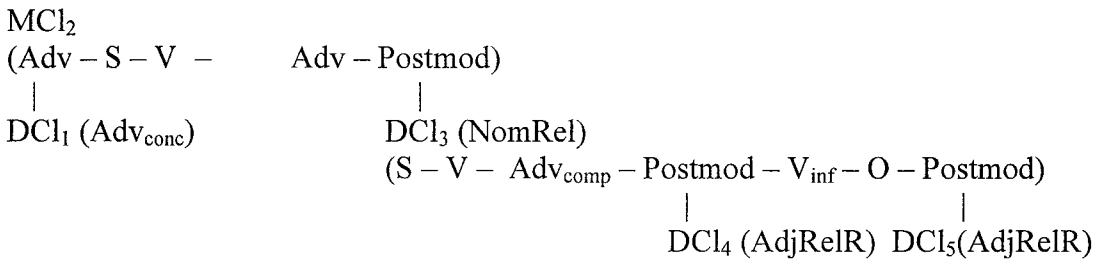
St34. Even implied criticism by Korea of the IMF program could have¹ a disastrous effect: to the IMF, it would suggest² that the government didn't³ fully understand “IMF economics,” that it had⁴ reservations, making it less likely that it would⁵ actually carry out the program. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 42)

MCL₁: MCL₂
 (S – V – O)
 |
 DCI₃ (NomContDecl), DCI₄ (NomContDecl), DCI₅ (NomContDecl)

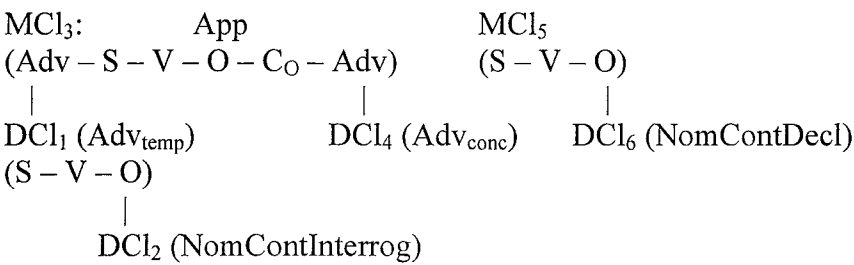
St35. I personally believe¹ that conditionality, at least in the manner and extent to which it has² been used by the IMF, is³ a bad idea; there is⁴ little evidence that it leads⁵ to improved economic policy, but it does have⁶ adverse political effects because countries resent⁷ having conditions imposed on them. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 44)

MCL₁; MCL₄, but MCL₆
 (S – V – O) (S_{there} – V – S_{notional} – Postmod) (S – V – O – Adv)
 | | |
 DCI₃ (NomContDecl) DCI₅ (NomContDecl) DCI₇ (Adv_{cause})
 (S – Adv – Postmod – V_{cop} – C_S)
 |
 DCI₂ (AdjRelR)

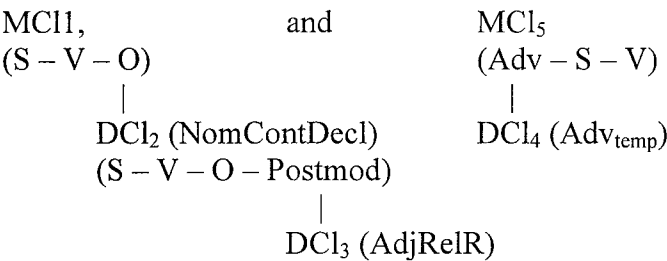
St36. While the conditionalities could not be justified¹ in terms of the Fund's fiduciary responsibility, they might be justified² in terms of what it might have perceived³ as its moral responsibility, its obligation to do everything it could⁴ to strengthen the economy of the countries that had turned⁵ to it for help. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 44)



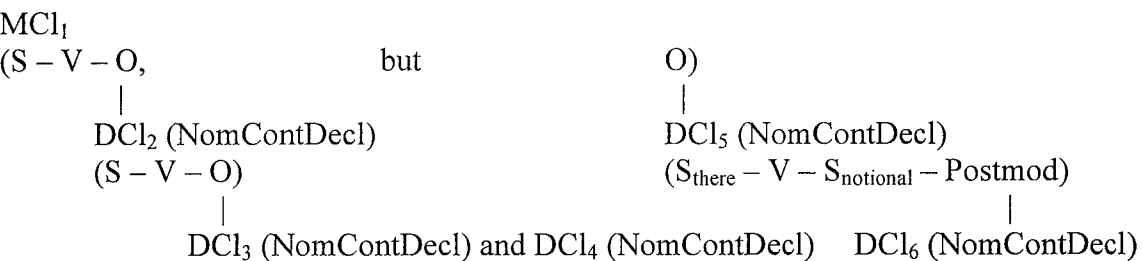
St37. When, in Seoul, I ¹asked the IMF team why they ²were doing this, I ³found the answer shocking (though by then it ⁴should not have come as a surprise): We always ⁵insist that countries ⁶have an independent central bank focusing on inflation. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 45)



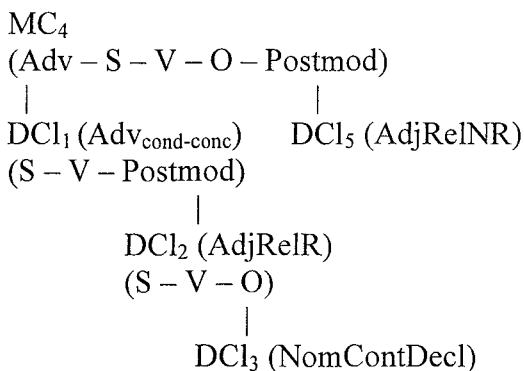
St38. The president ¹made it clear that this ²was an issue he ³would fight, and as soon as this ⁴was ⁵made clear, the proponents backed off. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 45)



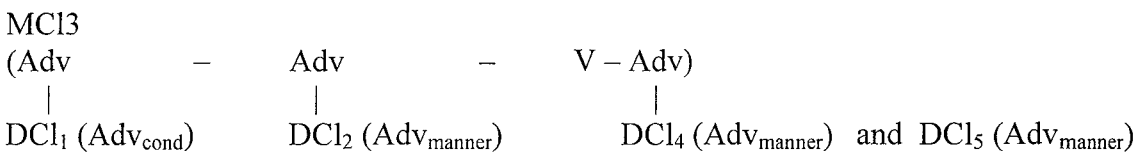
St39. Studies at the World Bank and elsewhere ¹showed not just that conditionality ²did not ³ensure that money ⁴was well spent and that countries ⁵would grow faster but that there ⁶was little evidence it worked at all. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 46)



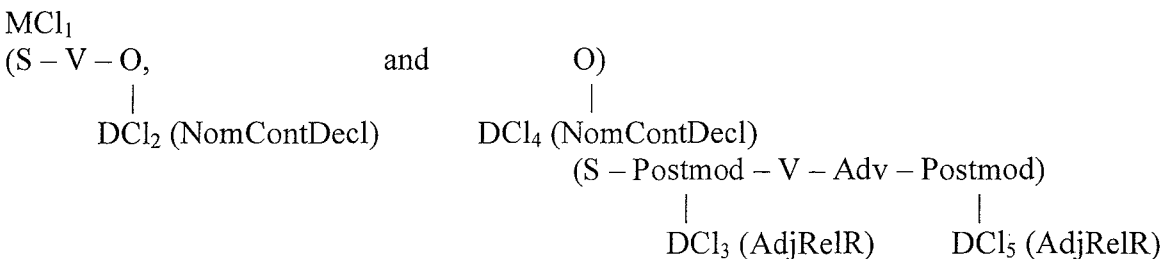
St40. Even if conditions ¹are imposed which ²ensure that this particular loan ³is used well, the loan ⁴fre⁴es up resources elsewhere, which ⁵may or may not be used well. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 46)



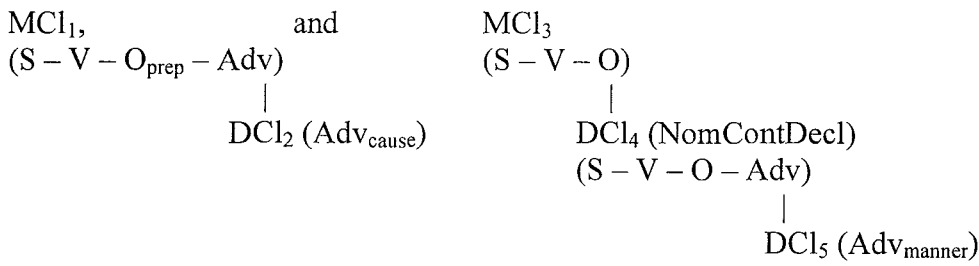
St41. If policies imposed by lenders ¹induce riots, as ²has happened in country after country, then economic conditions ³worsen, as capital ⁴flee⁴s and businesses ⁵worry about investing more of their money. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 47)



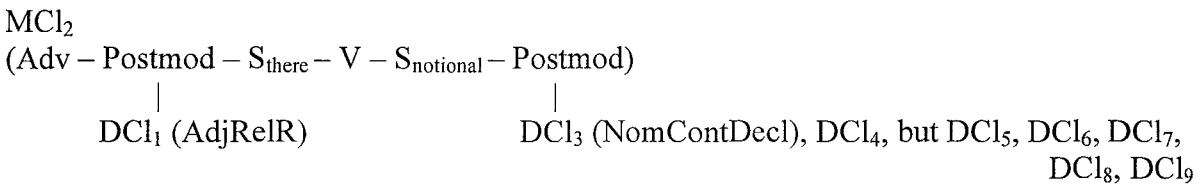
St42. A perhaps apocryphal story ¹has it that on one occasion a word processor ²failed to do a “search and replace,” and the name of the country from which a report ³had been borrowed almost in its entirety ⁴was left in a document that ⁵was circulated. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 47)



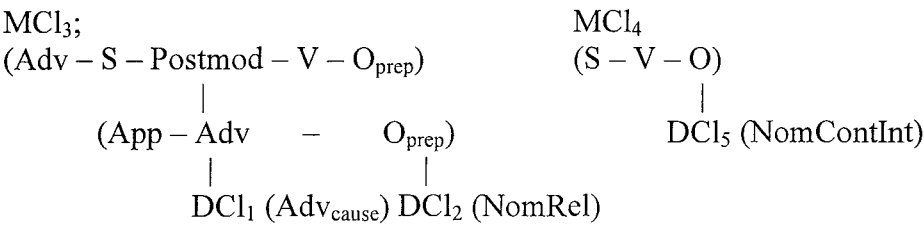
St43. The United States ¹could do so with impunity because it ²was not dependent on the IMF or other donors for assistance, and we ³knew that the market ⁴would pay almost as little attention to it as we ⁵did. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 49)



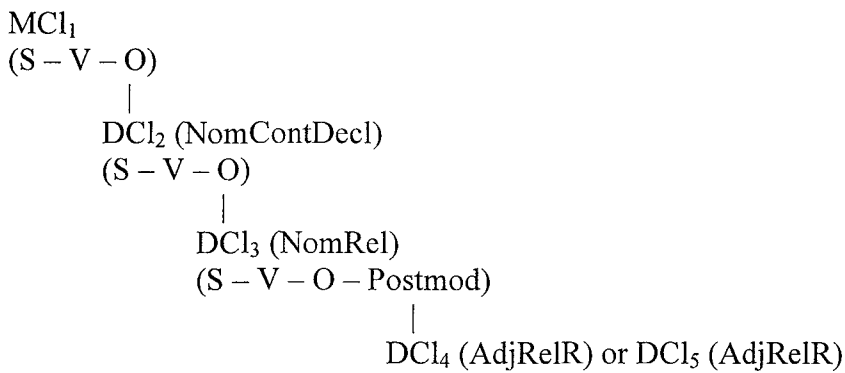
St44. At the World Bank, during the time I ¹ was there, there ² was an increasing conviction that participation ³ mattered, that policies and programs ⁴ could not be imposed on countries but to be successful ⁵ had to be “owned” by them, that consensus building ⁶ was essential, that policies and development strategies ⁷ had to be adapted to the situation in the country, that there ⁸ should be a ⁹ shift from “conditionality” to “selectivity,” rewarding countries that had proven track records for using funds well with more funds, trusting them to continue to make good use of their funds, and providing them with strong incentives. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 49)



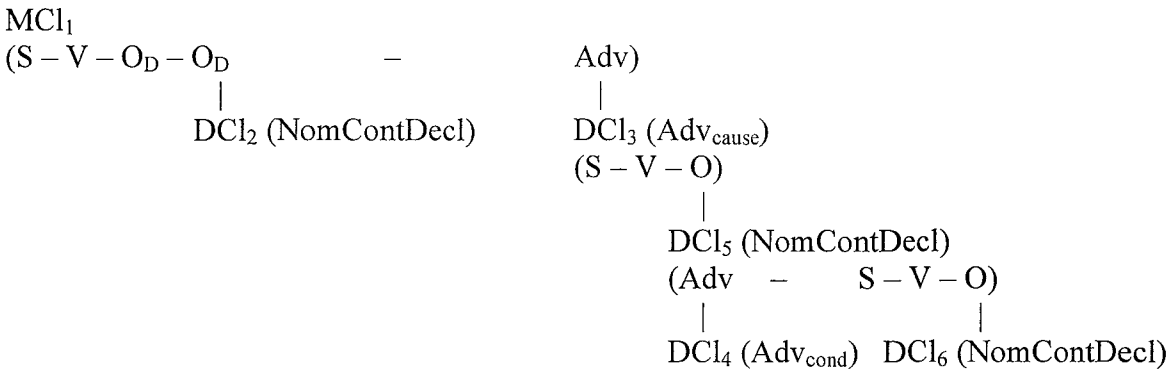
St45. By contrast, in the IMF style of operation, citizens (an annoyance because they all too often ¹ might be reluctant to go along with the agreements, let alone share in the perceptions of what ² is good economic policy) ³ were not only barred from discussions of agreement; they ⁴ were not even told what the agreements ⁵ were. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 51)



St46. The rigid timetables that the IMF ¹ imposed ² grew partly from a multitude of experiences in which governments ³ promised to make certain reforms, but once they ⁴ had the money, the reforms ⁵ were not forthcoming; sometimes, the rigid timetables ⁶ helped force the pace of change. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 52)



St50. Privatization advocates naively ¹ persuaded themselves these costs ² could be overlooked because the textbooks ³ seemed to say that once private property rights ⁴ were clearly defined, the new owners ⁵ would ensure that the assets ⁶ would be efficiently managed. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 58)



Excerpts from Crystal, D. and Davy, D. 1973. *Investigating English Style*. Longman. London.

CD1. When we ¹talk about a ‘language’ – in our case, ‘the English language’ – we ²must not be misled into thinking that the label ³should in some way refer to a readily identifiable object in reality, which we ⁴can isolate and examine in a classroom as we ⁵might a test-tube mixture, a piece of rock, or a poem. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 3)

MC1₂

(Adv – S – V – Adv – Postmod)

DC1 ₁ (Adv _{temp})	DC1 ₃ (NomContDecl)	–	Adv
	(S – V – O _{prep} – Postmod)		DC1 ₅ (Adv _{manner})
	DC1 ₄ (AdjRelR)		

CD2. We ¹may not be able to say precisely what a variety ²is, what ³differentiates it from another, what types ⁴exist, how many there ⁵are or whether they ⁶are all as clearly distinguishable as the examples given above; these ⁷are things a stylistic theory ⁸should tell us. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 4)

MC1₁;

(S – V – O)

MC1₇

(S – V_{cop} – C_S – Postmod)

DC1 ₂ (NomContInterrog), DC1 ₃ (NomContInterrog), DC1 ₄ (NomContInterrog), DC1 ₅ (NomContInterrog) or DC1 ₆ (NomContInterrog)	DC1 ₈ (AdjRelR)

CD3. This ¹is where the danger ²lies: it ³is necessary to replace, by a more controlled, sensitive, and responsible reaction, our hazy awareness of how language ⁴should be used in the less familiar situations in which we ⁵find ourselves. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 4)

MC1₁;

(S – V_{cop} – C_S)

MC1₃

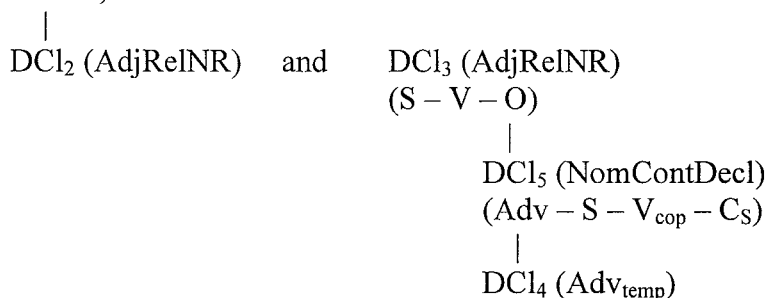
(S_{it} – V – S)

DC1 ₂ (NomRel)	(V _{inf} – O – Postmod)
	DC1 ₄ (NomRel)
	(S – V – Adv – Postmod)
	DC1 ₅ (AdjRelR)

CD4. One such range ¹ has been approached in a very interesting way by Lewis, Horabin, and Gane, who ² examine the increasing complexity and unintelligibility of rules and regulations in society, and who ³ point out that when people ⁴ come up against such language, in many cases the reaction ⁵ is one of despair. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 6)

MCl₁

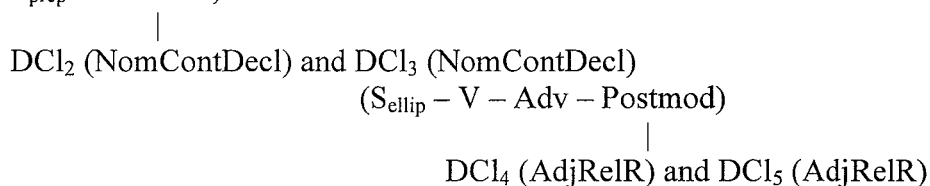
(S – V – by-agent – Postmod)



CD5. There ¹ is thus a strong case for saying that this lack of (primarily linguistic) understanding ² is an important gap in a general education, and ³ should be remedied, particularly in those cases where the gap ⁴ is at all wide, and where a person ⁵ has a minimal amount of linguistic adaptability. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 6)

MCl₁

(S_{there} – V – S_{notional} – O_{prep} – Postmod)



CD6. He too ¹ needs to be made aware of the difference between common and rare types of language behavior, and of the alternatives available in particular situations; he too ² needs to react appropriately to language, if he ³ wants to be accepted – and the same ⁴ applies to the native speaker of English when he ⁵ learns another language. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 6)

MCl₁; MCl₂

(S – V – O_{prep} – Adv)

and

MCl₄

(S – V – O_{prep} – Adv)

|
DCI₃ (Adv_{cond})

|
DCI₅ (Adv_{temp})

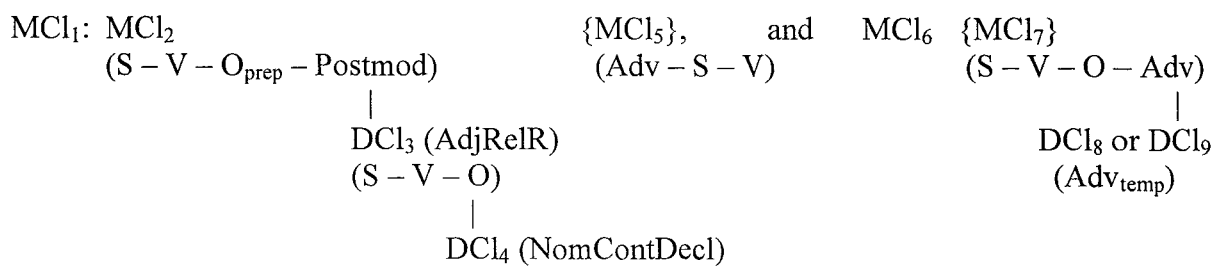
CD7. It ¹may seem to be stating the obvious to say that the source of linguistic effect ²lies in language usage; but very often the problem ³is not phrased in such clear terms, the obvious ⁴is missed, and irrelevant reasons ⁵are brought to bear on what ⁶is, at bottom, a matter of language. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 8)

MCl₁; but MCl₃, MCl₄ and MCl₅
 (S_{it} - V_{cop} - C_S - S) (S - V - O_{prep})
 | |
 (V_{inf} - O) DCI₆ (NomRel)
 |
 DCI₂ (NomContDecl)

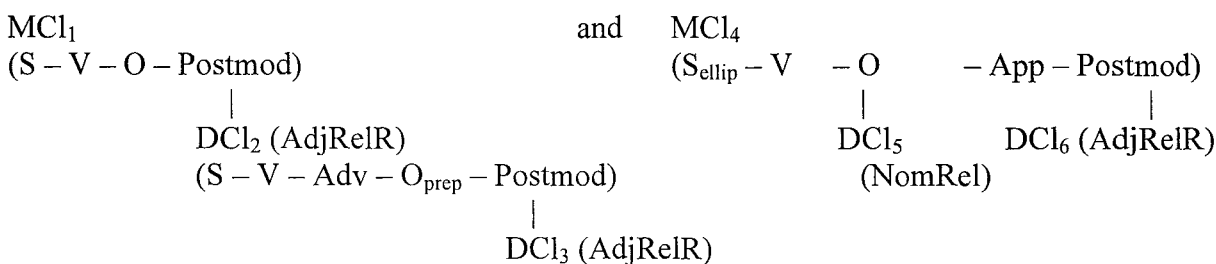
CD8. People ¹may not express their sense of identification very clearly, of course – for example, they ²may talk vaguely about ‘thou’ having religious ‘associations’ – but we ³have never ⁴come across anyone who could not consistently identify features to some degree, and accordingly we ⁵do not feel it necessary to accumulate experimental evidence to justify the assumption. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 11)

MCl₁, App MCl₂, but MCl₃, and MCl₅
 (S - V - O_{prep} - Postmod)
 |
 DCI₄ (AdjRelR)

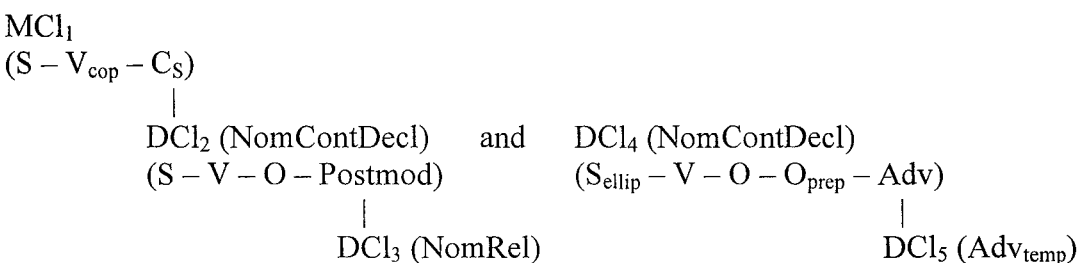
CD9. Most people ¹are consciously aware of only some of the correlations between language and extra-linguistic context: they ²vary in the degree of confidence with which they ³posit that a linguistic feature ⁴is stylistically significant (if asked to comment on a piece of language, someone ⁵may be more sure of feature X having a certain range of extra-linguistic associations than feature Y), and people ⁶differ in their assessment of the obviousness of a correlation between language and extra-linguistic context (person A ⁷may note feature X as being associated with context P, whereas person B ⁸may not, or ⁹may associate it with context Q, or with no context at all, and so on). (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 11)



CD10. In Chapter 3 we ¹shall discuss the various categories which any adequate stylistic theory ²would have to specify in order to account for all the features we ³have observed, and ⁴define more precisely what we ⁵mean by a ‘variety’ of language – a term which we ⁶are using rather loosely at the moment. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 12)



CD11. The difference between his approach and that of the untrained observer ¹is that he ²will ³have a clearer idea of what ⁴is likely to be significant, and ⁵will know what to do with his observations once they ⁵are made. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 12)



CD12. The stylistician, ideally, ¹knows three things which linguistically untrained people ²do ³not: he ⁴is aware of the kind of structure language ⁴has, and thus the kind of feature which ⁵might be expected to be of stylistic significance; he ⁶is aware of the kind of social variation ⁷which linguistic features ⁸tend to be identified with; and he ⁸has a technique of putting these features down on paper in a systematic way in order to display their internal patterning to maximal effect. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 12)

CD15. At each level, we ¹are studying one aspect of the way in which language ²is organized: we ³shall be distinguishing phonetic/graphitic, phonological/graphological, grammatical, lexical, and semantic levels, and we ⁴shall explain what we ⁵mean by these terms below. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 15)

MCl₁: (S - V - O - Postmod)
 |
 DCl₂ (AdjRelR)

MCl₃, and MCl₄ (S - V - O)
 |
 DCl₅ (NomContInterrog)

CD16. The levels ¹are studied as independently as possible to begin with, using whatever techniques ²have been developed in linguistics elsewhere; whatever cross-reference between levels ³is essential, we ⁴make; and we ⁵conclude by attempting a synthesis of the information made available, in terms of a set of quantitatively based descriptive statements. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 15)

MCl₁; (S - V - Adv - Adv)
 |
 (V_{ing-form} - O)

MCl₄; (O_{preposed} - S - V)
 |
 DCl₃ (NomRel)
 |
 DCl₂ (NomRel)

and MCl₅

CD17. In this book, we ¹shall in fact be following an order which ²moves from sounds, through grammar and vocabulary to semantics, but only for procedural and pedagogical reasons: it ³seems easier to introduce students to practical stylistic analysis if they ⁴begin with the comparatively simple matters of phonetics and phonology, which ⁵involve a relatively finite and stable set of contrasts, rather than with the theoretical complexities of grammar, vocabulary or semantics. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 15)

MCl₁: (S - V - O - Postmod)
 |
 DCl₂ (AdjRelR)

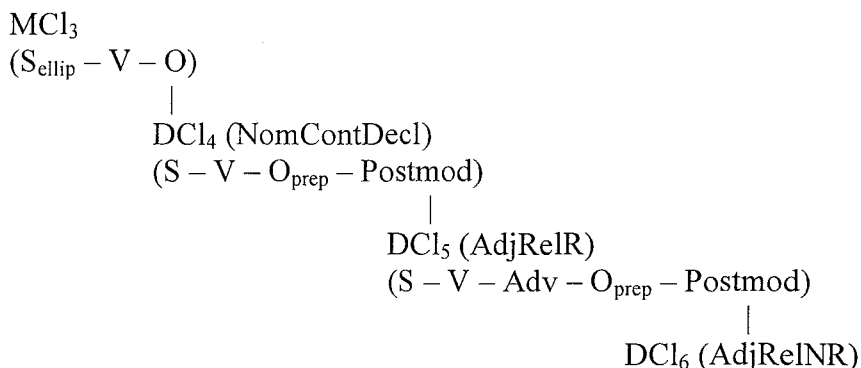
MCl₃ (S - V - O - Adv)
 |
 DCl₄ (Adv_{cond})
 (S - V - O_{prep} - Postmod)
 |
 DCl₅ (AdjRelNR)

CD18. The type of contrast involved at this level ¹ is very different from that found at the phonological/graphological level discussed below, however: contrasts at the former level ² are not so discrete, identifiable or systematic; they ³ have more of a direct, naturalistic link with non-linguistic features, and ⁴ do not display the arbitrariness of other aspects of language organization; moreover they frequently ⁵ transcend language boundaries – type-size, like shouting, has a fairly universal range of function. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 17)

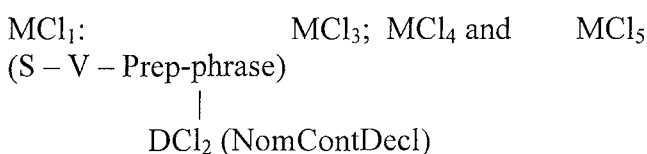
MCl₁; MCl₂; MCl₃ and MCl₄; MCl₅

CD19. These features ¹ are well illustrated in Chapters 4 to 9, so we ² shall not discuss them rather here, but simply ³ say that at this level, we ⁴ are laying stress on the contrasts that ⁵ can be made within the linguistic system, rather than on the physical characteristics of the system itself, which ⁶ was studied at the first level of analysis. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 18)

MCl₁, MCl₂, but



CD20. It ¹ seems useful to distinguish such issues from those covered by vocabulary, in that the nature of the ‘meaning’ being expressed at the semantic level ² is very different: vocabulary contrasts ³ are relatively discrete, finite, and localized; semantic contrasts ⁴ tend to be less systematic and definable, and ⁵ are all-inclusive. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 19)



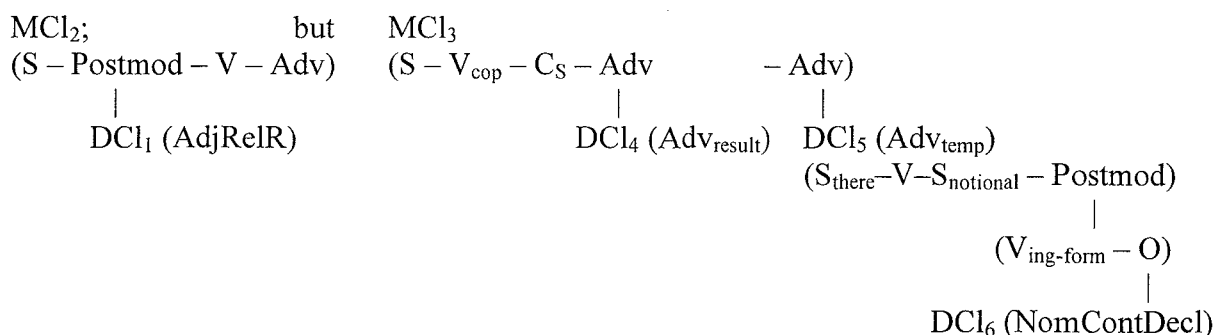
CD21. But while it ¹is the case that we ²are approaching the study of the language of a text using a model wherein the levels ³are kept apart, it ⁴must not be thought that this ⁵precludes cross-referencing between the levels, or ⁶forces us to ignore significant inter-level linguistic relationships. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 20)

But MCl₄
 (Adv – S_{it} – V – O)
 | |
 DCl₁ (Adv_{conc}) DCl₅ (NomContDecl) or DCl₆ (NomContDecl)
 (S_{it} – V_{cop} – C_S – Postmod)
 |
 DCl₂ (NomContDecl)
 (S – V – O – Adv – Postmod)
 |
 DCl₃ (AdjRelNR)

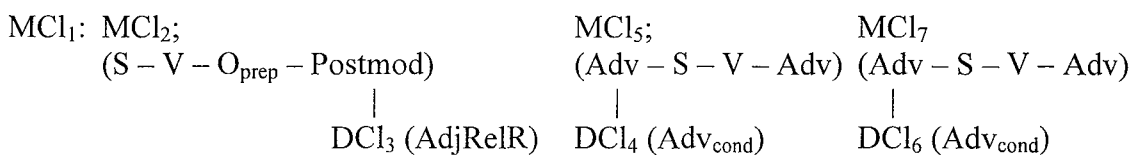
CD22. A feature which ¹demands reference to a number of levels simultaneously ²must either be described at each of the levels involved (which ³is uneconomic), or treated at one of the levels only, with a reference under the others (which ⁴gives undue prominence to the level chosen), or treated as a ‘bundle’ feature, described separately at the end of an analysis, after the levels ⁵have been gone through independently of one another (which ⁶is rather cumbersome). (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 20)

MCl₂,
 (S – Postmod – V – Adv (DCl₃ (AdjRelNR)) – Adv – (DCl₄ (AdjRelNR) – Adv – (DCl₆ (AdjRelNR)))
 | |
 DCl₁ (AdjRelR) DCl₅ (Adv_{temp})

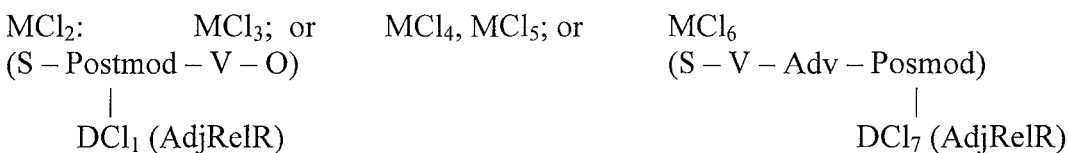
CD23. For example, a text which ¹uses large numbers of foreign words, printing all these in italics, ²is distinctive at both graphological and lexical levels; but clearly the latter ³is more important, so that any discussion of this point ⁴could be carried on under the heading of vocabulary without any misrepresentation of the text, as long as there ⁵was a note under graphology saying that the significance of the italics ⁶would be dealt with later. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 20)



CD24. In this book, bundle features ¹are described as follows: graphetic, graphological, phonetic, and phonological features ²are described at any of the other levels which ³are relevant; if grammatical and lexical features ⁴co-occur with semantic features, they ⁵are described at the semantic level; if grammatical and lexical features ⁶co-occur, the description ⁷is made at the grammatical level. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 21)



CD25. Features which ¹are stylistically significant ²display different kinds and degrees of distinctiveness in a text: of two features, one ³may occur only twice in a text: of two features, one ⁴may occur only twice in a text, the other ⁵may occur thirty times; or a feature ⁶might be uniquely identifying in the language, only ever occurring in one variety, as opposed to a ⁷feature which is distributed throughout many of all varieties in different frequencies. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 21)



CD26. We ¹have yet to establish the details of any such process of scaling the importance of stylistic features, but two basic principles ²are already clear: the more important stylistic feature in a text ³will be *a*) that which ⁴occurs more frequently within the variety in question, and *b*) that which ⁵is shared less by other varieties. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 21)

MCl₁, but MCl₂: MCl₃
 (Adv – S – V – C_S – Postmod)
 |
 DCI₄ (AdjRelR) and DCI₅ (AdjRelR)

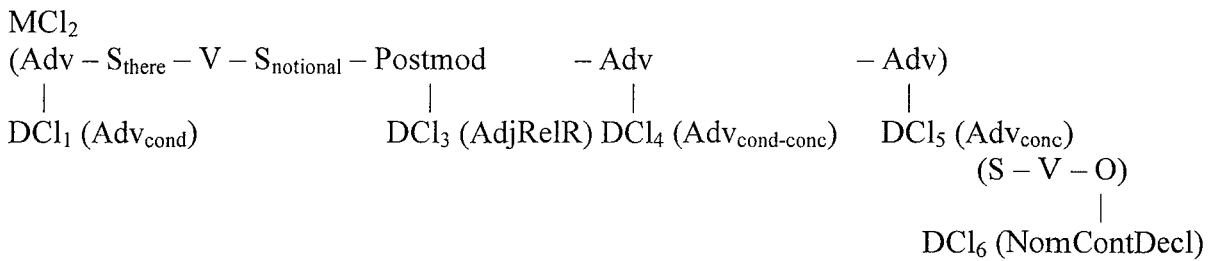
CD27. There ¹are established techniques for discussing certain contrasts at the phonological and grammatical levels, and for talking about phonetic features; but there ²is no agreed terminology for the discussion of graphetic and graphological contrasts; the theory of non-segmental phonological contrasts used here ³is of recent devising; many parts of the grammar of English ⁴have not been studied in depth and there ⁵are many incompatible theories from which a choice ⁶has to be made; the linguistic study of vocabulary ⁷has not progressed very far; and semantics in our sense ⁸is still only studied as part of traditional literary criticism. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 23)

MCl₁; but MCl₂; MCl₃; MCl₄ and MCl₅; MCl₇, and MCl₈
 (S_{there} – V – S_{notional} – Postmod)
 |
 DCI₆ (AdjRelR)

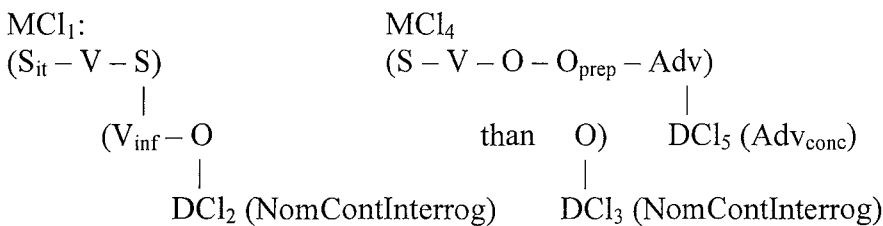
CD28. The model ¹can and should be criticised in its own terms, for what it ²is, a theory which ³will account for certain linguistic contrasts in the language: the way in which this model ⁴is applied to show stylistic effects ⁵involves a quite different set of criteria, which also ⁶can and should be criticised in their own terms. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 23)

MCl₁: MCl₅
 (S – V – Adv – O_{prep}, App – Postmod) (S – Potmod – V – O – Postmod)
 | | | |
 DCI₂ (NomRel) DCI₃ (AdjRelR) DCI₄ (AdjRelR) DCI₆ (AdjRelR)

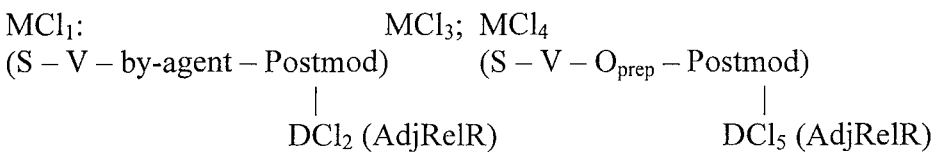
CD29. If one feature ¹were to be substituted for any other, there ²would be a change in the meaning of the utterance which any native speaker of the language ³would be able to perceive, whether ⁴he had been trained in linguistics or not – though this ⁵does not mean he ⁶would be able to explain the basis of his perception. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 24)



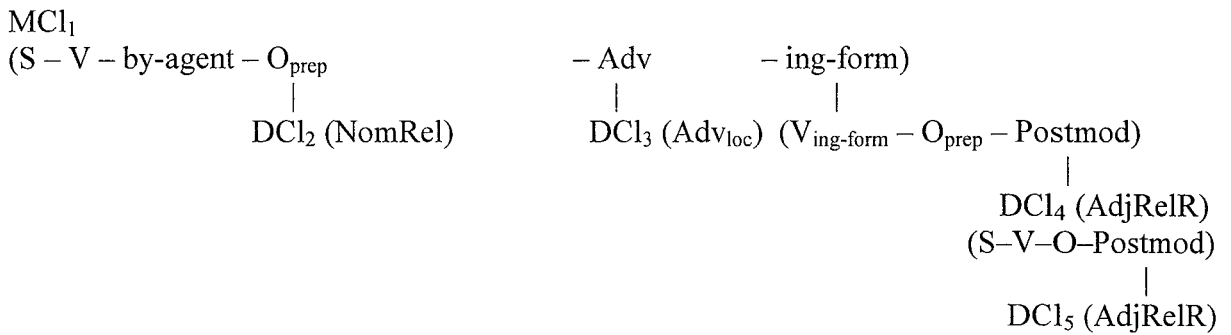
CD30. For example, it ¹is more important to know whether an utterance ²ends in a falling or a rising tone than whether the beginning point of the fall ³is high or low: the first contrast ⁴might carry a critical distinction between a statement or a question, whereas the second simply ⁵distinguishes between, say, two kinds of statement. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 25)



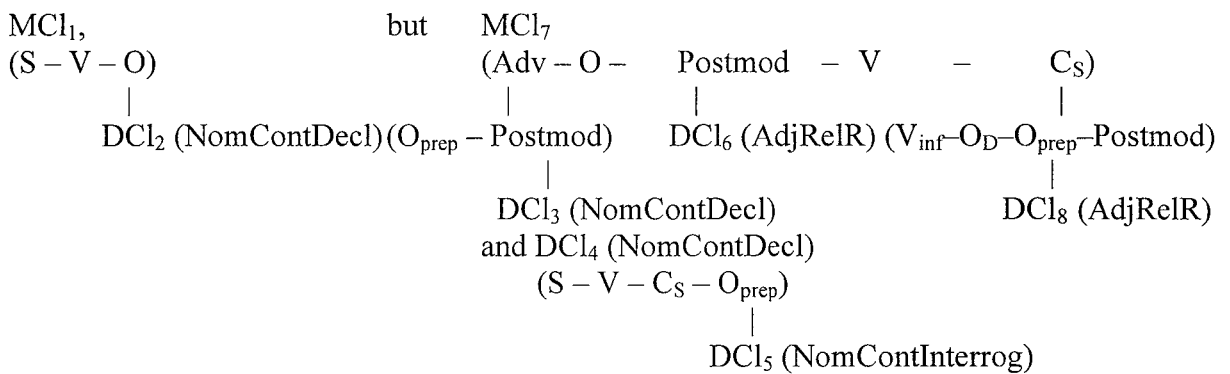
CD31. The tone-unit ¹may be recognized by a combination of features which ²occur at its boundary, and by its characteristic internal structure: boundary features ³may comprise a marked shift in pitch, various types of pause, and modifications to the final phonetic segments in the unit; the internal structure ⁴must be one of a finite range of types, which ⁵are given below. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 25)



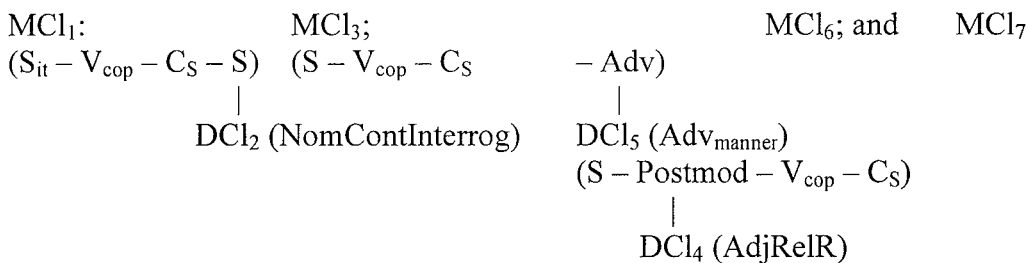
CD32. Following phonetic criteria in this instance ¹would compel us to transcribe the word as Tendency, and this, it ²seems to us, ³is undesirable in that it ⁴suggests to the reader another lexical item – *ten* – and ⁵distracts attention from the word he ⁶should be seeing. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 26)



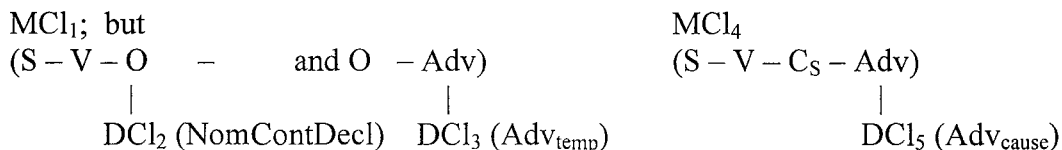
CD36. For example, we ¹feel sure that there ²is much to be said about the way different varieties make use of types of inter-sentence linkage, or adjective order, or predeterminer contrasts (see below), but in view of the fact that hardly any work ³has been done on such matters, and that we ⁴are not clear as to what the general state of affairs ⁵is in English, all we ⁶can do ⁷is make tentative observations about some of the patterns which ⁸strike us as obvious. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 41)



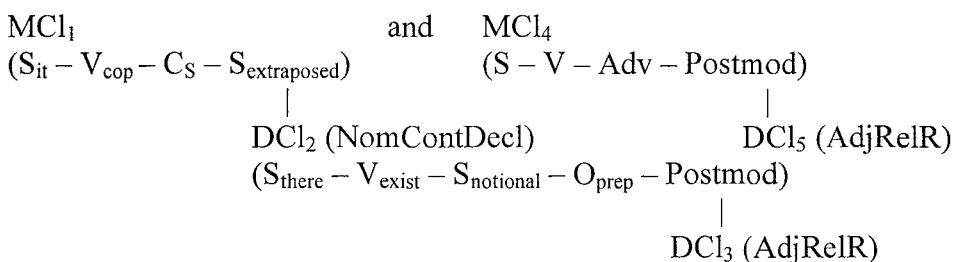
CD37. It ¹is doubtful, however, whether this approach ²is useful: it ³is highly uneconomical, in that much of the information which ⁴has to be generated separately for each variety ⁵is the same (common-core); it ⁶makes comparative study difficult; and it ⁷poses great theoretical problems, such as how to deal with differences in the ordering of rules between varieties. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 42)



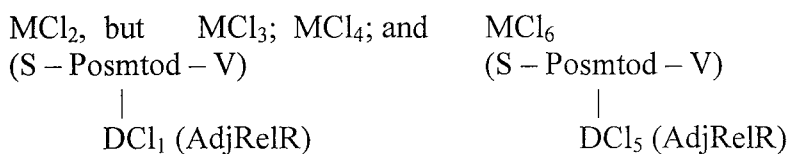
CD38. Such an approach ¹means that in order to obtain a complete description of any one variety a description ²has to be pieced together by working through the grammar in some predetermined way, and noting points about a variety as they ³arise; but this ⁴is no objection to the approach, as it ⁵would in any case be necessary to work through the grammar in this way in order to specify the common-core information. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 43)

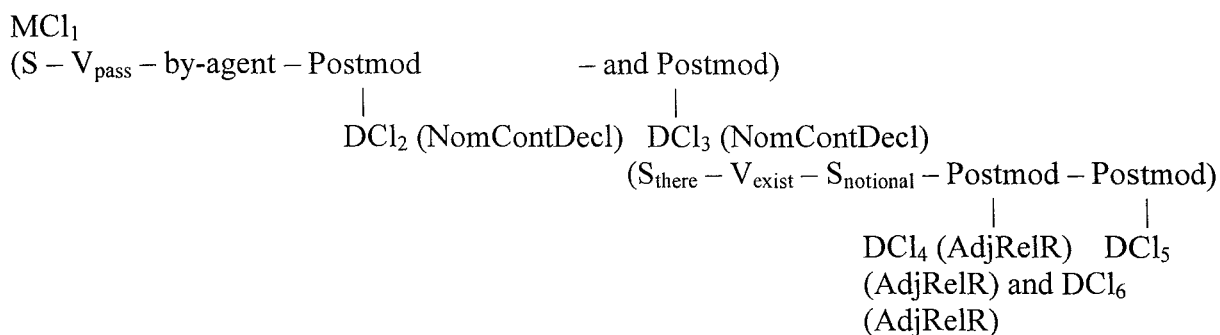


CD39. It ¹is clear that there ²are important restrictions on the ways in which we ³can group sentences together in connected speech – either in conversation or monologue – and many varieties ⁴are characterized partly by the way in which their sentences ⁵tend to cluster together. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 44)

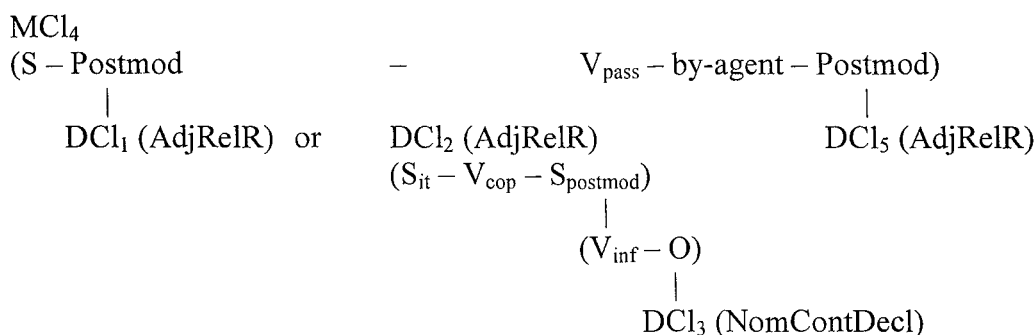


CD40. The sequential patterns into which sentences ¹fall ²have not been clearly defined as yet, but some patterns (for instance, the question-response pattern) ³are familiar; certain sequences of sentence-types ⁴can be described without difficulty (see below); and certain features which ⁵link sentence-types ⁶can be recognised. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 44)

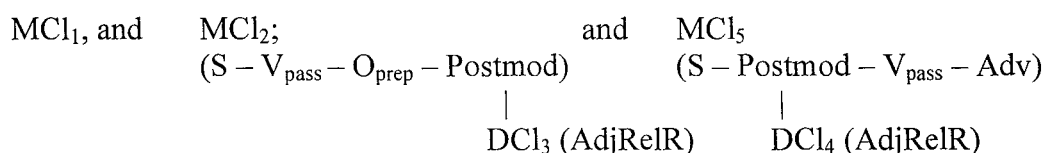




CD44. Situations in which positively only one set of stylistic features ¹is permitted, with no variation allowed (or, to put it another way, where it ²is possible to state confidently that ‘the following features ³will never occur here...’), ⁴are far outnumbered by those situations where ⁵alternative sets of features are possible, though not usually equiprobable. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 63)



CD45. The entire range of linguistic features in a text functioning in the above way ¹is plotted, and the notion of *situation* ²is broken down into *dimensions of situational constraint* (which we ³have so far been referring to rather loosely as ‘situational variables’); and the role every ⁴feature ⁵plays is described in terms of one or more of these dimensions. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 64)



CD46. For example, feature A ¹ may be seen to correlate with the geographical area the speaker ² came from, and ³ is referred to as a *feature of* the dimension of regional variation, or *regional dialect*; feature B ⁴ is seen to be a result of the kind of social relationship existing between the participants in a conversation, and ⁵ is referred to as a *feature of* a different dimension (in this case the dimension we ⁶ shall refer to below as *status*); and so on. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 64)

MCl₁, and MCl₃; MCl₄, and MCl₅ (App MCl₆)
 (S – V – O_{prep} – Postmod)
 |
 DCl₂ (AdjRelR)

CD47. For example, the existence of concord between subject and verb ¹ is not stylistically significant, nor ² is the fact that the article ³ comes before the noun, that ⁴ *man* has the irregular plural *men*, or that ⁵ *pleasant* is the opposite of *unpleasant*. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 65)

MCl₁, nor MCl₂,
 (S_{it} – V_{cop} – S)
 |
 DCl₃ (NomContDecl), DCl₄ (NomContDecl) or DCl₅ (NomContDecl)

CD48. This ¹ is not of course to say that such features as the above ² cannot be made use of for stylistic purposes at all: as soon as considerations of *frequency* of occurrence and overall distribution ³ are taken into account, then most of the common-core features ⁴ work in a different way – for example, a text consisting wholly of tone-units with a falling nucleus ⁵ would certainly be stylistically distinctive. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 65)

MCl₁: MCl₄ – App MCl₅
 (S – V_{cop} – C_S) (Adv – S – V – Adv)
 | |
 (V_{inf} – O) DCl₃ (Adv_{temp})
 |
 DCl₂ (NomContDecl)

CD49. Of course these extra-linguistic factors ¹ are not the same for all the dimensions:
² compare, for example, the sense in which the vocal characteristics of a child, as opposed to an
adult, ³ can be said to be predictable (on physiological grounds) with the sense in which dialect
⁴ features are predictable (if one ⁵ knows the dialect in advance). (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 68)

MCl₁: MCl₂
(V_{imp} – O – Postmod – O_{prep} – Postmod – (Adv))
| | |
DCl₃ (AdjRelR) DCl₄ (AdjRelR) DCl₅ (Adv_{cond})

CD50. When one ¹ considers the amount of detailed study which traditional dialectology ² has
³ entered into as a matter of course, it is plain that stylistics, in our sense, ⁴ has got a lot of work
to do before it ⁵ can ever be as explicit. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 68)

MCl₃
(Adv – S_{it} – V_{cop} – C_S – S)
| |
DCl₁ (Adv_{cond}) DCl₄ (NomContDecl)
(S – V – O – Postmod) (S – V – O – Adv)
| |
DCl₂ (AdjRelR) DCl₅ (Adv_{temp})

Excerpts from Elias, Norbert and Dunning, Eric. 1986. *Quest for excitement: Sport and Leisure in the Civilizing Process*. Basil Blackwell. Oxford.

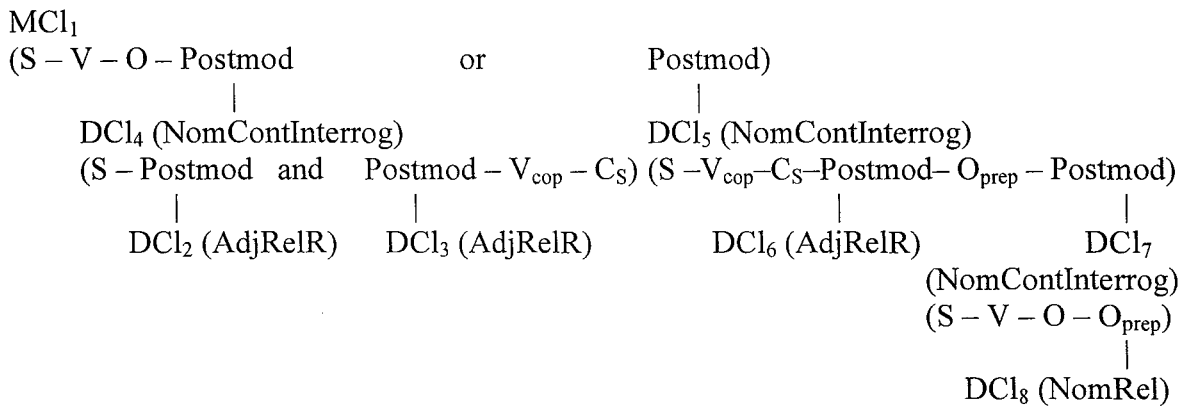
ED1. In fact, the aristocratic or ‘Society’ type of pastimes, which ¹ dominated the meaning of the term ‘sport’ in England itself in the first half of the nineteenth century, ² spread to other countries and ³ was adopted there by corresponding social elites before the more popular types such as football ⁴ developed the characteristics of a ‘sport’, ⁵ were perceived as such in England itself and ⁶ spread in that form to other countries, as a pastime of middle- and working-class groups. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 127)

MC₂ (S – Postmod – V – Adv) and MCl₃ (S_{ellip} – V – By-agent – Adv)
 | |
 DCl₁ (AdjRelNR) DCl₄ (Adv_{temp}), DCl₅ and DCl₆
 (Adv_{temp}) (Adv_{temp})

ED2. It ¹ is as significant for our understanding of the development of European societies as it ² is for that of sport itself that the first types of English sports which ³ were taken up by other countries ⁴ were horse-racing, boxing, fox-hunting, and similar pastimes, and that the diffusion of ball games such as football and tennis and of ‘sport’ generally in the more contemporary sense ⁵ began only in the second part of the nineteenth century. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 127)

MCl₁ (S – V_{cop} – C_S – O_{prep} – Adv – Postmod)
 | |
 DCl₂ (Adv_{comp}) DCl₄ (NomContDecl) and DCl₅ (NomContDecl)
 (S – Postmod – V – C_S)
 |
 DCl₃ (AdjRelR)

ED3. It ¹ is difficult to clarify the question whether the type of game-contests which ² developed in England under the name ‘sport’ during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries and which ³ spread from there to other countries ⁴ was something relatively new or whether it ⁵ was a revival of something old which ⁶ had unaccountably lapsed, without looking briefly into the question of whether in fact the game-contests of ancient Greece ⁷ had the characteristic of what we now ⁸ regard as ‘sport’. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 129)

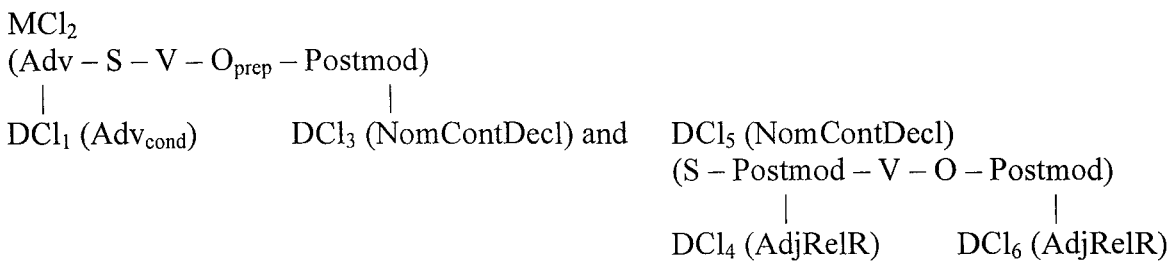


ED4. If one ¹ uses the term ‘industry’ in this wider sense, one ² is at present nevertheless well aware of its narrower and more precise meaning, of the fact that the ‘industrialization

process’ of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries ³ is something rather new and that the

specific types of production and work which ⁴ have developed in recent times under the name

‘industry’ ⁵ have certain unique structures that ⁶ can be determined sociologically with considerable precision and clearly distinguished from other types of production. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 129)

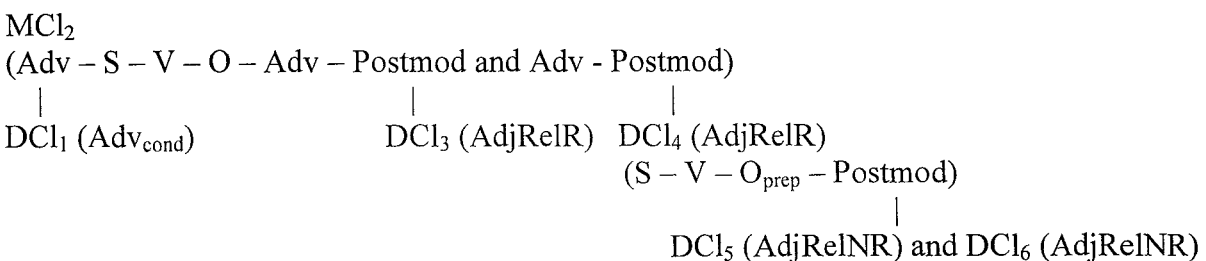


ED5. If one ¹ speaks of ‘sport’, however, one still ² uses the term indiscriminately both in a wider

sense in which it ³ refers to the game-contests and physical exercise of all societies and in a

narrower sense in which it ⁴ refers to the specific type of game-contests, which like the term

itself, ⁵ originated in England and ⁶ spread from there to other societies. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 129)



ED6. This process – one might ¹ call it the ‘sportization’ of game-contests if that ² did not sound rather unattractive – ³ points to a problem which ⁴ is fairly clear: ⁵ can one discover in the recent development of the structure and organization of those leisure activities which we ⁶ call sport trends which ⁷ are as unique as those in the structure and organization of work which we ⁸ refer to when we ⁹ speak of a process of industrialization? (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 129)

MC₃:

(S – [ComCl₁] – V – O_{prep} – Postmod)
 (S – V – O – C_O – Adv)
 |
 DCI₂ (Adv_{cond})

|
 DCI₄ (AdjRelR)

MC₅

(V – S – O_{prep} – Postmod)

|
 DCI₆ (AdjRelR)

(S – V – O – Postmod)

|
 DCI₇ (AdjRelR)

(S–V–C_S– Adv – Postmod)

|
 DCI₈ (AdjRelR)

(S–V–O_{prep}– Adv)

|
 DCI₉ (Adv_{temp})

ED7. If one ¹ remembers the tournaments of the Middle Ages or the innumerable folk-games of that age – unsuppressed and, in fact, unsuppressable even if the authorities ² disapproved of them, as the recurrent edicts against playing football in England and other European countries ³ indicate – one ⁴ can hardly ⁵ say that there was not a very lively interest in game-contests as such. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 131)

MC₄

(Adv – App – Adv – Adv – S – V – O)

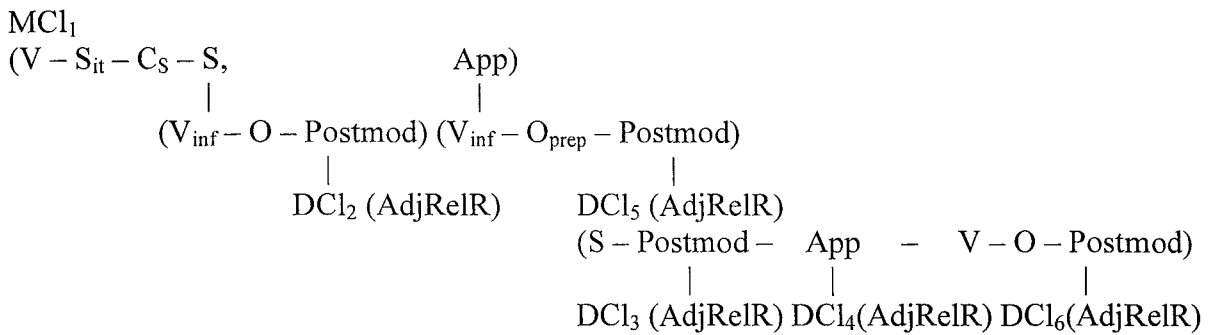
|
 DCI₁ (Adv_{cond})

|
 DCI₂ (Adv_{cond-conc})

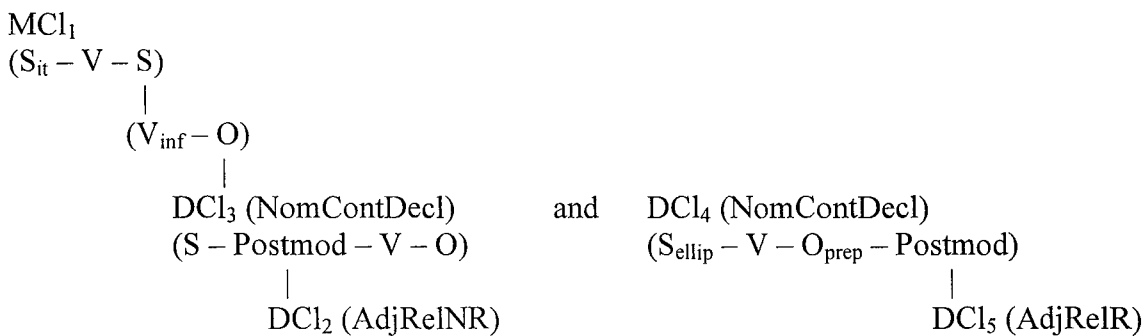
|
 DCI₃ (Adv_{manner})

|
 DCI₅ (NomContDecl)

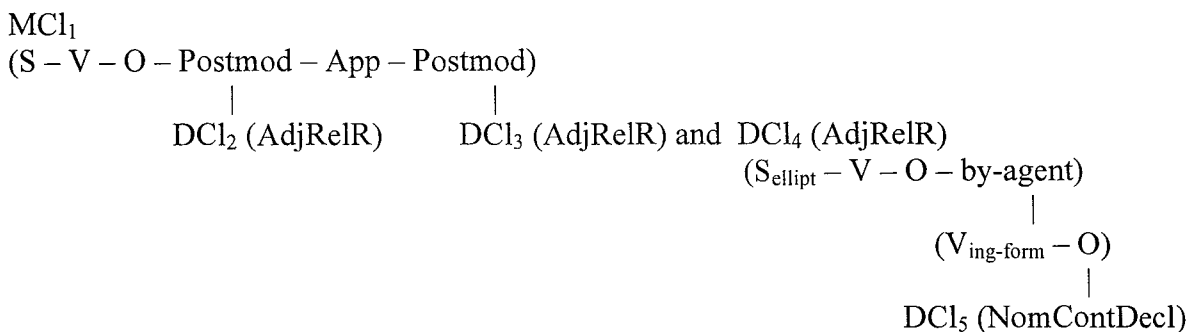
ED8. In that case, ¹ would it not perhaps be preferable to examine realistically the specific conditions which ² account for the genesis and rise of the sports movement of our time, to face up to the fact that game-contests of the type which we ³ call ‘sport’, like the industrial nation-states where they ⁴ take place, ⁵ have certain unique characteristics which ⁶ distinguish them from other types, and to start the difficult task of enquiring into and explaining the nature of these distinguishing characteristics? (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 131)



ED9. On closer inspection, it ¹is not difficult to see that the game-contests of classical antiquity, which ²are often represented as the great paradigm of sport, ³had a number of features and ⁴grew up under conditions which ⁵were very different from those of our own game-contests. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 132)



ED10. In this way, theory and empirical data together ¹remove one of the main obstacles to the understanding of developmental differences such as those which ²exist between ancient and contemporary game-contests, namely the feeling that one ³casts a slur on another society and ⁴lowers its human value by admitting that the level of physical violence tolerated there even ⁵in game-contests was higher, and the threshold of revulsion against people wounding or even killing each other in such a contest to the delight of spectators correspondingly lower than our own. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 133)



ED11. In the case of Greece, one ¹ is thus torn between the high human value traditionally attached to its achievements in philosophy, the sciences, the arts and poetry, and the low human value which one ² seems to attribute to the ancient Greeks if one ³ speaks of their lower level of revulsion against physical violence, if one ⁴ seems to suggest that they ⁵ were, compared with ourselves, ‘uncivilized’ and ‘barbarous’. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 133)

MCl₁

(S – V – O_{prep} – Postmod)

|
DCl₂ (AdjRelR)

(S – V – O_{prep} – Adv)

|
DCl₃ (Adv_{cond}), DCl₄ (Adv_{cond})
(S – V – O)

|
DCl₅ (NomContDecl)

ED12. Philostratos ¹ mentions that the fighting technique of the pancration ² stood the Greek citizen-armies in good stead in the battle of Marathon when it ³ developed into a general mêlée, and also at Thermopylae where the Spartans ⁴ fought with their bare hands when their swords and spears ⁵ had been broken. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 138)

MCl₁

(S – V – O)

|
DCl₂ (NomContDecl)

(S – V – O_{prep} – Adv

and O_{prep} – Adv)

|
DCl₃ (Adv_{temp})

|
DCl₄ (Adv_{loc})

(S – V – Adv – Adv)

|
DCl₅ (Adv_{temp})

ED13. It ¹ was glorious to vanquish enemies or opponents but it ² was hardly less glorious to be vanquished, as Hector ³ was by Achilles, provided one ⁴ fought with all one’s might until one ⁵ was maimed, wounded or killed and ⁶ could fight no longer. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 138)

MCl₁, but MCl₂ App MCl₄
 (S – V_{cop} – C_S – S – Adv) (S – V – O_{prep} – Adv)
 | |
 DCI₃ (Adv_{comp}) DCI₅ (Adv_{cond}) and DCI₆ (Adv_{cond})

ED14. The quotation ¹ represents an almost paradigmatic example of the misunderstanding that ² results from the unquestioned use of one's own threshold of repugnance in the face of specific types of physical violence as a general yardstick for all human societies regardless of their structure and of the stage of social development they ³ have reached, especially the stage they ⁴ have reached in the social organization and control of physical violence: ⁵ this is as significant an aspect of the development of societies as the organization and control of 'economic' means of production. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 140)

MCl₁: MCl₅
 (S – V – O – Postmod)
 |
 DCI₂ (AdjRelR)
 (S – V – Adv_{loc} – Adv_{temp} – O_{prep} – Postmod, App Postmod)
 | |
 DCI₃ (AdjRelR) DCI₄ (AdjRelR)

ED15. However, if one ¹ is concerned with the sociological analysis of the connections between different aspects of the same society, one ² has no reason to assume that only those manifestations of that society to which, as an outside observer, one ³ attributes the same value, ⁴ be it positive or negative, ⁵ are interdependent. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 140)

MCl₂
 (Adv – S – V – O – Postmod)
 | |
 DCI₁ (Adv_{cond}) DCI₅ (NomContDecl)
 (S – Postmod – Adv – V_{cop} – C_S)
 | |
 DCI₃ (AdjRelR) DCI₄ (Adv_{conc})

ED16. Because 'body image' or physical appearance ¹ ranks relatively low, much lower, for example, than 'intelligence' or 'moral character', in the value-scale which, in societies such as ours, ² determines the ranking of men and the whole image we ³ form of them, we often ⁴ lack the key to the understanding of other societies in which physical appearance ⁵ played a much greater part as a determinant of the public image of a man. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 141)

ED19. But a single concept as highly specialized as the modern concept of ‘conscience’, denoting a highly authoritative, inescapable and often tyrannical inner agency which, as part of his or her self, ¹ guides an individual’s conduct, which ² demands obedience and ³ punishes disobedience with ‘pangs’ or ‘bites’ of guilt-feelings, and which, unlike ‘fear of the gods’ or ‘shame’, ⁴ acts on its own, seemingly coming from nowhere, seemingly without deriving power and authority from any external agency, human or superhuman – this concept of conscience ⁵ is absent from the intellectual equipment of ancient Greece. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 147)

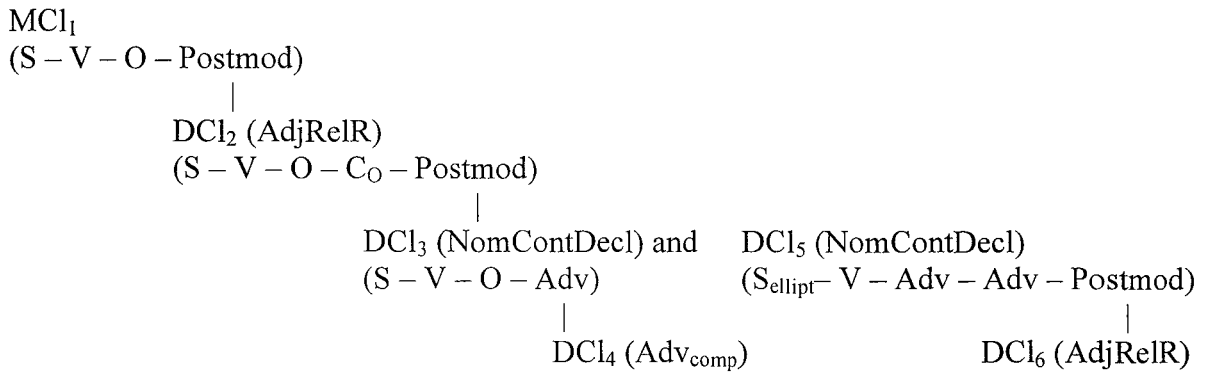
But MCl₁ (S – V – O – Postmod) – MCl₅
 |
 DCl₂ (AdjRelNR) and DCl₃ (AdjRelNR) and DCl₄ (AdjRelNR)

ED20. If one ¹ finds in a twelfth century chronicle that, already at that time, the young people of London ² went on certain days into the fields in order to play with a ball, one ³ is apt to conclude that these young people ⁴ were already then playing the same game which, under of ‘football’, ⁵ has now become one of the major games of England and which ⁶ has, in that form, spread all over the world. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 152)

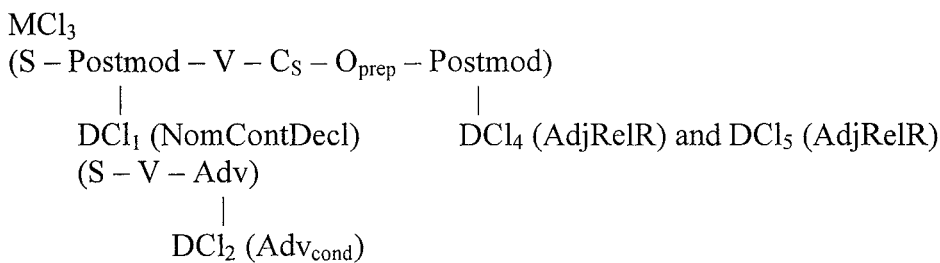
MCl₃ (Adv – S – V_{cop} – C_S – O)
 | |
 DCl₁ (Adv_{cond}) DCl₄ (NomContDecl)
 (S – V – Adv – O) (S – V – O – Postmod)
 | |
 DCl₂ (NomContDecl) DCl₅ (AdjRelR) and DCl₆ (AdjRelR)

ED21. One ¹ is prevented from asking how and why the particular rules and conventions ² developed which now ³ determine the conduct of players when they ⁴ play the game and without which the game ⁵ would not be ‘football’ in our sense of the word. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 152)

ED24. One ¹ can see more clearly, too, the illusionary character of any conception of society which ² makes it appear that norms or rules ³ have a power of their own, as if they ⁴ were something outside and apart from the groups of people, and ⁵ could serve as such as an explanation for the way in which people ⁶ group themselves as societies. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 154)



ED25. On the other hand, the preliminary knowledge that what one ¹ is looking for if one ² studies the history of a sport ³ is not merely the isolated activities of individuals or groups, and not only a number of unpatterned changes, but a patterned sequence of changes in the organization, the rules and the actual figuration of the game itself, leading over a certain period to wards a specific stage of tension-equilibrium which ⁴ has been provisionally celled here the ‘mature stage’ and whose nature ⁵ has yet to be determined. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 156)



ED26. The middle stump of the wicket, it ¹ is reported, ² was introduced into cricket when bowlers ³ developed a technique which ⁴ got the ball too often and, it ⁵ seemed, too easily through the wicket. (?) (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 157)

MCl₂
 (S – [ComCl₁] – V – Adv – Adv)
 |
 DCI₃ (Adv_{temp})
 (S – V – O – Postmod)
 |
 DCI₄ (AdjRelR)
 (S – V – Adv – [ComCl₅] – Adv)

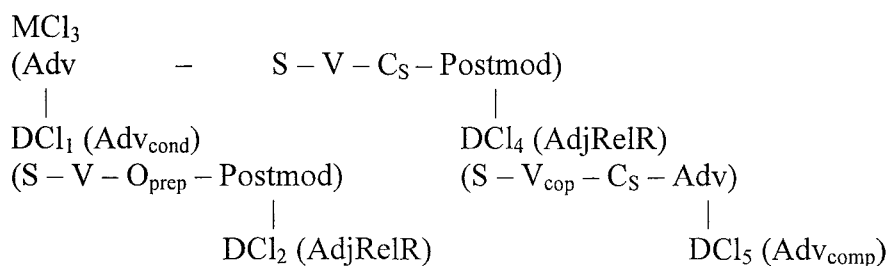
ED27. But for purposes of observation and study, it ¹is useful to enquire whether changes in
 the game-pattern ²are due to what ³are felt to be deficiencies in the game-pattern itself at a
 time when conditions for playing the game in society at large ⁴remain largely unchanged, or
 whether changes in the game pattern ⁵are due to felt deficiencies which ⁶arise largely from
 changing conditions of the game in society at large. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 158)

But MCl₁
 (S_{it} – V_{cop} – C_S – S)
 |
 (V_{inf} – O or O)
 | |
 DCI₂ (NomContInterrog) DCI₁₅ (NomContInterrog)
 (S – V_{cop} – C_S – O_{prep} – Adv) (S – V_{cop} – C_S – O_{prep} – Postmod)
 | | |
 DCI₃ (NomRel) DCI₄ (Adv_{temp}) DCI₆ (AdjRelNR)

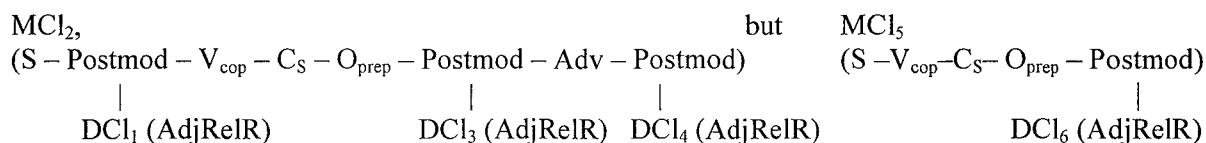
ED28. There ¹was the story of the French *chasseur* who ²witnessed a fox-hunt in England and
³expressed both surprise and derision when he ⁴observed some young hounds being whipped
 off the scent of a hare which they ⁵were just about to catch; or the story of another French
 gentleman who ⁶heard an Englishman during a hunt exclaim: ‘How admirable! The sport
 which the fox has shown in this charming run of two hours and a quarter.’ (Elias and
 Dunning, 1986, p. 160)

MCl₁
 (S_{there} – V_{cop} – S_{notional} – Postmod; or S_{notional} – Postmod)
 | |
 DCI₂ (AdjRelR) and DCI₃ (AdjRelR) DCI₆ (AdjRelR)
 (S_{ellip} – V – O – Adv)
 |
 DCI₄ (Adv_{temp})
 (S – V – O – ... – Postmod)
 |
 DCI₅ (AdjRelR)

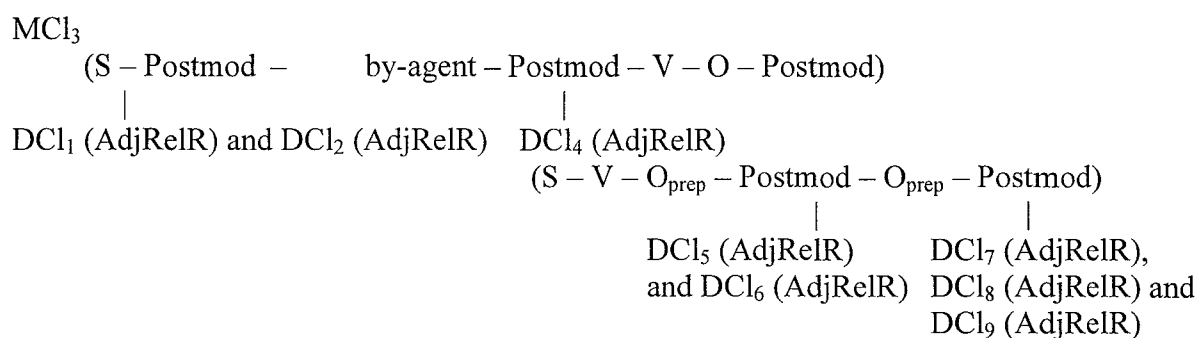
ED29. If, in his own society, conscience and the corresponding sensitivities ¹ had grown into a form which ² made it distasteful for them to kill the fox with their own hands, today sections of the population ³ have grown more powerful and vocal whose sensitivities and identification with the hunted animal ⁴ are so strong that the hunting and killing of foxes for the sake of human pleasure alone ⁵ is, to them, altogether distasteful. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 164)



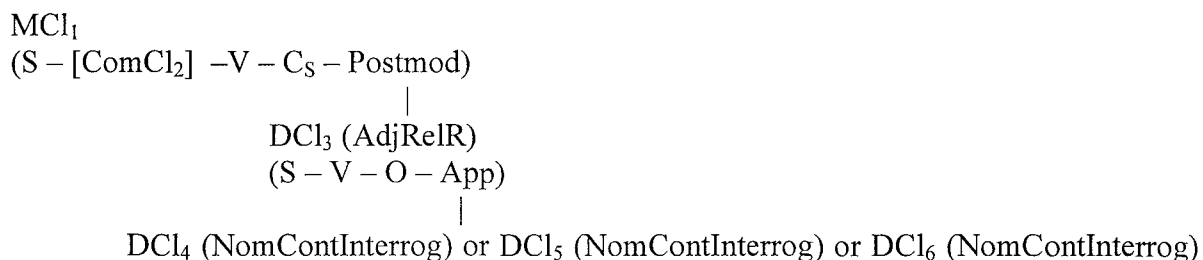
ED30. The innumerable people who anonymously ¹ contributed to the development of sports ² may not have been aware of the problem with which they ³ wrestled in the general form in which it ⁴ presents itself now in retrospect to the reflecting sociologist, but some of them ⁵ were well aware of it as a specific problem which they ⁶ encountered in the immediacy of their own limited pastimes. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 165)



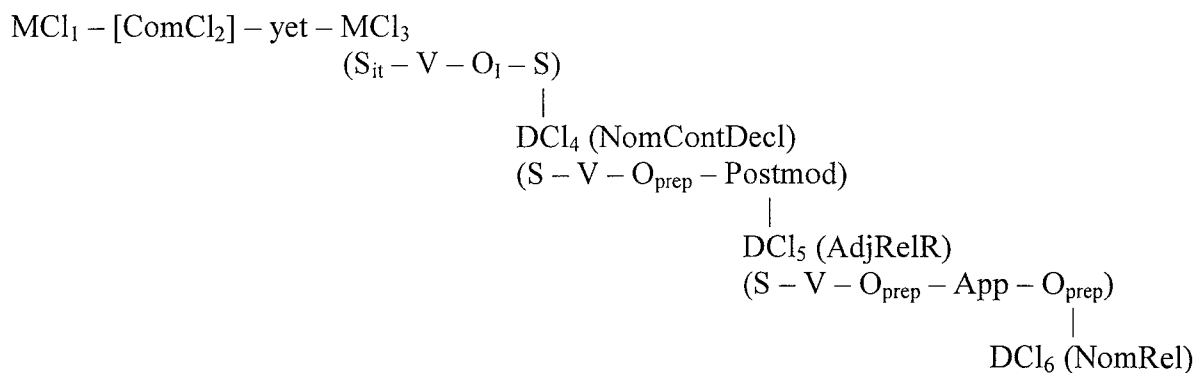
ED31. The figuration of fox-hunting – of hunting transformed into a sport – ¹ shows some of the ways in which people still ² managed to derive pleasure from a pursuit that ³ involved physical violence and killing at a stage in which, in society at large, even wealthy and powerful people, ⁴ had become increasingly restricted in their ability to use force without the licence of the law and in which their won conscience ⁵ had become more sensitive with regard to the use of brute force and the spilling of blood. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 165)



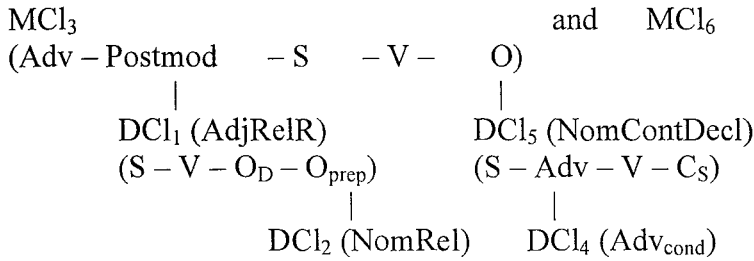
ED37. It ¹is, we ²hypothesized, the tension-balance between interdependent polarities such as these which ³determines the ‘tone’ of a game, that ⁴is whether it is experienced as exciting or dull, or whether it ⁵remains a ‘mock-fight’ or ⁶breaks out into fighting in earnest. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 172)



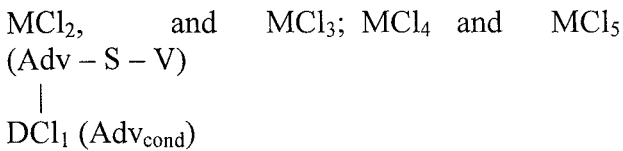
ED38. It ¹remains, I ²think, a fruitful one, yet, in retrospect, it ³strikes me that it ⁴depended partly on assumptions that ⁵derive from an amateur conception of sport, from what Elias ⁶would regard as a specific ‘heteronomous evaluation’. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 172)



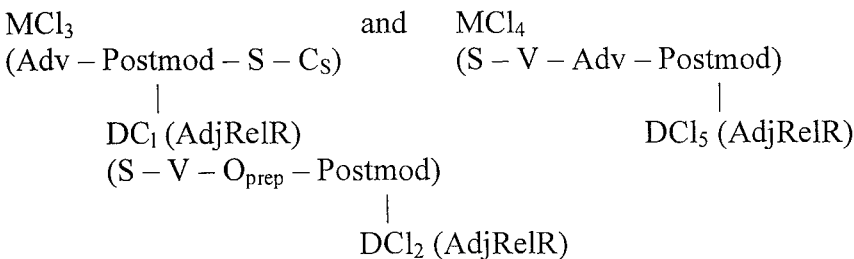
ED39. Thus, in a passage where we ¹contrasted sport groups with industrial, administrative and other associations concerned with what ²are generally regarded as the ‘serious’ sides of life, we ³wrote that the ‘purpose’ of sport groups, ‘if they ⁴have a purpose, ⁵is to give people pleasure’ and we ⁶went on to mention, as other goals or purposes of the people involved in sport-groups, striving for rewards of a financial or status kind, and providing excitement for spectators. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 172)



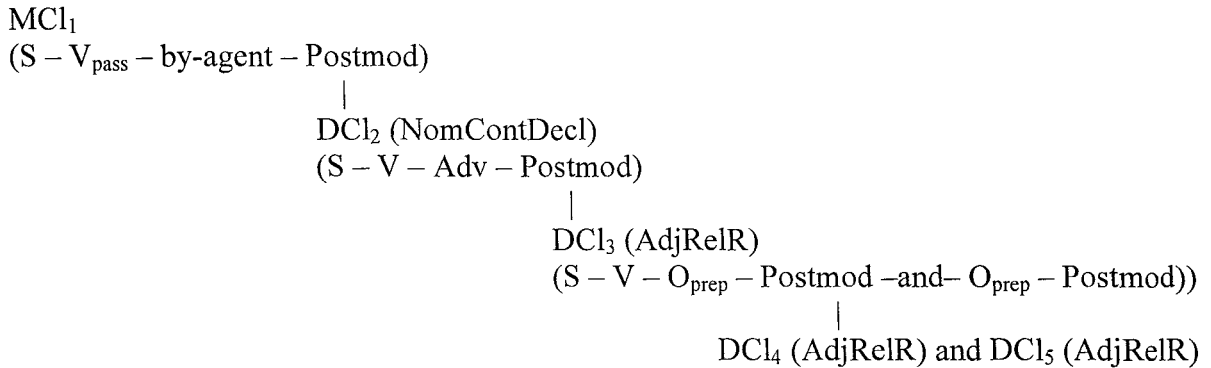
ED40. Thus, if players ¹participate seriously in a game, the tension-level ²will be raised and, beyond a certain point, the incidence of hostile rivalry both within and between teams ³is likely to be increased; that ⁴is the game ⁵is likely to be transformed from a mock-fight in the direction of a ‘real’ one and players are liable to transgress the rules, to commit acts of ‘foul’ play. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 173)



ED41. Or, to the degree that spectators ¹become seriously identified with the teams they ²support, they ³are less liable to contemplate defeat with equanimity and ⁴may act in ways that ⁵are intended to affect the outcome of the contest. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 173)



ED49. Of course, this separatist trend ¹ was probably, in part, occasioned by the fact that contests between professional and amateur ² would frequently have been unbalanced and lacking in tone owing to the skill discrepancy that usually ³ exists between full-time players who ⁴ are following their occupation and part-time players who ⁵ are merely participating in a leisure activity. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 180)



ED50. Above all, whether playing among themselves or with their hirelings, the aristocracy and gentry ¹ could participate in sport for fun; that is, their social situation – the power and relative autonomy ² they enjoyed – ³ meant that they ⁴ could develop self-directed or egocentric forms of sports participation and that, although they ⁵ were not constrained to develop the amateur ethos as an explicit ideology, they ⁶ came close to being amateurs in the ‘ideal typical’ sense of that term. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 182)

