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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V Praze dne 30. srpna 2007

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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.
1 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 form 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.

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 clauses.\(^1\)

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*. 

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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 (e.g. 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


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 was Descartes' view of emotion that came to influence the early attempts to make psychology into an experimental science, this resulted in some instances, as Kenny puts it, in the belief ‘that the study of the emotions could 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:

```
MCl3
(Adv - S - V - [ComCl4] - Oprep - Postmod)
 |  DCl1 (Adv cause)       DCl5 (NomContDECL)
  (S it-cleft - V - Cs - DCl2 (it-cleft))
```

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 (DCl1) – 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 (Oprep). 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 goes on to explain that ‘the principal effect of all the passions in men is that
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, 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 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)

Sentence of seven finite clauses:

ED18. Moreover, if one evaluates a more civilized form of conduct and feeling as ‘better’ than less civilized forms, if one considers that mankind has made progress by arriving at one’s own standards of revulsion and repugnance against forms of violence which were common in former days, one is confronted by the problem of why an unplanned development has resulted in something which one evaluates 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 is that it should provide a single, clear technique of description which will allow the student to cope with any piece of language he wants to study – one procedure which, if carefully followed, will focus the attention on all that is interesting in a piece of language and ensure that no item of potential significance is overlooked. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 13)

Sentence of nine finite clauses:
1. This process—one might call it the ‘sportization’ of game-contests if that did not sound rather unattractive—points to a problem which is fairly clear: can one discover in the recent development of the structure and organization of those leisure activities which we call sport trends which are as unique as those in the structure and organization of work which we refer to when we 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 means, positively, that I shall seek an explanation in terms of the immanent structure and dynamics of social relationships per se, and, negatively, that I shall eschew three kinds of sociological explanations that are common, namely: (1) explanations in terms of psychological or ‘action’ principles that ignore the patterns of interdependence within which human beings live; (2) explanations in terms of ideas and beliefs that are conceptually 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 social forces— for example ‘economic’ forces—that are reified and considered as existing 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 then 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 ‘subiler 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 & Dunnning 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)
## 5.1 Density of the examined phenomenon – sentences with five and more finite clauses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Lyons</th>
<th>Stiglitz</th>
<th>Crystal &amp; Davy</th>
<th>Elias &amp; Dunning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average number of words on one page</td>
<td>393</td>
<td>344</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>433</td>
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<td>Number of pages</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>54</td>
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<td>18920</td>
<td>15120</td>
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<tr>
<td>Average number of words needed in order to find one sentence</td>
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<td>384</td>
<td>302</td>
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## 5.2 Examined sentences – number of finite clauses found within one sentence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Lyons</th>
<th>Stiglitz</th>
<th>Crystal &amp; Davy</th>
<th>Elias &amp; Dunning</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>5 finite clauses</td>
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<td>27</td>
<td>25</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>103 (51.5%)</strong></td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>17</td>
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<td></td>
<td><strong>64 (37%)</strong></td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
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<td><strong>15 (7.5%)</strong></td>
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<td><strong>1 (0.5%)</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of sentences</td>
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<td><strong>200 (100%)</strong></td>
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</table>
5.3 Structure of examined sentences – number of main and dependent clauses found within one sentence

5.3.1 Sentences with five finite clauses

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<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Lyons</th>
<th>Stiglitz</th>
<th>Crystal &amp; Davy</th>
<th>Elias &amp; Dunning</th>
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<td></td>
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<td>13 (6.5 %)</td>
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<tr>
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<td>12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>34 (17 %)</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>49 (24.5 %)</td>
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</table>

5.3.2 Sentences with more than five finite clauses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Lyons</th>
<th>Stiglitz</th>
<th>Crystal &amp; Davy</th>
<th>Elias &amp; Dunning</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 main clause and 5 dependent clauses</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>23 (11.5 %)</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3 (1.5 %)</td>
</tr>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2 (1 %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 main clause and 8 dependent clauses</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4 (2 %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 main clause and 9 dependent clauses</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1 (0.5 %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 main clauses and 4 dependent clauses</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>27 (13.5 %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 main clauses and 5 dependent clauses</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7 (3.5 %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 main clauses and 6 dependent clauses</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6 (3 %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 main clauses and 7 dependent clauses</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1 (0.5 %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 main clauses and 3 dependent clauses</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10 (5 %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main Clauses and Dependent Clauses</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2 (1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 main clauses and 4 dependent clauses</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1 (0.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 main clauses and 2 dependent clauses</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3 (1.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 main clauses and 1 dependent clause</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1 (0.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 main clauses and 4 dependent clauses</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1 (0.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 main clauses and 6 dependent clauses</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2 (1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 main clauses and 3 dependent clauses</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1 (0.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 main clauses and 2 dependent clauses</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1 (0.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 main clauses and 4 dependent clauses</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1 (0.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 main clauses and 1 dependent clauses</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1 (0.5%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.4 Main and dependent clauses in the excerpted sentences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Lyons</th>
<th>Stiglitz</th>
<th>Crystal &amp; Davy</th>
<th>Elias &amp; Dunning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total number of main clauses</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total number of main clauses</strong></td>
<td><strong>385 (33.3%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>205</strong></td>
<td><strong>188</strong></td>
<td><strong>156</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of dependent clauses</td>
<td>294</td>
<td>279</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>294</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total number of finite clauses</strong></td>
<td><strong>1157 (100%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>772 (66.7%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>704 (69.1%)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average number of main clauses in one sentence</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>1.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average number of main clauses in one sentence</strong></td>
<td><strong>1.925</strong></td>
<td><strong>1.77</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.30</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average number of dependent clauses in one sentence</td>
<td>4.1</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>4.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Average number of dependent clauses in one sentence</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.84</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.76</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.58</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main clauses : dependent clauses</td>
<td>1 : 2.30</td>
<td>1 : 2.07</td>
<td>1 : 1.13</td>
<td>1 : 3.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Main clauses : dependent clauses</strong></td>
<td><strong>1 : 1.99</strong></td>
<td><strong>1 : 1.92</strong></td>
<td><strong>1 : 1.79</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

57
## 5.5 Occurrence of nominal content clauses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Lyons</th>
<th>Stiglitz</th>
<th>Crystal &amp; Davy</th>
<th>Elias &amp; Dunning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominal content dependent declarative</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nominal content dependent interrogative (yes/no question)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nominal content dependent interrogative (wh-question)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nominal content dependent interrogative (alternative)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nominal content dependent imperative</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nominal content dependent exclamative</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nominal content dependent optative</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total of nominal content clauses</strong></td>
<td><strong>87 (36%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>62 (25.6%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>47 (19.4%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>46 (19%)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## 5.6 Occurrence of relative clauses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Lyons</th>
<th>Stiglitz</th>
<th>Crystal &amp; Davy</th>
<th>Elias &amp; Dunning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominal relative clauses</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjectival relative restrictive clauses</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjectival relative non-restrictive</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjectival relative non-restrictive with clausal antecedent</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total of relative clauses</strong></td>
<td><strong>58 (18%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>67 (21%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>78 (24.5%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>116 (36.5%)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**319 (41.6%)**
5.7 Nominal content clauses and nominal relative clauses according to their syntactic function

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

5.7.1 Position of nominal content clauses with the function of subject

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Lyons</th>
<th>Stiglitz</th>
<th>Crystal &amp; Davy</th>
<th>Elias &amp; Dunning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Initial position</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postverbal position</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Initial position: Ly25, Ly41, Ly43

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

59
5.8  Occurrence of adverbial clauses

5.8.1  Adverbial clauses of place

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Lyons</th>
<th>Stiglitz</th>
<th>Crystal &amp; Davy</th>
<th>Elias &amp; Dunning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adverbial clauses of place</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5 (2.5 %)</td>
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</table>

5.8.2  Adverbial clauses of time

<table>
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<th>Stiglitz</th>
<th>Crystal &amp; Davy</th>
<th>Elias &amp; Dunning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adverbial clauses of time</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>46 (22.7 %)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.8.3  Adverbial clauses of manner

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Lyons</th>
<th>Stiglitz</th>
<th>Crystal &amp; Davy</th>
<th>Elias &amp; Dunning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adverbial clauses of manner</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>11 (5.3 %)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.8.4  Adverbial clauses of result

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Lyons</th>
<th>Stiglitz</th>
<th>Crystal &amp; Davy</th>
<th>Elias &amp; Dunning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adverbial clauses of result</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>9 (4.3 %)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

5.8.5  Adverbial clauses of reason

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Lyons</th>
<th>Stiglitz</th>
<th>Crystal &amp; Davy</th>
<th>Elias &amp; Dunning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adverbial clauses of reason</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>29 (14.2 %)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.8.6 Adverbial clauses of purpose

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Lyons</th>
<th>Stiglitz</th>
<th>Crystal &amp; Davy</th>
<th>Elias &amp; Dunning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adverbial clauses of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>purpose</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3 (1.4%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.8.7 Adverbial clauses of concession

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Lyons</th>
<th>Stiglitz</th>
<th>Crystal &amp; Davy</th>
<th>Elias &amp; Dunning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adverbial clauses of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>concession</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16 (7.8%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.8.8 Conditional clauses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Lyons</th>
<th>Stiglitz</th>
<th>Crystal &amp; Davy</th>
<th>Elias &amp; Dunning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adverbial clauses of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>condition</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>55 (27%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

5.8.9 Conditional concessive clauses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Lyons</th>
<th>Stiglitz</th>
<th>Crystal &amp; Davy</th>
<th>Elias &amp; Dunning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conditional concessive clauses</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6 (3 %)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.8.10 Comment clauses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Lyons</th>
<th>Stiglitz</th>
<th>Crystal &amp; Davy</th>
<th>Elias &amp; Dunning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Comment clauses</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>24 (11.8%)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Lyons</th>
<th>Stiglitz</th>
<th>Crystal &amp; Davy</th>
<th>Elias &amp; Dunning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adverbial clauses</td>
<td>66 (33%)</td>
<td>49 (24%)</td>
<td>33 (16%)</td>
<td>55 (27%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>203 (26.8%)</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Lyons</th>
<th>Stiglitz</th>
<th>Crystal &amp; Davy</th>
<th>Elias &amp; Dunning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominal content clauses</td>
<td>87 (41.2 %)</td>
<td>62 (34.8 %)</td>
<td>47 (29.6 %)</td>
<td>46 (21.2 %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relative clauses</td>
<td>58 (27.5 %)</td>
<td>67 (37.6 %)</td>
<td>78 (49.1 %)</td>
<td>116 (53.5 %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverbial clauses</td>
<td>66 (31.3 %)</td>
<td>49 (27.5 %)</td>
<td>33 (21.4 %)</td>
<td>55 (25.3 %)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>211 (100 %)</strong></td>
<td><strong>178 (100 %)</strong></td>
<td><strong>158 (100 %)</strong></td>
<td><strong>217 (100 %)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Lyons</th>
<th>Stiglitz</th>
<th>Crystal &amp; Davy</th>
<th>Elias &amp; Dunning</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominal content clause</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relative clause</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverbial clause</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td><strong>5</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
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<th>Stiglitz</th>
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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

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

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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

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

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Four content clauses: Ly14
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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

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5.11.2 Dependent clauses within sentences with seven finite clauses

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<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 cont. cl., 3 rel. cl., 1 adv. cl.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 cont. cl., 1 rel. cl., 3 adv. cl.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 cont. cl., 2 rel. cl., 2 adv. cl.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>1</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 cont. cl., 1 rel. cl., 1 adv. cl.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 cont. cl., 4 rel. cl., 1 adv. cl.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 cont. cl., 2 rel. cl., 2 adv. cl.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>-</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total: 23
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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Lyons</th>
<th>Stiglitz</th>
<th>Crystal &amp; Davy</th>
<th>Elias &amp; Dunning</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Seven main clauses, one dependent clause</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 relative clause</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four main clauses, four dependent clauses</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 relative clauses</td>
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<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two main, six dependent clauses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 cont. cl., 1 adv. clause</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 cont. cl., 2 rel. clauses</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 cont. cl., 3 rel. clauses</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 cont. cl., 1 rel. cl., 2 adv. cl.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 cont. cl., 3 rel. cl., 1 adv. cl.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 cont. cl., 4 rel. cl., 1 adv. cl.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One main, seven dependent clauses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 cont. cl., 4 rel. clauses</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 cont. cl., 5 rel. clauses</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Lyons</th>
<th>Stiglitz</th>
<th>Crystal &amp; Davy</th>
<th>Elias &amp; Dunning</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Five main clauses, four dependent clauses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 cont. cl., 1 rel. cl., 2 adv. cl.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three main clauses, six dependent clauses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 content cl., 3 adv. clauses</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two main clauses, seven dependent clauses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

67
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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Lyons</th>
<th>Stiglitz</th>
<th>Crystal &amp; Davy</th>
<th>Elias &amp; Dunning</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One main clauses, nine dependent clauses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 cont cl., 7 relative cl.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1 main and 9 dependent clauses: ED35

### 5.12 Sentences with cleft-sentence and pseudo-cleft sentence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Lyons</th>
<th>Stiglitz</th>
<th>Crystal &amp; Davy</th>
<th>Elias &amp; Dunning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It-cleft sentence</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>It-cleft sentence</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pseudo-cleft sentence</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pseudo-cleft sentence</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It-cleft sentence: Ly2, Ly12, Ly18, Ly27, Ly23, St7, St23
Pseudo-cleft sentence: Ly18, CD3
5.13 Relations between main clauses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Lyons</th>
<th>Stiglitz</th>
<th>Crystal &amp; Davy</th>
<th>Elias &amp; Dunning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Copulative relation</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Copulative relation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Copulative r. asyndetic</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Copulative r. asyndetic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adversative relation</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adversative relation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adversative r. asyndetic</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adversative r. asyndetic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alternative relation</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alternative relation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alternative r. asyndetic</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appositive</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Juxtaposition</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Juxtaposition</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.14 Relations between coordinated dependent clauses

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Text</th>
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<th>Stiglitz</th>
<th>Crystal &amp; Davy</th>
<th>Elias &amp; Dunning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Copulative relation</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
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<tr>
<td>Copulative relation</td>
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<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Copulative r. asyndetic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adversative relation</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adversative relation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adversative r. asyndetic</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adversative r. asyndetic</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alternative relation</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alternative relation</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alternative asyndetic r.</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alternative asyndetic r.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asyndetic relation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asyndetic relation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appositive</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appositive</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5.15 Punctuation between main clauses with asyndetic relation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Text</th>
<th>Lyons</th>
<th>Stiglitz</th>
<th>Crystal &amp; Davy</th>
<th>Elias &amp; Dunning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Comma</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colon</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semicolon</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dash</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brackets (parenthesis)</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asyndetic relations</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>42</td>
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<tr>
<td>between main clauses</td>
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<td>68</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

5.16 The depth of dependency relations

<table>
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<th>Stiglitz</th>
<th>Crystal &amp; Davy</th>
<th>Elias &amp; Dunning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Zero dependency</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two levels of dependency</td>
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<td>27</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
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<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three levels of dependency</td>
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<td>8</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Four levels of dependency</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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 form 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 then 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 text: 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 text). 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 & Dunnning 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.
Bibliography


Excerpts taken from:


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 by 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 mluví 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 nedvojímyslný, přesný a explicitní. Osobnost autora by měla být potlačena. Z tohoto důvodu se používá neutrálnější autorský plural (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 kritérií formálnosti, spíše než stanovit, zda se jedná o text formální nebo neformální, určuje se míra formálnosti. I texty zvolené pro naší analýzu se v mře, 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 závislostí strukturou spíše typická pro psaný text a formální styly (především text právnický), než pro jazyk mluvený. Z toho vyplývá hypotéza, že akademické texty by měly vykazovat větší počet vět vedlejších než vět hlavních.

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 mnohem 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 disjunktních 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 disjunktní 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 složitého souvětí bylo velké písmeno, pro konec souvětí tecka 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.


Všechny čtyři zkoumané vzorky obsahovaly přibližně stejný počet souvětí se stejním 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 souvětěmi 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 tomtéž textu byl poměr hlavních vět k větám vedlejším 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 tomtéž 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 nejnížší 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 adverbiální (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 adverbiální (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 (vící než 70 % všech obsahových vět). Dalšími vyskytujícími se typy je věta obsahová tázací (zastoupeny jsou obsahové věty s otázkou

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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 příkladu (22,2 %). Jedenáct obsahových vět zastavá funkci doplňku podmětu, ve funkci doplňku předmětu žádné substantivní věty nalezeny nebyly.

Jak již bylo zmíněno výše, adverbiální věty jsou ve sledovaných vzorcích zastoupeny nejméně. Jejich výskyt v jednotlivých textech se liší. V textu W. Lyonse představují druhou nejvýš zastoupenou skupinu vedlejších vět (cca 1/3), ve zbylých třech textech se jejich výskyt pohybuje v rozmezí 21 a 27 %. V Lyonsové textu je nejčastějším typem adverbiální věty věta podmínková (27 % adverbiálních vět), disjunktní věta komentující (21 %) a věta příslovečná důvodová (18 %). V textu J. Stiglitzte tvoří adverbiální věty přibližně čtvrtinu vedlejších vět, nejčastějším typem je příslovečná věta důvodová (30,6 % adverbiálních 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 adverbiální věty zastoupeny nejméně (pouze 21,4 %), nejvíce se vyskytuje věta příslovečná časová (41,2 % adverbiálních vět) a věta podmínková (26,5 %). Ve vzorku N. Eliase & E. Dunninga jsou adverbiální 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 adverbiálních vět) a věta časová (22,5 %). Poměrně časté jsou rovněž věty důvodové, které jsou distribuovány především v textech Lyonse a Stiglitzte. Zmínit je rovněž třeba disjunktní věty komentující, které tvoří 11,8 % adverbiálních 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 dvěmi 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 vztážnými, a sedm příkladů kombinace věty obsahové, věty vztážné a věty adverbiální se dvěmi větami hlavními. Souvětí jsou mezi jednotlivé texty rozložena rovnoměrně.

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

Pozornost byla též věnována vztahům mezi jednotlivými větami. Hlavní věty byly nejčastěji ve vztahu slučovacím, spojeny byly v převážné většině koordinační spojkou (spojení asyndetické se vyskytuje méně často). Významný podíl tvořila též spojení odporovací a juxtapozice. V případě vedlejších vět v koordinaci se rovněž nejčastěji vyskytovalo spojení slučovací, následováno bylo vztahem rozlučovacím. V případě vedlejších vět v koordinačním vztahu byla rovněž častá juxtapozice. Co se týká použití interpunkce ve vybraných souvětích, ve značném počtu se vyskytuje čárka, pomlčka, dvojtečka, středník i zavorky. Tato práce hlubší analýzu jejích použití neobsahuje, prozkoumání využití jednotlivých interpunkčních znaménků k vyjadření 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 podřadná), 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 porovnala 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 (sestávající pouze z vět hlavních). Poláčková nalezá 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 nám analyzezovaných 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 analyzezovaných Poláčkovou zastávaly nominální věty nejčastěji funkci podmětu, v literárním stylu pak funkci předmětu. V nám analyzezovaných 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 naších textech souvětí vykazovala větší míru variability.

Podobnost byla nalezena i v případě spojení hlavních vět: v odborných textech Poláčkové i naších byly hlavní věty nejčastěji spojeny souřadnou spojkou, což lze vysvětlit většími nároky na přesnost vyjadřování v odborných textech. V nám analyzezovaných 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 vedlejším v jednom souvětí a výskytem odlišných typů závislých vět v každém ze stylů.
Appendix


Ly1. There have been other theories which do not fit readily into these streams but, apart from the cognitive theory, which is outlined separately in the next chapter, I think it is fair to say that they have been less influential. (Lyons, 1980, p. 1)

Ly2. It is not because I am siding with Descartes in his estimate of the contribution of ‘the ancients’ on this subject as ‘slight’ (Descartes, 1911-12, Part I, Art. I, p. 361); for while I think it correct to say, as Kenny does, that ‘it was Descartes’ formulation of the problems concerning the emotions which was to influence the later history of philosophy and the early attempts to make psychology into an experimental science’ (Kenny, 1963, p. 16), the ancient Greek and the Medieval philosophers have directly or indirectly influenced some of the important contemporary cognitive theories of emotion in both philosophy and psychology. (Lyons, 1980, p. 2)

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)

But MCI_1 – for MCI_3
(S – Postmod – V_{cop} – C_{s})

| DCl_{2} (AdjRelR) | DCl_{8} (NomContDecl)
| DCl_{4} (Adv_{cond}) | DCl_{6} (Adv_{cond})
| (S – V – O – O_{prep} – Postmod) |
| DCl_{7} (AdjRelR) |

Ly4. But in point of fact, Descartes’ account may be less cognitive than that, for he goes 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, ‘disposes the brain in such a way that the spirits reflected from the
image thus formed on the gland, proceed thence to take their places partly in the
nerves which serve to turn the back and dispose the legs for flight, and partly in those
which so increase or diminish the orifices of the heart... [that it] sends 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 MCI_1– for MCI_2
(S–V–O)

| DCl_{3} (NomContDecl)
| (S–V–O–Adv– Postmod) |
| DCl_{4} (NomContDecl)
| DCl_{5} (AdjRelR) | DCl_{6} | DCl_{7} (Adv_{fin})
| (AdjRelR) (S–V–O_{prep}–O) |
| DCl_{8}(AdjRelR) |
Ly5. Descartes then goes on to explain that 'the 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, that of courage to desire to fight, and so on' (1911-12, Art. XL). (Lyons, 1980, p. 3)

MCl₁
(S – V – O)
       DClo (NomContDecl)
            DC₁ (NomContDecl)
                (S – Vcop – Cs)
                   DC₂ (NomContDecl)
                        (S – V – O – Adv – Postmod – Adv)
                           DC₃ (AdjRelR) DC₄ (Adv_effect)

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)

MCl₁ – juxt MCl₂ – asynd [ComCl₃]
(S – V_pass – Cs – Adv)
       DC₅ (Advcause)
            (S – Postmod – V_pass – By-agent – Postmod)
                   DC₆ (AdjRelR)

Ly7. But Descartes is clear that ‘the objects which move the senses do not excite diverse passions in us because of all the diverse ways which are in them, but only because of the diverse ways in which they may harm or help us, or in general be of some importance to us’ (1911-12, Art. LII). (Lyons, 1980, p. 4)

But MCl₁
(S – Vcop – Cs – Adjcomp)
       DC₇ (NomContDecl)
            DC₁ (NomContDecl)
                    DC₂ (AdjRelR) DC₄ (AdjRelR) DC₅(AdjRelR)
Indeed Descartes’ causal account of the genesis of an emotion or passion contains all the elements which I believe are necessary for a full account of the emotions but, unfortunately, he did not then state that this account was an account of emotion but only of the causes of emotion. (Lyons, 1980, p. 4)

He was led into this view of emotion, I think, because he had already committed himself to the view that anything important to humans must be found wholly in the soul, and that it must thereby be simple. (Lyons, 1980, p. 5)

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 (Philosophical Investigations, passim, especially I 243-258) [Kenny, 1963, p. 13]. (Lyons, 1980, p. 5)

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

iv
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)

For MCl₁:

```
MCl₂
(S - V_pass - by-agent - Adv)
```

```
DC₃ (Adv_effect)
(S - V - O)
```

```
DC₄ (NomContDecl)
(S - V_cop - C₅ - O_prep - Postmod)
```

```
DC₅ (AdjRelNR)
(S - V - O)
```

```
DC₆ (NomContDecl)
```

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

```
MCl₁
(Sit-cleft - V - Adv)
```

```
DC₆ (NomContDecl)(S - V - O - Adv)
```

```
DC₂ (Adv_temp)
(S - V - O₁ - O₂)
```

```
DC₅ (NomContInterrog)
(S - V - O - Postmod)
```

```
DC₃ (NomContDecl)
```

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

```
MCl₄
(Adv - S - V - O - Postmod)
```

```
DCl₁ (Adv_cond) - DCl₂ (AdjRelNR)
(S - V - Adv - Adv)
```

```
DCl₃ (Adv_cond)
```

```
DCl₄ (AdjRelNR)
```

```
DCl₅ (AdjRelNR)
```
Ly14. To say that I am hot is not to say that I want to do anything or am liable to do anything, much less that I will do anything. (Lyons, 1980, p. 7)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{MC12} \\
(S & - V_{\text{cop}} - C_s \\
(V_{\text{inf}} - O) & \text{or} \quad O & - \text{Adv}_{\text{comp}})
\end{align*}
\]

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)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{MC11} \\
(S & - V - O & - \text{Adv}) & - \text{[ComCl4]} \\
\end{align*}
\]

Ly16. For after all the perception of the external object is not central to Descartes’ account of emotion nor even central to his account of the causal antecedents of emotion, for he does allow that some emotions, such as objectless and imaginary-object fears are caused entirely by ‘temperaments of the body or... impressions which are fortuitously met with in the brain’ (1911-12, Art. LI), and there is no rubric laid down as to how these in turn must be caused. (Lyons, 1980, p. 8)
Ly17. This seems to me to be a valid point, for if emotions can be judged in this way, they must include something which can be looked at to see whether it is backed up by reasons, and reasons which are appropriate to the circumstances, and so can be said to be justified in the circumstances. (Lyons, 1980, p. 8)

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 (Hume, 1978, Bk. II, Part I, Section VIII, pp. 300-1). (Lyons, 1980, p. 9)

Ly19. Now, if we realise that good and evil are 'in other words, pain and pleasure' (p. 215) and recall that 'the passions, both direct and indirect, are founded on pain and pleasure' (p. 214), then it is not difficult to see that the passions, being sensations resulting from associating pain or pleasure with people, things or events, will naturally incline us to seek out the source of the pleasure and to avoid the sources of pain. (Lyons, 1980, p. 10)
Ly20. Hume does see that an adequate theory of emotion must give some such account, and his account is based on the general psychological principle that we always act so as to gain pleasure and avoid pain, and on the claim that the peculiar sensation of the soul which is the emotion is always causally linked to a first-order or original impression of pain or pleasure. (Lyons, 1980, p. 11)

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

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)
Ly23. Because it was Descartes' view of emotion that came to influence the early attempts to make psychology into an experimental science, this resulted in some instances, as Kenny puts it, in the belief 'that the study of the emotions could 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 believe that William James thought he was changing the Cartesian doctrine of emotion in an important way, for James made it clear that, while he still saw emotions as feelings, these feelings were of the physiological changes and disturbances that went on during an emotional occurrence. (Lyons, 1980, p. 12)

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

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)

An immediate attraction of this view, as we shall see, has been the fact that it clearly makes sense of such cases as electrically stimulating the cortex and causing physiological changes which the subject says gave him or her feelings of, say, rage. (Lyons, 1980, p. 14)
Ly29. This \textit{is}, I think, peculiar to the James version of the Cartesian theory of the emotions, for only he \textit{suggests} that the feeling which \textit{is} the emotion \textit{is} merely the feeling of the physiological changes involved. (Lyons, 1980, p. 14)

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

Ly31. But it should be mentioned also that there \textit{are} others who believe that they have \textit{had} some success in distinguishing some emotions, or some emotions in certain experimental circumstances, by reference to physiological changes, and this \textit{might be seen} as some hope for future confirmation of the James version of the Cartesian theory. (Lyons, 1980, p. 15)
But MCI,
(Sit - V - S)

MCI, and MCI

DCl2 (NomContDecl)
(S there - V - Snotion - Postmod)

DCl3 (AdjRelR)
(S - V - O)

DCl4 (NomContDecl)

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

MCI, yet MCI

DCl2 (NomContDecl)
(S - V cop - Cs - Adv)

DCl3 (Adv cause)
(S - V - O)

DCl4 (NomContDecl)

Ly33. Cannon then went on to cite experiments, such as those of Sherrington (1900) which claimed that when the experimenter ‘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 were supposed to reside’, nevertheless ‘these 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 accepts a behaviourist position – and I shall argue in the next section that there are good reasons why one should not – will behaviour alone be sufficient evidence for the presence of an emotion, and so sufficient evidence that Sherrington’s dogs underwent emotions while not undergoing feelings. (Lyons, 1980, p. 16)

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

Ly36. Indeed, because, as we shall see, it difficult to establish anything very definite about emotions by his methods, he was content to state that ‘hard and fast definitions are not possible in the psychology of emotion, but formulations are possible and sometimes help us to group our facts’ (p. 195). (Lyons, 1980, p. 17)
Ly37. Thus an emotion differs from an instinctive reaction in that 'when the adjustments called out by the stimulus are internal and confined to the subject's body, we have emotion, for example, blushing; when the stimulus leads to adjustment of the organism as a whole to objects, we have instinct, for example, defence responses, grasping, etc.' (Watson, 1919, p. 197). (Lyons, 1980, p. 18)

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

Ly39. Watson himself realises that the evidence is wanting, and tries to explain this by suggesting that 'if this formulation is to fit the facts, the general condition of the organism must be such that the stimulus can produce its effect' (Watson, 1919, p. 195). (Lyons, 1980, p. 19)
Ly40. Watson, of course, realises that if he were to accept all putatively emotional
behaviour, which occurs with more or less equal frequency, at face value, the number
of the emotions would be in the millions, for probably no two emotional behaviour
reactions are the same. (Lyons, 1980, p. 19)

Ly41. In our own day B. F. Skinner is the best known exponent of 'behavioural science' or
'the experimental analysis of behaviour' (Skinner, 1974, p. 7) and, in his most
theoretical book on behaviourism, About Behaviourism, Skinner tells us that 'the
environment performs the functions previously assigned to feelings and
introspectively observed inner states of the organism' and 'what an organism does will
eventually be seen to be due to what it is, at the moment it behaves, and physiologist
will someday give us all the details' (Skinner, 1974, pp. 248-9). (Lyons, 1980, p. 21)
Ly42. The behaviour which defines an emotion, on Skinner’s view, is just that behaviour which is produced and found to bring about some desired change in the environment, and so tends to be reproduced whenever that environment reoccurs. (Lyons, 1980, p. 21)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{MCl}_2 \quad \text{and} \quad \text{MCl}_4 \\
(S - \text{Postmod} - V_{\text{cop}} - C_5 - \text{Postmod}) \quad (S - V - \text{Adv}) \\
\quad \text{DCl}_1 (\text{AdjRelR}) \quad \text{DCl}_3 (\text{AdjRelR}) \quad \text{DCl}_5 (\text{Adv}_{\text{temp}})
\end{align*}
\]

Ly43. For the desired result – that what is dead be brought back to life or what is irretrievably lost be found – is clearly impossible to achieve. (Lyons, 1980, p. 22)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{MCl}_3 \\
(S - \text{App} \quad \text{or} \quad \text{App} - V_{\text{cop}} - C_5) \\
\quad \text{DCl}_2 (\text{NomContDecl}) \quad \text{DCl}_4 (\text{NomContDecl}) \\
\quad (S - V - \text{Adv}) \quad (S - V) \\
\quad \text{DCl}_1 (\text{NomRel}) \quad \text{DCl}_3 (\text{NomRel})
\end{align*}
\]

Ly44. Only a behaviourist would be tempted to say that ‘hissing and biting, and lowering of the head, arching of the back and vigorous clawing’ is rage and all that rage ever is rather than reflex or residual rage behaviour, or behaviour similar to that exhibited during rage, and only a behaviourist would be adamant, on merely observing this behaviour, that it is definitely rage rather than, say, fear. (Lyons, 1980, p. 24)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{MCl}_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \text{MCl}_4 \\
(S - V - O) \quad (S - V_{\text{cop}} - C_5 - \text{O}_{\text{prep}} - \text{App}) \\
\quad \text{DCl}_2 (\text{NomContDecl}) \quad \text{DCl}_3 (\text{NomContDecl}) \quad \text{DCl}_5 (\text{NomContDecl})
\end{align*}
\]

Ly45. Indeed only someone who believes that observing behaviour is sufficient evidence for discovering emotions would be prepared to say quite definitely that here we have behaviour related to emotions rather than something else, such as spasm reaction after an electric shock or (where the hypothalamus is left intact) after a prodding of the hypothalamus. (Lyons, 1980, p. 24)
Indeed the tendency is for behaviourists to say that the decerebrate and decorticate animals exhibit rage because it is like ‘normal rage’ or ‘rage in the normal cat’, but this presupposes that one has already an independent criterion for deciding what is normal rage or rage in a normal cat. (Lyons, 1980, p. 24)

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

Harlow and Stagner pointed out that the behaviour said to be rage could as easily be interpreted as being fear (Harlow and Stagner, 1933) and Elizabeth Duffy pointed out that, even if it is considered to be ragelike behaviour, it differs significantly from normal animal rage in that it is undirected or else misdirected (Duffy, 1962, p. 12). (Lyons, 1980, p. 24)
Ly49. All that such experiments can be taken to show is that behaviour, reasonably similar to that shown when animals are afraid or enraged, can be stimulated in decorticate and, to a much lesser extent, in decerebrate animals and, as some of the experimenters went on to do, that the reactions and activities forming this behaviour seem to be controlled from the hypothalamus. (Lyons, 1980, p. 24)

Ly50. Nothing of a theoretical nature can be deduced except in regard to theories, though I doubt if anyone has ever held them, which deny that such activities and reactions can occur in decerebrate and decorticate animals, and deny that such activities are controlled by the hypothalamus. (Lyons, 1980, p. 24)

St1. Foreign aid, another aspect of the globalized world, for all its faults still has brought benefits to millions, often in ways that have almost gone unnoticed: guerrillas in the Philippines were provided jobs by a World Bank-financed project as they laid down their arms; irrigation projects have more than doubled the incomes of farmers lucky enough to get water; education projects have brought literacy to the rural areas; in a few countries AIDS projects have helped contain the spread of this deadly disease. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 5)

St2. It was not just that the more advanced industrial countries declined to open up their markets to the goods of the developing countries – for instance, keeping their quotas on a multitude of goods from textiles to sugar – while insisting that those countries open up their markets to the goods of the wealthier countries; it was not just that the more advanced industrial countries continued to subsidize agriculture, making it difficult for the developing countries to compete, while insisting that the developing countries eliminate their subsidies on industrial goods. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 7)
Looking at the “terms of trade” – the prices which developed and less developed countries get for the products they produce – after the last trade agreement in 1995 (the eighth), the net effect was to lower the prices some of the poorest countries in the world received relative to what they paid for their imports. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 7)

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

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

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

St8. The ILO, for example, worries that the IMF pays too little attention to workers’ rights, while the Asian Development Bank argues for “competitive pluralism,” whereby developing countries will be provided with alternative views of development strategies, including the “Asian model” – in which governments, while relying on markets, have taken an active role in creating, shaping, and guiding markets, including promoting new technologies, and in which firms take considerable responsibility for the social welfare of their employees – which the Asian Development Bank sees as distinctly different from the American model pushed by the Washington-based institutions. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 10)
The IMF had the answers (basically, the same ones for every country), didn’t see the need for all this discussion, and while the World Bank debated what should be done, saw itself as stepping into the vacuum to provide the answers. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 14)

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

Structural adjustment programs did not bring sustained growth even to those, like Bolivia, that adhered to its strictures; in many countries, excessive austerity stifled growth; successful economic programs require extreme care in sequencing – the order in which reforms occur – and pacing. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 18)
St12. Free market reforms in Latin America have had one or two successes – Chile is repeatedly cited – but much of the rest of the continent 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 have persistently high rates of unemployment – in Argentina, for instance, at double-digit levels since 1995 – even as inflation has been brought down. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 18)

MCI1 – App – MCI2, but MCI3, and MCI4

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{MCI}_1 & \text{ App } \text{ MCI}_2, \text{ but } \text{ MCI}_3, \text{ and } \text{ MCI}_4 \\
& (S - V - O - \text{Adv}) \\
& \text{ DCl}_5 (\text{Adv}_{\text{conc}})
\end{align*}
\]

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

MCI4 and (S – Postmod or Postmod – V)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{MCI}_4 & \text{ and } \text{ MCI}_5 \\
& (S - \text{Postmod} \text{ or Postmod} - V) \\
& \text{ DCl}_1 (\text{NomContDecl}) \text{ DCl}_3 (\text{NomContDecl}) \text{ DCl}_6 (\text{AdjRelR}) \\
& \text{ DCl}_2 (\text{AdjRelR})
\end{align*}
\]

St14. It has become increasingly clear not just to 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 has been practiced has not lived up to what its advocates promised it would accomplish – or to what it can and should do. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 20)

MCl1

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{MCl}_1 & \text{ MCI}_1 \\
& (S - V - \text{Cs} - O_1 - O) \\
& \text{ DCl}_3 (\text{NomContDecl}) \\
& \text{ DCl}_2 (\text{Adv}_{\text{manner}}) \text{ DCl}_4 (\text{NomRel}) \text{ DCl}_6 (\text{NomRel}) \text{ DCl}_5 (\text{NomContDecl})
\end{align*}
\]
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)

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

St17. While both have teams of economists flying into developing countries for three-week missions, the World Bank has worked hard to make sure that a substantial fraction of its staff live permanently in the country they are trying to assist; the IMF generally has only a single “resident representative,” whose powers are limited. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 23)
Modern economic management is similar: from one's luxury hotel, one can callously impose policies about which one would think twice if one knew the people whose lives one was destroying. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 24)

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

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

I had expected that not everyone in the international financial institutions or in the governments that supported them was committed to the goal of eliminating poverty; but I thought there would be an open debate about strategies – strategies which in so many areas seem to be failing, and especially failing the poor. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 25)
St22. A doctor by training, Meles had formally studied economics because he knew that to bring his country out of centuries of poverty would require nothing less than economic transformation, and he demonstrated a knowledge of economics – and indeed a creativity – that would have put him at the head of any of my university classes. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 26)

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

St24. It had dramatically cut back on military expenditures – remarkable for a government which had come to power through military means – because it knew that funds spent on weapons were funds that could not be spent on fighting poverty. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 28)
St25. Meles put the matter more forcefully: He told me that he had not fought so hard for seventeen years to be instructed by some international bureaucrat that he could not build schools and clinics for his people once he had succeeded in convincing donors to pay for them. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 29)

St26. But for the kinds of assistance that constitute so much of what a poor country like Ethiopia receives, there is a built-in flexibility; if the country does not receive money to build an additional school, it simply does not build the school. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 29)
St27. Ethiopia’s government officials understood what was at issue, they understood the concern about what might happen if either tax revenues or foreign assistance should fall, and they had designed policies to deal with these contingencies. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 29)

MCl₁, MCl₃, and MCl₆
(S – V – O) (S – V – O_prep – Adv)
        DCl₂ (NomContDecl) DCl₄ (NomRel) DCl₅ (Adv_cond)

St28. One might have understood if Ethiopia’s action threatened its ability to repay what was owed the IMF; but quite the contrary, because it was a sensible financial decision, it enhanced the country’s ability to repay what was due. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 30)

MCl₁; but MCl₁₅
        DCl₂ (Adv_cond) DCl₄ (Adv_cause)
(S – V – O – Postmod – O)
        DCl₃ (NomRel) DCl₆ (NomRel)

St29. Those farmers who had previously managed to obtain credit would find themselves unable to buy seed or fertilizer because they would be unable to get cheap credit or would be forced to pay higher interest rates which they could ill afford. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 32)

MCl₂
(S – Postmod – V_cop – O – C_O – Adv)
        DCl₁ (AdjRelR) DCl₃ (Adv_cause) or DCl₄ (Adv_cause)
(S – V – O – Postmod)
        DCl₅ (AdjRelNR)

St30. Even matters like the repayment of the loan – though properly not something on which the IMF should have taken a position at all, so long as Ethiopia’s action enhanced rather than subtracted from its ability to repay what was owed – could have been referred to outsiders, to see whether the action was “reasonable.” (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 33)
It might be of some interest to psychologists why there was this sudden change in the desire for leisure, or why those who were supposed to be enjoying this leisure seemed so unhappy, but according to the standard model these questions go beyond the scope of economics. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 35)

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

While the IMF is vilified almost everywhere in the developing world, the warm relationship that was created between Botswana and its advisers was symbolized by the awarding of that country’s highest medal to Steve Lewis, who at the time he advised Botswana was a professor of development economics at Williams. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 37)
St34. Even implied criticism by Korea of the IMF program could have a disastrous effect: to the IMF, it would suggest that the government didn’t fully understand “IMF economics,” that it had reservations, making it less likely that it would actually carry out the program. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 42)

St35. I personally believe that conditionality, at least in the manner and extent to which it has been used by the IMF, is a bad idea; there is little evidence that it leads to improved economic policy, but it does have adverse political effects because countries resent having conditions imposed on them. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 44)

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

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

Studies at the World Bank and elsewhere showed not just that conditionality did not ensure that money was well spent and that countries would grow faster but that there was little evidence it worked at all. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 46)
St40. Even if conditions are imposed which ensure that this particular loan is used well, the loan frees up resources elsewhere, which may or may not be used well. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 46)

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

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)

St43. The United States could do so with impunity because it was not dependent on the IMF or other donors for assistance, and we knew that the market would pay almost as little attention to it as we did. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 49)
At the World Bank, during the time I was there, there was an increasing conviction that participation mattered, that policies and programs could not be imposed on countries but to be successful had to be "owned" by them, that consensus building was essential, that policies and development strategies had to be adapted to the situation in the country, that there should be a 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)

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

The rigid timetables that the IMF imposed grew partly from a multitude of experiences in which governments promised to make certain reforms, but once they had the money, the reforms were not forthcoming; sometimes, the rigid timetables helped force the pace of change. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 52)
St47. The assumption underlying this failure is one that I saw made repeatedly; the IMF simply assumed that markets arise quickly to meet every need, when in fact, many government activities arise because markets have failed to provide essential services. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 55)

St48. The moral is a simple one, and one to which I shall return repeatedly: Privatization needs to be part of a more comprehensive program, which entails creating jobs in tandem with the inevitable job destruction that privatization often entails. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 57)

St49. The rhetoric of market fundamentalism asserts that privatisation will reduce what economists call the “rent-seeking” activity of government officials who either skim off the profits of government enterprises or award contracts and jobs to their friends. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 58)
MCl₁
(S – V – O)

  DCl₂ (NomContDecl)
(S – V – O)

  DCl₃ (NomRel)
(S – V – O – Postmod)

  DCl₄ (AdjRelR) or DCl₅ (AdjRelR)

1. Privatization advocates naively persuaded themselves these costs could be overlooked

2. because the textbooks seemed to say that once private property rights were clearly defined,

3. the new owners would ensure that the assets would be efficiently managed. (Stiglitz, 2003, p. 58)
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)

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

CD12. The stylistician, ideally, knows three things which linguistically untrained people do not: he is aware of the kind of structure language has, and thus the kind of feature which might be expected to be of stylistic significance; he is aware of the kind of social variation which linguistic features tend to be identified with; and he has 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)
The student is expected, after reading largely discursive articles on the subject, to work out an analytic procedure for himself; but different authors hint at such different procedures (never working one out in detail), have such different theoretical standpoints, and spend so much of their time arguing points of theory and not working through sample texts in a systematic way, that it becomes in fact impossible for the student to launch out on his own. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 13)

CD14. The central requirement of any linguistically orientated approach to the clarification of stylistic effect is that it should provide a single, clear technique of description which will allow the student to cope with any piece of language he wants to study - one procedure which, if carefully followed, will focus the attention on all that is interesting in a piece of language and ensure that no item of potential significance is overlooked. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 13)
CD15. At each level, we are studying one aspect of the way in which language is organized: we shall be distinguishing phonetic/graphitic, phonological/graphological, grammatical, lexical, and semantic levels, and we shall explain what we mean by these terms below. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 15)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{MCl}_1: & \quad \text{MCl}_3, \quad \text{MCl}_4 \\
(S - V - O - \text{Postmod}) & \quad (S - V - O) \\
\text{DCI}_2 (\text{AdjRelR}) & \quad \text{DCI}_3 (\text{NomRel}) \\
\text{DCI}_4 (\text{NomContInterrog}) &
\end{align*}
\]

CD16. The levels are studied as independently as possible to begin with, using whatever techniques have been developed in linguistics elsewhere; whatever cross-reference between levels is essential, we make; and we conclude 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)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{MCl}_1: & \quad \text{MCl}_4; \quad \text{MCl}_5 \\
(S - V - \text{Adv} - \text{Adv}) & \quad (O_{\text{prep}} - S - V) \\
(V_{\text{ing-form}} - O) & \quad \text{DCI}_3 (\text{NomRel}) \\
\text{DCI}_2 (\text{NomRel}) &
\end{align*}
\]

CD17. In this book, we shall in fact be following an order which moves from sounds, through grammar and vocabulary to semantics, but only for procedural and pedagogical reasons: it seems easier to introduce students to practical stylistic analysis if they begin with the comparatively simple matters of phonetics and phonology, which involve 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)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{MCl}_1: & \quad \text{MCl}_3, \quad \text{MCl}_4; \quad \text{MCl}_5 \\
(S - V - O - \text{Postmod}) & \quad (S - V - O - \text{Adv}) \\
\text{DCI}_2 (\text{AdjRelR}) & \quad \text{DCI}_4 (\text{AdvCond}) \quad \text{DCI}_5 (\text{AdjRelNR}) \\
(S - V - O_{\text{prep}} - \text{Postmod}) &
\end{align*}
\]
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)

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

CD20. It seems useful to distinguish such issues from those covered by vocabulary, in that the nature of the ‘meaning’ being expressed at the semantic level is very different: vocabulary contrasts are relatively discrete, finite, and localized; semantic contrasts tend to be less systematic and definable, and are all-inclusive. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 19)
CD21. But while it is the case that we are approaching the study of the language of a text using a model wherein the levels are kept apart, it must not be thought that this precludes cross-referencing between the levels, or forces us to ignore significant inter-level linguistic relationships. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 20)

But

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{MC}_4 & \quad (\text{Adv} - \text{Sit} - \text{V} - \text{O}) \\
| & \\
\text{DC}_1 (\text{Adv}_{\text{conc}}) & \text{DC}_5 (\text{NomContDecl}) \quad \text{or} \quad \text{DC}_6 (\text{NomContDecl}) \\
\text{Sit} - \text{V}_{\text{cop}} - \text{C}_S - \text{Postmod} & \\
| & \\
\text{DC}_2 (\text{NomContDecl}) & \\
\text{S} - \text{V} - \text{O} - \text{Adv} - \text{Postmod} & \\
| & \\
\text{DC}_3 (\text{AdjRelNR}) & 
\end{align*}
\]

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)

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{MC}_5, \\
\text{S} - \text{Postmod} - \text{V} - \text{Adv} (\text{DC}_3 (\text{AdjRelNR})) - \text{Adv} - (\text{DC}_4 (\text{AdjRelINR}) - \text{Adv} - (\text{DC}_6 (\text{AdjRelNR}))) \\
\text{DC}_1 (\text{AdjRelR}) & \quad \text{DC}_5 (\text{Adv}_{\text{temp}})
\end{align*}
\]

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

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

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

CD26. We have yet to establish the details of any such process of scaling the importance of stylistic features, but two basic principles are already clear: the more important stylistic feature in a text will be a) that which occurs more frequently within the variety in question, and b) that which is shared less by other varieties. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 21)
CD27. There are established techniques for discussing certain contrasts at the phonological and grammatical levels, and for talking about phonetic features; but there is no agreed terminology for the discussion of graphetic and graphological contrasts; the theory of non-segmental phonological contrasts used here is of recent devising; many parts of the grammar of English have not been studied in depth and there are many incompatible theories from which a choice has to be made; the linguistic study of vocabulary has not progressed very far; and semantics in our sense is still only studied as part of traditional literary criticism. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 23)

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

CD29. If one feature were to be substituted for any other, there would be a change in the meaning of the utterance which any native speaker of the language would be able to perceive, whether he had been trained in linguistics or not – though this does not mean he would be able to explain the basis of his perception. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 24)
For example, it is more important to know whether an utterance ends in a falling or a rising tone than whether the beginning point of the fall is high or low: the first contrast might carry a critical distinction between a statement or a question, whereas the second simply distinguishes between, say, two kinds of statement. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 25)

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

Following phonetic criteria in this instance would compel us to transcribe the word as TENdency, and this, it seems to us, is undesirable in that it suggests to the reader another lexical item – ten – and distracts attention from the word he should be seeing. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 26)
We feel that in the present state of knowledge, with many crucial grammatical questions inexplicit or unanswered, it is wise to adopt a slightly conservative position, and we have thus decided on a model which sees grammar in terms of a series of interrelated components, each of which deals with a particular aspect of grammatical, e.g. the sentence, the clause, the word. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 40)

We wish to make use of such a framework without involving ourselves too much in theoretical discussion: we are not concerned to establish the precise nature of the relationship between the components (e.g. we do not feel it necessary to decide whether the components exist in a hierarchical relationship of any particular type), nor do we insist that there is one theoretically most satisfactory method of working through the components in carrying out any analysis. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 41)

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)
For example, we feel sure that there is 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 has been done on such matters, and that we are not clear as to what the general state of affairs is in English, all we can do is make tentative observations about some of the patterns which strike us as obvious.

(Christopher and Davy, 1973, p. 41)

It is doubtful, however, whether this approach is useful: it is highly uneconomical, in that much of the information which has to be generated separately for each variety is the same (common-core); it makes comparative study difficult; and it poses great theoretical problems, such as how to deal with differences in the ordering of rules between varieties. (Christopher and Davy, 1973, p. 42)
CD38. Such an approach means that in order to obtain a complete description of any one variety a description has to be pieced together by working through the grammar in some predetermined way, and noting points about a variety as they arise; but this is no objection to the approach, as it would 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)

\[ MCl_1; \text{ but } MCl_2 \quad (S - V - O - and O - Adv) \quad MCl_4 \quad (S - V - C_S - Adv) \quad DCl_2 (NomContDecl) \quad DCl_3 (Adv_{temp}) \quad DCl_5 (Adv_{cause}) \]

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

\[ \text{MCl}_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \text{MCl}_4 \quad (S_{it} - V_cop - C_S - S_{extraposed}) \quad (S - V - Adv - Postmod) \quad DCl_2 (NomContDecl) \quad DCl_3 (AdjRelR) \quad (S_{there} - V_{exist} - S_{notional} - O_{prep} - Postmod) \quad DCl_5 (AdjRelR) \]

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

\[ \text{MCl}_2, \text{ but } \text{MCl}_3; \text{ MCl}_4; \text{ and } \text{MCl}_6 \quad (S - Posmtod - V) \quad \text{DCl}_1 (AdjRelR) \quad \text{DCl}_6 (AdjRelR) \]

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This is the case, for example, when two main clauses, the first concluding with a falling tone, are separated by *and*, but without a pause; or when there are complex sequences of major and minor sentences (see below, p 110), so that a structure could be interpreted as either a separate sentence or perhaps an adverbial element of clause structure only; or when there is a sequence of clauses ending in rising tones, each clause being an item in a list. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 45)

Some features may provide information about the speaker’s regional background, or his place on a social scale of some kind, for example; other features may reveal aspects of the social situation in which he is speaking, the kind of person to whom he is speaking, the capacity in which he is speaking, and so on; and further features (often the majority in an utterance) will tell us nothing about a situation at all – apart, that is, from the fact that the speaker is using English, as opposed to some other language. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 60)

The criticism of incompleteness is readily illustrated by the fact that at least one central theoretical variable (*modality* in our sense, see p 74 ff) has been ignored, and that there are many aspects of the way in which English is used which no one has tried to account for, and which cannot be handled adequately by such categories as *register, tenor, field, mode,* and so on in any of their current sense. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 61)
CD44. Situations in which positively only one set of stylistic features is permitted, with no variation allowed (or, to put it another way, where it is possible to state confidently that ‘the following features will never occur here…’), are far outnumbered by those situations where alternative 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 is plotted, and the notion of situation is broken down into dimensions of situational constraint (which we have so far been referring to rather loosely as ‘situational variables’); and the role every feature plays is described in terms of one or more of these dimensions. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 64)
CD46. For example, feature A may be seen to correlate with the geographical area the speaker came from, and is referred to as a feature of the dimension of regional variation, or regional dialect; feature B is seen to be a result of the kind of social relationship existing between the participants in a conversation, and is referred to as a feature of a different dimension (in this case the dimension we shall refer to below as status); and so on. (Crystal and Davy, 1973, p. 64)

\[ \text{MCl}_1, \quad \text{MCl}_3, \quad \text{MCl}_4, \quad \text{MCl}_5 \text{ (App MCl}_6) \]
\[ \text{(S - V - O}_{\text{prep}} - \text{Postmod)} \]
\[ \text{DCI}_2 \text{ (AdjRelR)} \]

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

\[ \text{MCl}_1, \text{ nor MCl}_2, \]
\[ \text{(S}_\text{it} - \text{V}_{\text{cop}} - \text{S)} \]
\[ \text{DCI}_3 \text{ (NomContDecl), DCI}_4 \text{ (NomContDecl) or DCI}_5 \text{ (NomContDecl)} \]

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

\[ \text{MCl}_1; \quad \text{MCl}_4 \text{ - App MCl}_5 \]
\[ \text{(S - V}_{\text{cop}} - \text{C}_S) \]
\[ \text{(V}_{\text{inf}} - \text{O)} \]
\[ \text{DCI}_3 \text{ (Advtemp)} \]
\[ \text{DCI}_2 \text{ (NomContDecl)} \]

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

MCI1: MCI2
\[ (V_{imp} - O - Postmod - O_{prep} - Postmod - \text{(Adv)}) \]
\[ \begin{array}{c}
\text{DCl}_3 (\text{AdjRelR}) \\
\text{DCl}_4 (\text{AdjRelR}) \\
\text{DCl}_5 (\text{Adv}_{\text{cond}})
\end{array} \]

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

MCI3
\[ (\text{Adv} - S_{it} - V_{\text{cop}} - C_{S} - S) \]
\[ \begin{array}{c}
\text{DCl}_1 (\text{Adv}_{\text{cond}}) \\
\text{DCl}_4 (\text{NomContDecl}) \\
(S - V - O - Postmod) \hspace{2cm} (S - V - O - \text{Adv}) \\
\text{DCl}_2 (\text{AdjRelR}) \hspace{2cm} \text{DCl}_5 (\text{Adv}_{\text{temp}})
\end{array} \]
ED1. In fact, the aristocratic or ‘Society’ type of pastimes, which dominated the meaning of the term ‘sport’ in England itself in the first half of the nineteenth century, spread to other countries and was adopted there by corresponding social elites before the more popular types such as football developed the characteristics of a ‘sport’, were perceived as such in England itself and spread in that form to other countries, as a pastime of middle- and working-class groups. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 127)

ED2. It is as significant for our understanding of the development of European societies as it is for that of sport itself that the first types of English sports which were taken up by other countries 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 began only in the second part of the nineteenth century. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 127)

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)
ED4. If one uses the term ‘industry’ in this wider sense, one 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 is something rather new and that the specific types of production and work which have developed in recent times under the name ‘industry’ have certain unique structures that can be determined sociologically with considerable precision and clearly distinguished from other types of production. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 129)

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

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

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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)
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)

ED10. In this way, theory and empirical data together remove one of the main obstacles to the understanding of developmental differences such as those which exist between ancient and contemporary game-contests, namely the feeling that one casts a slur on another society and lowers its human value by admitting that the level of physical violence tolerated there even in 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 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 seems to attribute to the ancient Greeks if one speaks of their lower level of revulsion against physical violence, if one seems to suggest that they were, compared with ourselves, 'uncivilized' and 'barbarous'. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 133)

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

ED13. It was glorious to vanquish enemies or opponents but it was hardly less glorious to be vanquished, as Hector was by Achilles, provided one fought with all one's might until one was maimed, wounded or killed and could fight no longer. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 138)
ED14. The quotation represents an almost paradigmatic example of the misunderstanding that 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 have reached, especially the stage they have reached in the social organization and control of physical violence: 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)

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

ED16. Because ‘body image’ or physical appearance ranks relatively low, much lower, for example, than ‘intelligence’ or ‘moral character’, in the value-scale which, in societies such as ours, determines the ranking of men and the whole image we form of them, we often lack the key to the understanding of other societies in which physical appearance played a much greater part as a determinant of the public image of a man. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 141)
One can perhaps convey the difference by pointing to the fact that in our society physical appearance as a determinant of the social image of an individual still plays a very high and perhaps a growing part as far as women are concerned but with regard to men, although television may have some impact on the problem, physical appearance and particularly bodily strength and beauty do not play a very great part in the public esteem of a person. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 141)

Moreover, if one evaluates a more civilized form of conduct and feeling as ‘better’ than less civilized forms, if one considers that mankind has made progress by arriving at one’s own standards of revulsion and repugnance against forms of violence which were common in former days, one is confronted by the problem of why an unplanned development has resulted in something which one evaluates as progress. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 144)
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, guides an individual’s conduct, which demands obedience and punishes disobedience with ‘pangs’ or ‘bites’ of guilt-feelings, and which, unlike ‘fear of the gods’ or ‘shame’, 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 is absent from the intellectual equipment of ancient Greece. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 147)

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

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)
ED22. In short, one is often given the impression that norms or rules, like Plato’s ideas, have an existence of their own, that they exist, as it were, somehow by themselves and constitute, therefore, the point of departure for reflections on the way in which living persons form themselves into societies. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 153)

ED23. If one enquires into the way in which rules or norms develop, one is better able to see that the Durkheimian approach, which explains the cohesion, the interdependence and the integration of human beings and groups in terms of the rules or norms which they follow, still has a strong nominalistic ring about it. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 153)
ED24. One can see more clearly, too, the illusionary character of any conception of society which makes it appear that norms or rules have a power of their own, as if they were something outside and apart from the groups of people, and could serve as such as an explanation for the way in which people group themselves as societies. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 154)

ED25. On the other hand, the preliminary knowledge that what one is looking for if one studies the history of a sport 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 has been provisionally celled here the ‘mature stage’ and whose nature has yet to be determined. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 156)

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

ED28. There was the story of the French chasseur who witnessed a fox-hunt in England and expressed both surprise and derision when he observed some young hounds being whipped off the scent of a hare which they were just about to catch; or the story of another French gentleman who heard 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)
ED29. If, in his own society, conscience and the corresponding sensitivities had grown into a form which made it distasteful for them to kill the fox with their own hands, today sections of the population have grown more powerful and vocal whose sensitivities and identification with the hunted animal are so strong that the hunting and killing of foxes for the sake of human pleasure alone is, to them, altogether distasteful. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 164)

ED30. The innumerable people who anonymously contributed to the development of sports may not have been aware of the problem with which they wrestled in the general form in which it presents itself now in retrospect to the reflecting sociologist, but some of them were well aware of it as a specific problem which they 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 – shows some of the ways in which people still managed to derive pleasure from a pursuit that involved physical violence and killing at a stage in which, in society at large, even wealthy and powerful people, had become increasingly restricted in their ability to use force without the licence of the law and in which their won conscience had become more sensitive with regard to the use of brute force and the spilling of blood. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 165)
ED32. To shoot foxes was strictly forbidden; in the circles where this form of hunting originated, in the aristocracy and gentry, it was regarded as an unforgivable solecism, and the tenant farmers had, willy-nilly, to follow the rules of their betters even though foxes were stealing their chickens or their geese. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 166)

ED33. During the eighteenth century it became a more highly specialized term: it transformed itself into a *terminus technicus* for a specific type of pastimes which developed at that time among landed gentlemen and aristocrats and of which the highly idiosyncratic form of fox-hunting which developed in those circles was one of the most prominent. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 167)

ED34. Viewed from yet another angle, it is a trend in which, in countries all over the world, sport is being transformed from a marginal, lowly valued institution into one that is central and much more highly valued, an institution which, for many people, seems to have religious or quasi-religious significance in the sense that it has become one of the central, if not *the* central, sources of identification, meaning and gratification in their lives. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 169)
ED35. This means, positively, that I shall seek an explanation in terms of the immanent structure and dynamics of social relationships per se, and, negatively, that I shall eschew three kinds of sociological explanations that are common, namely: (1) explanations in terms of psychological or ‘action’ principles that ignore the patterns of interdependence within which human beings live; (2) explanations in terms of ideas and beliefs that are conceptually 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 social forces – for example ‘economic’ forces – that are reified and considered as existing independently of the interdependent human beings who generate them. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 170)

ED36. However, the immediate figuration formed by those who participate directly in and are present at a game forms part of a wider figuration that consists, on one level, of the club organizations that pick the teams and are responsible for such matters as the provision and maintenance of playing facilities and, on another, of the legislative and administrative bodies that formulate the rules, certify and appoint the controlling officials, and organize the overall competitive framework. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 171)
It is, we hypothesized, the tension-balance between interdependent polarities such as these which determines the ‘tone’ of a game, that is whether it is experienced as exciting or dull, or whether it remains a ‘mock-fight’ or breaks out into fighting in earnest. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 172)

ED38. It remains, I think, a fruitful one, yet, in retrospect, it strikes me that it depended partly on assumptions that derive from an amateur conception of sport, from what Elias would regard as a specific ‘heteronomous evaluation’. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 172)
ED39. Thus, in a passage where we contrasted sport groups with industrial, administrative and other associations concerned with what are generally regarded as the ‘serious’ sides of life, we wrote that the ‘purpose’ of sport groups, ‘if they have a purpose, is to give people pleasure’ and we went 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 participate seriously in a game, the tension-level will be raised and, beyond a certain point, the incidence of hostile rivalry both within and between teams is likely to be increased; that is the game is 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 become seriously identified with the teams they support, they are less liable to contemplate defeat with equanimity and may act in ways that are intended to affect the outcome of the contest. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 173)
ED42. In his own way, each of these authors argues that the balance between these polarities has been upset in modern sport, and a critical review of what they wrote will, I hope, provide a basis for demonstrating the superiority of Elias’figurational approach as a means for obtaining an ‘object-adequate’ analysis of what constitutes a central trend in modern sport, that is an analysis that accounts for and explains this trend simply as such, without ideological embroidering or distortion. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 173)

ED43. At first glance, the fact that the nineteenth century witnessed the large-scale growth of sports would seem to contradict his thesis but Huizinga contends that it tends to confirm it since, in modern sports as he puts it, ‘the old play factor has undergone almost complete atrophy.’ (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 174)

ED44. This issue is tackled more satisfactorily by Stone, who modifies Huizinga’s arguments, suggesting that modern sports are subject to a twofold dynamic that results, partly from the manner in which they are caught up in the ‘contests, tensions, ambivalences and anomalies’ of the wider society, and partly because of certain features inherent in their structure. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 174)
ED45. It is, for example, difficult to believe that sports could have managed to sustain their popularity, indeed, to increase it as, in fact, they have done in countries all over the world, if the play-factor in them had atrophied to the extent that Huizinga asserts, or if, as Rigauer contends, they had become as alienating and repressive as work, or again if, as Stone would have it, the balance between play and display had been so seriously upset. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 176)

ED46. It is, of course, likely that earlier examples could be found, but this mobilization of amateur values, with their stress on pleasure as the essential ingredient of sport, came at an early stage in the development of the modern forms of sport, above all at a time when professional sport as we know it today hardly existed. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 179)
ED47. However, if I am right, the social situation in which they found themselves was increasingly inconducive to the full-scale, unbridled realization of self-directed, pleasure-oriented forms of sport and that, in articulating and mobilizing the amateur ethos in response to the growing threat from below, they were trying to maintain forms of sports participation which they regarded as their right as members of a ruling class and which had, in fact, been possible for ruling and even subordinate groups in the pre-industrial era but which were increasingly impossible for them. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 180)

ED48. Further support — although there were symptomatic exceptions such as ‘the Corinthians’s soccer team — comes from the fact that, in an increasing number of sports, the public school elite withdrew into their own exclusive circles, revealing by their fear of being beaten by professionals that they played in order to obtain the kudos of being recognized as successful sportsmen as much as they did for fun. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 180)
Of course, this separatist trend was probably, in part, occasioned by the fact that contests between professional and amateur would frequently have been unbalanced and lacking in tone owing to the skill discrepancy that usually exists between full-time players who are following their occupation and part-time players who 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 could participate in sport for fun; that is, their social situation – the power and relative autonomy they enjoyed – meant that they could develop self-directed or egocentric forms of sports participation and that, although they were not constrained to develop the amateur ethos as an explicit ideology, they came close to being amateurs in the ‘ideal typical’ sense of that term. (Elias and Dunning, 1986, p. 182)