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Poldauf's Conception of The third syntactical plan from the point of view of Corpus Linguistics

DIPLOMOVÁ PRÁCE

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„Prohlašuji, že jsem tuto diplomovou práci vypracovala samostatně a uvedla úplný seznam citované a použité literatury."

V Hradci Králové dne 20. srpna 2012   ....

ABBREVIATIONS

[BNC]   Examples from the British National Corpus

[IC]   Examples from the InterCorp

[NS]   My translations …

[IP]   translations provided by Poldauf (1951, 1964)

[LD]   Dušková's translations provided in *Mluvnice současné angličtiny na pozadí češtiny*

[SM]   Sentence modifier

Contents

I.   Introduction

The aim of my diploma thesis is to deal with Poldauf's Third syntactical plan. It is a syntactical conception which was written in the year 1964. Poldauf based his study on comparison of the two different languages Czech and English. At that time he worked with manually gathered data, therefore, I would like to verify to what extent is his study valid nowadays via using two linguistic corpora: the British National Corpus and the InterCorp.

I chose this topic because it was offered to me by our Department of English and American Studies which is currently working on the project "Lingvista Ivan Poldauf, zakladatel olomoucké anglistiky (Linguist Ivan Poldauf, the Founder of Department of English and American Studies in Olomouc [NS][1])." The aim of this project is to provide a comprehensive picture of life and works of the university professor and linguist Ivan Poldauf and to gather his studies and contributions which he published at home as well as abroad.[2] Therefore this work might be a small contribution to this project.

Poldauf's theoretical conception describes components of a sentence which are able to express speaker's attitude to what he or she says. We are talking about components, but not sentence elements, because The third syntactical plan describes elements which are on the periphery of the sentence structure.

It was a pioneering achievement in its time, but it did not gain international acclaim. One of the reasons might be that the author came from Czechoslovakia and linguists coming from the East had restricted possibilities of publishing their studies in English. Therefore the works of American or British linguists were in the foreground of English written studies. The other reason might be that in the same year Daneš's "A three-level approach to syntax" was issued which might have confused the readers, as it contains designation of "three levels" in its name. Thus his conception remained in the Czech context of English studies. However, a lot of Czech linguists base their works on Poldauf's theoretical conceptions.

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[1]   My working translation
[2]   https://www.moodle.anglistika.upol.cz/course/view.php?id=247

Hence this thesis will try to explore Poldauf's theoretical study and assess its benefits to the interpretation of the phenomena today. It will compare Poldauf's conception with the later and recent studies and will try to find out the validity of the plan via testing the BNC and InterCorp corpus data.

One important thing to mention is that Poldauf works with a plan that contains more phenomena and therefore it is difficult to find similar conception. The later studies elaborate rather particular phenomena, so I will also have to divide Poldauf's conception into several parts, so that I can easier compare them.

The work is divided into five parts: Introduction, Theoretical part, Application, English-Czech interface and Conclusions.

The theoretical part is divided into four parts. The first three parts deal with the three main points mentioned in Poldauf's Third syntactical plan – 1) inserted clauses of the *I suppose* type, 2) expressions of the *unfortunately* type and 3) unattached dative. The Poldauf's view is always introduced at the beginning of the chapter and then the later and recent studies follow. I tried to use grammar books which were the representative for each decade following the issue of The third syntactical plan to outline the development of terminology. Poldauf's study was written in 1964, so I gathered 5 grammar books for each decade after that until now. I worked with Leech and Svartvik's *A Communicative Grammar of English* (1983[1975]), Quirk et al.'s *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* (1985), Dušková et al.'s *Mluvnice současné angličtiny na pozadí češtiny* (2003 [1988]), Biber et al.'s *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* (1999) and Pullum and Huddleston's *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* (2002). It was not an easy task to combine these grammar books together, as the first three are traditional grammar books working with manually gathered data and the last two grammar books are corpus-based. Moreover, the terminology varies a lot, too, and there is usually not one view which would be shared by all the grammar books. The fourth part compares written and spoken language, as it is also a very important criterion for occurrence of the phenomena mentioned above.

The application part is divided into three parts. The first part is an introduction to this part, the second describes the methodology and the third assesses the data gathered from the BNC and InterCorp corpora. The main task is to find out whether The third syntactical plan is nowadays still valid and applicable.

The part called English-Czech interface will follow the application part and will discuss the correspondences and differences between the particular phenomena in English and Czech language.

Conclusions will summarize the gained findings and will outline the further prospective research.

II. Theoretical Part – State of the Art

1. Introduction to Theoretical Part

This thesis will deal with Poldauf's third syntactical plan and will focus on its three main parts: the inserted clauses of the *I suppose* type, evaluative expressions of the *unfortunately* type and unattached dative.

The theoretical part of the work will explore the development of the status of the phenomena mentioned above and will try to choose the most appropriate terms for that. It will also attempt to compare the occurrence of these phenomena in Czech.

In the practical part, I will try to verify the validity of The third syntactical plan via using the BNC corpus. The main focus will be put on the inserted clauses of the type *I suppose.* I will carry out mainly qualitative analysis and I will explore the surroundings of these clauses in a sentence. But I will also be interested in the frequency of certain types, so the quantitative analysis will have to be carried out, too.

Generally, I expect the spoken language to contain much more occurrences of the phenomena mentioned above, as it is usually the spoken language, which tries to express one's attitude.

My second goal of the practical part is to find out what means Czech uses to translate the phrase *I find*. The parallel corpus InterCorp will be used for this purpose. I expect that the most frequent translation will be via using unattached dative in Czech.

1. Inserted Clauses of the *I suppose* type[3]

As it was mentioned above, the inserted clauses of the *I suppose* type are part of the Poldauf's Third syntactical plan. He does not provide a name for this type of clauses, but I will call them "I-statements functioning as comment clauses (see 2.6)" as they usually comment on the proposition uttered, and thus express attitude to what is being communicated. Later in his conception, he denotes this type of clauses as

"signals […] which may be introductory, epenthetic or, rarely, inserted and marked off by pauses in the middle of a sentence. They are innumerable: *I believe, suppose, think, expect, hope, guess, dare say, doubt, don't doubt, have not a doubt, am afraid = fear, am sure, (it) may be, it is certain, fancy, imagine* etc. With these expressions the idea proper is […] expressed in the subordinate element, while the governing expression introduces into the sentences the person presenting his evaluation." (Poldauf 1964: 251)

This type of clauses, which Poldauf includes in his third plan, is on the periphery of a sentence complex. Generally, the clause containing I-statement with commenting function stands at the beginning of a sentence complex and forms the main clause or matrix clause[4] of a complex sentence. The other clauses in a complex sentence are subordinate clauses in relation to the matrix clause. Quirk et al. (1998) provide a definition of the matrix clause: "The matrix clause is the superordinate clause minus its subordinate clause. (283)" They give the following example where *I'll lend you some money* is the matrix clause:

(1)   *I'll lend you some money* if you don't have any money on you.

Some grammarians use the term *embedded clause* to denote the subordinate clause which is the constituent of or part of the matrix clause. *Fig. 1: The clause hierarchy* clearly shows embedding of the subordinate clause into the matrix clause.

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[3] Poldauf uses I suppose clause as an umbrella term for clauses of the similar type. However, nowadays I suppose clause is not so frequent (see *Fig. 9: Frequency of I-Statements in the BNC* in **3.1 I-statements**). The data show that I suppose is at the fourth place in frequency of occurrences in the British National Corpus. I think, I know and I mean clauses are more frequent. Therefore I will use I-statements as an umbrella term for the clauses of this type, as nowadays I suppose would not characterize this type of clauses.

[4] as some of grammarians tend to use in the same sense (e.g. Quirk et al. 1985)

Fig. 1: **The clause hierarchy**
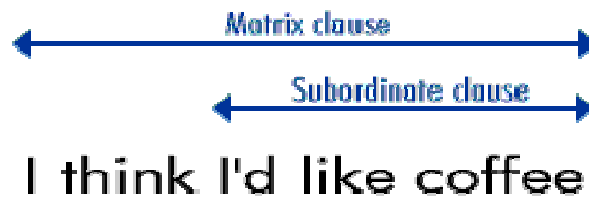
According to Endley (2010)

> [t]he matrix clause determines the central situation of the construction [and] it casts its syntactic and semantic 'shadow,' […], over the situation described by the clause that follows. So the situation described in the embedded clause is contained by, and functions as an element of, the situation described by the matrix clause. (366)

However, as it is obvious from the type of verbs given by Poldauf, the I-statements with this commenting functioning do not bear high information quality. The main information is contained within the proposition, i.e. the subordinate clause. Tárnyiková (2007) describes this situation as Reverse hierarchy of formal and notional representation. In her words,

> reverse hierarchy of formal and notional representation is based on the following discrepancy: what is hierarchically higher at the level of formal representation can be hierarchically lower at the level of semantic representation, and vice versa. (Tárnyiková 2007: 32)

Thus in her example *I think (that) you are right.*, *I think* is formally the matrix clause, although semantically it is not very important. It only introduces the proposition *you are right* and expresses the attitude towards the proposition. Y*ou are right* is subordinate dependent clause and expresses main information. It means it is semantically at a higher level than *I think*.

2.1 Leech and Svartvik's view (1983[1975])

In *A Communicative Grammar of English* (1983[1975]) Leech and Svartvik label the I-statements with commenting function as "comment clauses". They describe the comment clauses as having almost no informational value for a sentence, but rather as being useful for commenting on the truth of a sentence, the way of uttering it and the attitude of the speaker (Leech and Svartvik 1983: 216[1975]). Their comment clauses are "loosely related to the rest of the main clause they belong to" and they further specify their function as a sentence adverbial (1983: 216[1975]). Similarly to Poldauf, they speak about various positions of comment clauses in a sentence. Comment clauses can appear in front-, mid- and end positions in the clause, "but the end-position is mainly restricted to <informal speech> (1983: 217[1975])." Poldauf does not mention the final position directly, but he speaks about the occurrence of tags, which usually signal negation in colloquial English (1964: 254). To demonstrate Leech and Svartvik's theory several examples will be mentioned (1983: 217[1975]):

(1)   *Stated bluntly*, he has no chance of recovery.
(2)   At that time, *I believe*, Bill worked as a mechanic.
(3)   I'm not sure to what to do *to be honest*

They provide other examples of comment clauses both finite and non-finite which are used mainly in informal use (1983: 217[1975]), with some of them identified later (Schiffrin 1990 [1986]) as discourse markers (cf. y' know):

you know, I know, I think, I'm afraid, as I said, so to say, put frankly, you bet, I see, I suppose, as you see, to be frank, so to speak.

It can be seen that some of the clauses included among Leech and Svartvik's examples of comment clauses contain introductory words, some of them are formed by pronoun *you* and finite verb (you-statement), but my focus will be put finite comment clauses with pronoun *I* (I-statements).

2.2 Quirk et al.'s view in *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* (1985)

According to Quirk et al. (1985: 1112-1113), this type of I-statements is treated as "comment clauses". In their view, comment clauses can appear in all the three sentence positions: initial, medial and final. They divide comment clauses into two types according to their semantic functions. Comment clauses can behave either as "*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 (1985: 1112)." According to form of these clauses the authors distinguish six types as follows (1985: 1112-1113):

(i) the matrix clause of a main clause:
There were no other applicants, *I believe*, for that job.

(ii) an adverbial finite clause (introduced by as):
I'm working the night shift, *as you know*.

(iii) a nominal relative clause:
What was more upsetting, we lost our luggage.

(iv) *to*-infinitive clause as style disjunct:
I'm not sure what to do, *to be honest*.

(v) *-ing* clause as style disjunct:
I doubt, *speaking as a layman*, whether television is the right medium for that story.

(vi) *-ed* clause as style disjunct:
Stated bluntly, he had no chance of winning.

I will work with the type (i) where the comment clause looks like the matrix clause of a main clause, e.g. There were no other applicants, *I believe*, for that job. (1112). "Verbs like *believe* and *think* may have a more definitive meaning or may merely hedge

(express a tentative meaning); but only the hedging meaning is present in comment clauses (1113)." That is what makes them similar to Poldauf's 3rd plan clauses.

The clauses of this type are often followed by that-clause. However, we can omit this *that,* and then the only difference between initial comment clause from an initial matrix clause is the intonation (reflected by comma in writing). The comment clauses look like main clauses because they have subject and verb, but they are dependent clauses.

"Many type (i) clauses are stereotyped (Quirk et al. 1985: 1114)." Quirk et al. speak about four different semantic functions that the stereotyped comment clauses can have (1985: 1114-1115):

a) "They hedge, *i.e.* they express the speaker's tentativeness over the truth value of the matrix clause." Some of the examples borrowed from the authors are as follows:

I believe, I guess, I think, I expect, I feel, I hear, I presume, I assume, I understand, I suppose, I consider, I suspect, I daresay

b) "They express the speaker's certainty."

e.g. *I know, I claim, I see, I remember, I'm sure, I'm convinced, I have no doubt, I must say, I must tell you*

c) "They express the speaker's emotional attitude towards the content of the matrix clause."

e.g. *I'm glad to say, I'm happy to say, I hope, I wish, I fear, I regret, I'm afraid, I regret to say*

d) "They are used to claim the hearer's attention." This type of comment clauses gives the speaker the means to address the hearer and keep thus a warm relation to them.

e.g. *you know, you see, you realize, you may have heard, mind you*

The first three groups have a lot in common. The most typical clauses are formed by the attitudinal *I* and verb in the simple present. All these three groups correspond to Poldauf's 3rd plan clauses. It means that all the three groups somehow modify or comment on the proposition that is uttered by the speaker.

The last group of comment clauses is different from the first three types. These comment clauses are not formed by the pronoun *I*, but the pronoun *you* is used instead. They do not comment on the speaker's utterances, but they are used to hold the hearers' attention and keep in touch with them. So they function rather as a discourse marker (cf. Schiffrin).

2.3 A View in *Mluvnice současné angličtiny na pozadí češtiny* (2003 [1988])

Dušková comes with the term "sentence modifier" which is an adverbial that is not integrated within the sentence structure. Dušková divides sentence modifiers into four sub-groups (2003: 475-485 [1988]):

1) sentence modifiers evaluating the way of communication
2) sentence modifiers evaluating the content of communication
3) emotional evaluation of the content of the utterance
4) sentence modifiers used as the means of textual continuity.

She classifies various forms as sentence modifiers. In most cases, they are formed by adverbs, adjective phrases, prepositional or verbal phrases. Her theory of "sentence modifiers evaluating the content of communication" comes very close to Poldauf's 3rd plan clauses. This group of sentence modifiers contains both adverbs and short clauses. She mentions this type of clauses when she speaks about expressing epistemic modality. Dušková claims that: "Omezení platnosti obsahu sdělení na názor mluvčího vyjadřují slovesa myšlení *think, suppose, believe* apod. (Verbs of thinking like *think, suppose, believe* etc. express the restriction of the validity of the speaker's opinion on the content of a message uttered [NS]) (2003: 479 [1988])." As she is aware of the various possible positions of these clauses, she denotes them as degraded adverbial expressions.

Therefore Poldauf probably created the conception which includes the I-statements as well as evaluative adverbials, as he was aware of the same fact.

Dušková further comments on syntactic form of these components and explains that the proposition is conveyed by the subordinate clause which is dependent on the verb expressing epistemic stance (2003:479 [1988]): "*I think* (amer. *I guess, I reckon*) myslím *he'll soon realize his error* že si brzy uvědomí svůj omyl." Among other verbs that Dušková mentions also belong: *I believe* mám za to/ *I dare say* myslím/ (zdá se mi pravděpodobné, možné)/ *I expect* očekávám/ *I suppose* předpokládám / *I fancy* myslím (mám dojem)/ *I imagine* myslím (myslím, že je pravděpodobné) (2003: 479 [1988]).

What concerns the syntactical function, Poldauf's view agrees with Dušková's, i.e. via using the I-statements functioning as comment clauses the speaker "introduces into the sentence the person presenting his evaluation (Poldauf 1964: 251)" and the proposition itself is contained in the subordinate clause.

2.4 A View in *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* (Biber et al. 1999)

In *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*, Poldauf's [3rd] plan clauses are classified as "comment clauses" and "stance adverbials".

2.4.1 Comment clauses

The characterization of comment clauses made by Biber et al. (1999) is very similar to the characterization presented by Leech and Svartvik (1983[1975]) and by Quirk et al. (1985): "they are loosely connected to the main clause, they normally lack an explicit link, and they are usually short and can appear in a variety of positions (1999: 197)." The form of the comment clauses is also either a pronoun *I* or *you* and the verb is in the simple present.

As it was suggested above, Biber et al. include the comment clauses which "directly express the speaker's attitude to the message (1999: 197)" among stance adverbials.

2.4.2 Stance adverbials

In Biber et al.'s words stance adverbials express speaker's/ writer's stance towards the clause (1999: 762). Similarly as the components of The third syntactical

plan, they comment on the content or style of a clause. Further Biber et al. divide stance adverbials into three semantic sub-groups: *epistemic, attitude* and *style*.

The syntactic forms of stance adverbials include single word adverbs, adverb phrases, prepositional phrases, noun phrases, finite clauses, non-finite clauses and rarely adjectival phrases. Our focus will be put on finite clauses which "are the second most common structural form of stance adverbials in conversation and fiction (1999: 862). The higher amount of finite clauses in conversation and fiction is caused by the use of "comment clauses". They "are used to mark a proposition as the speaker's opinion, or to convey some level of personal doubt or certainty (1999:864-865)."

Biber et al. (1999: 865) also distinguish between finite clause stance adverbials and main clauses taking a *that*-complement:

When these expressions are integrated into the clause structure, they usually occur as a main clause taking a *that*-complement clause (e.g. *I think that …*). When they are not integrated into the clause structure, they are finite clause stance adverbials:

(1)   *I'm going to get a new one for the basement **I think**.*
(2)   *It'll come out in the wash **I guess**!*
(3)   *You'd wear that more than I would **I bet**.*

2.5 A View in *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* (Pullum and Huddleston 2002)

Pullum and Huddleston label the I-statements with commenting function as "parentheticals". Similarly as Biber et al., they distinguish between expressions which can be loosely attached to a main clause and expressions which take a content clause as complement. They call the two uses of parentheticals as "parenthetical" and "non-parenthetical" (Pullum and Huddleston, 2002: 895):

NON-PARENTHETICAL USE
I think it is quite safe.

PARENTHETICAL USE

It is quite safe, _I think_.

Many of the parentheticals of the type _I think_ can modify the speaker's attitude to their proposition. They can make the credibility of the proposition either stronger or weaker.

2.6 Characteristics of the verbs used in I-statements with commenting function

Dušková (2003[1988]) divides verbs into _dynamic_ and _non-dynamic verbs_ according to verbal action dynamism. _Dynamic verbs_ denote actions, activities and processes, whilst _non-dynamic verbs_ denote states, relations and attitudes (2003: 212[1988]). Therefore most of the verbs of forming the main component of I-statements with commenting function are labelled as _non-dynamic verbs_. Dušková also subdivides dynamic and non-dynamic verbs into several categories, so the verbs being the part of I-statements might get more precise description. Dušková describes them as "slovesa označující intelektuální, volní a citové stavy, postoje a reakce (verbs denoting intellectual, volitional and emotional states, attitudes and reactions [NS])" and gives following examples: _know, understand, believe, doubt, hope, think, suppose, imagine, regard, …_ (2003: 212[1988]).

However, she later adds that some verbs can be a part of both classes:

think ve významu "myslet" je nedynamické, ve významu "přemýšlet" dynamické, podobně _consider_ "považovat" (za) je nedynamické "uvažovat" dynamické, _wonder_ "divit se" je nedynamické, "přemýšlet" dynamické […]. (2003: 212-213 [1988])

(_think_ of the meaning "have something in mind" is non-dynamic, _think_ of the meaning "contemplate" is dynamic, similarly _consider_ "regard" (as) is non-dynamic "speculate" dynamic, _wonder_ "marvel" is non-dynamic, "contemplate" dynamic […]. [NS])

When Biber et al. (1999) divide verbs into semantic categories, they determine seven groups: _activity verbs, communication verbs, mental verbs, verbs of facilitation or_

causation, verbs of simple occurrence, verbs of existence or relationship and aspectual verbs. The description of mental verbs is the closest to the verbs that most frequently occur as a part of I-statement with commenting function.

According to them,

> mental verbs denote a wide range of activities and states experienced by humans […]. … They include both cognitive meanings (e.g. I think or know) and emotional meanings expressing various attitudes or desires (e.g. love, want), together with perception (e.g. see, taste) ad receipt of communication (e.g. read, hear). (1999: 362)

Nevertheless, my focus is not put on these verbs in general, but only on their forms in the first person singular, the clauses that Poldauf describes in his third syntactical plan as clauses of the *I suppose* type. The *I* is very important here, since it is the attitudinal *I, I* that is a proof of expressing the speaker's stance towards the proposition uttered.

Gee 2011[1999] dealt with these phrases when he made a sociolinguistic research in order to find out how working class and upper-middle class teenagers build socially situated identities. One of the main criteria he studied in their speech was using of the pronoun *I* when they were referring to themselves by speaking (2011: 153 [1999]). Gee named these statements as "I-Statements" and divided them into five following groups (2011: 153 [1999]):

1) "Cognitive statements" when the teenager talks about thinking and knowing
   (e.g. "I think . . . , "I know . . . , "I guess . . . ")

2) "Affective statements" when the teenager talks about desiring and liking
   (e.g. "I want . . . ," "I like . . .")

3) "State and Action Statements" when the teenager talks about his or her states or actions
   (e.g. "I am mature," "I hit him back," "I paid the bill")

4) "Ability and Constraint statements" when the teenager talks about being able or having to do things

(e.g. "I can't say anything to them," "I have to do my paper route")

5) "Achievement statements" is a category of activities, desires, or efforts that relate to "mainstream" achievement, accomplishment, or distinction

(e.g. "I challenge myself," "I want to go to MIT or Harvard").

I find this an interesting way of labelling the statements with pronoun *I* and I also find the most appropriate to use his term *I-statements* for my purposes, i.e. for labelling Poldauf's 3rd plan clauses.

2.7 Concluding remarks

As *Fig. 2: Overview of terms* shows labelling of the I-statements with commenting function is not an easy task. There are various conceptions of these clauses and hence the terminology differs a lot too. Although the terms are of various kinds, the author more or less agree upon the main functions and occurrence of these expressions in a sentence. Leech and Svartvik (1983 [1975]), Quirk et al. (1985) and Biber et al. (2002) classify this type of I-statements among *comment clauses*. However, this group of clauses is quite broad, as it contains various it-statements, you-statements or other statements; therefore they feel the necessity to specify this type of I-statements. Leech and Svartvik (1983 [1975]) mention that this type of comment clauses function as a *sentence adverbials;* Quirk et al.'s (1985) comment clauses can function as either *content disjuncts* or *style disjuncts*; and Biber et al. (2002) denote the I-comment clauses as *stance adverbials* which can be of the three types (*epistemic, attitude*, *style*).

Dušková's (2003[1988]) labelling is quite broad, as she uses the term *sentence modifier*, but her description of position of these expressions in a sentence and their function is identical to conceptions mentioned earlier in the text. When she divides the sentence modifiers into semantic groups, she includes this type of clauses among *sentence modifiers evaluating the content of communication* together with adverbs and other forms.

On the other hand, Pullum and Huddleston (2002) did not go too far in description of the I-statements with commenting function. They assigned these statements a term *parentheticals* and do not develop any further subdivision.

Fig. 2: **Overview of terms**

Authors	Umbrella term	Specific term
Leech & Svartvik	Comment clauses	Sentence adverbial
Quirk et al.	Comment clauses	Content disjuncts
		Style disjuncts
Dušková	Sentence modifiers	SM evaluating the content of communication
Biber et al.	Comment clauses	Stance adverbials (epistemic, attitude, style)
Pullum & Huddleston	Parentheticals	---

To sum it up, I think "comment clauses" serves as a good umbrella term for the clauses of this type; however, as it was mentioned above, the group is too broad. Therefore I incline to Gee's 2011[1999] term "I-statements" when describing Poldauf's 3rd plan clauses, as the *I* forms important role in these statements. I sometimes put attribute "with commenting function" to the term "I-statements" to be more specific and also to distinguish it from Gee's conception of the other I-statements.

3. Expressions of the *unfortunately* type

The second major part of Poldauf's third syntactical plan is formed by expressions of the *unfortunately* type. He suggests that these evaluating expressions can be the opinion of the speaker but at the same time it can be the judgment of a person different from the speaker (1964: 244).

Further, it is necessary to distinguish between what is expressed as

"real and definite [and what is expressed as] unreal, non-existent or doubtful, i.e. between evaluation and modality: *naturally* = I consider it quite natural, but also = as might be expected (1964: 244)."

This is a typical feature of English that an English word has more meanings. Sometimes it can also move within parts of speech, and then the position in a sentence can reveal the meaning. But in this case, not only the word order helps us to decode this meaning, but the context or situation itself, too. Hence these components belong neither to the first nor to the second but to the third syntactical plan, as they are rather peripheral to the sentence structure. They only convey the speaker's perception, judgement or assessment of the content communicated. Poldauf further claims that

"[m]odal signals may also stand at the beginning of the sentence and show a different degree of structural integration of a modality predicated of and a mere modal signal (this is the case of the English maybe). Integration is confirmed by the possibility of employing the respective expression in the middle of a sentence (1964: 244)."

So it means that the inserted expressions of this type can be also used as "introductory signals" showing the speaker's stance towards the proposition uttered. However, as regards modality and the field on transition to modality, English prefers to use a modal verb instead (1964: 251).

3.1 Leech and Svartvik's view (1983[1975])

The expressions of the *unfortunately* type are denoted as "sentence adverbials". These adverbials are described as "peripheral to the sentence structure (Leech and Svartvik 1983: 201[1975])" and thus correspond to Poldauf's components of The third syntactical plan.

Some adverbs can function both as adverbial integrated in the sentence structure and adverbial peripheral to the sentence structure. Then the integrated adverbials usually occur in the end-position of a sentence and the peripheral adverbials are rather in the front-position.

Sentence adverbials can be formed by prepositional phrases, infinitive clauses, *-ing* participle clauses, *-ed* participle clauses and finite verb clauses and they "often convey the speaker's comment on the content of what he is saying (1983: 201[1975])."

Some examples of the sentence adverbials are as follows (1983:201-202 [1975]):

admittedly, certainly, definitely, indeed, surely; perhaps, possibly; in fact, actually, really; officially, superficially, technically, theoretically; fortunately, hopefully, luckily, naturally, preferably, strangely, surprisingly.

These adverbials usually appear in the initial position (cf. their role of interpretation cues to the following proposition) and are then separated from the rest of a sentence by a pause in speech or a comma in writing.

3.2 A View in *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* (Quirk et al. 1985)

Quirk et al. devote a whole chapter to adverbs and adjectives. When they talk about adverbs as clause elements they distinguish between (1) adverbs functioning as a premodifier of adjective and adverb (e.g. They are *quite* happy/happily married.) and (2) adverbs functioning as a clause element adverbial (e.g. He *quite* forgot about it.) (1985: 439-440).

According to grammatical functions of a clause element adverbials, Quirk et al. distinguish "adjuncts", "disjuncts", "conjuncts" and "subjuncts". Adjuncts and subjuncts are more or less integrated within the sentence structure, whilst disjuncts and conjuncts are rather peripheral in the sentence structure (1985: 440). Conjuncts are used

to express the connection between the two linguistic units, whereas disjuncts "express an evaluation to what is being said either with respect to the form of the communication or to its meaning (1985: 440)." Of these four grammatical groups of clause element adverbials, disjuncts evidently correspond to the description of the Poldauf's expressions of the *unfortunately* type. In Quirk et al.'s words the person of the speaker is identified by disjuncts and they express a comment on the accompanying clause (1985: 440):

(1)   *Fortunately,* no one complained.

(2)   They are *probably* at home.

(3)   She *wisely* didn't attempt to apologize.

All the three examples mentioned above, demonstrate the ability of disjuncts to comment on the content of communication. We can also see that disjuncts can occur in initial and medial position, and the final position is possible, too.

When Quirk et al. compare disjuncts to other clause element adverbials, they say:

Disjuncts […] have a superior role as compared with the sentence elements; they are syntactically more detached and in some respects 'superordinate', in that they seem to have a scope that extends over the sentence as a whole (1985: 613).

In this sense, they are very different from the rest of the clause element adverbials. Adjuncts are syntactically on the same level as other sentence elements, while subjuncts can even be subordinate to one of the sentence elements.

Quirk et al. further divide disjuncts into two sub-groups as it was mentioned in the previous chapter: *style disjuncts* and *content disjuncts*. *Style disjuncts* express evaluation of the style and form of what is being communicated, describing the situation in which the speaker conveys the message, whilst *content disjuncts* (attitudinal disjuncts) as the second label in brackets clues make comments on the content of the message and its true value (1985: 615).

3.2.1 Style disjuncts

Style disjuncts can be grouped in two other subclasses: (a) modality and manner and (b) respect. Following adverbs are frequently used as (a) style disjuncts of modality and manner (1985: 615): *candidly, flatly, honestly, seriously, strictly, truly, truthfully; confidentially, privately; approximately, bluntly, briefly, broadly, crudely, frankly, generally, roughly, simply.* However, not only adverbs are used to express modality and manner, but also prepositional phrases or clauses are employed. As (b) style disjuncts of respect adverbs like *figuratively, generally, literally, metaphorically, personally* or *strictly* can be used (1985: 616). Albeit adverbs are not the only forms that style disjuncts of respect employ. They are more often expressed by longer phrases or clauses, so that they can more explicitly express "the respect in which a comment is being 'hedged' (1985: 616):

(1)   *Generally speaking*, the rainy season has already begun by September.
(2)   Mildred seemed to enjoy the concert, *to judge from her remarks*.
(3)   *If I may say so*, none of you are competent to make the legal judgment required."

Some disjuncts functioning as style disjuncts allow a whole range of forms. Quirk et al. demonstrate the examples on the disjunct *frankly*: prepositional phrase *in all frankness*, infinitive clause *to be frank*, *-ing* clause *frankly speaking*, *-ed* clause put *frankly*, finite clause *if I may be frank* (1985: 617).

3.2.2 Content disjuncts

There are two kinds of content disjuncts: a) degree of truth and b) value judgment, and both these kinds can be successively subdivided.

Content disjuncts of degree of truth "present a comment on the truth value of what is said, expressing the extent to which, and the conditions under which, the speaker believes that what he is saying is true (1985: 620)." Quirk et al. mention three subgroups according to semantic differences. The first subgroup expresses <u>conviction</u> by adverbs such as *certainly, definitely, indeed, indisputably, surely, undoubtedly, clearly, evidently, obviously*; the second subgroup employs adverbs such as *arguably, apparently, likely, maybe, perhaps, possibly, presumably, seemingly, supposedly* to express <u>doubt</u>; and the third group uses adverbs such as *actually, really, only,*

apparently, ideally, superficially, technically, theoretically, basically, essentially, fundamentally to convey the <u>feeling</u> under which the speaker assesses what he utters to be true or false (1985: 621).

Content disjuncts expressing value judgment "convey some evaluation of or attitude towards what is said (1985: 621)." Quirk et al. subdivides this group into two main subgroups. The first subgroup expresses the judgement *towards the whole clause*, and it generally refers the same judgement *towards the subject of a clause*, too. Quirk et al. mention the following example (1985: 621):

> *Rightly*, Mrs Jensen consulted her lawyer. [She was right and her action was right]

Among some other adverbs of this type might be mentioned: *correctly, justly, wrongly, cleverly, foolishly, reasonably, unwisely*. The second subgroup involves judgment expressions which do not refer at the same time to the subject of a clause, but comment *only on the clause as a whole* as in following example (1985: 621):

> *Remarkably*, Mrs Jensen consulted her lawyer. [Her action was remarkable; the speaker is not suggesting that Mrs Jensen was remarkable]

There is a whole range of adverbs used for expressing judgment, e.g. *amazingly, curiously, funnily, ironically, oddly, appropriately, inevitably, naturally, understandably, annoyingly, delightfully, disappointingly, regrettably, fortunately, happily, luckily, tragically, preferably, thankfully* (1985: 622).

When talking about syntactic realizations of disjuncts, *content disjuncts* realized by adverbs cannot stand in any positions when they appear in a direct or indirect question, while *style disjuncts* can usually occur in any position when used in direct or indirect questions, even the initial position is possible. "Most content disjuncts cannot appear with imperatives, … [while] some of style disjuncts can do so, even in *I* position (Quirk et al. 1985: 627):"

> *Seriously*, go and see her about it.

Although most disjuncts can occur in any position in a clause structure, the most common is the initial one, as Quirk et al. claim (1985: 627). As regards content disjuncts, especially of the type *probably, possibly, rightly, wisely*, their frequent position is in the middle of a clause structure, sometimes also in the initial-medial position.

The two groups of disjuncts and their subgroups are pictured in *Fig.3*: Taxonomy of disjuncts in Quirk et al. (1985).

***Fig. 3:* Taxonomy of disjuncts in Quirk et al. (1985)**
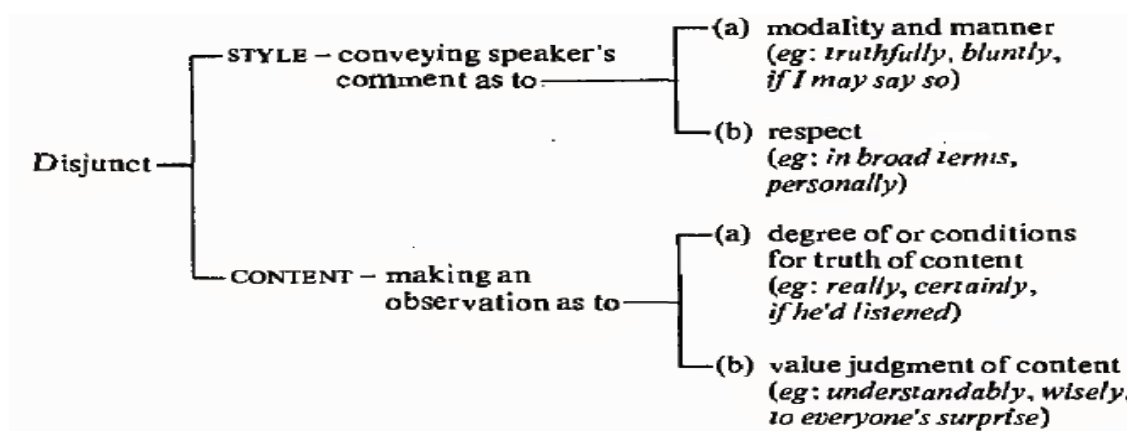
This is a very well elaborate conception of adverbials. Quirk et al. went very far to define the semantic roles of particular types of adverbials. Their description of particular groups went very often to several pages long subchapters. But their view of adverbials shows a reader easily comprehensible conception, which is incomparable with Poldauf's several lines about expressions of the *unfortunately* type. Firstly, Quirk et al. dare to label all the semantic groups and they also further subdivide them. The group of disjuncts corresponded to our purpose the best. But of course, it must be taken into account that Poldauf's theory was introduced more than 20 years before *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* was first issued, hence it is rather a pioneering theory and many of the phenomena Quirk et al. talk about were just introduced into the world of linguistics.

3.3 A View in *Mluvnice současné angličtiny na pozadí češtiny* (2003[1988])

As Dušková claims in *Mluvnice současné angličtiny na pozadí češtiny* (2003[1988]), adverbial expressions not only modify sentence elements, but they can as well relate to the content of a whole clause or the form of expression (2003: 474[1988]). They become means of sentence modality. As sentence elements, they are not integrated within the clause structure and are peripheral in comparison with other sentence elements, which is confirmed by their position in a sentence and impossibility to be an answer to a question *how*? (2003: 474[1988]). Most of this characterization corresponds to Poldauf's inserted expressions of the *unfortunately* type, except the fact that Poldauf does not go too far with describing these expressions.

Dušková agrees with Leech and Svartvik and Quirk et al. that these expressions, which are not integrated within the clause structure, usually occur in the front-position. She calls these expressions "sentence modifiers." Sentence modifiers are typical of their ability to change position within a clause without changing its meaning. But when it appears in the final position, it is usually separated by a comma in writing and a pause in speech to suggest that it comments on the whole clause not just a part of it, ie it is not an adverbial of manner but sentence modifier, since some adverbs are capable of being both.

Dušková subdivides sentence modifiers into two sub-groups: 1) modifiers evaluating the way the content is communicated; and 2) modifiers evaluating the content of the message communicated (2003: 475[1988]).

3.3.1 Sentence modifiers evaluating the way the content is communicated

Sentence modifiers of this type are formed by adverbs of the type *briefly, roughly, confidentially, frankly, generally, honestly, personally, seriously, simply, strictly, truly* (2003: 475[1988]). However, most of them can appear in a form of a prepositional phrase *in brief* or infinitive *to be brief*. The adverbs mentioned above can often appear together with verbs of speaking, e.g. *generally speaking* or with the phrase *to put it*, e.g. to *put it briefly* or adjectival phrase can be used instead, e.g. *to be brief* (2003: 475[1988]).

3.3.2 Sentence modifiers evaluating the content of the message communicated

It is possible to transfer most of the sentence modifiers of this type to a phrase *it is/ was ADJECTIVE that* or *which is/ was ADJECTIVE: obviously, this is a mistake – it is obvious that this is a mistake* (2003: 476[1988]). Nevertheless, not all sentence modifiers can be paraphrased in this way. Among some adverbs which cannot be transformed into the phrases mentioned above belong e.g. *actually, decidedly, indeed, perhaps, maybe, really, seemingly, basically*. What makes these sentence modifiers different from sentence modifiers of the type 1) is that they appear only in declarative clauses (2003: 477[1988]).

Sentence modifiers are divided into two other groups: a) *sentence modifiers evaluating content of the communication from the point of view of factuality* and b) *sentence modifiers expressing various attitudes towards the communication.*

a) Dušková claims "Větné modifikátory obsahu sdělení jednak hodnotí obsah sdělení z hlediska faktivnosti (jistotní modality), jednak k němu vyjadřují různé postoje (2003: 477[1988])." (Sentence modifiers evaluating content of the message evaluate content of the message from the point of view of factuality (epistemic modality) and also express various attitudes towards the statement. [NS])

When Dušková speaks about sentence modifiers evaluating the content of a message from the point of view of epistemic modality, she mentions several groups of these modifiers. Firstly, it is a group of modifiers expressing <u>certainty or doubt</u> e.g. *definitely, certainly, undoubtedly, undeniably, indeed, really, surely, of course*; secondly, she mentions sentence modifiers expressing <u>probability</u>, e.g. *probably, presumably, likely* or <u>possibility</u>, e.g. *perhaps, maybe, possibly*; thirdly, it is a group expressing <u>certainty or doubt resulting from observation</u>, e.g. *clearly, obviously, evidently, apparently, seemingly*; fourthly, she talks about sentence modifiers expressing <u>the validity derived from others' opinions</u>, e.g. *admittedly, supposedly, allegedly, reportedly* (2003: 477-478[1988]).

b) Turning to *sentence modifiers expressing various attitudes towards the communication* Dušková again puts them into several groups according to semantic meaning. They usually stand in the initial position and Dušková explains her grouping as follows:

Větné modifikátory této skupiny hodnotí nebo komentují obsah sdělení z nejrůznějších hledisek: <u>prospěšnosti či škody</u>, např. (*un) fortunately, (un) luckily, …, mercifully, thankfully,…*; <u>obvyklosti či neobvyklosti</u>, např. *naturally, typically, surprisingly, astonishingly, curiously, unexpectedly;* <u>náležitosti či nenáležitosti</u>, např. *(in) appropriately, (im) properly, (in) correctly, rightly, wrongly, justly, …*; <u>a jiných hledisek</u>, např. *annoyingly, disappointingly, amusingly, hopefully, interestingly* aj. (2003: 480[1988])

(Sentence modifiers of this groups evaluate or comment on the content of the message from various points of view: benefit or harm, e.g. *naturally, typically, surprisingly, astonishingly, curiously, unexpectedly;* usualness or strangeness, e.g. *naturally, typically, surprisingly, astonishingly, curiously, unexpectedly;* appropriateness or inappropriateness, e.g. *(in) appropriately, (im) properly, (in) correctly, rightly, wrongly, justly, …*; and other points of view, e.g. *annoyingly, disappointingly, amusingly, hopefully, interestingly* etc. [NS])

As it with most other types of sentence modifiers, this type is also possible to be transferred into adjectival phrases of the type *it is ADJECTIVE that* or *which is ADJECTIVE.*

Similarly as Quirk et al. Dušková also groups *sentence modifiers as a means of textual continuity* into the group of adverbials which are not integrated within the clause structure. In contrast with all other English grammars, she adds a group of *sentence modifiers expressing emotional evaluation of the content of communication* In this group, she mentions typical Czech particles which are capable of expressing emotional evaluation towards the proposition, but which have not counterpart in English (2003: 482[1988]).

3.4 A View in *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* (Biber et al. 1999)

When searching for a similar conception of the expressions of *unfortunately* type, Biber et al. lead us to their term "stance adverbials." It is one of the three groups of adverbial expressions besides "circumstance adverbials" and "linking adverbials." In their words:

Stance adverbials typically express the attitude of the speaker/writer towards the form or content of the message: ***Fortunately***, *over the past few years there have been attempts by social services and local authorities to review the value of care for young people*. (Biber et al. 1999: 131)

In comparison with circumstance adverbials, stance adverbials are more freely attached to the clause, they have variable positions in a clause and usually they are separated from the clause, orthographically in writing and prosodically in speaking. Biber et al. also denote stance adverbials as rather peripheral elements of a sentence (1999: 133). Stance adverbials are further subdivided into three categories: *epistemic, attitude* and *style*.

In this view, Biber et al. have very similar opinion on *epistemic stance adverbials* as Dušková. They "focus on the truth value of the proposition, commenting on factors such as certainty, reality, sources, limitations, and precision of the proposition: *Well she **definitely** looks at her mobile*. (1999: 764)"

On the other hand, *attitude stance adverbials* are employed to convey "the speaker's attitude towards or evaluation of the content: ***Fortunately*** *this is far from the truth* (1999: 764)."

Obviously, *style stance adverbials* give the reader or hearer information about speaker's comment on the style or form of the message, or it can offer a clue on how the utterance should be understood, e.g. *Well, yes, **technically speaking**, I guess it is burnt* (1999: 764).

Usually, stance adverbials have a scope over a whole clause and they are always optional. Turning to syntactic form, stance adverbials can be realized by single word adverb, adverb phrase, prepositional phrase, noun phrase or non-finite clause, which is a broad range of syntactic realizations. However, the most frequent forms are still adverbs.

3.5 A View in *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* (Pullum and Huddleston 2002)

Pullum and Huddleston devote a very long chapter to adjuncts and they distinguish 19 kinds of them. After studying most of the kinds, I came to the conclusion that 3 kinds of their adjuncts correspond to the expressions of *unfortunately* type: "modal adjuncts", "evaluative adjuncts" and "speech-related adjuncts".

3.5.1 Modal adjuncts

Although Pullum and Huddleston do not comment on the position of these adjuncts in a sentence, their function corresponds to Poldauf's view of the expressions mentioned above. According to them

> [m]odal adjuncts […] are predominantly used for epistemic modality, where it is a matter of the speaker's assessment of the truth proposition expressed in the residue or the nature of the speaker's commitment to its truth. (Pullum and Huddleston, 2002: 767)

They also subdivide these adjuncts into four groups according to the strength of "the speaker's commitment to the truth of the proposition (2002: 768)", and in this respect they are similar to Quirk et al.'s *content disjuncts* expressing degree of truth. Equally, the enumeration of adverbs frequently functioning as modal adjuncts (*assuredly, certainly, definitely, surely, truly*) also corresponds to the group of expressions described by Quirk et al.

Even though Pullum and Huddleston do not speak about the position of these adjuncts in a sentence nor connection to the sentence structure, semantic meaning and role of modal adjuncts in a sentence seem to be identical with Quirk et al.'s *content disjuncts* (see 2.2.2).

3.5.2 Evaluative adjuncts

The name itself suggests that this kind of adjuncts has evaluative function. Specifically, in Pullum and Huddleston's words "[w]ith adjuncts of this kind the residual proposition is presented as a fact, and the adjunct expresses the speaker's evaluation of it. Evaluative adjuncts are therefore subjective […] (2002: 771)." It means

that the speaker introduces their proposition by expressing their attitude to the proposition. Pullum and Huddleston give following examples (771):

(1) *Fortunately* the commandos got away before their presence was discovered.
(2) *Ironically* he did best in the subject he liked least.
(3) *Ominously*, these two economic trends are connected.

In all the three examples, the evaluative adjuncts stand in the initial position, so they serve, as Poldauf explains in his third syntactical plan, as introductory signals.

Pullum and Huddleston give a long enumeration of evaluative adverbs, e.g. *amazingly, disappointingly, ironically, luckily, oddly, surprisingly, thankfully, unfortunately,* and mention other possible forms of evaluative adjuncts like prepositional phrases, e.g. *to my amazement* or *by good fortune*, and so on (2003: 771).

Pullum and Huddleston also comment on a role of evaluative adjuncts in negation and on function of the residue in the adjunct construction. They claim that "[e]valuative adjuncts always take scope over clausal negation […], e.g. *Surprisingly*, he hadn't been detected. (2003: 772)" As regards the residue in the adjunct construction, it "is presented as new, factual information," therefore it is not possible to employ evaluative adjuncts "in interrogatives, imperatives or pragmatically presupposed subordinate clauses (772)."

Similarly as in the previous subchapter, Pullum and Huddleston do not comment on evaluative adjuncts' position in a sentence nor their connection to the sentence. But according to examples given by them, it might be deduced that evaluative adjuncts have tendency to occur mainly in the initial position of a sentence, and hence they are rather loosely connected to the sentence. In some cases, evaluative adjunct is even separated by a comma.

3.5.3   Speech-act related adjuncts

These adjuncts are the most peripheral from all the adjuncts that Pullum and Huddleston describe in their enumeration of 19 kinds of them. In comparison with the previous two groups, they do not comment on the situation or the proposition, but they relate "to the speech act performed in uttering the clause (2002: 773)." Pullum and Huddleston also add that speech-act related adjuncts "do not have any bearing on the

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truth value of the statement expressed in the residue (773)" and demonstrate it in subsequent examples:

(1)   *Frankly*, it was a waste of time.

(2)   *Briefly*, your expenditure must not exceed your income.

(3)   *Confidentially*, Ruth is thinking of resigning.

The speech-act related adjuncts are separated by comma and they could also be transformed into a form "I tell you + speech-act related adjuncts" and thus it expresses the way the statement was uttered. In this regard, the speech-act related adjuncts resemble Quirk et al.'s *style disjuncts of respect* (see 2.2.1).

3.6 Concluding remarks

As the *Fig. 4: Overview of terms* shows it is not an easy to task to generalize about the terms used or draw the most used terms, since every grammar names the expressions of *unfortunately* type differently. I expected the terms to be more specific with the newest grammar book, which was in my case *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* (2002), but it is not the case. It is understandable that Leech and Svartvik (1983 [1975]) use only a general term sentence adverbial and do not come with any categorisation because it is the oldest grammar I used for comparing the terminology and topic was not so well explored in that time. Later Quirk et al. (1985) come with a very well elaborate theory of the expressions of *unfortunately* type. It might be well seen in *Fig. 4* or *Fig. 3: Taxonomy of disjuncts in Quirk et al. (1985)* in 2.2.2 shows even clearer division of particular types according its semantic function. I find Quirk et al.'s taxonomy very well elaborate and clear at the same time. Their umbrella term disjunct captures very well the main function of Poldauf's attitudinal expressions, in respect that it is rather a peripheral sentence element and has a commenting function on the style or form of the proposition. Disjuncts are on of the subgroups of adverbials besides adjuncts, subjuncts and conjuncts, too. There are quite clear boundaries among particular groups of Quirk et al.'s adverbials (1985).

Dušková's conception (2003[1988]) of Poldauf's attitudinal expressions is partly similar to Quirk et al.'s. Although what Quirk et al. (1985) label as disjuncts and conjuncts, Dušková puts together into one group of sentence modifiers, which are in her

words adverbial expressions that are not integrated into the sentence structure. Her group of sentence modifiers contains 4 subgroups (SM5 evaluating the way the content is communicated, SM evaluating the content of the message communicated, SM expressing emotional evaluation of the content of the communication, SM serving as a means of textual continuity), while I classify only the group 1 (SM evaluating the way the content is communicated) and group 2 (SM evaluating the content of the message communicated) as being part of Poldauf's third syntactical plan. Moreover, Dušková's labelling is too long to remember and be used effectively.

Biber et al. (1999) give well-arranged taxonomy of Poldauf's attitudinal expressions. It is not too structured as Quirk et al.'s taxonomy (1985), but it still conceives everything Quirk et al. put into more groups. Biber et al. divide adverbials into three groups (circumstance, stance and linking adverbials). Stance adverbials cover all kinds of expressions of *unfortunately* type, and yet specify them according to their semantic meaning as *epistemic stance, attitude* or *style adverbials*.

However, Pullum and Huddleston (2002) who should have introduced the most elaborated theory in my expectations came with a theory that made me confused. Unlike Quirk et al.'s well elaborated taxonomy of adverbials (1985), Pullum and Huddleston pick only the term adjuncts and describe 19 kinds of them, which is very surprising and confusing for a reader, too. So I had to go through all their types of adjuncts and find what might correspond to Poldauf's expressions of *unfortunately* type. What makes it even more complicated is that Pullum and Huddleston do not comment on all the questions I was used to find in other grammar books. They totally omit discussion about position of these expressions in a sentence and their connection to the clause. Nevertheless, according to syntactical function, following terms were chosen for specific types of adjuncts: *modal adjuncts, evaluative adjuncts* and *speech-act related adjuncts*.

All in all, I find the conception of Quirk et al. (1985) and Biber et al. (1999) the most fitting. The umbrella term disjunct is the most appropriate, as it suggests the separateness from other sentence elements, but I find their further division too detailed. Therefore I would call the expressions of *unfortunately* type disjuncts, and I would use the division used by Biber et al.: epistemic, attitude and style, as it seems to me the clearest and functioning at the same time.

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5   SM = sentence modifier

Fig. 4: **Overview of terms**

Authors	Umbrella term	Specific term	
Leech & Svartvik	Sentence adverbials	---	
Quirk et al.	Disjuncts	Content disjuncts	Degree of truth
			Value judgement
		Style disjuncts	Modality & manner
			Respect
Dušková	Sentence modifier	SM evaluating the content of communication	
		SM evaluating the way content is communicated	
Biber et al.	Stance adverbials	Epistemic stance adverbials	
		Attitude adverbials	
		Style adverbials	
Pullum & Huddleston	Adjuncts	Modal adjuncts	
		Evaluative adjuncts	
		Speech-act related adjuncts	

4. Unattached Dative

Poldauf devoted the largest part in The third syntactical plan to the unattached dative. As a Czech linguist, he based his theory on the Czech language and compared the components in Czech with English. Nevertheless, the unattached dative is phenomenon which is very rare in English. Therefore there will be more theory demonstrated on Czech language and the means of expressing the unattached dative in English will be found as counterparts to the Czech expressions.

When observing the dative case in English, Poldauf finds its place in all his three syntactical plans. In the first syntactical plan, it appears as an indispensable part of a verb which requires an object. It becomes a part of the second syntactical plan when the dative case is expressed by prepositional phrase and the preposition thus ties the following expression to a verb. If English uses a pronoun to express the dative case and this pronoun does not relate to the nominal component, we might talk about a component belonging to The third syntactical plan.

But what is this dative belonging to The third syntactical plan? The primary function of the dative case is to express the relationship of possession or enjoyment between the dative and a nominal component, whilst the dative described in The third syntactical plan is capable of expressing the relationship between the dative and the whole of a sentence. As Poldauf claims:

> It is a relation of a person to his "mental property", to what he has in his mind. Thus in *Čas mu utíkal pomalu* (time him[dat.] passed slowly. [IP]) the dative *mu =* makes the fact of the time passing slowly a mere impression. (Poldauf 1964: 243)

Poldauf also speaks about emotional concern of a person and mentions a term *dativus affectivus*, which is explained according to Prucha as a type of a dative which is "used for identifying a person who is emotionally involved in what is being communicated (1983: 28)." Poldauf demonstrates it on the following Czech examples (1964: 243):

(1)   *To je mi chytrák.*

    Literally: That is me (dat.) a-clever-one. [IP]

    Meaning: Isn't he clever? [IP]

(2)   *To je vám chytrák.*

    Literally: That is you (dat.) a-clever-one. [IP]

    Meaning: That's a clever one, I must tell you. [IP]

Albeit nothing like *dativus affectivus* appears in English. Its role is fulfilled either by parentheses of the type *I tell you,* or the construction *I find* when it comes to expressing personal impression, e.g. "*He found time pass slowly.* (1964: 249)" Last traces of *dativus affectivus* were found in Shakespeare's Comedy of Errors: "*Knocke me heere soundly*" (249).

Since Poldauf's theory is based on the comparison of English and Czech, he is very well aware of the differences between these typologically remote languages. Czech is a synthetic language with relatively free word order, whilst English is analytical language with quite rigid word order. So as Poldauf claims wherever we put dative in a Czech sentence, it still remains dative and retains its evaluative value, so that it is clearly distinguishable from sentence elements belonging to other syntactical plans (1964: 249). On the other hand, English is no longer a language which is capable of expressing sentence elements via using morphological signals. Dative disappeared as it was not distinct whether it expressed a dative or accusative, and was substituted by personal pronouns (Poldauf 1951: 125):

(3)   *Dal mu knihu na stůl. = He put the book on his table.* (He has a table)

(4)   *Vzali mu knihy. = They took away his books.*

There is almost no place for the unattached dative in Modern English. However, several relics of dative still might be found (Poldauf 1951: 124-125):

(5)   *It cost me five shillings.* (I have not the five shillings)

(6)   *The speech lost him the seat.*

(7)   *It won him the seat.*

(8)   *Look him in the face.*

In the examples (5)-(8) Poldauf says that *me* and *him* can be viewed as the relics of dative in predication relation between complements of "not have" and "have" (1951: 124).

But what usually happens in English when we translate the dative case is that we have to use a preposition *to* or *for*. It might be demonstrated on the following example (1964: 249):

(9)   *Natrhal jí květiny.*

        Translation: He picked flowers for her. [IP]

Then it is, of course, not a part of The third syntactical plan but it falls into the second syntactical plan.

Turning to existing possessive relation expressed by the dative, Poldauf states that the last occurrence was found in English in Middle Ages, e.g. *Me is colde* (1964: 250), and later it was substituted by possessive pronouns (1964: 249). Instead English uses different means to express the possessive relation. As it was mentioned above parentheticals or other constructions can be employed, and yet have construction of the following type may also be used (1964: 250):

(10)   *Zastřelili mu koně pod sedlem*

        Literally: They-shot-him-horse-under the saddle [NS]

        Translation: He had his horse shot under him [IP]

(11)   *Nechoď mi sem*

        Literally: Don't come-me-here [NS]

        Translation: I won't have you coming here [IP].

If the possessive relation is "realized through sensual perception, *find, feel* and *see*" can be used instead (250):

(12)   *He felt his heart beating with joy*

        Srdce mu bilo radostí [IP].

4.1 A View in *Mluvnice současné angličtiny na pozadí češtiny* (2003[1988])

Dušková (2003[1988]) comments on the unattached dative in the chapter concerning "indirect object." She claims:

> Předmět typu dativního není jen součástí slovesné vazby, nýbrž může též vyjadřovat účastníka děje na slovesné vazbě nezávislého, který se děje nějak účastní nebo je na něm zainteresován. (Dušková 2003: 437[1988])
> (Object in dative case (i.e. indirect object) is not only a part of the verbal phrase but it can also express the participant of the action independent on the verbal phrase, who is a part of the action or is involved in the action. [NS])

Her view of the unattached dative coincides with Poldauf's view. They both mention that the unattached dative is much more spread and developed in Czech than in English. However, similar ways of expression can be found in both languages: "*pick me a rose* utrhni mi růži, *sing us a song* zazpívej nám nějakou píseň, *read me the letter* přečti mi ten dopis (2003: 438[1988])." Dušková adds "Sémantická struktura těchto sloves však nevyžaduje recipienta. (Semantic structure of these verbs does not require a recipient [NS]) (438)" It means that the dative expressed in this way functions as Poldauf's unattached dative, that is a component of his third syntactical plan expressing the speaker's concern in the matter communicated. The dative can be substituted by prepositional phrases in English, but then it transfers the components of the third syntactical plan into the second syntactical plan.

Dušková also speaks about the possessive unattached dative in Czech and its equivalents in English (2003: 438 [1988]): *roztrhls mi rukáv* / you have torn my sleeve, *šlápl jsi mi na nohu* / you have trodden on my toes, *leskly se jí oči* / her eyes were shining. The English translations indicate that the proper English equivalent is formed by possessive pronoun. There can appear a parallel construction to the Czech, but it is very rare, e.g. *he looked me in the face/ in the eyes* (438).

Later in this chapter, Dušková comes up with the term "ethical dative", which serves as a means of establishing contact between the speaker and hearer (438): *já jsem ti nemohl spát* (I couldn't fall asleep, you know [LD][6]), *on vám nebyl schopen slova*

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[6]   Dušková's translations provided in *Mluvnice současné angličtiny na pozadí češtiny*

(you see, he couldn't utter a word [LD]). Instead of the dative, English employs in this case expressions of the type *you know, you see,* which Quirk et al. (1985) would classify as comment clauses with identical function.

4.2 A View in *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* (Pullum and   Huddleston 2002)

Pullum and Huddleston (2002) claim that there is no dative case in Present-day English and criticize some of the traditional grammars of English that "incorporate a number of categories that in fact have no place in a grammar of Present-day English, although they are perfectly valid for Latin (and in some cases older stages of English) (33)." And that is the case with dative which no longer exists in English. The indirect object, which used to be formed by dative, is formed by a noun or pronoun in Present-day English without employing any special inflectional form.[7] There is no distinct inflectional form for dative in English, and thus we learn from word order whether the noun or pronoun has a function of direct or indirect object or in case of nouns even of subject.

4.3 A View of Davidse in *The Dative* (1996)

The same situation as Pullum and Huddleston (2002) also describes Davidse (1996) in her "Functional dimensions of dative in English." She says: "In Modern English, the dative does not appear as a morphologically inflected case form either in the nominal or in the pronominal system (Davidse 1996: 289)." She explains the gradual process of disappearance of dative case in English and lists the particular forms of replacement. According to Davidse, adverbial functions were replaced by prepositional phrases; verbs taking one dative complement (*hurt s. or. sth., benefit s. or. sth., benefit s. or. sth.*) were semantically and syntactically re-analysed, so, e.g. (OE) *Hēo mē mishierde* (meaning *She to me disobeyed*) was re-analysed to *She disobeyed me* or *I was disobeyed by her*; and verbs taking a dative as well as an accusative complement (*take s.o. or sth from s.o. or sth, give s.o. sth., send s.o. sth., show s.o. sth.*) remained almost unchanged (Davidse 1996: 290).

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[7]   except the nominative and objective case of pronouns which are the relics of old inflectional system, e.g. *I, me; he, him; she, her; we, us; they, them*

4.4   Concluding remarks

To sum it up, the dative case is a phenomenon which is typical of the Czech language. However, English language no longer uses inflectional system and thus most of the cases together with the dative case disappeared from this language. There are only several relics of the dative case, but these are rather rare. English has developed other means for expressing the indirect object, e.g. parenthetical constructions, or phrases of the type *I find, I feel, I see* and in some cases have constructions are used.

5. Spoken vs. Written Language

It is important to mention the difference between spoken and written language, as I will put the frequencies of particular expressions in contrast. One of my assumptions is that the I-statements will be more frequently used in spoken language and therefore I would like to summarize some of the characterization of these two modes of language.

Firstly, it is necessary to say that there is not distinction in existence of the two modes of language but in the function (Veselovská 2009: 139).

5.1 Spoken language

Besides other differences between spoken and written form, spoken language is specific because of its form and its use.

By form it is meant its phonetic realization because spoken language is characteristic for employing three phonetic features. Firstly, it is *phonetic reduction*; secondly, *the use of stress* (focusing …); and thirdly, *the use of intonation* (echo questions …) (Veselovská 2009: 139).

By its use it is meant the context in which the spoken language is realized. In the particular context, the speakers can afford to use *incomplete sentences* like ellipses or minor sentences; or they employ *deictic elements* (2009: 139).

According to Swan, spoken and written English texts differ in length and complexity, organisation of sentences, structures and vocabulary. In his words, "spoken structures are usually simpler" and "subjects […] tend to be very short in speech" (Swan 2010: 292[2005]). Spoken sentences are often more loosely organised or they can stay unfinished. The speaker can change the subject of speaking and can also reformulate his utterance therefore we can often see false starts in spoken texts (see).

Another distinct feature of spoken language is its spontaneity and immediacy. Therefore the structural configurations tend to be loose, with simpler sentences. As Tárnyiková comments "[W]e assume a high frequency of occurrence of parentheses used to ramify the main communicative line by inserting afterthoughts, attitudes, judgments etc. (It was Kate – you know her – who I met there.) (2007: 54)"

Spoken text is often denoted as informal and therefore several informal expressions might be found in these texts, too. Swan talks about "spacing out" information when speaking, and thus for example separation of subject or object is

employed (2010: 504[2005]): *This guy who rang up, he's an architect. Well, ….* Then he mentions tags as another means of spacing out information. A 'tag' is the extra words that we put at the end of a sentence. He gives following examples (2010: 504[2005]):

(1)   *They work very hard, **most of them**.*

(2)   *That's the doorbell, **I think**.*

(3)   *I don't mind, **to be honest**.*

5.2   Written language

On the other hand, sentences in written language "can be planned in advance and revised, so there is time to build up complex structures (Swan 2010: 29[2005])." Generally, the written texts have tendency to be more formal and employ more elaborated and condensed sentences than the spoken texts do. As Tárnyiková claims

> written complexes are prototypically associated with a higher degree of complexity, more intricate ways of integrating particular clauses within the complex as well as a higher probability of longer, more compact (condensed), or fused (amalgamated) structures in which the principle of economy operates in a significant way […]. (2007: 58)

Written text is usually a result of longer consideration and a well-thought-out choice of words. Hence the words that written language employs tend to be longer, less common and it also excels with a great number of synonyms (Swan 2010: 293[2005]).

Crystal questions whether we talk in sentences because the organization of sentences we find in speech is very different from that we find in writing (2003: 214). He further develops his ideas about writing and emphasises the advantage of time we usually have for creation of the text, as it allows us "to make notes, plan ahead, pause, reflect, change our mind, start again, revise, proofread, and generally polish the language until we have reached a level which satisfies us (214)." Then the reader gets the final product, which is not the case in speech.

III. Application

1. Introduction to application

The main focus of this part will be given on the I-statements of the type *I think*. I will examine the surrounding of this phrase in the clause and will try to classify the types of these statements according to their function and semantic meaning. I will also distinguish between syndetic and asyndetic connection to the rest of the clause. In this case, I will employ a dynamic approach to scrutinize the particular examples in the corpus.

I will also try to find out which other I-statements can function as the phrase *I think* and how frequently they occur in written and spoken language.

Another task I will try to verify will be the distribution of I-statements of the type *I believe* and its equivalent *my belief is* and some other similar examples.

I will use the British National Corpus for investigating the I-statements.

The second part of the practical part will focus on the English most frequent form of expressing the unattached dative, the phrase *I find*. I will use the InterCorp corpus to find its Czech counterparts and will try to find its most frequent forms of translation into Czech.

2. Methodology

The main part of my research was carried out in the British National Corpus (BNC). I used a search program called XAIRA (XML Aware Indexing and Retrieval Architecture) to download the data from the corpus. The examples and sentences that I give in my work are marked with their numbers in square brackets and always stand behind the example.

The second part of my research was carried out in the parallel corpus InterCorp. I used the English-Czech/Czech English parallel corpus. The English-Czech/Czech English corpus contains 72 texts now. But I chose only 51 texts of which original language was English because I was interested only in those texts which were written by English speakers. I had to find out information about most of the text on the internet and I decided to exclude 21 texts which were originally written in Czech or other languages. It can be seen on the following *Fig. 5: The English-Czech parallel texts selected for the research* which texts I was working with.

Fig. 5: **The English-Czech parallel texts selected for the research**

2.1 Presenting the Corpora

2.1.1 British National Corpora

"The British National Corpus (BNC) is a 100 million word collection of samples of written and spoken language from a wide range of sources, designed to represent a wide cross-section of British English from the later part of the 20 century, both spoken and written." [8] The corpus was created between the years 1991 and 1994, so the newest texts come from 1994.

90 % of the BNC is formed by written texts. The texts range from regional and national newspapers to academic books and popular fiction.

"The spoken part (10%) consists of orthographic transcriptions of unscripted informal conversations (recorded by volunteers selected from different age, region and social classes in a demographically balanced way) and spoken language collected in different contexts, ranging from formal business or government meetings to radio shows and phone-ins."[9]

The BNC is a monolingual corpus and hence the samples of written and spoken texts cover modern British English of the late twentieth century. "However non-British English and foreign language words do occur in the corpus."[10]

2.1.2 InterCorp

InterCorp is a project of parallel corpuses created in the Charles University in Prague. Its aim is to build a large parallel synchronic corpus covering the greatest number of languages.[11] The entire project is academic and non-commercial.

Parallel corpus InterCorp is a part of the project Český národní korpus and it aims to create a parallel synchronic corpus for most of the languages studied at Philosophical faculty of the Charles University. Parallel corpora aim to serve as a source of data for theoretical studies, lexicography, student research and particularly foreign language learning, computer applications, translators and for the general public.[12]

The content of InterCorp is formed by fictional texts in Czech and other languages. "The current choice includes political commentaries published by Project

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[8]   http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/corpus/index.xml?ID=intro
[9]   http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/corpus/index.xml?ID=intro
[10]   http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk/corpus/index.xml?ID=intro
[11]   http://www.korpus.cz/intercorp/?req=page:info_v3
[12]   http://www.korpus.cz/intercorp/?req=doc:uvod

Syndicate and Presseurop, and a package of legal texts Acquis Communautaire. These texts have been aligned automatically: search results may include a higher number of misaligned segments."[13] In total 27 languages can be found in InterCorp, since the Version 5 was released in June 2012. "Each text has a Czech counterpart. […] The total size of the available part of InterCorp in release 5 is 91,529,000 words in the aligned foreign language texts in the core part and 451,112,000 in the collections."[14]

2.2 Downloading data

2.2.1 My list of I-statements

I chose 9 I-statements from Poldauf's enumeration of 3rd plan clauses (1964: 251) and I added 1 I-statement *I know* as I find it I-statement of the same type and which is nowadays very frequent in speech too.

Fig. 6: **My list of I-statements**

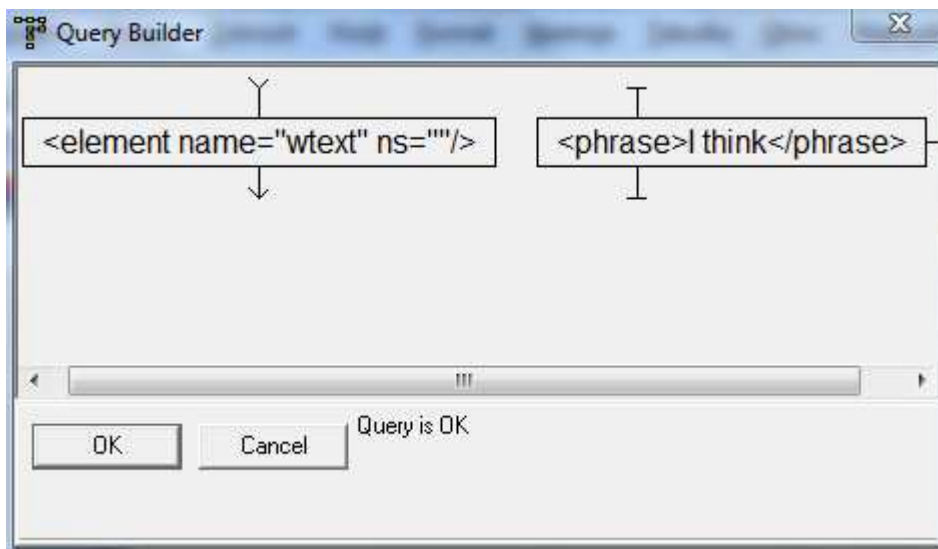|	**I-statement**
1.	I think
2.	I mean
3.	I know
4.	I suppose
5.	I hope
6.	I believe
7.	I expect
8.	I doubt
9.	I guess
10.	I fear

2.2.2 Text of the query

My first task was to find out the frequency of occurrence of the I-statements mentioned above separately in written and spoken texts in the BNC corpus. Therefore I always had to choose the spoken or written texts in query builder and search for the

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[13] http://www.korpus.cz/intercorp/?lang=en

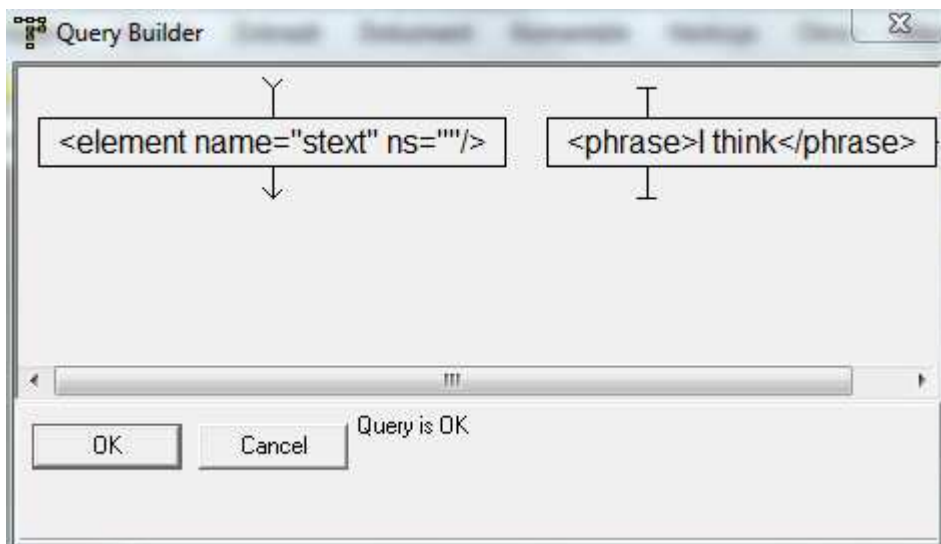[14] http://www.korpus.cz/intercorp/?req=page:info&lang=en

particular I-statement. The basic query for the I-statement *I think* in written texts looked like in *Fig. 7:* Query *I think in written texts* and in spoken texts like in *Fig. 8:*Query *I think in spoken texts.*

Fig. 7: **Query *I think* in written texts**

Fig. 8: **Query *I think* in spoken texts**

3. Data Analysis

3.1   I-statements

When I searched for the frequency of occurrence of particular I-statements, I gained the results recorded in *Fig. 9: Frequency of I-Statements in the BNC* in whole corpus, spoken texts and written texts. I sorted the data in descending order according to the number of frequency in the whole corpus. The I-statement *I think* gained the highest number of occurrences. There were found 41 286 occurrences in the whole BNC corpus which is almost twice more than the second highest number of the I-statement *I mean*. The third position in frequency of occurrence in the whole corpus gained the I-statement *I know* with 18 731 occurrences. The least frequent out of my 10 I-statements was *I fear* with only 436 occurrences in the whole corpus.

Fig. 9: **Frequency of I-Statements in the BNC**

BNC	I-statement	Spoken texts	Written texts	Total
1.	I think	25 839	15 447	41 286
2.	I mean	20 364	3 866	24 230
3.	I know	8 990	9 741	18 731
4.	I suppose	2 399	4 438	6 837
5.	I hope	1 322	4 064	5 401
6.	I believe	858	3 267	4 150
7.	I expect	305	1 176	1 481
8.	I doubt	188	773	961
9.	I guess	161	771	932
10.	I fear	33	403	436

I searched the frequency of I-statements separately in spoken and written texts, but as it was mentioned in 2.1.1 the BNC corpus contains 90% of written texts and only 10% of spoken texts. Hence it is quite difficult to make conclusions out of these data. In some cases (*I think, I mean*) it is still obvious that these I-statements are more frequent in spoken texts, but the rest of the data do not show what I expected. Therefore I decided to count the frequency of occurrences in one percent of the texts. So if there are 90% of written texts, I divided the frequency of occurrences in written texts by 90 and gained the number of I-statements in 1% of the written texts. I made the same with

spoken texts, but I divided the number by 10. I also rounded the numbers off, so that I gained integers. So when I counted the I-statement *I think* I made the following procedure:

Written texts: 15 447: 90 = 171.63 $\doteq$ 172
Spoken texts: 25 839: 10 = 2 583.9 $\doteq$ 2 584

The remaining results can be seen in *Fig. 10: Frequency of I-Statements in 1% of the texts*. It is a figure of numbers from which several conclusions can be taken. In this figure it is clearly visible that all the I-statements analyzed are more frequent in spoken texts than in written texts, except of one (*I fear*), but there is only very little difference. The first three I-statements *(I think, I mean, I know)* show a very high frequency in spoken texts but in comparison with written texts it is much lower.

Fig. 10: **Frequency of I-Statements in 1% of the texts**

BNC	I-statement	Spoken texts	Written texts
1.	I think	2 584	172
2.	I mean	2 036	43
3.	I know	899	108
4.	I suppose	240	49
5.	I hope	132	45
6.	I believe	86	36
7.	I expect	31	13
8.	I doubt	19	9
9.	I guess	16	9
10.	I fear	3	5

Fig. 11: Distribution of I-Statements in 1% of the spoken/written texts shows graphically the distribution of particular I-statements in both parts of the BNC corpus, so that we can clearly imagine the differences among particular I-statements in frequency of their usage in both modes of language.

***Fig. 11*: Distribution of I-Statements in 1% of the spoken/written texts**

Distribution of I-statements in 1% of the spoken/written texts
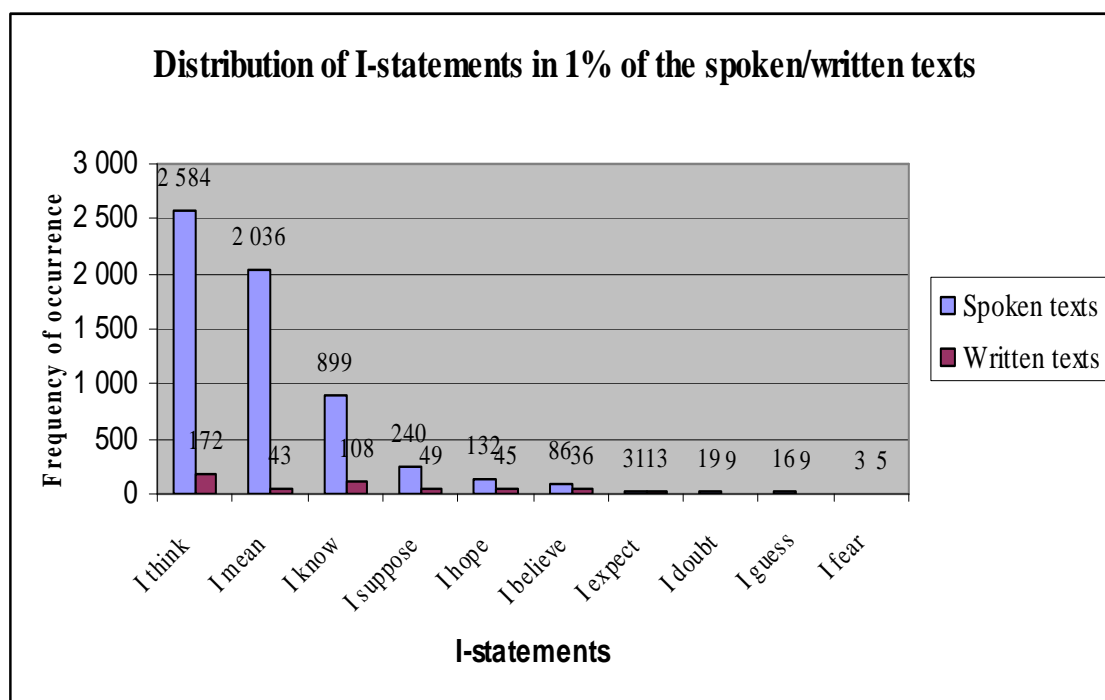
STANCE NOUNS

I was also interested in the distribution of stance nouns (cf. Biber et al. 1999: 969) which are derived from the verbs used in I-statements mentioned above. Thus I compared phrases of the kind *my thought is to I think*, *my doubt* is to I doubt etc. The results are represented in *Fig. 12: Distribution of I-Statements in comparison with Stance nouns*. I downloaded the data without separating written texts from spoken, and even so the results are quite surprising. The I-statement *I think* which is the most frequent as a finite clause has suddenly only one representation as a stance noun in the corpus. On the other hand, *I guess* which is last but one in the frequency of occurrence in my list of I-statements has surprisingly the most solutions in the BNC as a stance noun *my guess is*. But still, these expressions are rather rare with distribution of I-statements. Probably the stance in implicit form would be more frequent, e.g. *there is hope* was found 40 times in the BNC.

Fig. 12: Distribution of I-Statements in comparison with Stance nouns

BNC	I-statement	Frequency	Stance noun	Frequency
1.	I think	41 286	My thought is	1
2.	I mean	24 230	---	-
3.	I know	18 731	My knowledge is	3
4.	I suppose	6 837	My supposition is	-
5.	I hope	5 401	My hope is	13
6.	I believe	4 150	My belief is	14
7.	I expect	1 481	My expectation is	1
8.	I doubt	961	My doubt is	1
9.	I guess	932	My guess is	98
10.	I fear	436	My fear is	9

3.1.1   I-statement *I think*

I downloaded 100 random examples for spoken and written texts separately and sorted the data manually. At first I needed to find *I think* statements which were used in its principal meaning, i.e. *have something in mind, think about, think of* etc. to exclude them from my analysis. There were also other statements which were necessary to exclude, e.g. unfinished statements, statements which were formed only by the I-statement *I think* or *I think not* or statements which used language economy and were impossible to analyse, e.g.:

(1)   *That's where I see her when **I think** of her, though she didn't take me there at first.*
      [BNC CJA 1555]

(2)   *have to the County Planning Officer who deals with it with the most enormous efficiency and I hope that he is maintaining liaison with what I call the Rucatse Group which consists of , Neil and Tony and somebody from Crawley who **is I think** it's*
      [BNC J41 382]

(3)   *I think*

      [BNC GY4 667]

(4)   *I think* so yeah.

      [BNC H5D 1089]

Thus I analyzed 89 tokens in written texts and 86 in spoken texts. When sorting the data manually I was interested in the I-statements' surrounding, position in a sentence and function of each particular I-statement. I also observed the syndetic and asyndetic connection to the following proposition, with the result of 10 syndetic connections in written texts and 5 connections in spoken texts via using the subordinator *that*. Both in written and spoken texts juxtaposition of the I-statement unequivocally predominates.

What concerns the position of the I-statement I think in a clause I found 55 results in initial positions in written texts and 63 in spoken texts. That is more than half in both cases and it support Poldauf's theory that in most cases these I-statement serve as introductory signals.

After analyzing all of the included samples, I sorted them into five groups: *modality, parentheses, opinion, tentativeness and continuity* according to similar semantic functions and also position in a clause. *Fig. 13: Results of I think in spoken/written texts* shows found results.

Fig. 13: **Results of *I think* in spoken/written texts**

I think	Written texts	Spoken texts
excluded	11	14
modality	39	25
parentheses	7	17
opinion	27	32
tentativeness	10	10
continuity	6	2
Initial position	55	63
That-clause	10	5

3.1.2.1   *I think* **in written texts**

3.1.2.1.1   Modality

I have established three criteria for I-statements being used in modal meaning: a) a modal verb or any other modal expression is used, b) the speaker is talking about other living creatures or on their behalf, c) I-statement is used in the meaning *I suppose, I am not sure* or in the meaning of remembering the proposition.

a) modal verb or any other modal expression is used

The examples (1) – (5) all contain a modal verb in epistemic meaning or some other modal expression, e.g. *perhaps* (1), *probably* (2), or some of them contain combination of both, e.g. (2), (3). All these examples prove speaker's uncertainty about his or her statement, therefore they use the attitudinal clause *I think* accompanied with another component capable of expressing certainty (modal verb, modal adverbial). In communication, it is very frequent that the speaker is not sure about the facts he is giving to hearers, therefore he uses these weakening clauses which make clear that the speaker is not one hundred sure about the fact he is communicating. Example (5) contains a conditional clause, so it even more proves the speaker's uncertainty about the situation he utters.

(1)   *I think perhaps on the whole people understand that better than they used to.*
        [BNC A6L 1397]

(2)   *Who the rise was due to I don't know except that **I think** David probably wouldn't have had the idea to have opened such wonderful offices and created such a great mystique about it which MainMan had.*
        [BNC AB5 1664]

(3)   *'If you can get a job and we can find Mrs Ross a suitable home, **I think** she will probably be happier where there is more life going on around her.'*
        [BNC AC7 534]

(4)   *'If he hadn't bunked off till I was forty **I think** it might have been better.*
        [BNC EDJ 762]

(5)   *'Hunt is a legend here but if I go on and beat his all-time record **I think***
        it'll take some bettering. /hypothetical/
        [BNC CH3 2942]

b) the speaker is talking about other living creatures or on their behalf

I intentionally mentioned living creatures because in example (13) a speaker is speaking about his dog's actions and is not sure about it. But in the remaining examples, speakers speak about other persons or on the behalf of other person, therefore they are not one hundred percent sure about the validity of their statement and signalize it via I-statement *I think* to weaken the statement.

(6)   *It would have been a distressing upheaval indeed — **I think** Elizabeth*
        found 'Braemar' so depressing that she did not enter as deeply as I into
        Ivy's sufferings; she could not help hoping that a change might be for the
        better. /myslím za jiné, proto modalita/
        [BNC CA6 1648]

(7)   ***I think** that is true of Jackie. /talking about other person/*
        [BNC CD9 205]

(8)   ***I think** he just wanted to use me.'*
        [BNC FR3 887]

(9)   ***I think** they think I'm a bit peculiar, he said.*
        [BNC G07 1737]

(10)   *'**I think** perhaps he's had almost enough.'*
        [BNC G12 774]

(11)   *Cati said, 'I've told you, he gives me the shivers, **I think** he made a spell and did things to my head.*
         [BNC GUX 1008]

(12)   *But **I think** Sabine Jourdain did most of the work on the paintings and I think you knew it.'*
         [BNC GV2 535]

(13)   ***I think** my dog go bite one of them white dudes."*
         [BNC H0M 791]

c) I-statement is used in the meaning *I suppose, I am not sure* or when the person is trying to remember.

This group includes sentences in which I-statement *I think* signalizes to the hearer that the speaker is not sure about the fact he is uttering or that he is even at the moment of uttering searching in his mind for that fact. Therefore most of the examples are supported by some other signals which show that the speaker is very uncertain about the statement which he is communicating. For example, (14) directly mentions the word *truth* and relation to it; (15) contains the verb *remember* and expression *for certain,* which both comment on the modality of the sentence. The example (16) is connected to the time which is key for the proposition and the speaker cannot remember the exact time, therefore the word *round* is used to support the uncertainty about time together with the weakening I-statement *I think.* The example (17) combines I-statement *I think* with past tense, so that means the speaker is remembering an event which happened in the past and is not certain about it, therefore the I-statement is used to weaken the proposition. The example (18) again uses past tense in combination with I-statement and the expression "*I think I never saw*" means the speaker is trying to remember in his mind if he has ever seen Mr. Loudon more pleased and this process is signalised by the I-statement to suggest that he is not sure about the fact, but probably he has not been more pleased before. The I-statement I think in all the examples (14)-(18) might also be substituted either by *I suppose or I guess* and the meaning would remain the same.

(14)   *'Speculative, as you say, but **I think** it's as near to the truth as we're*
         going to get.
         [BNC B20 2605]

(15)   *I can't remember for certain but **I think** my wage was £2 per week.*
         [BNC BN3 1288]

(16)   ***I think** the mania got to me in about 1966 and around that time I got a*
         bit tired of what they call the adulation. /remembering/
         [BNC CH8 2140]

(17)   ***I think** I saw tide tables in the post office. /remembering/*
         [BNC CKF 1913]

(18)   *These hints were followed up by many gentlemen: and **I think** I never*
         saw Mr Loudon more pleased than when a highly respectable gardener
         once told him that   he was living in a new and most comfortable
         cottage, which his master had built for him; a noble marquess, who said
         that he should never have thought of it, but for
         [BNC FAE 863]

3.1.2.1.2   Parentheses

I denote parentheses all those I-statements *I think* which appear in the medial
position are anyhow separated from the sentence, i.e. are inserted in the sentence and
could as well be omitted without changing the meaning of the sentence. The separation
is realized via using commas (19) or (20), brackets (21) or its inserted in the clause (22).
Its function is usually to weaken the statement as in (19), or just keep the flow of the
text as in (20).

(19)   *And that was, **I think**, the essential issue at stake in those days.*
         [BNC B0H 1727]

(20) *My only other question, **I think**, was about the 'silent years', between Dolores (1911) and Pastors and Masters (1925).*
[BNC CA6 1648]

(21) *None of us spoke of the war, in which (**I think**) none of us much believed; but it was there all the time like? nagging pain.*
[BNC CA6 200]

(22) *"She doesn't say so, but at times **I think** she expects me to although she knows I can't.*
[BNC EFP 942]

(23) *It is, **I think**, one of two parts of an adequate account of causal asymmetry.*
[BNC EVX 667]

(24) *It turns out that the place used to belong to a Jewish tradesman — a cobbler, **I think**, or maybe a carpenter — who married a female demon.*
[BNC HGN 2851]

3.1.2.1.3   Opinion

The I-statements expressing opinion usually stand at the beginning of a clause to start the sentence with notion that it is the speaker's opinion what he is going to say. It is an introductory signal which makes it clear that the statement is subjective by using the attitudinal *I*.

(25) *'**I think** everybody who joins a company in any capacity should, if he's got the capability, be able to reach board level.*
[BNC A6L 1557]

(26) *'**I think** that it's very nice music,' Erika said.*
[BNC A7A 205]

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(27)   '*I think it's disgusting.*
         [BNC AJM 32]

(28)   *It was a good tour to do and **I think** we learned a lot from it.*
         [BNC C9L 287]

(29)   *But now **I think** if someone buys something, then they've a right to do with it what they will.*
         [BNC C9N 2232]

3.1.2.1.4   Tentativeness

I-statement I think is also often used in tentative meaning. Via this I-statement the speaker tries to say a person what to do. It is serves as an indirect recommendation or advice. Hence the I-statement is very often combined with a modal verb which makes the content of a proposition more polite, e.g ought to (30), need (31) or should (32), (33) and (34).

(30)   '*But **I think** you ought to see a psychiatrist.*
         [BNC AC3 207]

(31)   ***I think** you need treatment.'*
         [BNC ASS 2491]

(32)   *He will say, 'On this song I think you should play bass and on this song **I think** you should play guitar…'*
         [BNC C9N 571]

(33)   *If we believed in omens or portents, then **I think** we should have taken notice of some of the things someone or something was trying to tell us that June day.*
         [BNC G36 2119]

(34)   *Well, **I think** you should go and meet Sir Henry Baskerville.*
         [BNC H7V 304]

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3.1.2.1.5   Continuity

I established this category to gather here all those I-statement which have no semantic value but just stand at the beginning of a clause and makes the flow of the speech smooth. It serves as a discourse marker, which only guides the hearer through the text.

(35)   *'**I think** I'll wait until the film comes out,' one of them told me 'starring Arnold Schwarzenegger.'*
[BNC CAT 944]

(36)   *__I think__ you can guess what it is.'*
[BNC H9U 1307]

(37)   *'__I think__ I'll just stretch my legs a bit,' Zen announced.*
[BNC HTT 910]

3.1.2.2   *I think* **in spoken texts**

3.1.2.2.1   Modality

a) a modal verb or any other modal expression is used

(38)   *Well that's that's the problem but __I think__ a lot of this will be the evidence we'll need to show what we're doing.*
[BNC G4X 2083]

(39)   *On the other hand, you will have gathered already that we are going to talk about Greater York, so __I think__ there may be some distinct benefit and merit in you being he here to listen to that, er particular part of the topic, now the, I hope in fact that we can deal with the remainder of H One, because it it does lead quite logically*
[BNC HVJ 2]

(40)   *__I think__ that it is going to have a good effect on improving trading for the better parks and attractions in this country and as you know I think,*

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> *Alton Towers is the leading er, park of its kind in this country, Chessington which we also own is*
> [BNC HYE 248]

(41) *No I know that , that's it's not easier now, you know, but **I think** er that would be easier wouldn't it?*
[BNC KC0 4956]

(42) ***I think** er it won't be long before that goes I think.*
[BNC KLH 557]

b) the speaker is talking about other living creatures or on their behalf

(43) *Which I obviously don't agree with, **I think** they do an outlet just as much and I think that's where sport comes for them./thinking of others/*
[BNC FL5 418]

(44) *Mike wouldn't be, **I think** he was w er getting on a bit, oh I don't knot*
[BNC KC0 4956] talking of other person

(45) *And **I think** she intends on having quite a few drinks.*
[BNC KD3 528]

(46) ***I think** she's going to always fall over all the time really !*
[BNC KE0 2755]

c) I-statement is used in the meaning *I suppose, I am not sure* or when the person is trying to remember

(47) ***I think** one of the problems is, that a lot of shoppers don't realize that they're entering into a contract and we don't realize it for the simple reason that most people have, as soon as you hear the word contract you have a mental im*
[BNC FUT 181]

(48)   *I think* *that's part of the reason why she said you've got your hands full .*
        [BNC KB8 8227]

(49)   *so we did like a meal for,* *I think* *there was about thirty of them*
        [BNC KBD 7554]

(50)   *I think* *you did send this is intending it to be a postal application Mr ?*
        [BNC F7W 16]

(51)   *I think* *with your assistance we could probably get through it in about*
        fifteen, twenty minutes.
        [BNC HUC 549]

3.1.2.2.2   Parentheses

(52)   *It was the Slippery Elm bark* *I think* *that's what it was called.*
        [BNC FL8 239]

(53)   *The er the only figure that I I can find for commuting erm supplied by the*
        County Council is in er table five of N Y six *I think* *it is, N Y six, where*
        the County Council give er at the bottom of that erm on the bottom line of
        that table, a figure for Richmondshire of er three point five percent.
        [BNC JAD 651]

(54)   *And I would also support Mr Potters in the addition of the under-used*
        term would *I think* *be beneficial to the policy.*
        [BNC JAD 1036]

(55)   *Most of the, what has happened* *I think,* *over the last two and half years,*
        that I'm aware of, erm, is basically happening a long time before that, I, I
        can't say yes or no.
        [BNC JSN 331]

(56) *I think the word is, height, **I think**.*
[BNC KBF 728]

3.1.2.2.3   Opinion

(57) ***I think** they are very caring!*
[BNC F7Y 51]

(58) ***I think** it's actually got better.*
[BNC FLK 37]

(59) ***I think** there's still a need for feminism today, there we*
[BNC FLK 253]

(60) *But erm certainly erm I, **I think** that was erm a, a very good response to this because erm obviously we've got er a g a fair selection here, you've got erm building society instant and top ten postal, that's the postal account there, erm TESSA, P E P and*
[BNC G4H 816]

(61) *And **I think** you do that in a different way.*
[BNC G4X 1595]

3.1.2.2.4   Tentativeness

(62) ***I think** we, we complained to you and you complained*
[BNC FUL 1898]

(63) *the first one I don't think should come under this grant, **I think** it should go to enhancement.*
[BNC HYJ 1084]

(64) ***I think** you should wait for that and don't make any presumptions about the future of the runway.*
[BNC JS7 505]

(65)   *'m not an expert in but I thought this was a penetrating critique and all goes well for how the department is handling in a very difficult starting situation, a most important matter but there is Mr spoke to me about this paper and er **I think** we will have to hear what Mr had to say, I don't know who's going to report that.*
[BNC J41 321]

3.1.2.2.5   Continuity

(66)   *Well she go Hilda got a baby boy about eighteen month old when I knew her like you know, and er she lived by I think it was I think it was you know and er what happened to her I be **I think** she had to go in a home or er you see and er baby boy was adopted like, the baby boy that's about all I know about her that's about all.*
[BNC HMD 670]

(67)   *I've got to go to the loo in a minute anyway after I steal one of your cigarettes, notice the word cigarettes instead of the word fags oh I don't know, **I think** I'll go and sell my body, might make a couple of quid and leg it down the*
[BNC KE5 404]

3.2   *I find* and its counterparts in Czech

I used the InterCorp corpus to find out the Czech counterparts of the phrase *I find*. Firstly, I searched for the counterparts in English-Czech fictional texts; therefore I chose only the texts which were originally written in English. Finally, 51 texts were chosen out of 72 which are available in English-Czech/Czech-English parallel corpus. *Fig. 14: The English-Czech parallel texts selected for the research* shows the texts I was working with.

Fig. 14: **The English-Czech parallel texts selected for the research**

Then I went to query and put there a phrase *I find*, which is shown in *Fig. 15: Query*.

Fig. 15: **Query**

To see the token number, information about the author, title and the year of publication I had to click on "Show options" and choose particular requirements which can be seen in *Fig. 65: Further information about the texts*.

Fig. 16: **Further information about the texts**
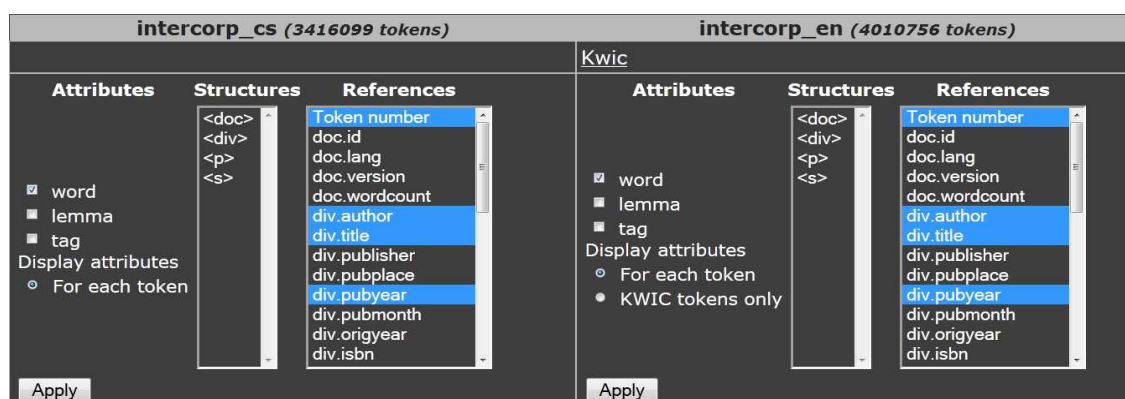
Secondly, I searched for the counterparts of the *phrase I find* only in Project Syndicate, Presseurop and Acquis Communautaire separately because as it was mentioned in 2.1.2 these texts are aligned automatically, and therefore some of the results may be misaligned. Hence I wanted to sort these data separately. To work only with Project Syndicate, Presseurop and Acquis Communautaire, I had to manually uncheck all the fictional texts and include only texts from Project Syndicate, Presseurop and Acquis Communautaire, which can be seen in *Fig. 17: Project Syndicate, Presseurop and Acquis Communautaire selection.*

Fig. 17: **Project Syndicate, Presseurop and Acquis Communautaire selection**
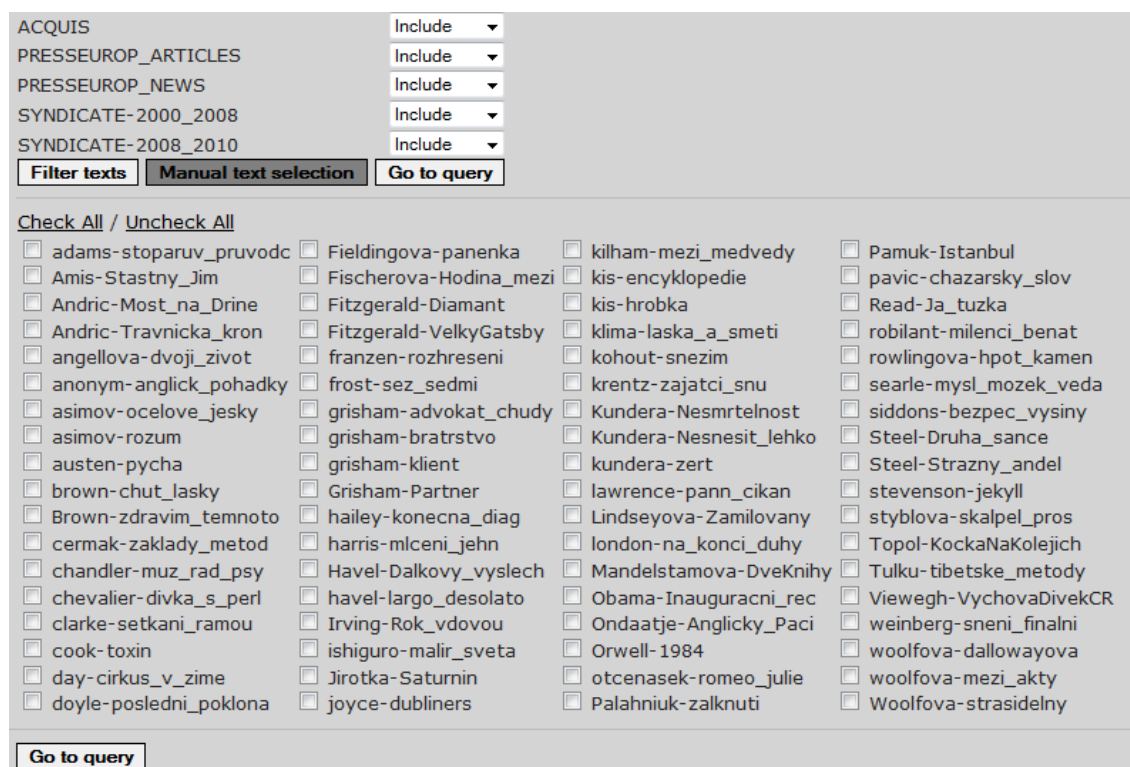
3.2.1 *I find* in fictional texts

After putting the query into English-Czech parallel corpus, I got 77 examples of the phrase *I find*. However, I had to go through all the examples and had to sort the data according to their meaning. I needed to exclude all those examples of *I find* which are used in the meaning "discover" and "learn". Hence I had to exclude 46 examples and finally analysed 31 examples. The overview of the gained data is shown in *Fig. 18: Gathered data from fictional texts.*

Fig. 18: **Gathered data from fictional texts**

I find	Frequency of occurrence
Total	77
Excluded	46
Analysed	31

Fig. 19: **Analysed data from fictional texts**

I find	Frequency of occurrence
Dative	16
Necítím se (I find myself unwell)	1
To nechápu (I don't understand)	1
Těžko (u)věřit (it's hard to believe)	3
Musím říci (I must say)	1
Vnímám (I perceive)	1
Konstatuji (I note)	1
Pokládám (I consider)	1
Shledávám (I find)	2
Považuji (I consider)	1
--- (omitted)	3

Fig. 19: Analysed data from fictional texts shows that out of 31 examples, 16 examples were translated into Czech via using dative, so that is more than half. Out of remaining 15 examples, 3 examples omitted the phrase *I find* and the other 12 examples used verbs

of cognition or perception without using dative, e.g. vnímám (I perceive), necítím se (I find myself unwell) or shledávám (I find). Some of the examples are as follows:

DATIVE:

> (1) *Well , if **I find** you playing this sort of trick again , or any sort of bloody clever trick , I 'll break your horrible neck for you and get you dismissed from your job as well . Understand ? '*
> [#29766657,Amis, Kingsley,Lucky Jim]
> *Tedy : jestli **mi** to ještě jednou provedete , nebo jestli mi vůbec něco takového ještě jednou provedete , zpřerážím vám pazoury a dám vás vyhodit ze školy , rozuměl jste ? "*
> [#28783012,Amis, Kingsley,Šťastný Jim,1959**]**

> (2) ***I find** it pretty scary that the act of hiring a callgirl (whenever you have an extra two hundred squirreled away where the wife wo n't see it) is the most daring and meaningful act in your life .*
> [#30211950,Angellová, Jeanette,Callgirl,2004**]**
> *Připadalo **mi** hrozné , že placený sex (kdykoliv si muž ulije stranou dvě stovky , aby manželka nevěděla) , je ten nejodvážnější a nejdůležitější počin v něčím životě.*
> [#29392688,Angellová, Jeanette,Dvojí život,2006**]**

> (3) *" **I find** that hard to believe .*
> **[**#30350634,Asimov, Isaac,The Caves of Steel]
> *„ To se **mi** nechce věřit.*
> [#29715023,Asimov, Isaac,Ocelové jeskyně**]**

NECÍTÍM SE

> (4) ***I find** myself very unwell this morning , which , I suppose , is to be imputed to my getting wet through yesterday .*
> [#30402974,Austen, Jane,Pride and Prejudice,2006**]**
> ***Necítím se** dnes ráno nějak ve své kůži - asi v důsledku toho , že jsem včera tak hrozně promokla .*
> [#29948878,Austenová, Jane,Pýcha a předsudek,2003]

VNÍMÁM:

(5)   *"**I find** that my affliction gets a little worse every week .*
[#31586106,Franzen, Jonathan,The Corrections,2001]
*" **Vnímám** , že to moje postižení je týden od týdne o něco málo horší .*
[#43601822,Franzen, Jonathan,Rozhřešení,2004]

MUSÍM ŘÍCI

(6)   *"**I find** you a most impressive gentleman for your years , Dr. Doyle . "*
[#31777373,Frost, Mark,The List of Seven,1993]
*" **Musím říci** , že jste na svůj věk obdivuhodný muž , doktore Doyle . "*
[#44368890,Frost, Mark,Seznam sedmi,1995]

KONSTATUJI

(7)   *"**I find** you in contempt , Mr. Moeller , and order you to jail . "*
[#32163583,Grisham, John,The Client]
*„ **Konstatuji** , že pohrdáte soudem , pane Moellere , a nařizuji vaši vazbu. "*
[#48275712,Grisham, John,Klient]

OMITTED

(8)   *" But I do n't tell him whether **I find** them good or bad ... and if he does n't deliver on his promise , I shall treat him harshly . "*
[#36502754,Di Robilant, Andrea,A Venetian Affair,2003]
„ Já jsem mu však neřekla , zda jsou dobré nebo špatné , a jestli nesplní svůj slib , budu s ním jednat tvrdě . " **(OMITTED)**
[#77885561,Di Robilant, Andrea,Milenci z Benátek,2005]

SHLEDÁVÁM

(9)   *" Nothing much happens here , but **I find** that if I keep my expectations low time goes by just the same . "*
[#36542586,Di Robilant, Andrea,A Venetian Affair,2003]
*„ Nic zvláštního se tady neděje , ale **shledávám** , že udržuji - li svá očekávání při zemi , utíká ten čas úplně stejně . "*
[#77921995,Di Robilant, Andrea,Milenci z Benátek,2005]

POVAŽUJI

(10)   *I find* *all of these accounts suggestive but I do not believe that they adequately capture the really radical differences between the mental and the physical sciences .*
[#36680334,Searle, John,Minds, Brains and Science]

Všechny zmíněné přístupy **považuji** *za inspirativní , jsem nicméně přesvědčen , že nepostihují zásadní rozdíly mezi mentálními a fyzikálními vědami .*
[#79991134,Searle, John,Mysl, mozek a věda]

POKLÁDÁM

(11)   *But I absolutely do not want you to look at him in public or even say hello , all the more so because he affects an equivocal manner that I simply do n't like and that* **I find** *insolent in the extreme ... .*
[#36447695,Di Robilant, Andrea,A Venetian Affair,2003]

Naprosto si však nepřeji , aby ses na něj na veřejnosti podívala nebo ho dokonce pozdravila , a to tím spíše , že má dvojsmyslné způsoby , které já prostě nemám rád a **pokládám** *je za nanejvýš nestydaté ...*
[#77835032,Di Robilant, Andrea,Milenci z Benátek,2005]

3.2.2 *I find* in Project Syndicate, Presseurop and Acquis Communautaire

From Project Syndicate, Presseurop and Acquis Communautaire I gained 21 examples of usage the phrase *I find*. Similarly as in 3.2.1 I needed to exclude the examples used in the meaning "discover" and "learn" and I also had to exclude the examples which were misaligned. Consequently, I had to exclude 13 examples and gained 8 examples for my analysis. *Fig. 20: Gathered data from Syndicate, Presseurop and Acquis* illustrates the overview of number of gathered data.

Fig. 20: Gathered data from Syndicate, Presseurop and Acquis

I find	Frequency of occurrence
Total	21
Excluded	13
Analysed	8

Fig. 21: Analysed data from Syndicate, Presseurop and Acquis shows the results of my analysis. Out of 8 examples I had for my analysis, 4 of them were translated into Czech by means of dative, so that is exactly half. The remaining four were again as in 3.2.1 expressed by using verbs of perception and cognition (*I see, I consider*) and in other examples it was translated by the verb *dokázat* (can) in both positive and negative form (cannot).

Fig. 21: Analysed data from Syndicate, Presseurop and Acquis

I find	Frequency of occurrence
Dative	4
Vidím (I see)	1
Dokážu (I can)	1
Považuji (I consider)	1
Nemohu (I can't)	1

DATIVE

(12)   *" **I find** it very disturbing .*
       [#35588071,Sandro De Riccardis,Northern League's White
       Christmas,2009]
       *„ Tahle iniciativa se **mi** nelíbila .*
       [#74963656,Sandro De Riccardis,Bílé Vánoce, ukažte doklady!,2009]

(13)   ***I find** it incredible , too .)*
       [#39575402,J. Bradford DeLong,The Anti-History Boys,2009]
       *i **mně** se to zdá neuvěřitelné .)*
       [#86631077,J. Bradford DeLong,Ahistorická partička,2009]

VIDÍM

(14)   *As a political philosopher, **I find** democracy's internal enemies a true
       intellectual problem.*
       [#37146566,Marcin Król,Omar and Osama's Kampf,2001]
       *Jakožto politický filozof **vidím** ve vnitřních nepřátelích demokracie
       skutečný intelektuální problém.*
       [#84419053,Marcin Król,Boj Umara a Usámy,2001**]**

DOKÁŽU

(15)   ***I find** it difficult to accept those who tend to describe the Molotov-
       Ribbentrop Pact as only a measure to build up Soviet national security .*
       [#38040535,Uffe Ellemann-Jensen,Coming to Grips with History,2005**]**
       *Jen stěží **dokážu** akceptovat ty , kdo mají sklon popisovat Pakt Molotov -
       Ribbentrop jako pouhé opatření k vybudování sovětské národní
       bezpečnosti .*
       [#85241634,Uffe Ellemann-Jensen,Vypořádat se s historií,2005]

POVAŽUJI

(16)   *What **I find** particularly striking is the sense of loyalty developing among cosmopolitans.*
[#38252000,Robert J. Shiller,The New Cosmopolitans,2006]
*Za obzvlášť pozoruhodný **považuji** pocit loajality , který se rodí mezi světoobčany .*
[#85434241,Robert J. Shiller,Noví světoobčané,2006**]**

NEMOHU

(17)   ***I find** it hard to understand how Sheik Rageh can miss (or ignore) the clear verses in the Koran , which order us to do the very opposite:*
[#38751665,Muhammad Habash,Breaking the Democratic Taboo,2007**]**
***Nemohu** dost dobře pochopit , jak si může šajch Radžíh nevšimnout (nebo nevšímat) veršů v koránu , které nám jasně nařizují , abychom činili pravý opak:*
[#85887623,Muhammad Habash,Jak prolomit demokratické tabu,2007**]**

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IV. English-Czech interface

1. I-statements and expressions of the *unfortunately* type

1.1 A view of Grepl and Bauer in *Skladba spisovné češtiny* (1980[1970])

Skladba spisovné češtiny (Bauer and Grepl 1980[1970]) mentions means of epistemic modality and include in it both I-statements with commenting function and expressions of the *unfortunately* type. Bauer and Grepl (1980[1970]) describe five groups of expressions capable of expressing epistemic modality towards the speaker's proposition. According to them "Jistotní postoje lze uplatnit jen v rámci vět oznamovacích, a to i s obsahem platným podmíněně (Epistemic attitudes can be applied only in declarative sentence, even with content that is conditional [NS]) (Bauer and Grepl 1980: 36[1970])," which is coincident with English.

The first group includes words like *asi, snad, patrně, možná jistě, určitě* (*maybe, perhaps, apparently, certainly possible, definitely* [NS]) and they are labelled as "modal particles" and are used to express speaker's conviction about the validity of the utterance. In Bauer and Grepl's words, modal particles are not considered as sentence elements, but rather as parentheses, therefore they are called "sentence adverbials" similarly as in Leech and Svartvik's *A Communicative Grammar of English* (1983[1975]). Bauer and Grepl show following examples (36):

(1)   Je *asi* deset hodin (It's *roughly* ten o'clock [NS])

(2)   Vlak měl *patrně* zpoždění (The train was *apparently* delayed [NS])

(3)   *Určitě* jsem mu to dal (I *definitely* gave it to him [NS])

(4)   On *snad* ještě přijde. (He *will* probably still come [NS])

The situation here is very similar to English as the examples demonstrate; the position of these expressions in a Czech sentence is initial or medial, and the end-position is not very frequent.

Bauer and Grepl also include some verbs like *myslím, tuším* (*think, hope* [NS]) and colloquial *(po) čítám* (*guess* [NS]) into this group (1980[1970]: 36):

(5)   Vlak měl *myslím* zpoždění (The train had a delay *I think* [NS])

(6)   Bylo to *tuším* o prázdninách (*I suppose* it was during the holidays [NS])

(7)   Dnes bude *počítám* pršet (*I guess* it will be raining today [NS]).

Similarly as Dušková (2003[1988]), Bauer and Grepl consider these verbs, specifically their forms in the first person singular, as losing their sentence nature, since the pause in speech and comma in writing are omitted after these expressions as in *Myslím už bude pršet* (*I think it will be raining* [NS]) (36).

The second group describes the means expressing the extent of validity of the speaker's proposition. It can be expressed separately from the content of a message by "attitudinal predictors". Bauer and Grepl present following clauses as an example (36):

(8)   *Jsem přesvědčen, že už odjeli* (I'm sure they have left [NS])

(9)   *Předpokládám, že už přijeli* (I suppose they have come [NS])

(10)   *Je možné, že už přijeli* (It's possible they have arrived [NS])

(11)   *Možná, že mi ještě netelefonovali* (Perhaps they haven't called me yet [NS])

(12)   *Myslím, že vlak měl zpoždění* (I think that the train was late [NS])

(13)   *Tuším, že jsem to už někde slyšel* (I guess I heard it somewhere [NS]).

However, in these sentences we no longer talk about parentheses, as the introductory signals become the main clauses of a sentence taking that (že) –clause as a complement, which is dependant.

The third group employs "modal verbs", the fourth "future forms" and the fifth group uses modal adverb *prý* (allegedly [NS]).

1.2   A view of Daneš et al. in *Mluvnice češtiny (3)* (1987)

Mluvnice češtiny (3) (1987) speaks about two types of introducing the content of speaking, thinking, knowing, perceiving. On one hand, it mentions *clauses introducing*

direct speech, and on the other hand, *clauses introducing sentence expression of information* (Daneš et al. 1987: 676).

Daneš et al. (1987) give similar conception of "comment clauses" in their *Mluvnice češtiny (3)* as the English grammarians mentioned in the theoretical part. They call the comment clauses "Autorské komentující poznámky (Authorial comments [NS])" and divide them into three groups: (1) Komentující poznámky spojové (Linking comments [NS]), (2) Komentující poznámky stylizační (Comments on style [NS]), (3) Poznámky kontaktové (Contact comments [NS]) (Daneš et al. 1987: 676-678).

(1) Komentující poznámky spojové (Linking comments [NS]) are of the three types. Firstly, it is "poznámky týkající se modality, zvláště stupně přesvědčení podavatele o platnosti, hodnověrnosti sdělení (comments concerning modality, especially degree of the speaker's certainty about validity, credibility of his / her statement [NS]) (1987: 676)." Daneš et al. classify several fixed expressions among these comments (676):

> *Myslím, zdá se mi, jak mi připadá, jak jsem přesvědčen, jak doufám, tvrdím, jsem si jist apod.*
> *(I think, it seems to me, as it appears to me, I believe, I hope, I claim etc.* [NS]*)*

Most of them are part of Poldauf's 3rd plan clauses or comment clauses stated above by several English grammarians. Secondly, it is "poznámky vyjadřující věcné hodnocení (comments expressing factual evaluation [NS])," and thirdly, "poznámky vyjadřující hodnocení z hlediska citového postoje (comments expressing emotional attitudes [NS])" (Daneš et al. 1987: 677).

(2) Komentující poznámky stylizační (Comments on style [NS]) guide the hearer through the structure of speech, comment on the way the statement was uttered or give expressive bias to the expression (1987: 677-678).

(3) Poznámky kontaktové (Contact comments [NS]) appeal to the hearer and try to form rhetorical perspective (678).

1.3   A view of Grepl et al. in *Příruční mluvnice češtiny* (1995)

Grepl et al. (1995) mention in their *Příruční mluvnice češtiny* a term "Postoje jistotní modality (epistémické) (Epistemic attitudes [NS])." According to them express these epistemic attitudes express "různé stupně jistoty mluvčího o platnosti sdělovaného obsahu (various degrees of speaker's certainty about the content being communicated [NS])" (624).

Grepl et al. claim that if the speaker is certain about the content he is communicating, he does not signalize it anyhow. However, if the speaker is not absolutely sure about the validity of the communicated content, he signalizes this uncertainty via various means which can be seen in the following examples given by Grepl et al. (1995: 624):

(14)   ***Domnívám se****, že se Pavel rozvádí (**I believe** Paul is getting divorced* [NS]*)*

(15)   *Pavel se **patrně** rozvádí (Paul is **apparently** getting divorced* [NS]*)*

(16)   ***Myslím****, že Pavel ještě nespí (**I think** Paul isn't sleeping yet* [NS]*)*

(17)   *Pavel **zřejmě (nejspíš)** ještě nespí (Paul **probably** still hasn't fallen asleep* [NS]*)*

(18)   ***Soudím****, že je to druh klouzka (**I guess** it's a kind of yellow boletus* [NS]*)*

(19)   *Toto **bude** druh klouzka (It **will be** a kind of yellow boletus* [NS]*)*

As the examples (14) – (19) show, according to Grepl et al. (1995) epistemic attitudes can be formed by I-statements with commenting function (certainty), adverbs of the *unfortunately* type or modal verbs (in Czech grammatical means). Thus it reminds of a situation in English where disjuncts (Quirk et al. 1985) can be formed by both clauses and adverbials.

3. Unattached dative (English-Czech comparison)

This phenomenon is already compared with Czech in the chapter 4. Unattached Dative, as it is a phenomenon which is typical of Czech but rare in English. Therefore the chapter 4 is rather based on Czech and finds the counterparts that English uses for expressing the dative. Nevertheless, several views of the Czech grammar books will be mentioned.

2.1 A view of Grepl and Bauer in *Skladba spisovné češtiny* (1980[1970])

Bauer and Grepl (1980[1970]) describe the unattached dative as non-syntactical case, that means it is not controlled by verb (140). It can be used after verbs which do not require an object and its use is semantically motivated. According to its semantic meaning, Bauer and Grepl (1980[1970]) distinguish four kinds of unattached dative: *adverbial dative, possessive dative, dative with contact function* and *emotional dative* (140).

2.2 A view of Daneš et al. in *Mluvnice češtiny (3)* (1987)

Daneš et al. (1987) mention only *dative with contact function.* According to them, this dative is always emotionally coloured and gives the utterance a confidential tone (663).

2.3 A view of Grepl et al. in *Příruční mluvnice češtiny* (1995)

Grepl et al. (1995) give the same description of syntactical function of the unattached dative as Grepl and Bauer (1980[1970]), but Grepl et al. (1995) mention altogether eight kinds of unattached dative according to its semantic functions: *dative of the benefit, dative of respect, dative of agent, possessive dative, emotional dative, dative of mood, contact dative and dative of concern* (Grepl et al. 1995: 430-431).

4. Concluding remarks

To sum it up, the phenomena which Poldauf describes in his Third syntactical plan is contained in English as well as in Czech. English is typical of high frequency of

using finite clauses as I-statements with commenting function (see 3.1 I-statements) and so is Czech, as the grammar books suggest. Sometimes these I-statements are classified among sentence adverbial or disjuncts as they are degraded in their form and practically behave as an adverbial as they can occupy any position in a sentence. And that is valid for both languages. As the phenomena are still developing or its status is changing, the terminology in both languages is various. It is possible to find similar descriptions of the phenomena, but the terminology usually does not correspond. It means that it is quite broad group of expressions which are still in the process of searching the proper umbrella term.

What concerns the unattached dative, it has been already summed up in the chapter 4. Unattached Dative. It is disappeared from English (only some relics remained) but it has quite broad usage in Czech. Grepl et al. (1995) mention eight various functions that can be expressed by the unattached dative.

V. Conclusions

In this thesis, I have focused on Poldauf's Third syntactical plan, with a closer analysis of the three main parts of the plan: I-statements with commenting function, expressions of the *unfortunately* type and unattached dative.

In the theoretical part I summarized the state of the art, that is the views of English grammar books on particular phenomena in each decade after publishing The third syntactical plan (1964). It was divided into three chapters according to the phenomena mentioned in the first paragraph. The overviews of terms were provided and I specified the most appropriate ones. The fourth chapter was devoted to differences between spoken and written language.

In my analysis I set the list of 10 I-statements and tried to find out their distribution in the whole BNC corpus, and then in written and spoken texts separately. Then I focused my interest on the I-statement *I-think* and observed its surroundings, connection to a clause, position in a clause and its semantic functions. As expected most of the I-statements are much more frequent in spoken texts than in written, especially the I-statements *I think, I mean* and *I know* which reach several thousands of occurrence in the whole corpus. When analysing I-statement *I think* only 11 solutions were excluded out of 100 solutions in written texts and 14 from spoken texts because the I-statement was used in its primary meaning or the clause was unfinished or used language economy and it was impossible to analyse the clauses. That shows that the remaining examples were used as components expressing speaker's attitude towards the proposition (Poldauf 1964), so it is almost 90 percent in both spoken and written texts. There were found several functions in which the I-statement was used in both written and spoken texts: modality (to which degree the speaker is certain about the proposition), tentativeness (I-statement used to weaken the statement), opinion (subjective I-statement), continuity (a means of smooth flow of the text) and parentheses (filling the empty gaps in the text, functioning as discourse marker).

The second part of analysis dealt with one of the English means of expressing dative, the clause *I find*, and its counterparts in Czech via using the InterCorp corpus. My expectation was that it would be translated mostly by dative case in Czech and in both fictional texts as well as in Project Syndicate, Presseurop and Acquis Communautaire it was proved. In fictional texts 16 samples out of 31 were translated by dative case and in Project Syndicate, Presseurop and Acquis Communautaire 4 samples

out of 8 were also substituted in Czech by the dative case. In other cases the phrase *I find* was translated by means of verbs of perception or cognition and subject I to express the speaker's concern. English prefers to put the agent in subject position; however, Czech prefers to express the concern of a person by dative case which can be placed wherever in a sentence without changing its meaning.

As both the English and Czech grammar books suggest, the I-statements with commenting function are degraded clauses which remind of sentence adverbials or disjuncts by their behaviour in a clause. Several grammarians even include these comment clauses among disjuncts or sentence adverbials, i.e. sentence elements on the periphery of the sentence. For example, Biber et al. (1999) give several forms which can function as stance adverbials (finite clauses, non-finite clauses, stance adjectives, stance nouns, stance adverbials …) and it seems that all these forms can work in complementary distribution. In many cases the stance adjectives, adverbials or nouns are derived from the verb, e.g. think - thought - thoughtfully - thoughtful. It outlines space for another research in future.

Although I have worked with only two kinds of corpora and the samples of data were not large, it appears to me that Poldauf's conception of The third syntactical plan shows a right way in classifying these components on the periphery of the sentence structure or out of his two previous syntactical plans. Most of the views of English grammarians correspond to Poldauf's but it is still difficult to fix the terminology. As the data from corpus show, Poldauf's theory might be applicable even nowadays; however, several improvements should be added to its terminology. As a way to its improvement might be combination with one of the three Halliday's (1976:23-30) semantic systems of language: interpersonal level of language, which includes all sorts of means involved in personal and social interaction.

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Resumé

Ve své diplomové práci jsem se zaměřila na Poldaufův Třetí syntaktický plán, s podrobnější analýzou třech hlavních prvků: autorské komentující poznámky, výrazy typu *bohužel* a volný dativ.

V teoretické části jsem shrnula dosavadní stav bádání, tzn. Shrnula jsem jednotlivé názory uvedené v anglickách učebnicích gramatiky, které zmiňují výše uvedené jevy. Pracovala jsem celkem s pěti anglickými učebnicemi, přičemž každá sloužila jako zástupce pro jednotlivá desetiletí následující vydání Poldaufovy studie v roce 1964. Teoretická část je rozdělena na tři části podle jevů zmíněných v prvním odstavci. Na konci kapitol jsou uvedeny přehledy užitých termínů a zároveň moje vyjádření a zaujmutí stanoviska k těmto problematikám, a také zvolení nejvhodnější termínu. Čtvrtá část teoretické části pojednává o rozdílech mezi psaným a mluveným jazykem.

V analytické části jsem uvedla seznam mnou 10 zvolených autorských komentujících poznámek a pomocí Britského národního korpusu jsem se snažila zjistit jejich distribuci jak v celém korpusu, tak i odděleně v psaných a mluvených textech. Později jsem se zaměřila na autorskou komentující poznámku *myslím si/ já si myslím* a všímala jsem si okolí této poznámky ve větě, její připojení k větě, pozici ve větě a také její jednotlivé sémantické funkce. Podle mých očekávání jsem našla mnohem více výskytů autorských poznámek v mluvených textech než v psaných, zejména autorské poznámky typu *myslím si, mám na mysli, já vím,* které byly v celém korpusu zastoupeny několika tisíci příkladů. Když jsem analyzovala autorskou poznámku *myslím si/já myslím,* musela jsem vyloučit 11 příkladů ze 100 v psaných textech a 14 příkladů z mluvených ze stejného množství, protože byly použity v primárním významu nebo byly obsaženy v nedokončených větách či větách, které využívaly jazykové ekonomie a nebylo možné je analyzovat. To poukazuje na to, že zbylé příklady byly použity jako prvky vyjadřující postoj mluvčího k sdělovanému tvrzení (Poldauf 1964), takže to je téměř 90 procent jak v psaných tak mluvených textech. Při analýze vzorků jsem zavedla rozdělení autorských komentujících poznámek do pěti skupin podle jejich sémantické funkce v mluvených i psaných textech: modalita (do jaké míry si je mluvčí jistý platností tvrzení), váhavost (autorské komentující poznámky užité k zeslabení výroku), názor (subjektivizace), kontinuita (prostředek návaznosti textu) a vsuvky (vyplňující prázdná místa v textu, fungující jako tzv. discourse markers).

Druhá část analýzy byla věnována jednomu z prostředků vyjadřování dativu v angličtině, větě *I find,* a jejím protějškům v češtině za využité jazykového korpusu InterCorp. Můj předpoklad byl, že fráze bude v češtině překládána převážně dativem a v jak v beletristických textech, tak v textech z projektů Project Syndicate, Presseurop a Acquis Communautaire bylo prokázáno, že tomu tak je. Z 31 příkladů z beletristických textů bylo 16 přeloženo pomocí dativu a v textech z projektů Project Syndicate, Presseurop a Acquis Communautaire tomu tak bylo ve 4 případech z 8. V ostatních případech byla fráze *I find* přeložena pomocí sloves vnímání a poznání a podmětu já, aby bylo zachováno vyjádření zainteresovanosti mluvčího na obsahu výpovědi. Anglický jazyk dává přednost postavení konatele v roli podmětu, avšak čeština upřednostňuje vyjádření zájmu pomocí dativu, který může stát kdekoli ve větě bez změny významu.

Jak anglické a české učebnice gramatik naznačují, autorské komentující poznámky jsou degradované větné struktury, které svým chováním ve větě připomínají větná adverbia nebo disjunkty. Několik lingvistů dokonce zahrnuje tyto komentující věty mezi disjunkty či větná adverbia, tzn. větné členy na periferii větné struktury. Např. Biber a spol. (1999) uvádějí několik větných forem, v kterých se mohou postojová adverbia ve větě objevovat (určité věty, neurčité věty, postojová adjektiva, postojová substantiva, postojová příslovce, …), a zdá se, že všechny tyto formy se mohou na svých místech vzájemně nahradit (pracují v komplementární distribuci). Postojová adjektiva, příslovce nebo substantiva jsou v mnoha případech odvozeny od sloves, např., myslet-myšlenka-zamyšleně-zamyšlený. To nastiňuje oblast dalšího výzkumu do budoucna.

Ačkoliv jsem pracovala jen se dvěma druhy korpusů a mé vzorky nebyly příliš rozsáhlé, dalo by se říct, že Poldaufovy koncepce Třetího syntaktického plánu ukazuje správnou cestu klasifikování komponentů na okraji větné struktury nebo mimo jeho dva předešlé syntaktické plány. Většina názorů obsažených v anglických gramatikách se shoduje s Poldaufovým pohledem, ačkoliv je stále velice obtížné ustálit pro tyto jevy pevné termíny. Jak data z korpusu ukazují, Poldaufovy teorie se jeví jako funkční i dnes, avšak, několik zpřesnění by mělo být do jeho koncepce přidáno. Jedna z cest k aktualizaci Poldaufovy teorie by mohlo být propojení s jednou tří Hallidayových (1976:23-30) sémantických rovin textu: s interpersonální rovinou jazyka, která pojímá všechny prostředky podílející se na osobní a sociální interakci.

Anotace

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Klíčová slova: disjunkty, vsuvky, autorské komentující poznámky, volný dativ, discourse markers, jazykový korpus InterCorp, British National Corpus

Charakteristika: Práce se zabývá platností Poldaufovy Třetího syntaktického plánu. Pozornost je věnována především autorským komentujícím poznámkám a protějškům anglické fráze pro vyjádřeni volného dativu *I find*.

Key words: sentence disjuncts, parentheses, authorial comments, unattached dative, discourse markers, language corpus InterCorp, British National Corpus

Characteristics: The thesis deals with the validity of Poldauf's Third syntactical plan. A detailed analysis focuses on the I-statements and counterparts of the English phrase for expressing the unattached dative *I find*.