

Frequency of Sentence Types across Functional Styles

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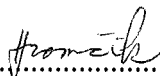
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ABSTRAKT

V této bakalářské práci se zabývám výskytem jednotlivých typů vět napříč různými funkčními styly. Teoretická část vysvětluje základní rozdělení typů vět a popisuje charakteristiku vybraných funkčních stylů. Praktická část je zaměřena na průzkum různých druhů textů, které patří do jednotlivých funkčních stylů, a výskyt jednotlivých větných typů je vyjádřen v procentuelních hodnotách.

Klíčová slova: typy vět, funkční typ, strukturální typ, funkční styl, analýza

ABSTRACT

The bachelor thesis deals with an occurrence of different sentence types across various functional styles. The theoretical part explains classification of particular sentence types, and describes the characteristics of chosen functional styles. The practical part is focused on the research of different kinds of texts belonging to individual functional styles and the occurrence of sentence types is expressed by using of percentage values.

Keywords: sentence types, functional types, structural types, functional style, analysis.

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INTRODUCTION

Language can be classified from many different points of view; results of analyses can simplify understanding of the language functions. Detailed knowledge of language helps us to communicate more effectively. The thesis is focused on research the frequency of sentence types across different functional styles.

The bachelor thesis is divided into two parts: theoretical and a practical one. The theoretical part is essential for understanding research in the practical part. The theoretical part of the thesis deals with grammar and stylistics. From the grammatical point of view sentence types are divided into basic groups according to their syntactic and functional classification. Another important step is to define what can be considered as a finite clause, because non-clausal structures are not a subject of the analysis. Finite verb is an element which is essential for classifying the sentence types, therefore, verb-less clauses, infinitival clauses, and some forms of verbs are closely described in the theoretical part of the thesis as infinite ones. However, sentence types are not exactly a subject of the analysis, because a sentence may be composed of two or more clauses that may be of various types. Therefore, the clause types are considered as the subject of the analysis.

The stylistic part of the thesis deals with diversity of language, because its variance is so large that language cannot be considered as one whole unit, but only as a means of communication which is highly various based on its form and use. As a most significant difference being considered within the use of language is the distinction between spoken and written form, which is closely described in the thesis. Another, and the most significant, section of the stylistic part is a definition of style and classification of functional styles. These are described later on to a certain extent according to their role played in the analysis, with exception of the publicistic style which is not a subject of the analysis in practical part, but is mentioned to explain differences between this kind of style and newspaper style. Functional styles, analyzed in the practical part, were chosen according to their special role played within language. Some of them may hardly be classified from the point of functional styles, for example film dialogues or religious texts; the rest of them being the language of official documents, scientific texts, newspaper articles, printed advertisements and instructive texts.

The practical part of the thesis is focused on analysing particular sentence types across the functional styles. The research is based on texts found on the Internet. Proportion of the particular kinds of texts differs according to their availability. However, to maintain

objectivity and clarity of the analysis an occurrence of clause types is demonstrated by percentage values showed in pie charts.

I. THEORY

1 SENTENCE TYPES

Classification of sentence types can be considered from more than one point of view. The first kind of classification is briefly mentioned in the following subsection, but the most important classification of sentence types which is subject to analysis in the practical part is dealing with the structure and function of the clause.

1.1 The Main Types of Clauses

“An independent clause is not part of any larger structure, but it may contain embedded clauses or be coordinated with clauses on the same level.” (Biber, Conrad and Leech 1999, 202) An essential element of an independent clause is the presence of a verb to determine its tense and modality. It means that the independent clause is finite and can be classified as a particular sentence type. Independent clauses can be divided into three groups:

- **Simple** independent clause consists of a single clause

[1] *Martin was sleeping at home.*

- **Complex** independent clause contains at least one dependent clause

[2] *My mum was very tired when she arrived home.*

- **Compound** independent clause contains at least two coordinated independent clauses

[3] *I was in the forest and storm was coming.*

(Biber, Conrad and Leech 1999, 202)

An independent clause might have different speech-act functions. There are four basic functions distinguished which correlate with four primary structural types of independent clauses. According to Biber speech-act functions are distributed into four basic groups.

Speech act function	Structure	example
Inform	S-V structure	It is beautiful.
Elicit	V-S structure	Is it beautiful?
	<i>wh</i> word, V-S structure	How beautiful is it?
	<i>wh</i> word	Who is there?
Direct	V structure	Be careful!
Express	<i>wh</i> word, S-V structure	How beautiful it is!

Table 1. Speech-act function 1 (Biber, Conrad and Leech 1999, 202)

The first type is used to convey information without requiring an answer from the addressee. The second function is used to ask for information and require an answer. The

third is mostly used to direct an addressee and to ask for a certain kind of behavior. The last type is used by a speaker to communicate his feelings. (Biber, Conrad and Leech 1999, 202)

1.2 The Basic Division of Sentence Types

Sentence types in English might be classified according to syntactic and semantic aspects. Both of these aspects have independent character in the sentence. The syntactic aspect deals with structure of the sentence, and semantic aspect deals with its function, therefore, it should be classified individually. Four basic structural types of the independent clause are declaratives, interrogatives, imperatives and exclamatives. However, there are also non-finite clauses which cannot be classified as of a structural type; these are mostly non-finite and verbless clauses. These clauses do not belong to finite independent clauses, because the verb they contain is not finite, nor completely missed. (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik 2004, 803-804)

The semantic aspect dealing with the function of the sentence might be divided into four basic categories a statement, question, command and exclamation. Contrary to the syntactic aspect, functional types might be present also in non-finite or verbless clauses (see example 4). (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik 2004, 803-804)

[4] *Window!*

“Window!” in a situational context might stand for “close the window” or “open the window”, the function being instruction or exclamation. However, the structural type cannot be classified because the lack of finite verb is obvious.

The relation between structure and function of the sentence can be combined, but there is a certain degree of correspondence between them. The model situation is: declarative clause – statement, interrogative clause – question, imperative clause – command, exclamative clause – exclamation. (Biber, Conrad and Leech 1999, 202)

1.3 Sentence types and their basic features

1.3.1 Declarative clause

Declarative clauses are typically used to convey information, a statement. The basic condition that must be realized is S - V structure (see example 5), showing that subject must precede the verb. Declaratives have a fixed structure, but there can be found some exceptions which are not frequent. (Biber, Conrad and Leech 1999, 203)

[5] *David is a very clever boy.*

Declarative clause is typically used to express a statement, but it can be used to express other functional types as well (see examples 6, 7). (Biber, Conrad and Leech 1999, 203)

[6] *You aren't satisfied?*

[7] *I was waiting for you!*

In example [6] there is a declarative clause structure with function of a question, in which a speaker asks for confirmation, not for information. In example [7] there is a declarative structure used to express an exclamation.

This sentence type fulfills an important function of language - to convey information; therefore, it is assumed that presence of declarative clauses will be dominant in most kinds of the analyzed texts. More facts will be known after the analysis of functional styles to come in the practical part of the thesis.

1.3.2 Interrogative clause

Interrogative clauses are divided into three main categories according to their structure and a type of answer they expect. The categories are *wh-questions*, *yes/no questions* and *alternative questions*. The main syntactic distinction differentiates *yes/no questions* and *wh-questions*, but also *alternative questions*, because they can be expressed both in *yes/no* structure and *wh*-structure. There is also a difference in intonation between particular types of questions. *Yes/no question* has rising intonation, on the other hand, *alternative* and *wh-questions* have falling intonation. (Biber, Conrad and Leech 1999, 206-207; Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik 2004, 806)

Yes/no question

Yes/no questions are usually formed by an operator followed by the subject. The operator can be auxiliary or modal verbs placed in an initial position. The answers tend to be *yes* or *no*, but there can be various words used to express degree of certainty (sure, maybe, probably). See examples below: (Biber, Conrad and Leech 1999, 206)

[8] A: *Do you like my car?*

B: *Yes/Definitely.*

[9] A: *Could I try it?*

B: *Sure.*

Wh-question

Wh-questions are also known as information questions, because they require some new information. Special features of *wh-question* are initial position of *wh-word* and inverted word order (see example 10). However, there also exists *wh-question* without inversion, in which case *wh-element* stands for the subject and is followed by verb. The structure of this type of *wh-question* is the same as the structure of declaratives (see example 11). (Dušková 2003, 321-322)

[10] *Who did you see?*

[11] *Who saw you?*

In most of the cases, the *wh-word* is placed initially, but there exists an exception. The preposition can precede the *wh-word* (see example 12). But the same sentence can be expressed by the structure with the *wh-word* in an initial position (see example 13). (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik 2004, 817)

[12] *With whom did you speak?*

[13] *Who did you speak with?*

Alternative question

Alternative questions are mostly expressed in yes/no question structure (example 14), less frequently in *wh-question* structure (example 15). A specific feature of alternative question is the presence of options. The addressee can choose between alternatives which are offered by the speaker. There can be two or more alternatives. (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik 2004, 823)

[14] *Do you want coffee or tea?*

[15] *Which color do you prefer? Blue, green or red?*

Echo questions

Echo questions are a special type of question which has a special role in conversation. They are used to confirm the original utterance, also called stimulus. They are mostly used to make sure that the original question was correctly heard or understood, but the listener can repeat it for different reasons, for example the content of the question was so surprising that the listener wanted to confirm the information or assure himself of it. Echo questions can be also used to ask a question, because of its unclear perception, for example under noisy conditions. According to Huddleston, echo questions are divided into three main groups: Polar, Alternative and Echo (see examples below). (Huddleston 2002, 886)

Stimulus	Echo question
<i>He is coming tomorrow.</i>	<i>He is coming tomorrow?</i>
<i>He is calling Marry.</i>	<i>He is calling Marry or Many?</i>
<i>She has never been to France.</i>	<i>She has never been where?</i>

Table 2. Echo questions (Author)

According to Huddleston, Echo question is not considered as a clause type, but as a construction which is quite independent and can be combined with any of the clause types. (Huddleston 2002, 888-889)

1.3.3 Imperative clause

Imperative clause structure is the most direct sentence type, mostly used to express a command, but it can occur having various functions. Basic features of imperative structure are: the lack of a subject, verb used in a base form, and not including modals, tense and aspect markers. The imperative mood can consist of a verb in the base form (example 16). Of course, there are several complex imperative clauses (example 17). They can be also expressed in interrogative structure in some cases (example 18). (Biber, Conrad and Leech 1999, 219)

[16] *Go!*

[17] *Don't sleep in my bed!*

[18] *Push the red button, will you?*

The structure of imperative clauses can contain a subject in some cases. For example, when the speaker wants to address a particular person, but there are several people in the same place. Another case is when the speaker wants to address someone in a rather personal way. In both situations the second person pronoun *you* can be used (see example 19). Another case when a subject in the imperative clause structure can be used is a situation when directions are not addressed to a certain person, but to a particular group of people. Then the subject is in the third person and stands at the beginning of the clause (see example 20). (Dušková 2003, 329)

[19] *You stay here!*

[20] *Somebody turn the lights of.*

Another feature which can occur in imperative clauses is the word “let”. This phrase takes the initial position in the clause and it is commonly used in first person imperatives

where it is followed by subject. Instead of *let us* an abbreviated form *let's* can be used (example 21). (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik 2004, 829-830)

[21] *Let's go home.*

Imperatives are mostly used to express a command or order (example 22), but they can also stand for prohibition [23]; request [24]; advice [25]; warning [26]; instruction [27]; and for other functions. (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik 2004, 831-832)

[22] *Wash the dishes.*

[23] *Don't speak.*

[24] *Call me later, please.*

[25] *Don't eat fat meals.*

[26] *Be careful!*

[27] *Turn to the right.*

Imperative clauses are used much more often in spoken language than in written one. Frequent occurrence of imperatives should be the case in styles which are specific because of impersonal direct language, e.g. instructive texts.

1.3.4 Exclamative clause

This is very specific clause type with fixed structural form, which is not very common in any, spoken or written English; on the other hand, the functional type “exclamation” can be expressed by the use of various clause structures and it is much more common than the exclamative structural type. A special feature of its clause structure is an initially placed *wh-word*, as well as in *wh-questions*, but there is no inversion in exclamative clauses, which means that the structural order in the clause is *wh-word*, S-V structure. Only two of the *wh-words* can be used: *what* and *how*. These words play the role of intensifiers in here, or a role of determiners in interrogatives elsewhere. (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik 2004, 833-834).

The examples show various forms of exclamation in particular clause types - exclamative clause [28]; declarative clause [29]; interrogative clause [30]; imperative clause [31]; non-clausal form [32].

[28] *What a nice girl you are!*

[29] *It is nonsense!*

[30] *Isn't it awesome!*

[31] *Listen to it! Unbelievable!*

[32] *Land!*

The last example [32] is a special nonverbal clause used to express an exclamation; it is a common feature of spoken language. (Biber, Conrad and Leech 1999, 219)

An occurrence of exclamatives in language is generally less frequent than the occurrence of the previous sentence types. Exclamative clauses can be mostly found in conversation or in belles-lettres style.

Echo exclamations

The echo exclamations have the same function as echo questions; they repeat a part or the whole clause which stands before them. The different feature with echo questions is a rise-fall intonation. The echo exclamatives can be used for repeating all kinds of main structural types (see examples below in the following order: declarative 33; interrogative 34; imperative 35; exclamative 36). (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik 2004, 837)

[33] A: *My mum always eats about three hamburgers a day.*

B: ***Three hamburgers!*** *She must be fat.*

[34] A: *Do you like my T-shirt?*

B: ***Your T-shirt!*** *You have already asked me*

[35] A: *Bring me beer, please!*

B: ***Bring me beer!*** *Am I your servant?*

[36] A: *What a silly question!*

B: ***What a silly question!*** *You are so annoying.*

Echo exclamatives can repeat a previous clause to different degrees of completeness. In example [34] it could be also uttered: *Your mum eats three hamburgers!* or just *hamburgers!* (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik 2004, 837-8)

Interjections

Special features especially relating to language of conversation are interjections. The role of an interjection is to express emotions of the speaker. It has a clear exclamatory function and it is very common in language of sermon or conversation. Interjections are less frequently found in written form of language. An example of an interjection: *Oh, Oh yes, Oh God.* Interjections are not important to be said, they are mostly uttered in moments of surprise or when expressing emotions. (Biber, Conrad and Leech 1999, 1083-84)

1.4 Non-finite clauses

Clauses in which tense and modality cannot be identified are called non-finite clauses; therefore, they cannot be classified from the point of structural types. These clauses are dependent on other major clauses; their verb is in a non-finite form and cannot be fully inflected. The clauses are not usually as explicit as finite clauses. According to Biber non-finite clauses are divided into three main types: infinitive clauses, ing-clauses and ed-clauses. (Biber, Conrad and Leech 1999, 198-201)

An Infinitive clause is a clause which contains the verb in an infinitive form mostly preceded by “to” (see example 37), but it can also exist in the form of bare infinitive, without “to” (see example 38)

[37] *I was decided **to go** home.*

[38] *She made my mother **fall** into the hole.*

Ing-clause, also called gerund participle is another type of a non-finite clause which is quite common. It can be found in different syntactic roles (see example 39). (Biber, Conrad and Leech 1999, 198-201)

[39] ***Being** hungry, he went to a restaurant.*

Ed-clause is another type of non-finite clauses. (Biber, Conrad and Leech 1999, 198-201)

[40] ***Adopted** by the new family, the boy was finally happy.*

These types of non-finite clauses exist in different syntactic roles, but a detailed description of particular subgroups is not relevant for the purposes of the thesis as they can be classified quite easily.

1.5 Verbless clauses

Another kind of clauses which cannot be classified from the point of structural types is represented by verbless clauses. According to Huddleston, verbless clauses are in a dependant or supplement function, corresponding to non-finite clauses. See examples of verbless clauses in the position of complement or supplement. (Huddleston 2002, 1267)

Verbless clause in the position of **complement** is always placed after a preposition, mostly *with*, *without* or *although* (see examples 41; 42). (Huddleston 2002, 1267)

[41] *Children were sleeping in the bed [with **the pillows under their heads**.]*

[42] *Although **no longer an alcoholic**, he went to the pub.*

In the first example there is a prepositional phrase in the role of adjunct. The PP *with* has a similar function as the verb “have”, the clause becomes independent by adding: *They had the pillows under their heads.* (Huddleston 2002, 1267)

The clause in the second example can be modified to a finite clause by adding a subject and the verb “be”: *Although he was no longer an alcoholic.* (Huddleston 2002, 1267)

Supplement is another form of verbless clauses (see example 43). (Huddleston 2002, 1268)

[43] *My mum, **whether happy or sad**, never cries in front of me.*

2 VARIETIES OF LANGUAGE

Gal'perin defines varieties of language as follows: "The functioning of the literary language in various spheres of human activity and with different aims of communication has resulted in its differentiation. This differentiation is predetermined by two distinct factors, namely, the actual situation in which the language is being used and the aim of the communication." (Gal'perin 1971, 48) The use of language in an actual situation resulted in the distinction of language as spoken and written one. Various aims of communication have evolved into various distinctions of language as systems or styles. (Gal'perin 1971, 48)

Crystal has identified basic differences between studying aspects of language structure and studying domains of use of English. Structural properties of language are a very wide topic, but at least finite and easily recognized one. The problem is to classify all aspects of English usage, because use of English can be studied from many points of view and the distinction of particular groups does not have to be definite. There can appear many situations, in which there are features of written and spoken language used in various combinations. Of course, there are some specific fields which can be considered very definite, such as language of law and religion that use very specific terminology. (Crystal 2003, 286)

Both linguists pointed out that written and spoken language should be considered as separate units, because frequency of particular features in both forms of language differs a lot. However, it should be strictly determined what belongs to written or spoken language. In the age of growing popularity of the internet communication through various social networks and chatting rooms is also rapidly rising the phenomenon of written speech, which is more corresponding with spoken language. Especially young people are writing down their thoughts and ideas as fast as they can without preserving the right structure of the text and expect immediate answer. On the other hand, in some cases spoken language belongs to the written one. These exceptions are for example speeches and oratories which are well-prepared in advance and come under publicistic style. Their structure is the same as the structure of written language.

2.1 Basic Features of Written and Spoken Language

Speech is a dynamic and usually spontaneous process held between two or more people. It is an interaction between a speaker and an addressee, where participants usually play both the role of speaking and listening. (Crystal 2003, 291) “The spoken language has a considerable advantage over the written, in that the voice comes into play.” (Gal’perin 1971, 48) An utterance can be modulated by using various gestures or changing power of the voice. These aspects can cause an impact on general meaning of an utterance. During speaking there is only very a little time between production and reception. A speaker must react very quickly to produce an appropriate response. Participants of speaking must manage both talking and preparing new expressions and ideas; it usually leads to repetition, hesitating and rephrasing during the speech. (Crystal 2003, 291; Gal’perin 1971, 48)

Written language has to somehow compensate the lack of body-language, intonation and other qualities which are associated with the spoken form of language. Therefore, written language must flourish and diffuse much more than the spoken one. The writer should express his ideas clearly to be sure that the reader understands the text, because there is no room for any interaction between them. These facts lead to the point that the structure of written language is supposed to be much more elaborated than the structure of the spoken one. (Gal’perin 1971, 48; Crystal 2003, 291)

It is important to determine some basic differences between written and spoken language before detailed description of particular functional styles. It seems that written and spoken language differs mostly from the syntactical point of view. On the other hand, functional styles are often distinguished on the basis of lexical features such as professional terminology and expressions. But there are also some significant differences in frequency of sentence types. In spoken language there is assumed higher occurrence of questions, because participants can ask and react immediately. An occurrence of exclamations is also more common in speech, because intonation and power of voice play an important role in elevating the exclamation. Imperative clauses are commonly present in both spoken and written language depending on the function they convey. Written language is typical of frequent use of declarative clauses, which indicate prevailing informative character of written language.

2.2 Classification of Style

The word “style” includes variety of meanings in different branches such as fashion, architecture or behavior. However, style in linguistics is basically meant as a way of using language in particular situations. The choice of style depends on a social role which is played by a person in a certain moment. Each person plays many social roles throughout a day; therefore, people use different style of language at home, at work or with friends, etc. The style in this case can be considered an adaptability of language to refer to certain situations.

Gal’pein’s definition of style says: “A style of language can be defined as a system of coordinated, interrelated and interconditioned language means intended to fulfill a specific function of communication and aiming at a definite effect.” (Gal’perin 1971, 253)

Language can be studied in view of different factors which influence formation of particular styles such as a factor of time, factor of place, factor of gender and other conceptions which are more or less important. But classification of these factors is not a subject of the analysis.

3 STUDY OF FUNCTIONAL STYLES

Styles are dynamic and adapt to the needs of new functions of language. Changes in society create new ways of language usage. Language develops and creates new features, therefore, functional styles are evolving, some of them being extinct and others rising. But particular styles are not exposed to changes on an equal scale. For example, publicistic style is rapidly developing. On the other hand, belles-lettres can be considered as a very stable functional style. (Knittlová 2010, 137)

Knittlová demonstrates basic division of functional styles and sub-styles of the literary standard language. She also adds the fact that the distinction is not definitive and only possible. (Knittlová 1977, 15)

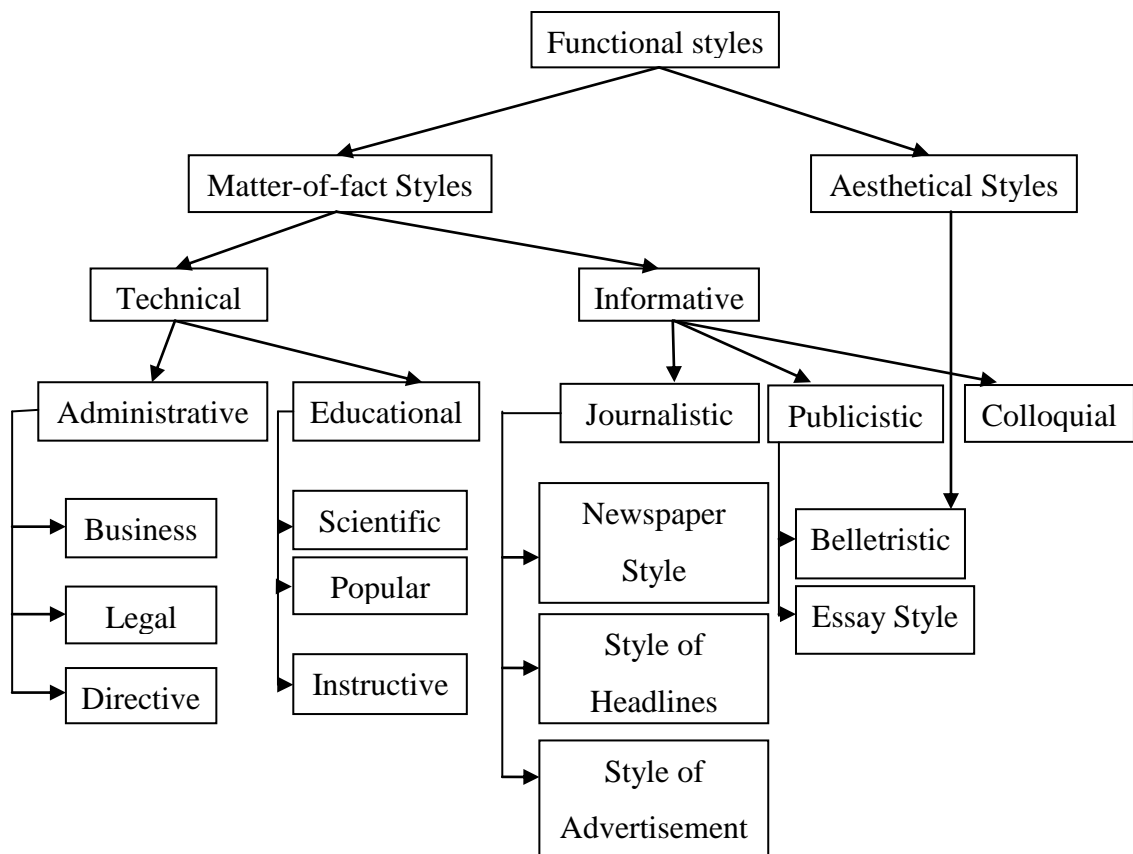


Figure 1. Functional styles 1 (Knittlová 1977, 15)

3.1 Classification of Functional Styles

“A functional style of language is a system of interrelated language means which serves a definite aim in communication.” (Gal’perin 1977, 33)

In the course of time, the determination of styles was described in many ways according to different criteria. Nevertheless, most of these theories are in concordance in the case of diversity of belles-lettres and matter-of-fact style. Therefore, functional styles are divided into two main groups: the matter-of-fact style and the belles-lettres style. The matter-of-fact style is typical of absence or minimum of aesthetic intention, it is easily recognized on the base of its formality, impersonality and using of stereotypical structure. (Knittlová 2010, 136)

The matter-of-fact style is subdivided into many sub-styles, but we can encounter it mostly in the newspapers, scientific texts and administrative documents. The principle role of this style is to inform or instruct people. It means that the matter-of-fact text is supposed to be very direct and didactic. Then it is obvious that most sentences are of a directive or declarative structure.

Belles-lettres plays a completely different role and stands in opposition to matter-of-fact style. There is a specific usage of wide diversity of various language means from both syntactical and lexical point of view. One of the characteristics is also a frequent usage of emotive meanings, which are not quite used in other styles. An aesthetic intention is a very important factor here because the author wants to influence his listener and impress him by applying personal attitudes and feelings. The language of belles-lettres style should be interesting and can use various figures of speech such as metaphors, hyperbole, irony, metonymy personifications, similes, etc. (Knittlová 2010, 134)

An analysis of particular sentence types in belles-lettres style is not a subject of the thesis. The belles-lettres style is difficult to unify in a complex analysis because of its large diversity.

3.1.1 Publicistic style

Publicistic style originally comes from scientific style, but has many features common with administrative style because of its logical structure, and belles-letters style because of its emotionally colored expressions. (Knittlová 2010, 189)

Gal’perin says: “The general aim of publicistic style which makes it stand out as a separate style is to exert a constant and deep influence on public opinion, to convince the

reader or the listener that the interpretation given by the writer or the speaker is the only correct one.” (Gal’perin 1971, 296) He also mentioned an important role of an emotional appeal which is used to persuade people. Another specific feature of publicistic style is its spoken variety, which is used in reporting news on radio and in television. Publicistic style is divided into three sub-styles: oratory and speeches, essay style, and articles. However, this style is the youngest one from the basic classification, so it is obvious that it is exposed to changes and new subcategories that publicistic style rapidly evolves. (Gal’perin 1971, 296)

3.1.2 Language of official documents

Language of legal documents is another subject of the analysis of the practical part of this thesis. Legal English has common features with science style and religious English. The precision and coherence of science language and a respect for ritual and historical tradition of religious English are met in language of legal documents. The style must be stable enough to hold on in the course of time, but it is also supposed to be flexible to be able to adapt easily to new situations in society. Legal language has the biggest amount of responsibility; therefore, legal English is composed of long sentences, because there should be several related issues contained in particular statements. (Crystal 2003, 374)

3.1.3 Religious English

In view of the functional styles, religious English stands between matter-of-fact style and publicistic style. Common features of matter-of-fact style are frequent usage of professional terms, impersonality and formality of language. But publicistic style and religious English have a common aim - to persuade people. Rather than functional style based classification it is better to consider religious English according to Crystal, who elaborated a theory, where he described occupational varieties of English. According to him, religious English is one of the most distinctive among all occupational varieties, because it uses very specific, often archaic, expressions. (Crystal 2003, 370)

3.1.4 Scientific texts

Scientific functional style is one of the basic styles of matter-of-fact literature. In the last decades it branched into many subfields as a result of specialization of science. An essential function of scientific style is to communicate ideas accurately, briefly and concisely. Another specification of scientific style is a high index of repetition, because the

lexical scale of particular scientific studies is quite limited. The similarity of sentence structure has a schematic tendency. Strict objectivity of scientific texts requires an impersonal approach and frequent occurrence of passive forms in clauses (Knittlová 2010, 148-149)

There are two main subgroups of scientific language. The first one is “popular scientific style” and the second one is simply “scientific style”. Group of readers which the scientific language focuses on is an important factor determining the choice between popular scientific and scientific language. Popular scientific style is aimed at ordinary people, not specialists. The text is influenced by devices of colloquial style, publicistic and belles-lettres. There is a clear intention to explain even difficult scientific facts in a familiar way, understandable for ordinary people. Sentences are quite short, with the lack of special expressions, and unknown terms are mostly explained. A common feature of popular scientific texts is comparison which shows special terminology in different situations. The role of this style is very important, because it introduces ordinary people to new scientific studies and results. (Knittlová 2010, 150)

The second main subfield of scientific functional style is pure scientific language which is, in fact, style that people usually see under the title scientific. It is language which can be hardly readable by people not familiar with it, because of amount of professional terms and abbreviations. The text is clearly scientific without any features of publicistic or belles-lettres style. (Knittlová 2010, 150)

3.1.5 Newspaper article

Newspaper articles are part of newspaper style. It is another independent functional style in English which belongs to matter-of-fact styles. Newspaper style is special for its characteristic features which distinguish it from the other styles. It is sometimes mistaken for publicistic style, but the following facts will show obvious distinction between them. The basic aim of newspaper style is to inform or instruct people without expressing an author’s opinion or comments, contrary to publicistic style where an attitude or personal comments are expected from the author. The text of newspapers is without emotional meaning and there is a lack of an appeal to the reader, which is mostly present in publicistic style. The features of the newspaper style are very stereotypical what approach it to scientific style. Newspaper language must be expressed in way to be understandable for readers. Nevertheless, language of newspaper does not really represent the newspaper style,

because there is variety of columns written in other functional styles in newspaper. Functional styles which can occur here are: the style of official documents, the style of specialist (advices for gardeners), belles-lettres (short stories). (Knittlová 2010, 169)

3.1.6 Style of advertisements

Another subject of analysis of the practical part of the thesis is language of written advertisement. Style of advertisement is very specific for its function; it is a persuasive form of communication aimed at huge amounts of people. They are used to attract an attention of people and convince them to buy the product. Advertisements include two interrelated processes: communicational and persuasive one. (Knittlová 2010, 185-187)

Advertisements may be divided into two basic types of written adverts it is a short copy advertisement which is mostly one sentence long, or a long copy advertisement which has a character of a rather long text. (Knittlová 2010, 185-187)

The subject of this analysis is a text of long copy adverts, because they usually consist of coherent logical texts which might be classified from the view of structural clause types.

3.1.7 Instructive language

Instructive text also belongs to matter-of-fact style, because they use special terms and lack emotively colored expressions. Instructive texts are for example gardening manuals and descriptions, user's manuals, cooking recipes, etc. The character of texts is instructive with the function to advise people how to act step by step in certain situations.

The text of instructive language is supposed to be very direct; therefore, the proportion of structural types may be different from most functional styles.

3.1.8 Film dialogues

Another subject of analysis is language of film dialogues, also called screenplay, which belongs to spoken variety of English. Screenplay is part of mass media style that has evolved in the last decades. Language of film is hard to classify regarding its function. The range of film genres is quite wide and it is then quite difficult to find some common features or a common function. There are adventure films, horror films, documentary films, romantic films, science-fiction, criminal, soap operas and the other genres. (Knittlová 2010, 199)

The structure of film dialogues cannot be generally classified as a whole, because some films strictly follow the screenplay in which case the film dialogue has rather a form

of written language. Screenplays of other films may give an impression of natural conversation between the characters; these are rather similar to spoken form of language. But in most films certain degree of interaction between characters is assumed that indicates occurrence of interrogative structures, which plays a very important role in language of film dialogues.

II. ANALYSIS

4 LANGUAGE OF LEGAL DOCUMENTS

Language of legal documents is one of the most significant language styles. Text written in this kind of language usually consists of very long sentences which are written in logical sequence and with a high degree of formality. The function of the text is to inform readers about laws, provisions, restrictions, etc., therefore, the text of the legal document is written in a declarative structure. There is no space for using interrogatives or exclamatives structures, sometimes imperatives occur, however, they are very rare. The subjects of analysis are legal documents - “Civil Rights of 1991” and “Amendments to Treaty on European Union and to the Treaty Establishing the European Community”. The character of both texts is very informative and declaratives is the only clause structure present. The sentences often contain much information listed in a row and may give an impression of monotonous writing (see example 1).

[1] *“The Union is founded on the values of respect for human dignity, freedom, democracy, equality, the rule of law and respect for human rights, including the rights of persons belonging to minorities.”* (Official Journal of the European Union)

In the pie chart below a sole position of declarative structured clauses is demonstrated.

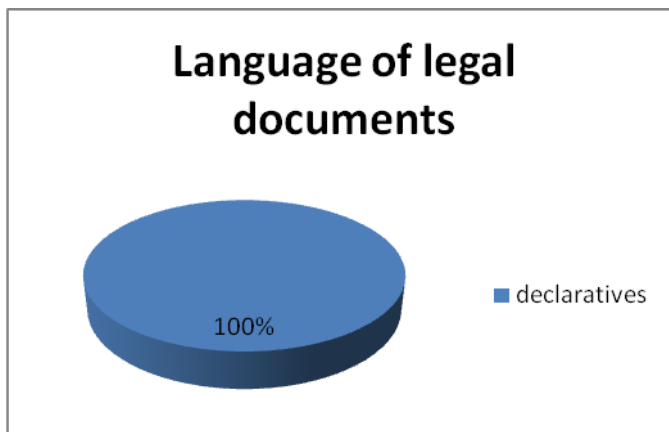


Figure 2. Language of legal documents (Own research)

5 RELIGIOUS TEXTS

Frequency of particular sentence types is influenced by the character of religious texts. The specific feature of fundamental religious texts, such as Bible, Koran, Mahabharata and Buddhist texts, is determination to present facts and principles of a religion. Their role is mainly informative which is obvious from strong domination of declarative structured clauses (see example 2).

[2] *“The Buddha’s name became famous over all India and Suddhodana.”* (The Buddha’s father)

However, the prayer is typical for its prevailing imperative structure and minimal occurrence of declaratives (see example 3).

[3] *Lord, deliver my loved ones from the power of darkness, and cause them to put on the armor of light.* (Praying for Relationships)

The prayer has a special role in religion, believers talk to God to plead him, and therefore its structure is very specific.

Frequency of particular sentence types in texts is also influenced by particular religions and their philosophy. Especially Koran has a tendency to affect people directly by frequent use of imperatives (see example 4), exclamations and vocatives.

[4] *Help not one another unto sin and transgression, but keep your duty to Allah.* (Qur’an, *al-Ma’idah*)

Another special feature of religious texts, especially in Koran, is high occurrence of exclamations, which are not written within exclamative structure but in declaratives or non-clausal forms (see example 5).

[5] *“Lo! Allah is Knower of all things.”* (Qur’an, *The Spoils of War*)

There is high occurrence of vocatives in Koran; their function is mostly to keep the attention of readers and communicate directly with them (see example 6).

[6] *“O ye who believe!”* (Qur’an, *al-Ma’idah*)

The religious texts are also very specific in comparison with different functional styles by the use of archaic words such as *thus*, *thou*, *thy*, *thee*, *hath*, etc (see example 7).

[7] *“And thou (Muhammad) threwest not when thou didst throw.”* (Qur’an, *The Spoils of War*)

In the following pie chart an occurrence of particular sentence structures is demonstrated across religious texts. The subject of analysis is the text from the four

World's religions: Buddhism, Christianity, Islam and Hinduism. The chart also includes data from prayer.

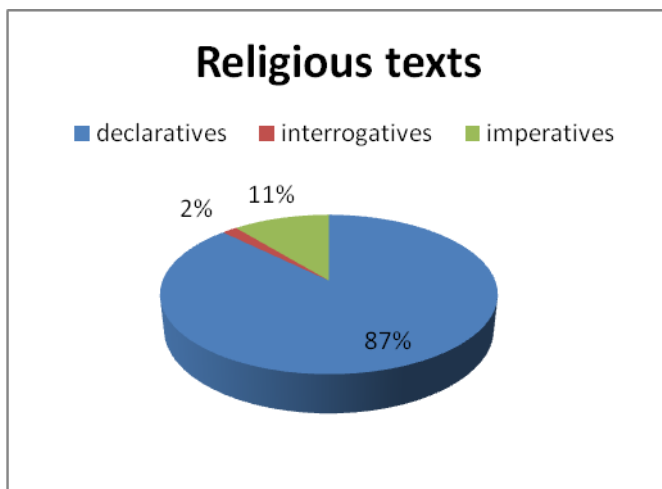


Figure 3. Religious texts 1 (Own research)

In the composition below there is proportion of sentence structures in the prayer consisting only of declarative and imperative structures. Frequency of imperatives is higher, because the function of the prayer is not to convey information but to plead God.

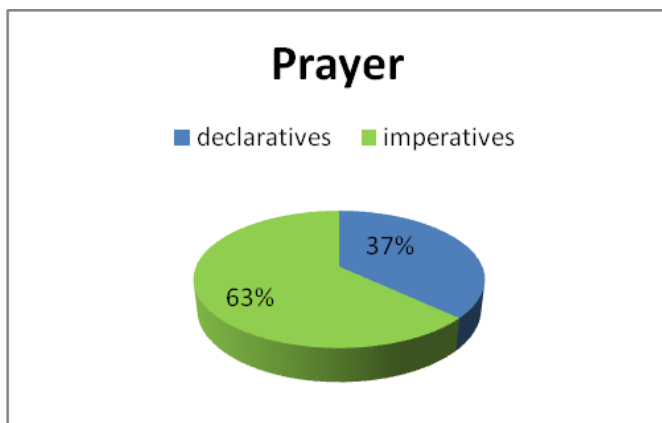


Figure 4. Prayer 1 (Own research)

6 SCIENTIFIC TEXTS

The subject of analysis is a variety of scientific texts that are focused on current research, inventions and discoveries. There are scientific reports and articles included, such as “New H1N1 Mutation Could Allow Virus to Spread More Easily”, “Bees Could Reveal Key to dementia”, “A New Evolutionary History of Primates”, etc.

A scientific text is very specific style of writing which may be recognized easily based on its special terms and frequent quoting. Language of science is divided into scientific and popular scientific one, which can be distinguished quite easily according to different features in the text. Popular scientific style is more informal because of its high frequency of phrasal verbs, contracted expressions or verbs in active voice. However, the syntactic structure of clauses in both sub-styles is almost the same.

The basic aim of the scientific text is to inform or educate people about topics related to natural science or humanities. Therefore, declarative structure has almost the sole position in language of science (see example 8).

[8] *“The results indicate that bees that well understand the relationship immediately, just as children learn to behave nicely when promised a reward of chocolate cake”.* (The Research Council of Norway)

In example [8] there is a declarative sentence from a scientific style, where comparison is used to explain theory easily.

Interrogative structure might occur occasionally in popular scientific texts, its role is mostly to concern the reader, so it is usually placed at the top of the scientific article (see example 9).

[9] *“How exactly does one turn sunlight and water into usable energy?”* (Dillow)
Imperative and exclamative structures are completely excluded from scientific texts, because informative character of the style does not require any direct instruction or exclamations.

In the pie chart below it is obvious that the prevailing syntactic structure of the popular scientific text is a declarative one.

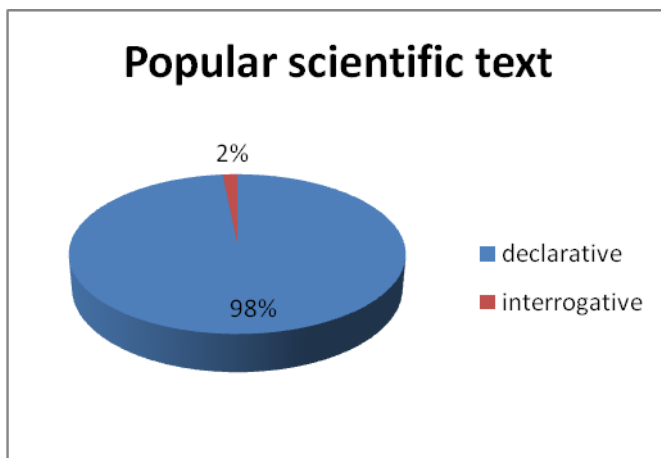


Figure 5. Popular scientific text 1 (Own research)

The following pie chart demonstrates that the scientific text is composed only of declarative structured clauses.

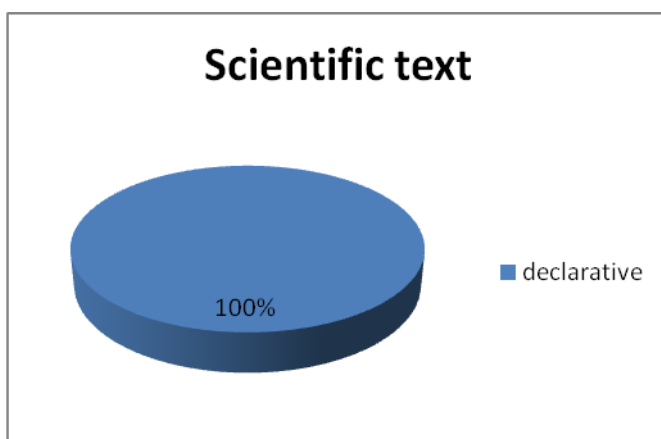


Figure 6. Scientific text 1 (Own research)

7 NEWSPAPER ARTICLES

Newspaper articles are one of the many functional styles occurring in newspapers. Its basic function is to report news. The other styles might be headlines, professional texts, sport commentaries, horoscopes, etc. The variety of newspaper articles can be very distinctive based on the type of newspapers or even their name, therefore, two articles written on the same topic might be expressed in two different ways, because particular styles of newspapers differ. Declaratives are a prevailing clause structure without any significant differences across particular newspapers. The basic function of the newspaper articles is to convey information presented to the readers; therefore, the declarative structure is rather common here (see example 10).

[10] *“It appears that Pakistan government functionaries too are now realising the importance of putting across their appeal for help to the world in a better way.”* (Yusufzai 2010)

Interrogatives are the other structure occurring in the articles, but they are not very frequent and they usually do not require an answer from the reader. This is mostly the kind of questions in which an author puts a question and then answers himself in the following lines, it is co called rhetorical question (see example 11).

[11] *“Does the date signal a desire to exit but without having a credible exit plan?”* (Lodhi 2010)

Imperative and exclamative structures are not present in the newspaper articles analysed. However, there might be some non-finite clause structures with a function of exclamation but found in tabloids rather than in broadsheet.

In the pie chart below quite a sole position of the declaratives used in the newspaper articles is obvious.

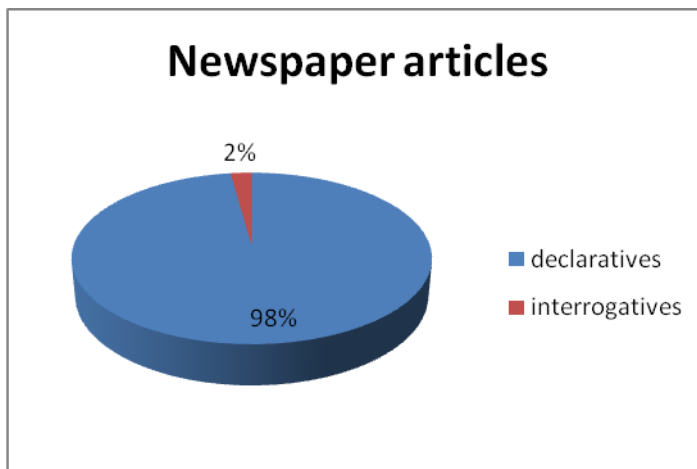


Figure 7. Newspaper articles 1 (Own research)

8 TEXT OF ADVERTISEMENT

Another subject of the analysis is a text of long copy advertisements, because the structure of short copy advertisements might be very unspecific, often verb-less and impossible to classify from the point of view clause types. The aim of short copy adverts is to get into mind of customers and inform them about existence of the product. On the other hand, the long copy adverts inform about properties of the goods through a coherent informative text. In language of advertisement there are all clause types present. The primary position is held by declarative sentences as in most kinds of texts, because the character of long copy advertisement is mainly explanative, including characteristic features of the advertised goods. An occurrence of interrogative structures is not as common as of declarative ones, but it is very important. The function of interrogatives may be various, for example, to attract an attention of people. In this case, the interrogative structure is placed in the title or at the top of the advert (see example 12).

[12] *“When is it appropriate to bring pickles instead of wine?”* (Corey’s Advertising Blog, entry posted October 24, 2010)

Interrogative structures may be also found at the bottom of advertisement; in this case, it is used as a final question on the customer and should persuade him to buy the product (see example 13).

[13] *“Is it still proper to bring pickles?”* (Corey’s Advertising Blog, entry posted October 24, 2010)

The difference between frequency of imperatives and interrogatives is not very significant. Imperative structured clauses have mostly the function of command or advice with the role to persuade the customer to buy the product in direct way; however the long copy advertisements based on imperative structure are not as polite as the adverts based on declaratives. Language of advertisement should find more sophisticated way how to persuade the customer. Exclamative structure is not very common in language of advertisement and the function of the exclamations is mostly to encourage customers to buy the product (see example 14).

[14] *“Give a Vanity Fair phonograph and you give years of fun. **What’s a good idea!**”* (Ertl Company)

The pie chart below demonstrates frequency of particular structural types across the language of long copy advertisements.

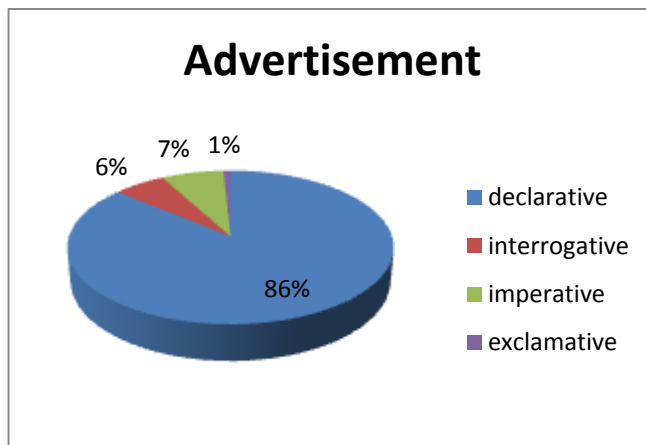


Figure 8. Advertisement 1 (Own research)

The proportion of *wh*-questions and yes/no questions in the advertisement is balanced (see the pie chart below)

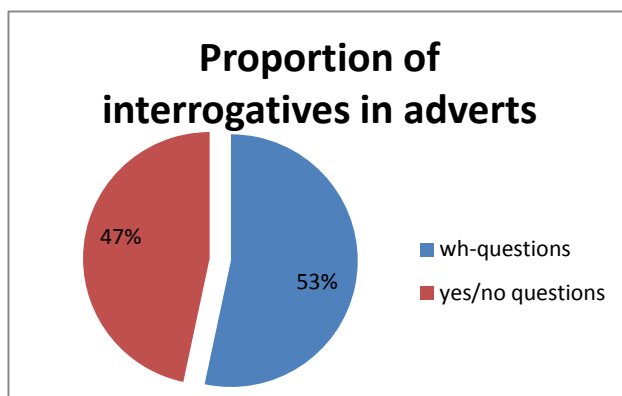


Figure 9. Proportion of interrogatives in advert 1 (Own research)

9 INSTRUCTIVE FUNCTIONAL STYLE

Instructive functional style includes different kinds of texts which can vary both in clause structure and their functions. Here the subjects of the analysis are user's manuals, gardener's texts and cook recipes. Each of these kinds of instructive texts are described and analyzed in the following subheads. The pie chart below demonstrates the percentage proportion of the structural types of all analyzed instructive texts.

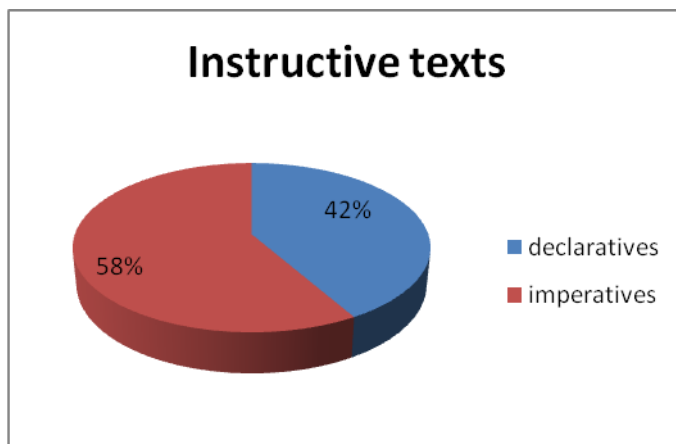


Figure 10. Instructive texts 1 (Own research)

9.1 User's manual

The subject of analysis is a text of user's manual, namely a refrigerator manuals, digital Palmcorder and build-in hotplates unit manual. The aim of user's manuals is to explain the properties of the product and describe basic steps of its proper use. The text is partly informative, represented by declarative structure (see example 15) and partly instructive, represented by imperative structure (see example 16).

[15] *"It is false economy to buy cheap utensils."* (Refrigerator)

[16] *"Connect and plug in the Cords as shown."* (Digital palmcorder)

Another role of imperatives is to warn users before inappropriate use (see example 17).

[17] *"Do not use abrasive cleaners or scouring pads."* (Build-in hotplate units)

According to the pie chart below it is obvious that only declaratives and imperatives are present in the text of the user's manual.

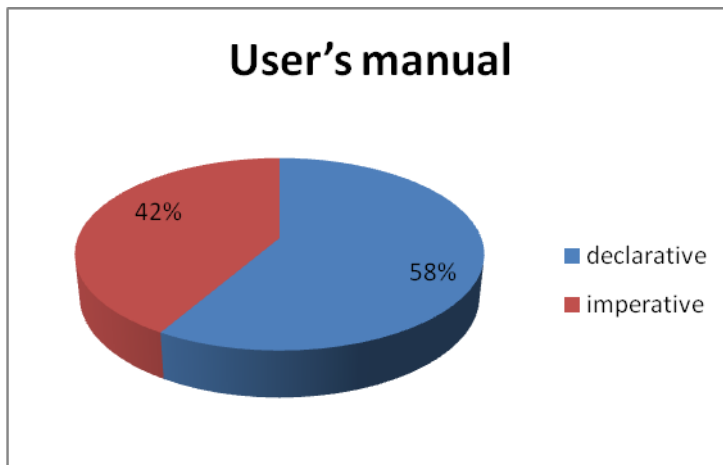


Figure 11. User's manual 1 (Own research)

9.2 The text of gardening

Another kind of instructive functional style may be professional texts relating to gardening. The subject of analysis is a text describing principles of gardening and planting particular crops. From the analyzed texts about gardening it is obvious that they are written in informative and instructional way. The proportion of imperative and declarative structures is quite balanced. The texts usually contain an informative part with some important facts of a certain issue and an instructive part with description of how to act in certain situations. Declarative structure is slightly prevailing because the texts of gardening include much information. The instructive part is written mostly in imperative structured clauses, which are very directive. Basic functions of imperative clauses in the gardening text are advisory and instructive ones.

The instructions clearly describe individual procedures step by step in a logical sequence (see example 18).

[18] *“Allow the wine to grow to the top of the post and cut just above that point. Tie to the post. Remove any branches below.”* (Grape pruning)

An article often starts with imperative structure which is followed by declaratives that deal with the issue in detail (see example 19).

[19] *“Grow crops you like to eat! Plant a variety of vegetables, flowers, and herbs. The more diversity, the fewer problems you'll have with pests.”* (Gardening)

The pie chart below demonstrates the proportion of imperatives and declaratives, and it is obvious that exclamatives and interrogatives are not present in the gardening texts.

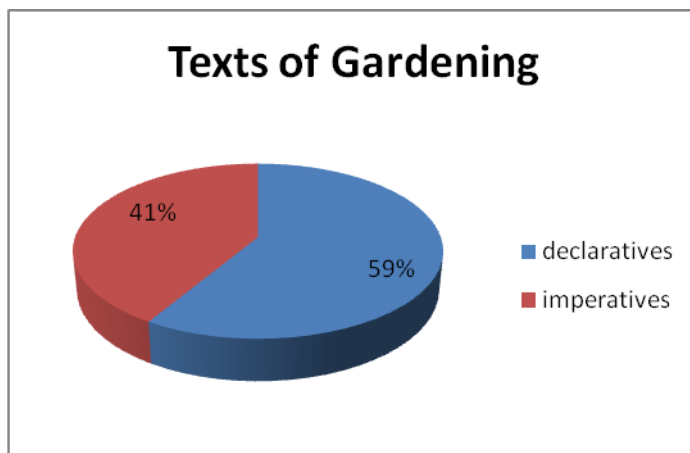


Figure 12. Texts of gardening 1 (Own research)

9.3 The text of the cooking recipes

Another kind of text which belongs to instructional functional style is cooking recipe text. The most characteristic feature of cooking recipes is directness of the text. Cooking recipes usually compose of two main parts of the text, namely ingredients and directions. Particular ingredients are listed including their appropriate quantities. This part of text cannot be classified with a view to sentence types, because it is just a list of components. On the other hand, the second part called directions is mostly written in imperative structure. Cooking process is written step by step and it is to be clear, because particular cooking recipes are often used by people without any previous experience with preparing the meal in question. The text is mostly written in imperative way; therefore, it is very impersonal without any features of aesthetic intention, and aims directly at its users. The function of imperative structure of recipes is very instructive (see example 20).

[20] *“Bring to a boil over medium heat, stirring frequently, lower heat and cook for 1 hour. Add Half and Half and blend well.”* (Chicken Velvet Soup)

The proportion of declarative structure features is not very significant and they are used for detailed description of processes or ingredients (see example of declarative structure 21).

[21] *“If you fill the bowl with too many crumbs at one time, the crumbs will get sticky and chunky.”* (Eggplant Parmesan)

From the pie chart below a prevailing position of imperative structure in cooking recipes is obvious. Declaratives do not play an important role in the text of the cooking recipes. Interrogatives and exclamatives are completely excluded from this text.

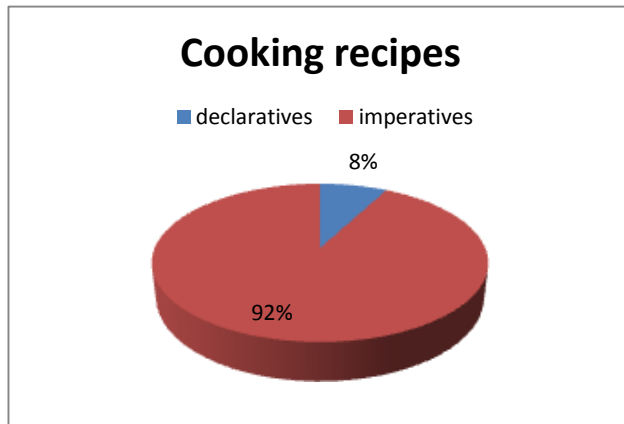


Figure 13. Cooking recipes 1 (Own research)

10 FILM DIALOGUES

Film dialogues of three different genres, namely fantasy adventure film *Alice*, action film *Rambo* and historical drama film *Braveheart* are subjects of analysis here as well. Film dialogue is quite a distinguished functional style in comparison to the rest of the analyzed texts, because the screenplays are considered to be spoken language examples rather than written ones. The screenplay is characteristic by its frequent usage of clause structures such as interjections, question tags, nonverbal clauses, salutations, greeting and other features which occur mostly in conversation. Some of the language elements are hardly possible or impossible to classify as particular clause types. These are especially verbless expressions and clauses with infinite verbs. Another special feature of spoken language is high occurrence of ambiguous clause types, where structural clause type does not correspond with the functional type of the clause (see examples 22, 23, 24).

[22] “*We just take pictures?*” (*Rambo* 1983)

[23] “I’m waiting for my fiancé. *You have a fiancé?*” (*Alice* 2008)

[24] “*They are coming!*” (*Braveheart* 1994)

In example 22 there is a declarative clause type in the function of question. Declarative questions are common features of spoken language and they are evidence of syntactic and semantic ambiguity. Another kind of ambiguity of sentence types is an example of so called echo question (see example 23), which is also an element of spoken language. The speaker does not deal with the right structure of the interrogative clause, but repeats the part of the stimulus clause to express surprise. Frequent example of ambiguity between structural and functional types may be also formed by declarative exclamations (see example 24), which are declarative clauses expressing exclamations.

According to the proportion of structural types in the pie chart it is evident that declaratives are a prevailing group. However, interrogatives and imperatives have quite a strong position in spoken language as such. The proportion of particular structural types relates with a film genre, for example occurrence of imperatives is a bit higher in action films *Braveheart* and *Rambo* than in *Alice*. On the other hand, *Alice* has a higher frequency of interrogatives.

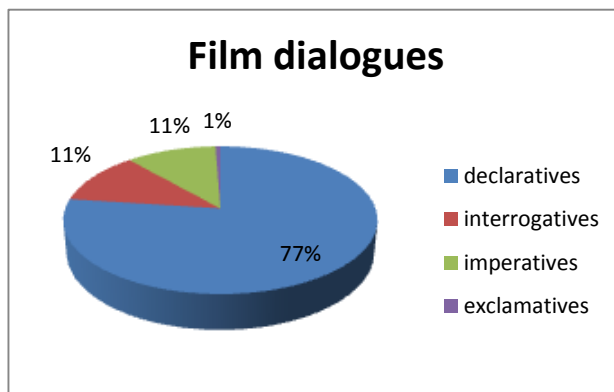


Figure 14. Film dialogues 1 (Own research)

The difference between occurrences of *wh*-questions and *yes/no* questions is not very significant in film dialogues (see the pie chart below).

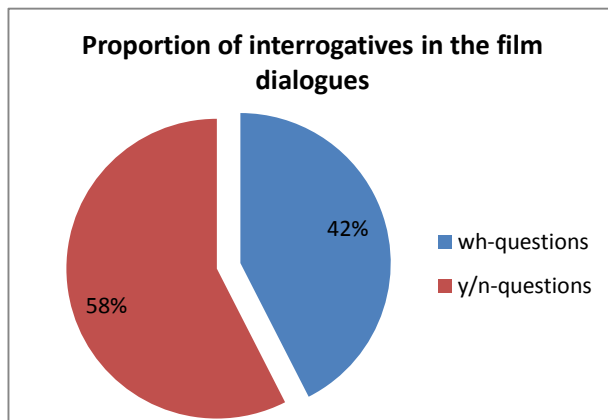


Figure 15. Proportion of interrogatives in the film dialogues 1 (Own research)

11 GENERAL RESULTS OF THE ANALYSES

The following chart demonstrates the total outcomes of occurrences of particular structural types present in all analyzed texts. At first sight the predominant structure of declarative clauses is obvious which play an essential role in most functional styles. Imperative structure is also quite common, especially in instructive kinds of texts. Frequency of interrogative structure features is not very high, which is caused by the fact that the analyzed texts were almost exclusively in the form of written language that does not require interaction as much as the spoken one. Exclamative clause structure is very rare in all kinds of texts; on the other hand, exclamation is quite common functional type which occurs mostly in declarative and interrogative clause structures.

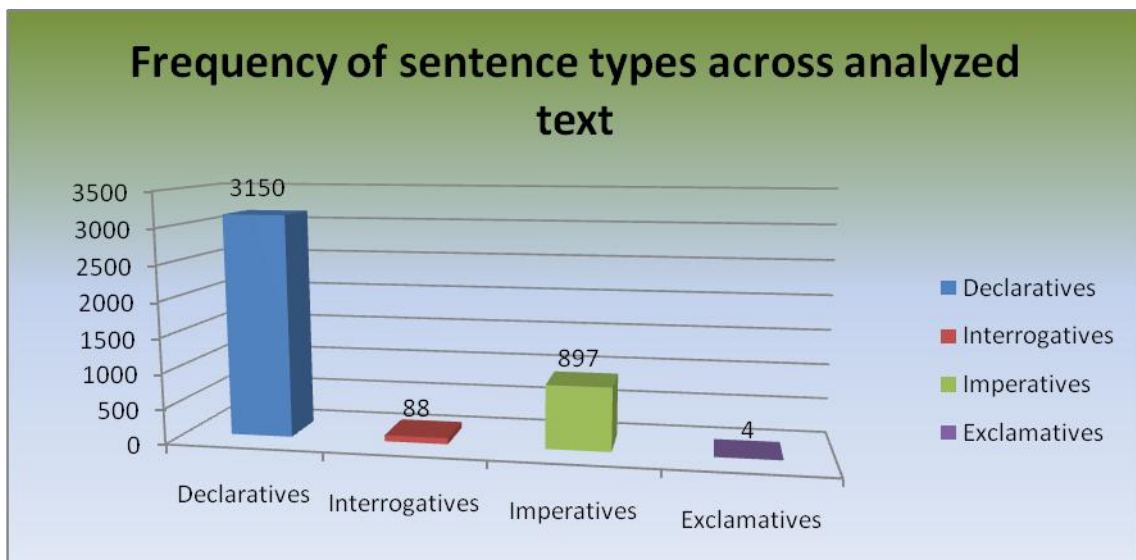


Figure 16. Frequency of sentence types 1 (Own research)

CONCLUSION

The aim of my thesis was to analyze frequency of sentence types across different functional styles and to find out the relation between the use of particular sentence types and their function in different kinds of texts.

I have analyzed 4139 clauses and classified them based on particular structural types. The analysis of functional types was rather general dependent on the character of the particular texts. From the view of the overall evaluation of the language used declarative type is the most commonly used structural type, and statement is the most common functional type. That illustrates the fact that the basic role of language is to convey some information. Imperatives are also quite common structural types, especially in instructive texts and prayers. They mostly play the role of instruction or advice in the analyzed texts. An occurrence of interrogatives is not very significant, because the analyzed language was mostly written, except for the film dialogues. Therefore, interrogatives have mostly function of the rhetorical questions used to enrich the structure of the text or to keep the attention of readers up. Exclamatory clause structure is extremely rare in the analyzed texts. However, in religious texts and film dialogues presence of exclamations is quite common, where they have a structure of declaratives or verbless clauses.

It is also important to note that the representation of the analyzed texts belonging to different styles is not equal, but the goal of the thesis was to analyze functional styles individually rather than as a whole.

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