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**Function of Postponement in Academic Style  
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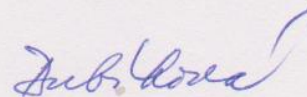
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## **Abstract**

The aim of this paper is to describe function of postponement in academic style. This thesis is divided into two parts. In the theoretical part, the main functions and features of English word order are examined. After that, the attention is paid to the most prominent cases of postponement, their structure and functions are commented on. The practical part consists of an analysis of a linguistic corpus created from a piece of academic text. The functions and overall occurrence of postponing structures are examined on concrete examples excerpted from the corpus.

## **Abstrakt**

Cílem této práce je popsat funkci přesunutí určitých informací v odborném stylu. Tato práce je rozdělena na dvě části. V teoretické části jsou nejprve zkoumány hlavní znaky a funkce anglického slovosledu. Poté je pozornost soustředěna na nejdůležitější případy přesunutí informací, je popsána jejich struktura a funkce. Praktická část se skládá z analýzy lingvistického korpusu vytvořeného z akademického textu. Na příkladech vyňatých z korpusu jsou prozkoumány funkce a celkový výskyt přesunujících konstrukcí.

## Table of Contents

1. Introduction.....	1
2. English Word Order.....	2
2.1. Word order structure.....	2
2.2. Word order function.....	3
2.3. Marked word order.....	5
3. Postponement.....	7
3.1. Passive voice.....	7
3.2. Extraposition.....	10
3.2.1. Extraposition of a clausal subject.....	11
3.2.2. Extraposition of a clausal object.....	12
3.2.3. Postponement of long or complex O in SVOC and SVOA sentences.....	12
3.3. Discontinuities.....	13
3.4. Existential sentences.....	15
4. Academic style.....	18
5. Summary of the theoretical part.....	19
5. Analysis.....	21
5.1. Source for the corpus and methodology.....	21
5.2. Hypotheses.....	22
5.3. Overall occurrence of the postponing structures.....	23
5.4. Passive voice.....	24
5.5. Extraposition.....	26
5.5.1. Extraposition of a clausal subject.....	26
5.5.2. Extraposition of a clausal object.....	28
5.6. Discontinuities.....	29
5.7. Existential sentences.....	31
7. Summary of the analysis.....	33
6. Conclusion.....	34
7. Résumé.....	38
8. Bibliography.....	42
9. Appendices .....	44

Sentences containing passive construction:.....	44
Sentences containing extraposed element.....	46
Sentences containing discontinuous sentence element.....	52
Structures containing existential sentences.....	52



# 1. Introduction

The aim of this bachelor thesis is to describe and closely examine the cases of sentence reorganization called *postponement* and to analyze their function in English academic style. The main goal is to pinpoint the most common and important types of postponing constructions, theoretically describe their structure and function, and apply this knowledge in an analysis of an academic text.

Firstly, the theoretical background to the phenomenon of postponement is set. Due to the close relationship between postponement and word order, English word order is briefly described. General characteristics of English word order and its standard structure are discussed, along with its main functions. Then, the cases in which the standard word order is disturbed are briefly mentioned. After that, the chapter devoted to postponement itself follows. The general term 'postponement' is defined, its features described and the most important and common types of postponement are further specified in greater detail – the structure and function of passive constructions, extraposition, discontinuities and existential sentences are described. Finally, the most important features of academic style are mentioned.

Secondly, a piece of academic text is analyzed in terms of postponement occurrence and its function in academic style. In the first place, the hypotheses are introduced and the chosen sample of an academic writing is briefly described. Then, the methodology of assembling the linguistic corpus consisting of 150 sentences containing the postponing constructions is described. After that, the analysis itself follows. The concrete cases of postponement which occurred in the academic text are further analyzed. Their usage and significance is interpreted in connection with the principles of end-focus and end-weight, and with academic style. The results are also processed statistically. The aim of the thesis is to examine the function of postponement in academic style and to comment on the frequency of postponing structures in academic style.

In the last chapter, the whole paper is concluded. The results of the corpus analysis are reviewed and confronted with the hypotheses. Possible reasons for confirming or not-confirming the hypotheses are examined.

## 2. English Word Order

In the following chapter, English word order is briefly discussed. Firstly, the term 'word order' is defined and the standard structure of English word order is described. Secondly, the main functions of word order are examined. Thirdly, the principles of functional sentence perspective, end-focus and end-weight are clarified. Finally, cases of marked word order are outlined and examined.

### 2.1. Word order structure

Webster's Dictionary defines word order as "the sequence of elements in a sentence or a smaller construction". (Webster's Dictionary, 1994: 1644) An English sentence can consist of five types of these elements: subject, verb, object, adverb and complement. (Huddleston, 1993: 38) Due to the analytical structure of English language – this means that a sentence part function is not recognized by its distinctive morphological form but by its position in the sentence (Stevenson, 1987: 26) – these five elements may be organized in a fairly limited number of structures. (Wekker, 1985: 23) The standard structure of a simple declarative English sentence may be expressed as a sequence of aforementioned sentence elements: SUBJECT – VERB (verb phrase) – OBJECT (or complement) – ADVERB. (Dušková, 2006: 521) This is illustrated by the following examples of simple declarative sentences:

Someone [S] was laughing [V] loudly [A] in the next room [A].

Mary [S] gave [V] the visitors [O] a glass of milk [O]. (Quirk et al., 1985: 49)

This standard word order means that "the object or complement usually comes directly after the verb phrase, and the subject usually precedes the verb phrase." (Stevenson, 1987: 26) If the optional adverbials are eliminated, it will be possible to classify the essential core of each clause structure. This results in the following seven clause types:

- |          |   |                           |
|----------|---|---------------------------|
| Type SV  | – | Someone was laughing.     |
| Type SVO | – | My mother enjoys parties. |

Type SVC	–	The country became totally independent.
Type SVA	–	I have been in the garden.
Type SVOO	–	Mary gave the visitor a glass of milk.
Type SVOC	–	Most people consider these books rather expensive.
Type SVOA	–	You must put all the toys upstairs.

(Quirk et al., 1985: 53)

Because of the above-mentioned inability to distinguish the sentence elements by their forms, it is impossible to exchange the positions of subject and object without altering the meaning of the sentence. (Dušková, 2006: 518) Therefore, when word order is concerned, English is often considered to be relatively rigid language with fixed word order. (Biber et al., 1999: 898)

## 2.2. Word order function

According to Dušková (2006: 518), word order may function on three main levels: the grammatical level, the semantic level, and the level of functional sentence perspective. As was mentioned above, English is an analytical language and therefore, word order in English has mainly grammatical function. This means that it has distinctive function in discerning the sentence elements and sentence types. This is shown on the following examples:

Dog chases postman.

Postman chases dog. (Crystal, 1994: 214)

The subject and object can be recognized only by its position in the sentence and if it is altered, the meaning of the sentence is changed considerably.

The semantic function of English word order applies mainly to words which may relate either to the whole sentence or to a certain part of it. Generally, adverbials and quantifiers have this ability. For example:

[A] *Naturally*, she will pick up her strength.

[B] She will pick up her strength *naturally*. (Dušková, 2006: 519)

The adverb *naturally* in [A] refers to the whole sentence and therefore affects it all,

whereas in [B], the adverb *naturally* affects only the verb.

The last level on which word order functions is the level of functional sentence perspective. It is also the most relevant for the topic of this thesis. The functional sentence perspective can be summarized as a way of organization a sentence in terms of its elements' ability to distinguish between the old and new information. (Firbas, 1992: 36-47) In a sentence, there are usually two types of information. One part contains information that is new for the participants of the communication whereas the other part consists of information that is already known (it is 'given'). (Crystal, 1994: 231) This given information – most commonly subject – can be usually found at the beginning of a sentence and is called 'topic' (or 'theme'). The new information – called 'focus' (or 'rheme') – is generally conveyed at the end of the sentence (Leech, 1975: 158-159; Dušková, 2006: 528) The amount of information which the sentence elements hold therefore gradually rises from the left to the right. This characteristic feature is denoted as the 'information principle'. (Biber et al., 1999: 896) This means that in a simple piece of communication, such as:

[A] When will she decide?

[B] She will decide next week.;

the pronoun *she* in [B] has the least informational value whereas the adverb phrase *next week* conveys the most information. (Quirk et al., 1985: 1357) In this example, the pronoun *she* is the 'topic' of the sentence because it refers to the already known and the adverb phrase *next week* is the 'focus' of the sentence because it is the new information which was asked for. (Quirk et al., 1985: 1357)

As was already said, the position at the end of a sentence is the most important one in terms of information and is generally focused. This principle of emphasizing the final position in a sentence is called 'end-focus'. (Leech, 1993: 188) Another principle that applies to the sentence balance requires the part before the verb phrase to be shorter or less 'weighty' than the part of the sentence after the verb phrase. (Greenbaum, 1996: 222) This principle is denoted as the principle of 'end-weight'. The 'weight' may be defined as grammar complexity or length of a sentence element. Without placing the weighty part of a sentence towards the end, this sentence may seem as awkward and unbalanced. (Leech, 1975: 158)

### 2.3. Marked word order

As was mentioned in sub-chapter 2.1., the standard word order in English is the following sequence of sentence elements: Subject – Verb – Object – Adverb. However, there are certain conditions under which this standard order of sentence elements may be reorganized to serve a particular purpose.

The predominant reason for this reorganization appears to be mainly a need to achieve desired informational flow, a wish to focus, emphasize, contrast or intensify chosen sentence parts, and tendency to maintain the balance of weight. (Biber et al., 1999: 896-898)

Biber (1999: 152-154) differentiates three main principal types of order variation which does not include structural change: inversion of subject and the verb phrase (for example in independent interrogative clauses), fronting of objects and other elements usually in post-verbal position (for example exclamative clauses), and postponement of objects and of adverbial particles of phrasal verbs. Biber also adds other word order variations which also include change of the sentence structure. According to Biber (1999: 154-156), these are the passive voice, existential there, extraposition, clefting, and condensation.

For the purposes of this paper, Quirk's (1985: 1377-1413) notion of postponement as a general term encompassing the types of constructions which allow postponement of certain sentence elements is used. These constructions are: passive voice, extraposition, discontinuities (the discontinuous noun phrase etc.). Also, existential sentences may be considered a type of postponement. (Quirk et al., 1985: 1402) All these terms and constructions will be further clarified in chapter 3.

To conclude the chapter, English is an analytical language with relatively fixed word order, with the standard structure of S-V-O-A. Main function of English word order is the grammatical one. However, for this thesis, the most important level on which English word order functions is that of the functional sentence perspective which may be viewed as a sentence organization in terms of distribution of information. The given information can be usually found at the beginning of a sentence whereas the new information is usually situated at the end in accordance with the end-focus

principle – end-focus is the main focus in English. The principle of placing long and complex sentence elements at the end of a sentence called end-weight is also essential. At the end of the chapter, the cases of disturbance of the standard word order were described, along with reasons for this disturbance. This happens mainly to achieve a desired information distribution in the sentence or to emphasize its parts.

### **3. Postponement**

In the forthcoming chapter, 'postponement' as a general notion of shifting certain elements in a sentence is being discussed. The term 'postponement' is defined, its structure described. The functions of postponement are identified and its main types are mentioned. These main types are then analyzed in greater detail. Their structure and function is further examined. As was mentioned, Quirk's concept of postponement is considered as the fundamental for the theoretical description of the postponing constructions.

Because of the importance of the end-focus and end-weight principles described in chapter 2.2., English has numerous ways of reordering the sentence elements in order to comply with the requirements of these principles. (Quirk et al., 1985: 1390) Apart from constructions which place the focus of a sentence at the beginning, it is the postponement that enables the sentence elements to be reorganized in such a way that ensures a desired information distribution and stylistic balance of a sentence.

The term 'postponement' can be defined as "a means of postponing a sentence element to a later position in the sentence, either for end-weight or for end-focus." (Leech, 1975: 165) This definition also implies the main function of postponement, which is to accomplish the principles of end-weight and/or end-focus. It is an important means of clarifying the syntactic relationships and "occurs mainly in the registers with the highest degree of phrasal complexity." (Biber et al., 1999: 931) The constructions in which postponement occurs are already-mentioned passive voice, extraposition, discontinuities, and existential sentences. These phenomena are discussed in the following sub-chapters.

#### **3.1. Passive voice**

As was described in the previous chapters, the passive voice may be considered a construction enabling the postponement of certain sentence elements and is therefore discussed in greater detail. Its structure, main functions and use is described.

Biber (1999: 154) characterizes the passive as a reorganization of a clause which

can be described as:

...a systematic means of choosing a participant other than the agent at the starting point for a message, without departing from the normal subject-initial word order.

This can be illustrated by the following examples:

[A] The dog saw the cat.

[B] The cat was seen by the dog. (Crystal, 1994: 225)

Most commonly, the grammatical subject of a sentence is also a performer (agent) of the action. In [A], the dog is the agent (performs the action) and the subject at the same time. This type of construction is referred to as the 'active voice'. (Stevenson, 1987: 199) The second construction, which is less common, is referred to as the 'passive voice'. (Crystal, 1994: 225) As is evident from comparing the sentences [A] and [B], the subject in the active becomes the object in the passive. (Burton-Roberts, 1997: 137) It is due to this reason that, basically, only the transitive verbs (verbs that can have objects) may form passives. (Dušková, 2006: 258)

The passive voice may take two forms: the long passive and the short passive. In the long passive form, the agent is expressed ([C]) always by a *by*-phrase – denoted as the 'agent phrase' (Teschner, 2007: 96) – whereas the short passives leave the agent unexpressed ([D]). (Biber et al., 1999: 154)

[C] Sandy was seen by Joe in the library.

[D] Sandy was seen in the library. (Teschner, 2007: 96)

In terms of function, the short passive is used mainly to avoid mentioning the agent which may be considered irrelevant, unknown, etc. (Dušková, 2006: 260) Therefore, this paper will not be concerned with this type of passive due to its lower significance for the topic of this thesis. However, Quirk (1985: 1390) views the passive voice with expressed agent (the long passive) as “a convenient way of postponing the agentive subject by turning it into the agent in a passive construction.” This passive construction enables the agent to be end-focused – which is preferred as was mentioned in chapter 2.2. – if the agent comprises of new information. For example:



[E] Who makes these tablemats?

[F] They are made *by my sister*. (Quirk et al., 1985: 1390)

In [F], the passive gives the sentence end-focus in contrast to its possible active counterpart. (Leech, 1975: 167) However only one fifth of all passive constructions are passives with expressed agent which makes this grammatical device rather rare. (Crystal, 1994: 225) Also, the passive helps to comply with the principle of end-weight. A sentence which would sound rather awkward in its active form [H], may be transformed into the passive. This would produce a natural-sounding and more balanced sentence [G]:

[G] *The story was inspired by a tip-off from an officer (...) that soviet hardliners, backed by the KGB, were trying to depose General Jaruzelski.*

[H] *A tip-off from an officer (...) that Soviet hardliners, backed up by the KGB, were trying to depose General Jaruzelski inspired the story.*

(Greenbaum, 1996: 58)

Quirk (1985: 1390-1391) mentions another important function of the passive voice. It enables avoiding a finite clause as a subject by switching from the active to the passive voice as he shows in the following examples:

*That he was prepared to go to such lengths astounded me.*

*I was astounded that he was prepared to go to such lengths.*

(Quirk et al., 1985: 1391)

Also, the passive construction enables end-focus of a verb clause containing a transitive verb which would not otherwise be possible (however, it must be possible to ignore the agent):

*But our scientists finally solved all these problems.*

*But all these problems were finally solved.* (Quirk et al., 1985: 1391)

To conclude, the passive voice is a way of reorganization of a sentence which switches the subject and object of the sentence. This makes possible to end-focus the new or the most important information – such as the agent in the long passive constructions – and to keep the principle of end-weight.

### 3.2. Extraposition

In the following chapter, a sentence construction called 'extraposition' is being discussed. The structure of extraposition, its main function along with the main types of extraposition are described.

Huddleston (1993: 451) describes extraposition as a process which "shifts a unit to the end of the clause [...] and inserts a substitute form into the vacated position." In this case, the substitute form is the pronoun *it* which anticipates the following clause. (Crystal, 1994: 231) This process leads to the formation of a sentence which contains two subjects: a postponed subject and an anticipatory subject *it* (in case of extraposition of subject clause). (Quirk et al, 1985: 1391) This anticipatory *it* is completely free of meaning and is therefore called expletive because of it. (Burton-Roberts, 1997: 1198) Crystal offers example of a sentence with the standard word order in contrast to a sentence with the extraposed element (in italics):

What you say doesn't matter.

*It* doesn't matter *what you say*. (Crystal, 1994: 174)

According to Huddleston (1993: 451), the main effect of extraposition is that "a heavy unit appears at the end of the clause, which makes for easier processing." This type of postponement takes place either for end-weight or for end-focus. (Leech, 1975: 165) For example:

That income tax will be reduced is unlikely.

*It* is unlikely *that income tax will be reduced*. (Leech, 1975: 165)

Huddleston also implies that the longer the clause, the more likely it will be extraposed. (Huddleston, 1993: 452) However, in some special cases, some verbs – such as *seem*, *appear* or *happen* – cannot form clauses with the normal subject clause position and the extraposition is therefore obligatory. (Burton-Roberts, 1997: 199) Also, in the passive constructions, the clause is impossible to appear in the subject position (the ungrammatical sentence is marked by asterisk):

It is said *that she slipped arsenic in his tea*.

\*That she slipped arsenic in his tea is said. (Leech, 1975: 165)

Quirk (1985: 1391-1394) introduces three main types of extraposition:

1. Extraposition of clausal subject
2. Extraposition of clausal object
3. Postponement of long or complex O in SVOC and SVOA sentences

These three types of extraposition are described in greater detail in the following sub-chapters.

### 3.2.1. Extraposition of a clausal subject

The most common and important type of extraposition is that of a clausal subject. (Quirk et al., 1985: 1391; Greenbaum, 1996: 175). In fact, sentences with a subject clause in the extraposed position are more common than its counterparts without the extraposed subject clause. (Leech, 1975: 215) The subject clauses that may undergo extraposition are:

1. *That*-clauses
2. *Wh*-clauses
3. *To*-infinitive clauses
4. *-Ing* participle clauses (Greenbaum, 1996: 292)

The characteristics of the first three clauses mentioned are rather similar, however extraposition of *-ing* clause is not common, but still possible. Yet, it is more natural when both the non-finite clause and the one containing the anticipatory *it* are relatively short; also, this occurs mostly in informal language:

It was easy *getting the equipment loaded*.  
(Quirk, 1985: 1393; Huddleston, 1993: 452).

In the process of subject clause extraposition, the subject moves to the end of the sentence and its place is taken by the aforementioned anticipatory *it*. The extraposed sentence therefore contains two subjects which are possible to define as the postponed subject and the anticipatory subject (*it*), for example:

To hear him say that surprised me.

*It surprised me to hear him say that.* (Quirk et al, 1985: 1393)

### 3.2.2. Extraposition of a clausal object

Another type of extraposition is that of clausal object. Like the extraposition of a clausal subject, whole clause is extraposed. However the object clause is extraposed only occasionally and does by no means occur as commonly as the subject clause extraposition. (Leech, 1975: 166)

The construction of a sentence with an extraposed clausal object is very similar to that of clausal subject. The difference is that the sentence element which is postponed and replaced by the anticipatory *it* is the object clause. For example:

I find reading comics fun.

I find *it* fun, *reading comics*. (Crystal, 1994: 174)

When the object is an *-ing* clause, extraposition may happen ([A], [B]); whereas if the object is in form of a *to*-infinitive or of a *that*-clause, the extraposition is obligatory([C]). (Quirk et al., 1985: 1393) Quirk supplies suitable examples:

[A] You must find working here exciting.

[B] You must find *it* exciting *working here*.

[C] I owe *it* to you *that the jury acquitted me*. (Quirk et al., 1985: 1393)

### 3.2.3. Postponement of long or complex O in SVOC and SVOA sentences

In case of this type of postponement, when the object is heavy and complex, a placement in the final position either for end-weight or end-focus may occur. (Quirk et al., 1985: 1395; Biber et al., 1999: 154) This process does not involve a substitute form of *it*. (Quirk et al., 1985: 1395) For example:

He had called the man on whose judgment he now had to rely an idiot.

He had called an idiot *the man on whose judgment he now had to rely*.

(Quirk et al., 1985: 1395)

Postponing this long and complex element helps to avoid awkwardness of this element

coming in the non-final position. (Leech, 1975: 166)

The chapter devoted to the phenomenon of extraposition described the main features of extraposition: the postponement of a sentence element and placing the anticipatory *it* in its original position. This occurs mainly due to the principles of end-weight and end-focus. The most common and important types of extraposition – that is: that of the subject clause extraposition, object clause extraposition, and postponement of long or complex O in SVOC and SVOA sentences – were described.

### 3.3. Discontinuities

In some cases, not the whole sentence element is postponed, but only a part of it. This type of postponement resulting in a discontinuous sentence element Quirk classifies as 'discontinuity'. (Quirk et al., 1985: 1397) A very common type of discontinuity is the discontinuous noun phrase; however, there are also other units which may be postponed which results in discontinuity, for example in the comparative sentences, in the postmodifying phrases of exception or in the clauses of amount or degree. (Leech, 1975: 165-167; Quirk et al., 1985: 1397-1400) These discontinuities may fall into three main groups:

1. discontinuous noun and pronoun groups
2. discontinuous preposition groups
3. discontinuous adjective and adverb groups (Bache, 1997: 50-56)

The discontinuous noun groups encompass mainly the postponement of a postmodification of a noun phrase which is the most common type of postponement belonging to the discontinuities (Quirk et al., 1985: 1397), for example (the discontinuous element is in italics):

*The rumor spread that the king has been beheaded.*

I saw a *woman yesterday carrying dead baby in her arms.* (Bache, 1997: 50)

Another discontinuity which belongs to this group is the separation of emphatic reflexive pronouns (such as *himself, themselves*, etc):

The driver *himself* told me.

The *driver* told me *himself*. (Quirk et al., 1985: 1399)

This is preferable due to the end-focus principle. However in academic prose, the emphatic reflexive pronoun typically follows after the noun phrase it relates to because of the prevailing need of precision. (Biber et al., 1999: 346)

The discontinuous preposition groups refer mainly to the *wh*-questions and relative clauses, in which the preposition is often left behind by its *wh*-complement at the end of the clause. For example:

*What* did you do that *for*?

My computer, *which* I've had a lot of trouble *with*, is up for sale.

(Bache, 1997: 55)

Finally, the discontinuous adjective and adverb groups consist mainly of the discontinuous comparative clauses ([D]), postmodifying phrases of exception ([A]) and the clauses expressing amount or degree ([B], [C]). Leech proposes suitable examples:

[A] *All of them* were captured *except the leader of the gang*.

[B] *Too many people* were there *for the thief to escape unseen*.

[C] I was *so excited* by the present *that I forgot to thank*.

[D] *More people* own houses these days *than used years ago*. (Leech, 1975: 167)

In this example, the non-postponed counterpart of [D] would be extremely awkward:

More people than used to years ago own houses. (Leech, 1975: 167)

In clauses expressing amount or degree, the discontinuity is realized by insertion of degree adverbials within the adjective complementation:

They were *fond* to some extent *of Brecht's early work*.

It was *different* in many respects *from what she had expected*. (Quirk et al., 1985: 1400)

All the cases of discontinuities of sentence elements have similar function. That is, to avoid possible awkwardness of placing long or emphatic sentence constructions in the non-final position by placing the heavy or complex part of

a sentence element at the end of the clause. This helps to balance the sentence in accordance with the end-weight principle. (Leech, 1975: 166-167). For instance, a sentence with the discontinuous noun phrase ([G]) is contrasted with the continuous one ([F]):

[F] Between 1770 and 1800, work that was destined to revolutionize the ideas of the functions of plants was done on the effect of vegetation on air.

[G] Between 1770 and 1800, *work* was done on the effect of vegetation on air *that was destined to revolutionize the ideas of the functions of plants.*

(Biber et al., 1999: 632)

Another motivation for interrupting certain elements by inserting others is to achieve the information climax with end-focus:

She rapidly spotted *the book* right on my desk *that I had been desperately searching for all morning.* (Quirk et al., 1985: 1398)

This chapter which dealt with discontinuities described the cases of postponement in which only a part of a sentence element is postponed. The most important and common types of discontinuities were described and their function was clarified in connection to the principles of end-weight and end-focus.

### 3.4. Existential sentences

In some cases, it is important to bring the whole content of the clause into focus. This can be achieved by a construction which postpones the subject of the sentence and the ordinary subject position is occupied by the so-called 'existential *there*' (Crystal, 1994: 231; Biber et al., 1999: 154), which is usually followed by the verb phrase (usually with *be* as the main verb):

*There were* a lot of idiots on the road.

A lot of idiots were on the road. (Greenabum, 1996: 177-178)

A structure of a typical sentence containing existential *there* may be described as:

*there + be + indefinite noun phrase* (Biber et al., 1999: 943)

Quirk (1985: 1404) offers examples of equivalent existential sentences in contrast to some clause types as described in chapter 2:

Type SVC    Something must be wrong    – There must be something wrong.  
Type SVA    Was anyone in the vicinity?    – Was there anyone in the vicinity?  
Type SV     No one was waiting.            – There was no one waiting.  
(Quirk et al., 1985: 1405)

It is important to differentiate the existential *there* from the adverbial *there*. The existential *there* is distinguished from the adverbial one by its reduced pronunciation and by its loss of locative meaning. *There* in [A] has locative meaning whereas in [B], *there* is existential:

[A] There comes our bus.  
[B] There's a bus on weekdays. (Dušková, 2006: 392)

Existential *there* also behaves like a subject in that way that, for instance, it may act as subject in *yes-no* questions and question tags or as subject in infinitive and *-ing* clauses:

Is *there* any more soup?  
I don't want *there* to be any misunderstanding. (Quirk et al., 1985: 1405)

The subject of the original clause is called the notional subject of *there*-sentence, which makes possible distinguishing it from *there* itself that is the grammatical subject and has much in common with the anticipatory *it* used in the subject postponement in extraposition. (Quirk et al., 1985: 1403) It can be viewed as expletive as well because it has no meaning, however this expletive *there* may function only as a subject and not as an object (which the expletive *it* can). (Burton-Roberts, 1997: 270)

As was already mentioned, the verb which usually follows the existential *there* is the verb *be*. However, it is possible for the existential *there* to be followed by other verbs (such as *exist* or *arise*). Yet, these cases are much rarer and more literary. For example:

*There arose* a great city.  
*There exist* several alternatives. (Crystal, 1994: 231)

Many times was it mentioned that the subject usually comes first in a sentence



due to its thematic character (this information is usually known). The existential *there* construction enables postponing the subject which conveys new information to a later position in a clause without violating the standard word order which again is in accordance with the informational principle. (Greenbaum, 1996: 177) Basically, existential sentences are used to describe some phenomenon as existing and to present this phenomenon as new information. (Biber et al.,1999: 946)

To conclude this chapter, in the sentences containing existential *there*, the anticipatory *there* occupies the subject position and postpones the notional subject to a later position in the clause. This makes possible to place a subject with more informational value further right in the sentence in accordance with the informational principle.

## 4. Academic style

Because the purpose of this paper is to examine the function of postponement in academic style, it is important to briefly define this style and name its most characteristic features.

According to Crystal, the main purpose of academic prose is to “define the subject matter precisely and to establish a clear and logical progression of ideas.” (Crystal, 1997: 251) The main goal of academic style is to supply precise, clear and complete information which have a certain logical structure and are focused on the notional aspect of the delivered message. These information should be provided in an objective and impersonal way. (Grygarová, 2010: 206)

Typical of academic style is its monological nature and written form, which implies that the author cannot rely on the feedback from the audience. Therefore, the message conveyed in the text must be clearly and precisely formulated to avoid possible ambiguities. This is accomplished by ordering of terms, text structuring and sentence sequence. Connectors, demonstratives and conjunctions are used in abundance. (Knittlová, 1995: 81) In academic style, the declarative clauses expressing statements are the predominant type of independent clause. (Biber et al., 1999: 203)

The syntax of academic writing is rather poor: mainly the standard word order is used, personal pronouns are avoided, uncommon or expressive constructions are infrequent. Sentences are closed and condensed with relatively stereotypical structure. (Knittlová, 2010: 149; Rejtharová, 1981: 196) Impersonal constructions – mainly the passive voice is characteristic for academic style – are used (Rejtharová, 1981: 196) because the focus is placed on the conveyed message and not on the author himself. (Dušková, 2006: 260)

Another aspect which is characteristic for academic style is the choice of lexical devices used to express ideas. According to Crystal, the lexicon of academic style is the main thing which distinguishes it from other functional styles. (Crystal, 1994: 372) Due to the notional character of academic style, it has distinctly higher proportion of complex noun phrases in comparison to other styles. (Quirk et al., 1985: 1361) Use of a specific terminology is also characteristic. (Crystal, 1994: 372) Due to a fairly

limited number of lexical expressions in each scientific field, repetitiveness is a common phenomenon and the lexicon is rather stereotypical (similarly to the syntax of academic style). However, these features are not viewed as negative because they help to fulfill the purpose of the academic writing. (Knittlová, 1995: 81)

To conclude, the main function of academic style is to communicate things precisely, clearly and completely without ambiguities. The most characteristic features are the density of sentences, objectivity and use of impersonal constructions. Also a specific lexicon is the distinctive feature of academic style.

## **5. Summary of the theoretical part**

Before continuing to the second major part of this thesis – that is the analysis – it is important to summarize the theoretical background set in the previous chapters of this paper.

Chapter 2 was devoted to English word order – its structure, main functions and features were described. English word order's main function is the grammatical one, however the most important for this paper is the function on the level of functional sentence perspective which is concerned with information distribution in sentences. The important notions of the information principle, end-focus and end-weight were mentioned. According to the informational principle, the amount of information contained in a sentence rises from the left to the right. The principles of end-focus and end-weight are characterized by focusing the end of a sentence and maintaining the stylistic balance of a sentence, respectively. Finally, the main reasons for disturbing the standard word order were mentioned – that is, mainly to achieve the desired informational flow or to emphasize certain sentence parts.

In chapter 3, concrete types of postponing constructions were analyzed in greater detail. The passive voice, extraposition, discontinuities and existential sentences were discussed in terms of their ability to postpone certain sentence elements and the function they have. These constructions are used predominantly to comply with the informational principle, and principles of end-focus and end-weight.

Finally, main functions and features of academic style were described, namely

to communicate message in a clear and precise way while using dense sentences, expressions lacking ambiguities and impersonal constructions – mainly passive voice. The most distinctive feature of academic style appears to be its specific lexicon.

## 5. Analysis

In the following chapter, the analysis of an authentic piece of academic text is conducted. Firstly, the source of the linguistic corpus is described along with the methodology used to obtain relevant examples of postponing structures present in the text. Secondly, the hypotheses are set. Finally, the analysis itself follows in which the knowledge of types of postponement described in the theoretical part of this paper is applied on the concrete examples from the corpus. The overall occurrence of postponing structures in the corpus is commented on and the function and significance of postponement is described in greater detail.

### 5.1. Source for the corpus and methodology

The aim of this analysis is to analyze concrete examples of postponing structures and to interpret their function and importance in connection to academic style. For this purpose, a corpus consisting of 150 sentences containing postponing structures was created – a publication called *Essentials of Psychiatry* served as a suitable material. This book – published in 2006 – was written by Jerald Kay and Allan Tasman, and provides a broad overview to clinical psychiatry for beginning psychiatry residents, nonpsychiatric physicians, medical students, and people working in related mental health disciplines such as psychology, social work, psychiatric nursing and counseling. Since the book consists of many chapters describing various fields of modern psychiatry, one chapter was randomly chosen for assembling the corpus. It was the chapter #49 called *Anxiety Disorders: Panic Disorder With and Without Agoraphobia* which, however, did not contain sufficient amount of cases of postponement and therefore, the following chapters were used as well for the corpus creation, namely *Anxiety Disorders: Social and Specific Phobias* and *Obsessive–Compulsive Disorder*.

The sentences fulfilling the criteria were selected in the following way: the first 150 cases of postponement occurring in the aforementioned chapter and the chapters that followed were systematically selected which ensured that the cases of postponing

structures were not selected ad hoc – this would surely result in a distorted proportion of the sentences assembled in the corpus. All the selected sentences are listed in the appendices and numbered from 1 to 150 – for more clarity, the sentences are ordered into categories by the type of postponing structure they contain and not by the sequence in which they occurred in the primary source. Entries in the corpus also include references to page numbers in the academic text.

There are some sentences listed more than once in the corpus. The reason is that there was more than one case of postponement present in such sentences. When using a sentence from the corpus for illustration, numbers of the sentences refer to the numbers they have in the corpus. Letters *a* and *b* are sometimes attached to these referential numbers – these indicate corresponding sentences with and without postponement. Also, the postponed parts of sentences are italicized. In some cases, a redundant part of a sentence can be omitted – however, in the corpus, the sentence is rewritten in full wording. Examples given in the analysis may therefore look like this:

[39a] Although it is clear *that cognitive biases exist in individuals with phobias*

[...]

[39b] Although that cognitive biases exist in individuals with phobias is clear

[...]

## 5.2. Hypotheses

As was already mentioned, the main purpose of this thesis is to comment on the function and representation of postponement in academic style. In the theoretical part, postponement was interpreted as a process which serves to introduce new information in accordance with the principle of end-focus and to maintain stylistic balance of a sentence in accordance with the end-weight principle. Therefore, the aim of this analysis is to prove that the postponing structures – in this case the passive voice, extraposition, discontinuities and existential sentences – are indeed used to accomplish the aforementioned principles as described in the theoretical part of this paper. This is illustrated on examples excerpted from the corpus.

Also the frequency of occurrence of the particular types and subtypes

of postponement is observed. Due to the relative commonality of extraposition, it is supposed to be the most common postponing structure in the corpus. The existential sentences are assumed to be present in the corpus in abundance as well. The passives are expected to be less frequent due to the fact that the passive voice is mainly used as a mean of avoiding the expression of the agent and not as a mean of postponement. The discontinuities are assumed to be the rarest type of postponement.

### 5.3. Overall occurrence of the postponing structures

The overall occurrence of postponed elements was relatively high which may be attributed to a certain feature of academic style, that is that it usually conforms to the informational principle. The need to present the new information at the end of the sentence is eminent and it is the postponement that enables such reordering of sentences that makes them compliant with this principle.

As was remarked earlier, the corpus consisted of 150 sentences. The most frequent type of postponement was the extraposition, along with the existential sentences, the first counting 65 cases, the latter counting 55. Other postponing structures were less common: 22 sentences involved postponing passive constructions and 9 sentences had a discontinuous element present in their structure. This is expressed in the following table:

	Passive	Extraposition	Existential s.	Discontinuities
Quantity	22	65	55	8
Ratio (%)	16	42	36	6

As mentioned earlier, the most numerous postponing structure was the extraposition. The difference between the total amount of sentences containing extraposition and existential sentences does not seem very significant and the level of occurrence of these two predominant postponing structures may be viewed as equal. On the other hand, occurrence of the passive constructions and discontinuities is significantly lower. The reasons for using particular postponing devices, as well as frequency of their occurrence, are further commented on in the following chapters.

## 5.4. Passive voice

As was already mentioned, the corpus contained 22 cases of passive postponing structures. All the cases present in the corpus are the so called long passives (see chapter 3.1) – these passives express the agent by using the *by*-phrase. Passives without the agent phrase were also occurring in the academic text used for assembling the corpus; however, their function in terms of postponement appeared to be questionable and therefore were not taken into account in this analysis. Expressing the agent by a *by*-phrase makes possible putting the agent of the original active sentence at the end, mainly to highlight and present it to the reader as the new information. This principle is denoted as ‘end-focus’ (see chapter 2.2). For example:

[8a] In addition, patients with social phobia might avoid situations that are typically avoided *by individuals with agoraphobia* [...]

[12a] Individuals [...] often avoid social situations because of the possibility of being judged negatively if their symptoms are noticed *by others*.

In these two examples, it is clearly visible why the authors used the long passive constructions rather than sentences in their active form. In both sentences, the new and most important information is represented by the phrases *individuals with agoraphobia* and *others* and it is the long passive which allows these phrases to be placed at the end of the sentences, to be end-focused. By using the passive, the authors make clear that the most important information is indeed conveyed in these two phrases. Had they used sentences with the standard word order:

[8b] In addition, patients with social phobia might avoid situations that individuals with agoraphobia typically avoid [...]

[12b] Individuals [...] often avoid social situations because of the possibility of being judged negatively if others noticed their symptoms.;

possible readers would surely consider *avoid* in [8a] and *their symptoms* in [12b] to be the most important or new information which may cause confusion because the informational principle (see chapter 2.2) would be violated. *Avoidance* and *their symptoms* are the topics of the text and are not therefore expected to be focused.



Another important function of the passive voice is that it can be used to rearrange a sentence in a way that it complies with the principle of end-weight (see chapter 2.2). This basically means that the part of a sentence before the verb should be shorter than the part after the verb. This is illustrated by the following excerpt from the corpus:

[11a] This is supported *by research finding that social phobia is common in children and is diagnosed in a significant percentage of children referred to a specialty anxiety disorders clinic.*

The extraordinarily weighty element *research finding that social phobia is common in children and is diagnosed in a significant percentage of children referred to a specialty anxiety disorders clinic* is postponed by using the passive so that the sentence is more balanced and can be processed more easily than its counterpart without the postponement:

[11b] Research finding that social phobia is common in children and is diagnosed in a significant percentage of children referred to a specialty anxiety disorders clinic supports this.

By contrasting [11a] and [11b], the need to maintain the balance of the sentence is obvious. Without the postponement, the sentence becomes almost incomprehensible.

Sometimes, constructions very similar to the passives with expressed agent occurred in the academic text used for creating the corpus:

Agoraphobia is characterized by anxiety about being in places or situations from which escape might be difficult [...]

At first sight, this construction is not different from the aforementioned [8], [11], and [12]. However, if an animate agent is implied – as it is in this example:

(We, doctors) characterize agoraphobia by anxiety about being in places or situations from which escape might be difficult [...];

the *by*-phrase does not express the agent, but functions as an adverbial of manner. (Dušková, 2006: 261) Therefore this type of construction cannot be considered as postponement.

Concerning the relatively low number of occurrences of the long passives in the corpus, it was already mentioned that the agentive passives form only 1/5 of all the passives. Even though the short passives were relatively frequent, this ratio appears to be the main reason why other postponing structures were much more common. Despite the rather low amount of agentive passives in the corpus, they can still be considered as important due to the fact that they make possible end-focusing the agent of a sentence.

To conclude, there were 22 cases of passives present in the corpus which were generally used either to conform to the principle of end-focus or end-weight.

## **5.5. Extraposition**

The concept of extraposition was described in chapter 2.3. Basically, it is a grammatical device which postpones a sentence element (most commonly a subject clause but an object clause extraposition is also possible) and inserts an anticipatory subject in its place. This anticipatory subject is the pronoun *it* which, however, carries no meaning of its own. Also a construction which postpones a long and complex object is possible. However, this does not involve *it* substitution.

There were 65 cases of extraposition in the corpus. A subject clause was extraposed in 64 sentences whereas only one sentence contained an extraposed object clause. There were no cases of long/complex object postponement. This striking unevenness of number of occurrences corresponds with opinions of Quirk's and others', who claim the object clause extraposition to be far less common than the subject clause extraposition which is quite normal and common. The nonexistent postponement of long or complex objects may be credited to the absence of these constructions in the academic text chosen for the corpus assembly.

### **5.5.1. Extraposition of a clausal subject**

Extraposition of a clausal subject is used chiefly to postpone a long and heavy subject clause to keep the principle of end-weight or to put the subject into prominence by placing it in the end-focus position (see chapter 2.2):

[23a] It is, however, important to *distinguish between a fear reaction in response to actual threat and a panic attack.*

[23b] However, to distinguish between a fear reaction in response to actual threat and a panic attack is important.

The main reason for extraposing the subject in [23a] appears to be the need to maintain the stylistic balance in accordance with the end-weight principle which is based on the presumption that the sentence part preceding the verb clause should not be longer than the part after the verb. Extraposing the subject in [23a] greatly helps to maintain the overall understandability of the sentence which seems to suffer in [23b] in which the subject clause is not extraposed. Also, the sentence introduction by the phrase *it is important* in [23a] prepares the reader for the information which he is supposed to perceive as the most prominent. This is compliant with the end-focus principle.

Nevertheless, despite being rather awkward, [23b] construction is still possible. However, this is not true in the following examples:

[63] It appears *that these symptom dimensions are stable over time* [...]

[59] In summary, it seems clear *that effective psychosocial treatments and medications for social phobia exist.*

[26] It is not known *whether drug treatments would be as effective as CBT if patients remained on their medications.*

As illustrated in chapter 3.2, sentences containing verbs such as *seem* or *appear*, or passive constructions – as in [63], [59] and [26] – are extraposed compulsorily because there exist no non-extraposed counterparts of these sentences. These constructions appear to be used to express uncertainty or as is usual in academic style, not to present an information as a general truth but as a possibility to ensure that the author or authors of the text are not considered too conceited.

Concerning the type of a subject clause to be postponed, the majority of the postponed subject clauses was formed by *that*-clauses along with *to*-infinitive clauses. The extraposition of *wh*-type subject clause was rare. There were no extraposed *-ing* clauses which is in accordance with Huddleston's opinion that *-ing* clauses are not usually extraposed and if they are, it is mainly in informal language and the sentence

must be relatively short which is not common in academic prose.

### 5.5.2. Extraposition of a clausal object

The cases of extraposition of an object clause were much rarer than of extraposition of a subject clause. In fact, the corpus contained only one such case:

[45a] Because most individuals with phobias avoid the objects and situations that they fear, patients may find it difficult *to describe the subtle cues that affect their fear in the situation.*

In this sentence, the extraposition is obligatory because a construction without extraposed *to*-infinitive clause object is not possible. However, have the authors used an *-ing* clause object, the extraposition would not be mandatory:

[45b] Because most individuals with phobias avoid the objects and situations that they fear, patients may find describing the subtle cues that affect their fear in the situations difficult.

By contrasting the extraposed and non-extraposed sentences, it is possible to determine the main reason for the object clause extraposition. It appears to be the tendency to end-focus the most important part of the sentence. Also, [45b] seems rather awkward and the reader has to make more effort to comprehend the message conveyed in the sentence.

To comment on the overall occurrence of the extraposition in the corpus, judging by the fact that this device was the most numerous one, it is possible to consider extraposition as the most significant construction enabling postponement that has the highest importance for the information ordering. The total number of cases of extraposition was influenced by a relatively large amount of obligatory extraposition. These constructions are used mainly to present something as a possibility and not as the one and only truth. Also, they prevent the author from sounding overconfident in their results. Both these features are very convenient for use in academic writing.

To conclude, there were 65 cases of extraposition present in the corpus. Out of these, 64 sentences had an extraposed subject clause and only one contained

an extraposed object clause. This is in accordance with the fact that subject clause extraposition is much more common than extraposition of an object clause. There were no cases of postponement of a long or complex object in the corpus. The main reason for extraposing the subject or object clause appears to be the need to end-focus desired information and to maintain a stylistic balance of a sentence in accordance with the principle of end-weight.

## 5.6. Discontinuities

The term discontinuities applies to the sentence constructions in which not the whole sentence element is postponed but only a part of it. In this way, a discontinuous sentence element is formed. Overall, there were eight cases of discontinuities present in the corpus. Three sentences contained a discontinuous noun phrase ([91]), four contained a discontinuity in comparative clause ([88]), and one sentence contained a discontinuous clause of exception ([95]):

[91] The fear network becomes sensitized (conditioned) to respond to noxious *stimuli* such as internal (bodily sensations) and external (contexts or situations) *that the person associates with panic*.

[88] Recent research indicates that women are *more likely* to have panic disorder with agoraphobia and that they are more likely to have recurrence of symptoms after remission of their panic attacks *than are men*.

[95] *No clear pattern emerged except that patients with hoarding obsession had a significantly poorer response to SRIs.*

From these patterns, two main reasons for inserting another sentence element emerge. The first reason appears to be the need to put a part of a noun phrase, comparative clause, etc. into prominence and therefore present it as the most important information ([91]). The phrase that precedes the postponed part of the noun phrase *that the person associates with panic*, does not seem to carry any significant meaning. It is used only to give the reader a more specific information about the *stimuli*. However, if the noun phrase was used in its continuous form:

[91b] The fear network becomes sensitized (conditioned) to respond to noxious stimuli that the person associates with panic such as internal (bodily sensations) and external (contexts or situations).;

the main focus would be placed on the phrase *such as internal and external*. This would alter the overall meaning of the sentence and the original intention of the authors would be lost.

The other reason for postponement seems to be that it helps to avoid awkwardness of a long or complex construction occurring in the non-final position:

[94] A number of variables have been identified *that predict return of fear including distraction during exposure, a relatively quick reduction in fear during exposure* [...]

Without postponement, the extremely weighty and complex noun phrase (very much shortened in this illustration) would surely make the sentence nearly incomprehensible due to its imbalance. The reader would have to endure this exceedingly long noun phrase just to reach the predicate. By that time, it would be difficult for her or him to remember the beginning of the sentence.

Concerning the relatively low number of occurrences of discontinuities, it should be said that the vast majority of the sentence elements occurred in the academic text in their continuous form. The reason for this appears to be the requirement to avoid ambiguity because some cases of discontinuities might cause confusion in the reader:

However, effective drug treatments have been identified for social phobia, leading to an increased interest in the biological factors underlying this disorder.

In this sentence, it is questionable whether the phrase *for social phobia* postmodifies the noun phrase *drug treatments* or not. This ambiguity may be viewed as quite counterproductive since the main concern of academic writing is to remain as clear and precise as possible. Therefore, discontinuities might be considered only marginally significant when academic style is concerned.

To conclude, there were eight cases of discontinuities in the corpus – the most common were the discontinuities in comparative sentences. The main reasons

for postponement in this case appeared to be the need for the sentence to be compliant with the principles of end-weight and end-focus.

## 5.7. Existential sentences

The grammatical device of existential sentences was described in chapter 3.4. Existential *there* sentences are used mainly to bring the whole content of a sentence into focus – the subject is postponed and its place is taken by the expletive *there*. Existential sentences were the second most common cases of postponement in the corpus – there were 55 of them.

As was described, the most usual structure of an existential sentence is *there + be + indefinite noun phrase*. In fact, all the existential sentences in the corpus have this structure:

[112] As with social phobia, *there has been an increase* in attention paid to specific phobias, along with increased recognition that these phobias can interfere seriously with an individual's ability to function.

[119] *There has been some evidence* to suggest a relationship between dopamine and social phobia.

[123] *There are several reasons* why women may be more likely than men to report specific phobias.

There were no cases of existential sentences not using the verb *be* in their structure as described in chapter 3.4.

The existential sentences appear to be used mainly to describe existence of something ([99]) or to state that something has happened ([131]):

[99] However, *there are a number of useful models* that guide research and clinical practice.

[131] *There have been very few controlled studies* to date examining the effectiveness of antidepressants for specific phobia.

As it can be seen in [99], authors use the existential construction simply to inform the reader of existence of some phenomenon. Existential *there* serves as the anticipatory

subject that carries no meaning which enables placing the notional subject, and consequentially the rest of the sentence, into focus. This is also the case of [131]. This existential sentence is used to inform the reader that something have been done. Also, another reason for using existential *there* here seems that it helps to fulfill the need to avoid mentioning the agent which is not known.

Without the possibility to postpone the notional subject by using the existential construction, it would be very difficult to conform to the preferable focus position towards the end of a sentence:

[102a] There may be *other ways of activating the fear network*.

[102b] Other ways of activating the fear network may exist.

[147a] There is *an association between OCD and Tourette's disorder, Sydenham's chorea, bilateral necrosis of the globus pallidus and postencephalitic parkinsonian symptoms*.

[147b] An association between OCD and Tourette's disorder, Sydenham's chorea, bilateral necrosis of the globus pallidus and postencephalitic parkinsonian symptoms exists.

By contrasting an existential sentence with its possible counterpart that does not contain the existential *there*, the requirement for a grammatical device enabling putting the subject along with the rest of the sentence into prominence is clear. In [102a] and [147a], the existential *there* allows the original subject to be postponed and presented as the new or most important information. The reader is immediately aware of the information that carries the most weight. This is not the case of [102b] and [147b]. Subjects in these sentences may be considered as given information – due to their appearance in the initial positions – and therefore, the sentences would not be able achieve its objective of focusing the notional subject as intended.

To comment on the relatively high frequency of existential constructions, it is only logical that they appeared in such number, as their main function is to present the whole content of a sentence as new information. This appears to be the key feature which is very important especially in academic style, and therefore existential sentences were present in abundance in the corpus. This makes this postponing structure very significant in terms of academic writing.



To conclude, there were 55 cases of existential sentences in the corpus. All of them had the usual structure. The existential sentences appeared to enable putting the whole sentence into focus, in accordance with the end-focus principle.

## **7. Summary of the analysis**

To sum up the second major part of this thesis, an analysis of a linguistic corpus was conducted. As the source of the corpus, a book called *Essentials of Psychiatry* served. First 150 sentences containing the postponing constructions were chosen from a random chapter and the chapters that followed. Cases of agentive passives, extraposition, discontinuities and existential sentences were systematically selected.

Two main hypotheses were set: firstly, that the postponement was realized in order to accomplish the principles of end-weight and end-focus; and secondly, that the extraposition would be the most common type of postponement, followed by existential sentences, passive voice and discontinuities.

A statistic was created in which the number of occurrence of each type of postponement was contrasted to the others. 16% of the sentences assembled in the corpus contained agentive passive, 42% contained extraposition, 36% comprised of existential sentences and 6% formed discontinuous sentence elements.

Finally, the postponement types were analyzed in detail. Assumed functions of each postponement type were examined and reasons for using particular postponing structures were given. Also the total number of each type of postponement was commented on and explanations to their relatively high or low number were offered.

## 6. Conclusion

The aim of this paper was to describe the function of postponement in academic style. The need to order information in a desired way is most important for the text to be properly understood and to be presented in a stylistically correct composition. And it is postponement that provides a suitable grammatical solution for an author to communicate his or her ideas in the required way.

The paper was divided into two major parts, the theoretical part and the analysis. At the beginning of the theoretical part, English word order and its main functions were described.

English word order was defined as relatively rigid with fixed structure with a standard structure of S-V-O-A. Therefore its most important function is the grammatical one – the sentence elements are recognized only by their position in a sentence and not by their morphological structure. Also, a very significant level on which English word order functions is the level of functional sentence perspective. This can be basically described as a way of sequencing information in a sentence. According to the informational principle, which was also described in this chapter, the amount of information conveyed in a sentence gradually rises from the beginning to the end. Emphasizing the final position is the most preferable way of focusing – this is denoted as end-focus. Also, the principle of end-weight was described in the theoretical part. This principle is based on the presumption that the part of a sentence preceding the verb clause should not be longer than the part after the verb clause – postponement allows shifting a sentence element or a part of it further to the right to accomplish this principle. Cases of violation of standard word order were described as well. This violation takes place in situations in which arises either a need to achieve a desired informational flow, a wish emerges to focus, emphasize, contrast or intensify chosen sentence parts, or there is a tendency to maintain the balance of weight.

More detailed account of the particular types of postponement followed. Postponement was defined as a grammatical device enabling the postponement of a sentence element or a part of it. As the main reason, the need to place the most important or the new information at the end of a sentence – to end-focus it – was

identified. Also, postponement helps to accomplish the principle of end-weight, which appeared to be of utmost importance as well.

Sub-chapters describing concrete types of postponement followed. There were four taken in account: the passive voice, extraposition, discontinuities and existential sentences. All of these constructions have similar functions – either to comply with the principle of end-focus or the principle of end-weight.

Passive voice was described as a way of clause reorganization which switches the subject and the object of a sentence. A passive sentence is created in this way. There were two forms of passives commented on, the so called short passive and long passive. The long passive has the agent expressed by a *by*-phrase in its structure whereas the short passive leaves the agent unexpressed. However, only the long passive can be considered as a means of postponement, as it places the agent into the final position to emphasize it.

Extraposition is a sentence construction in which a subject clause, an object clause or a long or complex object is postponed to the end of a sentence and its place is taken by the anticipatory *it* which carries no meaning of its own. Postponement of a long or complex object does not include this substitution.

Discontinuities encompass constructions in which not the whole sentence element is postponed, but only a part of it. This postponement is realized by an insertion of another unit in the middle of a sentence element. The most common case of discontinuity is the discontinuous noun phrase.

The final type of postponement described were the existential sentences. The term existential sentences denotes constructions in which the notional subject was postponed and its place taken by the existential *there*. This existential *there* is most usually followed by the verb *be* and indefinite noun phrase.

Before the analysis, the main purpose and features of academic style were described. The primary goal of academic style is to communicate ideas precisely, clearly and completely without ambiguities. Its most characteristic features are the density of sentences, objectivity, use of impersonal constructions and specific lexicon.

In the beginning of the analysis, the corpus and the methods used for its creation were described. 150 sentences were assembled from the book called *Essential of*

*Psychiatry* written by Jerald Kay and Allan Tasman. It is important to state that the sentences were not selected randomly to ensure the proper ratio of sentences containing particular type of postponement.

There were two hypotheses set in the beginning of the analysis: that postponement was indeed realized in order either to emphasize the new or most important information or to maintain the stylistic balance by postponing long or complex units in a sentence in accordance with the end-weight principle; and that the extraposition would be – thanks to its commonality – the most frequent type of postponement, while other postponing structures would be less common – the existential sentences the second most common, the passive voice the third most common, and the discontinuities were expected to be the least common.

The hypothesis concerning the total number of each type of postponement was proved correct, since the extraposition formed 42% of all postponing structures assembled in the corpus. The reason for this seemed to be the fact that sentences containing extraposed element are often more frequent than their non-extraposed counterparts. Also, a large proportion was formed by sentences in which the extraposition was obligatory – these mainly contained the verbs *seem* and *appear*. These obligatory constructions are convenient for use in academic style because they moderate the uttered statements so the author or authors do not appear so self-assured. Due to its highest occurrence, it is possible to consider the extraposition as the most important postponing structure in academic style. Concerning the subtypes of extraposition, the subject clause extraposition formed a vast majority of all cases. Only one sentence contained an extraposed object clause – which is in accordance with the fact that the subject clause extraposition is far more frequent than the object clause extraposition. There were no cases of postponement of a long or complex object in the corpus.

The existential sentences were the second most common postponing devices – they formed 36% of the corpus – which is in accordance with the set hypotheses as well. The reason for this appears to be the main function of existential sentences, which is to present the whole content of a sentence – especially the notional subject – as new and/or the most important information. This is especially favorable in academic style as the author or authors are often in need of emphasizing the existence or occurrence of

some phenomenon. This would not be possible without using the existential sentences since the subject would be considered as the given or known information if it appeared in the initial position.

The agentive passive was the third most common type of postponement – it formed 16% of the corpus. This may be attributed to the fact that passive is not generally a means of postponement. Only the so called long passive may be considered as a construction able of postponement and since it forms only one fifth of all passives, the relatively low frequency does not seem so surprising. Despite being so infrequent, it is still possible to consider the agentive passive to be very significant in academic style as it enables end-focusing the agent.

Finally the rarest type of postponement were the so called discontinuities which formed only 6% of the corpus. The reason for this may be the fact that in some cases, sentences containing discontinuities may be seen as ambiguous. Therefore, the sentence elements tend to appear in their continuous form in academic style to prevent this ambiguity. From this point of view, discontinuities may be considered as the least significant in terms of use in academic style.

Concerning the other hypothesis – that the postponement is realized mainly to comply with the principles of end-focus and end-weight – it was proved right as well. The reason for postponement in the examined excerpts from the corpus indeed appeared to be the requirement to accomplish the aforementioned principles. The sentences without postponement were contrasted to their counterparts containing postponement which proved the importance of postponing devices. Without postponement, it would not be possible to comply with the informational principle. This would make a text much less comprehensible and the processing of some sentences would be much harder.

To conclude, both hypotheses were proved correct and the significance of postponement in terms of function in academic style was found eminent.

## 7. Resumé

Cílem této práce bylo popsat případy přesunutí určitých informací v odborném stylu. Správné uspořádání členů ve větě je jedním ze základních požadavků na srozumitelnost textu a jeho správnou interpretaci. Přesouvání informací na pozdější místo ve větě je přirozený způsob, jak dosáhnout požadovaného efektu ve smyslu jejich distribuce.

Práce je rozdělena na dvě hlavní části – část teoretickou a část praktickou. Na začátku teoretické části byly vymezeny hlavní funkce a rysy anglického slovosledu. Anglický slovosled byl charakterizován jako relativně fixní s rigidní strukturou se standardem v podobě *podmět – sloveso – předmět – příslovečné určení*. Anglický jazyk lze považovat za jazyk analytický, z čehož vyplývá jeho hlavní funkce v angličtině – funkce gramatická. Větné členy je možno rozlišit pouze podle jejich pozice ve větě a ne podle jejich morfologické struktury.

Pro téma této práce se však jako nejdůležitější jeví další úroveň, na které anglický slovosled plní svoji funkci, a to úroveň funkčního členění větného, které může být stručně popsáno jako rozložení informací ve větě. Byl popsán tzv. informační princip, podle kterého množství informací roste ve větě z leva do prava. Z toho plyne nejdůležitější pozice ve větě ve smyslu soustředění informací s největší hodnotou – pozice na konci věty (v angličtině nazývaná *end-focus*). Dalším velmi důležitým principem pro udržení stylistické rovnováhy v anglické větě je tzv. *end-weight* princip. Tento princip je založen na předpokladu, že část věty před slovesem by neměla být delší nebo komplexnější než část věty za slovesem následující. Dále byly v této kapitole popsány případy porušení již zmíněného standardního slovosledu. Toto se děje zejména z potřeby cílového uspořádání informací, nebo z potřeby zdůraznit nebo se zaměřit na určité větné členy, anebo je třeba zachovat stylistickou rovnováhu věty.

V následující kapitole byly popsány konkrétní druhy přesunutí informací ve větě. Tento princip, v angličtině zvaný *postponement*, byl obecně popsán a definován jako gramatický prostředek umožňující přesunutí větného členu nebo jeho části na pozdější místo ve větě. Důvodem pro toto přesunutí je požadavek na umístění nové nebo nejdůležitější informace ve větě na její konec. *Postponement* rovněž napomáhá k

dodržení tzv. *end-weight* principu, jenž je rovněž nadmíru důležitý.

Následující podkapitoly byly věnovány popisu konkrétních typů přesunutí informací. Byly popsány celkem čtyři: trpný rod, extrapozice, diskontinuitní konstrukce a existenciální věty. Všechny tyto konstrukce mají podobnou funkci – dodržet již zmíněné *end-focus* a *end-weight* principy.

Trpný rod byl charakterizován jako způsob reorganizace věty, který zaměňuje pozice předmětu a podmětu. Tímto se věta stává pasivní. Byly zmíněny dvě formy pasiva: tzv. dlouhý a krátký pasiv. Dlouhý pasiv má vyjádřeného konatele na konci věty za pomoci fráze uvozené předložkou *by*, zatímco v krátkém pasivu zůstává konatel nevyjádřen. Avšak, jako prostředek přesunutí informací na konec věty lze být považován jen dlouhý pasiv, jelikož uvádí konatele na konci věty pro jeho zdůraznění.

Extrapozice je větná konstrukce, ve které je buď podmětná věta, předmětná věta nebo dlouhý/komplexní předmět odsunut na konec věty a jejich místo je obsazeno tzv. anticipujícím zájmenem *it*, které nenesé žádný význam. Přesunutí dlouhého/komplexního předmětu toto nahrazení zájmenem *it* nezahrnuje.

Mezi diskontinuitní konstrukce se řadí případy, ve kterých není odsunut celý větný člen, nýbrž jen jeho část. Tohoto je dosaženo vložím další jednotky mezi tento větný člen. Nejčastějším případem diskontinuity je diskontinuitní nominální fráze.

Poslením typem přesunutí informací popsaných v teoretické části byly tzv. existenciální věty. Tento termín označuje věty, ve kterých je pomyslný podmět přesunut dále ve větě a jeho místo je nahrazeno tzv. existenciálním *there*. To je nejčastěji následováno formou slovesa *be* a nefinitní nominální frází.

Před samotnou analýzou byly stručně popsány funkce a vlastnosti odborného stylu. Hlavním smyslem tohoto stylu je předat informace přesně, jasně a bez dvojsmyslů. Jsou používány zhuštěné věty, je zachován objektivní neosobní styl sdělení, ve kterém jsou používány neosobní konstrukce – především trpný rod. Pro odborný styl je rovněž charakteristický specifický slovník.

V úvodu praktické části byly popsány zásady vypracování lingvistického korpusu. Z knihy s názvem *Essentials of Psychiatry* napsané Jeraldem Kayem a Allanem Tasmanem bylo shromážděno 150 vět. Bylo zaznamenáno pouze prvních 150 případů přesunutí informací, čímž bylo zabráněno porušení poměru mezi jednotlivými

postponujícími konstrukcemi.

V úvodu analýzy byly stanoveny dvě hypotézy: za první, že přesunutí informací na konec věty se vskutku děje buď z potřeby zdůraznit novou nebo nejdůležitější informaci, nebo z potřeby vyhovět stylistické vyváženosti věty; za druhé, že extrapozice bude – z důvodů její běžnosti – nejčastějším případem přesunutí informací, zatímco ostatní postponující konstrukce budou méně časté – existenciální věty druhé nejčastější, trpné konstrukce méně časté a diskontinuální konstrukce nejméně časté.

Hypotéza vztahující se k frekvenci výskytu typů přesunutí se prokázala jako pravdivá, neboť extrapozice tvořila celých 42% všech vět obsažených v korpusu. Příčinou může být fakt, že věty obsahující extraponovaný člen jsou mnohdy častější než jejich protějšky bez extrapozice. Důvodem může také být to, že velkou část tvořily věty, v nichž byla extrapozice povinná – tyto věty obsahovaly především slovesa *seem* a *appear*. Tyto konstrukce jsou vhodné v odborném stylu, neboť zmírňují tvrzení autorů, čímž je zabráněno tomu, aby působili příliš sebejistě. Kvůli její relativní četnosti může být extrapozice považována za nejvíce důležitou konstrukci umožňující odsunutí informací v odborném stylu. Co se týče podtypů extrapozice, extrapozice podmětne věty byla zdaleka ta nejčastější. Pouze jedna věta obsahovala extraponovanou předmětnou větu, což je v souladu s tvrzením, že je tento typ extrapozice mnohem vzácnější než extrapozice podmětne věty. V korpusu se nevyskytovaly žádné případy odsunutí dlouhého/komplexního předmětu.

Existenciální věty byly druhým nejčastějším prostředkem umožňujícím přesouvání informací ve větě. Tvořily 36% vět v korpusu. Příčinou se zdá být základní funkce existenciálních vět, a to schopnost obsah celé věty – a zejména pomyslný podmět – představit jako novou informaci. To je velmi výhodné právě v odborném stylu, v kterém je často nutné zdůraznit existenci nebo výskyt nějakého fenoménu. Tohoto by nebylo možno dosáhnout pokud by byl podmět umístěn v počáteční pozici.

Pasiv s vyjádřeným konatelem tvořil 16% vět v korpusu. Toto relativně nízké číslo může být přisouzeno faktu, že trpný rod není obecně považován za prostředek primárně určený k odsouvání informací. Pouze na trpné konstrukce s vyjádřeným konatelem lze nahlížet jako na schopné přesouvání informací na konec věty, a jelikož tyto pasivy tvoří pouze 1/5 všech trpných vět, není tento zdánlivě nízký počet



překvapující. Navzdory relativně nízkému výskytu, je stále možné považovat trpný rod s vyjádřeným konatelem za velmi významný pro akademickou prózu.

Konečně, nejvzácnějším druhem odsunutí informací byly diskontinuální konstrukce – tvořili pouze 6% korpusu. Důvodem může být fakt, že tyto konstrukce mohou v některých případech působit dvojznačně, a tudíž se větné členy v akademické próze vyskytují převážně ve své kontinuální formě. Z tohoto úhlu pohledu lze diskontinuální konstrukce považovat jako nejméně významné.

Druhá hypotéza – že postponement je realizován právě z důvodu vyhovění *end-weight* a *end-focus* principům – byla rovněž prokázána jako pravdivá. Hlavním důvodem pro odsunutí informací ve větách shromážděných v korpusu se skutečně zdála být potřeba dodržet výše zmíněné principy. Důležitost schopnosti odsunout nejdůležitější informaci ve větě na její konec byla prokázána porovnáním s větami se standardním slovosledem. Bez možnosti odsunout některé části věty by nebylo možné vyhovět informačnímu principu a text by se celkově stal mnohem méně srozumitelným.

Závěrem lze říci, že obě hypotézy byly prokázány jako pravdivé a odsunutí informací bylo shledáno nadměrně důležitým prvkem při řazení informací ve větě.

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## 9. Appendices

### Sentences containing passive construction:

1. Although panic attacks are a cardinal feature of panic disorder and in combination with agoraphobia (i.e., anxiety about being in a place or a situation that is not easily escaped or where help is not easily accessible if panic occurs) are essential to a diagnosis of panic disorder with agoraphobia, the criteria sets for panic attacks and for agoraphobia are listed separately as standalone noncodable conditions that are referred to by the diagnostic criteria for panic disorder and agoraphobia without history of panic disorder. (p. 578)
2. The origin of the panic disorder construct as a separate diagnostic entity was influenced by the work of a number of researchers but none so much as Donald Klein in the late 1950s and early 1960s. (p. 579)
3. Panic disorder can be precipitated by the use of psychotropic drugs and risk is higher with chronic use. (p. 580)
4. First, while recognizing that initial panic attacks may be caused by other factors (e.g., drug-related autonomic surges), it assumes that people prone to panic disorder have an enduring tendency catastrophically to misinterpret benign arousal sensations. (p. 581)
5. For example, the cycle can be initiated by a contextual trigger or simply by having catastrophic thoughts about bodily sensations. (p. 581)
6. Animal research indicates that conditioned fear responses are mediated by a “fear network” in the brain, consisting of the amygdala and its afferent and efferent projections, particularly its connections with the hippocampus, medial prefrontal cortex, hypothalamus and brainstem. (p. 582)
7. Anxiety is primarily mediated by the gamma-aminobutyric acid-benzodiazepine system. (p. 588)
8. In addition, patients with social phobia might avoid situations that are typically avoided by individuals with agoraphobia for fear of seeing someone that they know or of being observed by strangers. (p. 595)

9. It has been suggested that this response is mediated by an overactive sinoaortic baroreflex that is triggered by heightened arousal in situations involving blood or needles. (p. 596)
10. In addition, a “discrete or circumscribed” subtype is often used by investigators to describe patients with only one domain of social anxiety, usually involving performance-related situations (e.g., public speaking). (p. 596)
11. This is supported by research finding that social phobia is common in children and is diagnosed in a significant percentage of children referred to a specialty anxiety disorders clinic. (p. 598)
12. Individuals with panic disorder, obsessive–compulsive disorder, or eating disorders often avoid social situations because of the possibility of being judged negatively if their symptoms are noticed by others. (p. 598)
13. However, to maintain the patient’s trust and to maximize the effectiveness of behavioral interventions, it is important that exposure practices proceed in a predictable way, so that the patient is not surprised by unexpected events. (p. 602)
14. The vast majority of patients report a gradual worsening of obsessions and compulsions prior to the onset of full-criteria OCD, which is followed by a chronic course (see later). (p. 608)
15. The most common compulsion is checking, which is followed by washing, symmetry, the need to ask or confess and counting. (p. 610)
16. Children with OCD present most commonly with washing compulsions, which are followed by repeating rituals. (p. 610)
17. The content of the contamination obsession and the feared consequence commonly changes over time; for example, a fear of cancer may be replaced by a fear of a sexually transmitted disease. (p. 611)
18. Patients are usually horrified by the content of their obsessions and are reluctant to divulge them. (p. 612)
19. Patients with aggressive obsessions may be plagued by the doubt that they inadvertently harmed someone without knowing that they did so. (p. 612)
20. Most people with OCD are aware that other people think their symptoms are

unrealistic and that the obsessions are caused by a psychiatric illness.

(p. 612)

21. However, OCD compulsions are usually preceded by both anxiety and obsessional concerns, whereas, in Tourette's disorder, the urge to perform a tic is not preceded by an obsessional fear. (p. 614)

22. It is likely that OCD is caused by a complex interaction of factors rather than a single defect. (p. 615)

### **Sentences containing extraposed element**

23. It is, however, important to distinguish between a fear reaction in response to actual threat and a panic attack. (p. 578)

24. It is, therefore, unlikely that a single brainstem dysregulation is responsible for panic or, in turn, that brainstem dysregulation is the only way of producing an over-active fear network. (p. 582)

25. It is also important to rule out the other anxiety disorders and major depressive disorder as primary factors in the person's panic attacks and avoidance prior to initiating treatment for panic disorder. (p. 583)

26. It is not known whether drug treatments would be as effective as CBT if patients remained on their medications. (p. 586)

27. It was thought that combination treatments might be a way to improve treatment outcome. (p. 586)

28. It remains unclear whether treatment outcome is enhanced by combining CBT with SSRIs. (p. 586)

29. It remains to be demonstrated that CBT can reduce relapse when patients are tapered off other antipanic drugs such as SSRIs. (p. 586)

30. It is not unusual to become anxious before a job interview or a speech. (p. 588)

31. It is not unusual for flying phobias to lead individuals to refuse job promotions that involve travel or to avoid visiting distant family members. (p. 588)

32. It is not surprising that individuals might develop flying phobias, given the

- frequency with which plane crashes are reported in the news. (p. 590)
33. Although some authors have concluded that the studies to date do not support preparedness, it may be argued that these studies have not adequately tested the theory. (p. 590)
34. Overall, it appears that direct and indirect methods of fear development are relatively common, although the frequency of these onsets varies greatly across studies for a variety of reasons. (p. 590)
35. Despite the prevalence of direct and indirect conditioning events and informational onsets, it appears that they are not the whole story. (p. 590)
36. It has been proposed that a fourth nonassociative pathway be added to Rachman's three associative pathways to fear development. (p. 590)
37. It appears that at as early as 18 months of age children differ with respect to their tendency to interact with other individuals, toys and objects. (p. 590)
38. Although it is clear that cognitive biases exist in individuals with phobias and that attentional and attributional biases improve after effective treatment, it is not known whether the cognitive biases exhibited by patients contribute to the development of the fear or whether they are simply a manifestation of the fear. (p. 591)
39. Although it is clear that cognitive biases exist in individuals with phobias and that attentional and attributional biases improve after effective treatment, it is not known whether the cognitive biases exhibited by patients contribute to the development of the fear or whether they are simply a manifestation of the fear. (p. 591)
40. It appears that being a first-degree relative of an individual with a specific phobia puts one at a greater risk for a specific phobia compared with first-degree relatives of never mentally ill controls (31% versus 11%). (p. 591)
41. It has been suggested that an inherited overactive baroreflex may contribute to the high rate of familial transmission of blood phobias. (p. 591)
42. In a study on high and low shyness (anxious self-preoccupation and avoidance of social situations) and sociability (preference to be socially active and seek out social situations) in college students, it was found that shyness was associated

- with greater relative right frontal EEG activity, whereas sociability was associated with greater relative left frontal EEG. (p. 592)
43. However, it should be noted that despite limited evidence for the use of beta-blockers in normal groups (e.g., musicians with performance anxiety), their utility for treating patients with a diagnosis of social phobia (e.g., performance fears that lead to significant distress or impairment) has not been established. (p. 592)
44. It should be noted that questionnaire measures do not always correlate highly with performance on behavioral measures. (p. 592)
45. Because most individuals with phobias avoid the objects and situations that they fear, patients may find it difficult to describe the subtle cues that affect their fear in the situation. (p. 593)
46. In addition, it is not unusual for patients to misjudge the amount of fear that they typically experience in the phobic situation. (p. 593)
47. Therefore, it is possible that in Western cultures women learn to fear certain situations more strongly than do men. (p. 593)
48. Of course, it is difficult to know whether culture and the media are responsible for sex differences or simply reflect differences that exist for other reasons (e.g., different predisposing factors). (p. 593)
49. It will be interesting to see whether sex ratios for phobias change as traditional gender roles continue to change. (p. 593)
50. It should be noted that individuals within a culture differ on these variables just as individuals across cultures differ. (p. 594)
51. To make the diagnosis in this case, it is necessary to assess the reasons for avoidance. (p. 595)
52. It has been suggested that this response is mediated by an overactive sinoaortic baroreflex that is triggered by heightened arousal in situations involving blood or needles. (p. 596)
53. It appears that specific phobias commonly occur as additional diagnoses, at both clinical and subclinical levels. (p. 598)
54. Similarly, it is not unusual for individuals with social phobia to report having



- been shy as children, although their anxiety may not have reached phobic proportions until later. (p. 599)
55. Pharmacological treatments have been used effectively for treating social phobia, although it is generally accepted that they are of limited utility for treating specific phobias. (p. 599)
56. However, little research has been conducted to assess the utility of medications for specific phobias, and it is not uncommon for phobic patients occasionally to be prescribed low dosages of benzodiazepines to be taken in the phobic situation (e.g., while flying). (p. 599)
57. It remains to be shown whether the addition of these strategies will improve the efficacy of treatments that include only exposure. (p. 602)
58. However, to maintain the patient's trust and to maximize the effectiveness of behavioral interventions, it is important that exposure practices proceed in a predictable way, so that the patient is not surprised by unexpected events. (p. 602)
59. In summary, it seems clear that effective psychosocial treatments and medications for social phobia exist. (p. 603)
60. In comparison, it is not known the extent to which treatment gains for medication treatments are maintained following discontinuation. (p. 603)
61. With respect to specific phobia, it is common for some return of fear to occur in the presence of the phobic stimulus. (p. 604)
62. It is notable that this course was most common even during an era when effective treatments were available. (p. 609)
63. It appears that these symptom dimensions are stable over time, that is, although a patient's specific obsessions and compulsions may change over time, new obsessions and compulsions that develop are often within the same symptom dimension as the previous symptoms. (p. 610)
64. Thus it is often up to the clinician to decide which category to place a symptom so that it best describes the patient's symptoms overall. (p. 611)
65. It may even be best to classify it in more than one category. (p. 611)
66. While it may be difficult to distinguish the somatic obsessions of OCD from

- those of hypochondriasis, there are several distinguishing features, which are discussed later in the chapter. (p. 611)
67. It is striking that the content of these obsessions tends to consist of ideas that patients find particularly abhorrent. (p. 612)
68. Although it may be difficult to distinguish a primary from a secondary diagnosis, some individuals with OCD view their depressive symptoms as occurring secondary to the demoralization and hopelessness accompanying their OCD and report that they would not be depressed if they did not have OCD. (p. 613)
69. In fact, it has been suggested that tic disorders are an alternative expression or phenotype of the familial OCD subtype. (p. 613)
70. Thus, it appears important to differentiate OCD plus a comorbid psychotic disorder, which may have a relatively poor outcome, from delusional OCD, which may be more similar to OCD with insight and without comorbid psychosis. (p. 613)
71. Regardless, it is clear that a significant number of people with schizophrenia have OCD symptoms which require assessment and may benefit from treatment. (p. 613)
72. Diagnostic dilemmas may also arise when it is unclear whether certain thoughts are obsessions or whether, instead, they are ordinary worries, ruminations, overvalued ideas, or delusions. (p. 613)
73. It will be interesting to see whether future research indicates that certain types of somatic delusional disorder (e.g., the delusional variant of hypochondriasis) and the jealous type of delusional disorder (also referred to as pathological jealousy) are actually variants of OCD. (p. 614)
74. This double coding reflects the fact that it is unclear whether OCD with insight and OCD without insight constitute the same or different disorders. (p. 614)
75. However, it is sometimes difficult for psychiatrists to distinguish between complex tics and compulsions, especially when a patient has both disorders. (p. 614)

76. It is unclear whether some of these patients should be diagnosed with OCPD or subthreshold OCD. (p. 615)
77. It is worth noting that there are currently no operational criteria for what constitutes an OCD spectrum disorder. (p. 615)
78. It is likely that OCD is caused by a complex interaction of factors rather than a single defect. (p. 615)
79. Given the concordance rate of less than 100% in monozygotic twins, it is clear that environment also plays a role in OCD's phenotypic expression. (p. 615)
80. It has been hypothesized that some forms of OCD, particularly OCD plus Tourette's disorder, may involve an imbalance in activity between serotonergic and dopaminergic systems. (p. 616)
81. Given the complex interactions and overlap among monoaminergic and other receptors in the brain, it is likely that a number of neurotransmitters are involved in OCD's pathophysiology and etiology. (p. 616)
82. Behavioral therapy has also been used successfully in all age groups, although when treating children with this modality it is usually advisable to use a parent as a cotherapist. (p. 617)
83. It should be noted that few patients experience a cure or complete remission of symptoms. (p. 617)
84. Most studies have used Y-BOCS scores of 16 to 20 as a study entry criterion, although it has been argued that higher scores (e.g., 20–21) might reduce the increasing placebo response rates being obtained in OCD studies. (p. 617)
85. It is therefore recommended that doses of 250 mg/day or less be used. (p. 618)
86. The reasons for this unique response are not fully understood, but it is postulated that the IV preparation avoids first-pass hepatoenteric metabolism, leading to increased bioavailability of the parent compound clomipramine. (p. 618)
87. It is worth noting that the SSRIs, via their effect on the liver cytochrome system, can inhibit the metabolism of certain other drugs. (p. 620)

### **Sentenced containing discontinuous sentence element**

88. Recent research indicates that women are more likely to have panic disorder with agoraphobia and that they are more likely to have recurrence of symptoms after remission of their panic attacks than are men. (p. 580)
89. Men, on the other hand, are more likely to have panic disorder without agoraphobia (Yonkers *et al.*, 1998) and are more likely to self-medicate with alcohol than are women. (p. 580)
90. Those having panic disorder with agoraphobia appear to be at greater risk for comorbid alcohol abuse or dependence than those without agoraphobia. (p. 581)
91. The fear network becomes sensitized (conditioned) to respond to noxious stimuli such as internal (bodily sensations) and external (contexts or situations) that the person associates with panic. (p. 582)
92. Scores on this scale can be used to assess whether treatment is altering the patient's tendency catastrophically to misinterpret bodily sensations. (p. 583)
93. Individuals with performance-related phobias tend to show more autonomic reactivity (e.g., rapid heart beat) in the phobic situation than do patients with generalized social phobia. (p. 592)
94. A number of variables have been identified that predict return of fear including distraction during exposure, a relatively quick reduction in fear during exposure, a relatively slow reduction in fear during exposure, higher initial heart rate, spacing of exposure sessions and the degree to which the exposure stimuli are varied, the tendency to over associate fear-relevant stimuli with aversive. (p. 604)
95. No clear pattern emerged except that patients with hoarding obsession had a significantly poorer response to SRIs. (p. 610)

### **Structures containing existential sentences**

96. To date, there are no studies that have reported comorbid panic disorder and acute stress disorder. (p. 580)

97. There are several contemporary cognitive models of panic disorder which, for the most part, are based on variations of the “fear of anxiety” construct.  
(p. 581)
98. Today, there is no single, leading biological model of panic.  
(p. 581)
99. However, there are a number of useful models that guide research and clinical practice.  
(p. 581)
100. Gorman and colleagues (2000) begin with the observation that there is a remarkable similarity between the physiological and behavioral consequences of panic attacks in humans and conditioned fear responses in animals.  
(p. 581)
101. In addition, there are reciprocal connections between the amygdala and the sensory thalamus, prefrontal cortex, insula, and primary somatosensory cortex.  
(p. 582)
102. There may be other ways of activating the fear network. (p. 582)
103. Thus, there appear to be several ways in which SSRIs could desensitize the fear network.  
(p. 582)
104. Thus, there appear to be several ways in which SSRIs could desensitize the fear network.  
(p. 582)
105. There are a number of approaches that can be taken in treating panic disorder with and without agoraphobia.  
(p. 583)
106. These treatments have broadly similar efficacy, although there is some evidence that SSRIs tend to be most effective.  
(p. 583)
107. A concern with using these newer medications to treat panic disorder is that there are few data to guide the clinician.  
(p. 585)
108. However, there is no reason to expect that CBT would not be helpful in these cases.  
(p. 586)
109. Based on contemporary biological and cognitive-behavioral models, there are several treatment options that can be considered.  
(p. 587)
110. While mixed, there is evidence to suggest that treatments that combine SSRIs and CBT may be more effective than either treatment alone, at least in

- some symptom domains. (p. 587)
111. The ICD-10 Diagnostic Criteria for Research specify that there be fear or avoidance of at least two of the following situations: crowds, public places, traveling alone, or traveling away from home. (p. 587)
112. As with social phobia, there has been an increase in attention paid to specific phobias, along with increased recognition that these phobias can interfere seriously with an individual's ability to function. (p. 588)
113. In any event, there is now strong evidence that conditioning processes play an important role in the development of phobic disorders. (p. 590)
114. In fact, there is evidence that personality factors and parenting styles may be especially relevant to the development of social phobia. (p. 590)
115. There is no increased risk among relatives of people with social phobia to develop other anxiety disorders. (p. 591)
116. Currently, there are no adoption or molecular genetics studies of social or specific phobias, and twin studies have yielded conflicting results. (p. 591)
117. Although there are conflicting findings on whether there is a general genetic factor (influencing risk for any anxiety disorder) or a specific genetic factor (influencing risk for specific anxiety disorders such as specific and social phobias), some general conclusions can be made. (p. 591)
118. In the case of social phobia, there seems to be a moderate (based on the strength of the correlations from twin studies) disorder-specific genetic influence combined with specific and nonspecific environmental influences. (p. 591)
119. There has been some evidence to suggest a relationship between dopamine and social phobia. (p. 591)
120. Finally, there may be good reason to consider different underlying mechanisms in patients with performance-related phobias (e.g., public speaking) than in patients with generalized social phobia (i.e., those who fear most social situations). (p. 592)
121. Although there are numerous structured and semistructured interviews available, two of the most commonly used interviews for diagnosing anxiety disorders are the Anxiety Disorders Interview Schedule for DSM-IV (ADIS-IV)

- (Brown *et al.*, 1994) and the Structured Clinical Interview for Axis I DSM-IV-TR Disorders-Patient Edition (SCID-I/P for DSM-IV-TR). (p. 592)
122. Furthermore, there is evidence that men are more likely than women to underestimate their fear on specific phobia measures. (p. 592)
123. There are several reasons why women may be more likely than men to report specific phobias. (p. 593)
124. For example, there is evidence from epidemiological studies that African-Americans are 1.5 to 3 times as likely as whites to report phobic disorders, even after controlling for education and socioeconomic status. (p. 593)
125. Finally, there may be cultural differences in response biases on questionnaire measures of fear and during interviews. (p. 593)
126. Also, there is evidence that in addition to fearing danger from the phobic object (e.g., a plane crash, being bitten by a dog) many individuals with specific phobias fear danger as a result of their reaction in the phobic situation (e.g., having a panic attack, losing control, being embarrassed). (p. 595)
127. Also, the few relevant studies that have been conducted suggest that there may be differences in sensation-focused apprehension across specific phobia types. (p. 595)
128. Of course, in people with blood and injection phobias, the response is excessive and unwarranted, as there is typically no danger of excessive blood loss. (p. 596)
129. Specific phobias are more common in women than in men, although there are differences in sex ratio among phobia types. (p. 596)
130. Although there are few studies examining this hypothesis, preliminary data suggest that benzodiazepines may be helpful in the short term but lead to greater relapse in the long term and possibly interfere with the therapeutic effects of exposure across sessions. (p. 600)
131. There have been very few controlled studies to date examining the effectiveness of antidepressants for specific phobia. (p. 600)
132. Alprazolam may also be effective but there are too few studies to

- establish this. (p. 601)
133. Although these methods are presented as four distinct treatment approaches, there is often overlap among the various treatments. (p. 603)
134. All three treatments led to significant improvements and there were no differences between treatments. (p. 603)
135. Indeed, there is evidence that following CBT, individuals report significantly fewer negative self-focused thoughts. (p. 603)
136. There has also been a lack of research on the impact of comorbidity on success of treatment with specific phobias. (p. 603)
137. There has been considerable interest in the role of insight, or awareness, in OCD. (p. 607)
138. In several studies, earlier age at onset has been associated with an increased rate of OCD in first-degree relatives and suggest that there is a familial type of OCD characterized by early onset. (p. 608)
139. There has been considerable interest in exploring whether certain clusters of obsessions and compulsions represent specific OCD phenotypes. (p. 610)
140. While it may be difficult to distinguish the somatic obsessions of OCD from those of hypochondriasis, there are several distinguishing features, which are discussed later in the chapter. (p. 612)
141. However, during the past century there have been numerous descriptions of patients with OCD who are completely convinced of the reasonableness of their obsessions and need to perform compulsions. (p. 612)
142. There is an increased rate of both OCD and tic disorders in the first-degree relatives of OCD probands with a family lifetime history of tics, and an increased frequency of tic disorders in the first-degree relatives of OCD probands compared with controls. (p. 613)
143. There are also phenomenologic observations that link OCD and tic disorders. (p. 613)
144. Nonetheless, emerging data suggest that there are some important differences between the two disorders, and they are currently classified



- separately in DSM-IV. (p. 614)
145. Although our understanding of what causes this disorder has continued to grow, there is still much to learn. (p. 615)
146. Thus, in recent years a molecular genetics approach has begun to be applied to OCD, although there have not been significant findings to date. (p. 616)
147. There is an association between OCD and Tourette's disorder, Sydenham's chorea, bilateral necrosis of the globus pallidus and postencephalitic parkinsonian symptoms. (p. 616)
148. The fixed-dose trials of fluoxetine are particularly noteworthy because there are few published fixed-dose trials with any of the antiobsessional agents in OCD. (p. 619)
149. Although these studies indicated that doses of 20, 40 and 60 mg/day were all effective when compared with placebo, there was a trend toward 60 mg/day being more effective. (p. 619)
150. As in the other studies, the fluvoxamine-treated patients had a significant reduction in OCD symptoms; however, unlike most of the earlier medication trials there was a relatively high placebo response rate of 11%. (p. 619)