

**A Contrastive Study of Clause Complex in *Alice's
Adventures in Wonderland* and Its Simplified Version**

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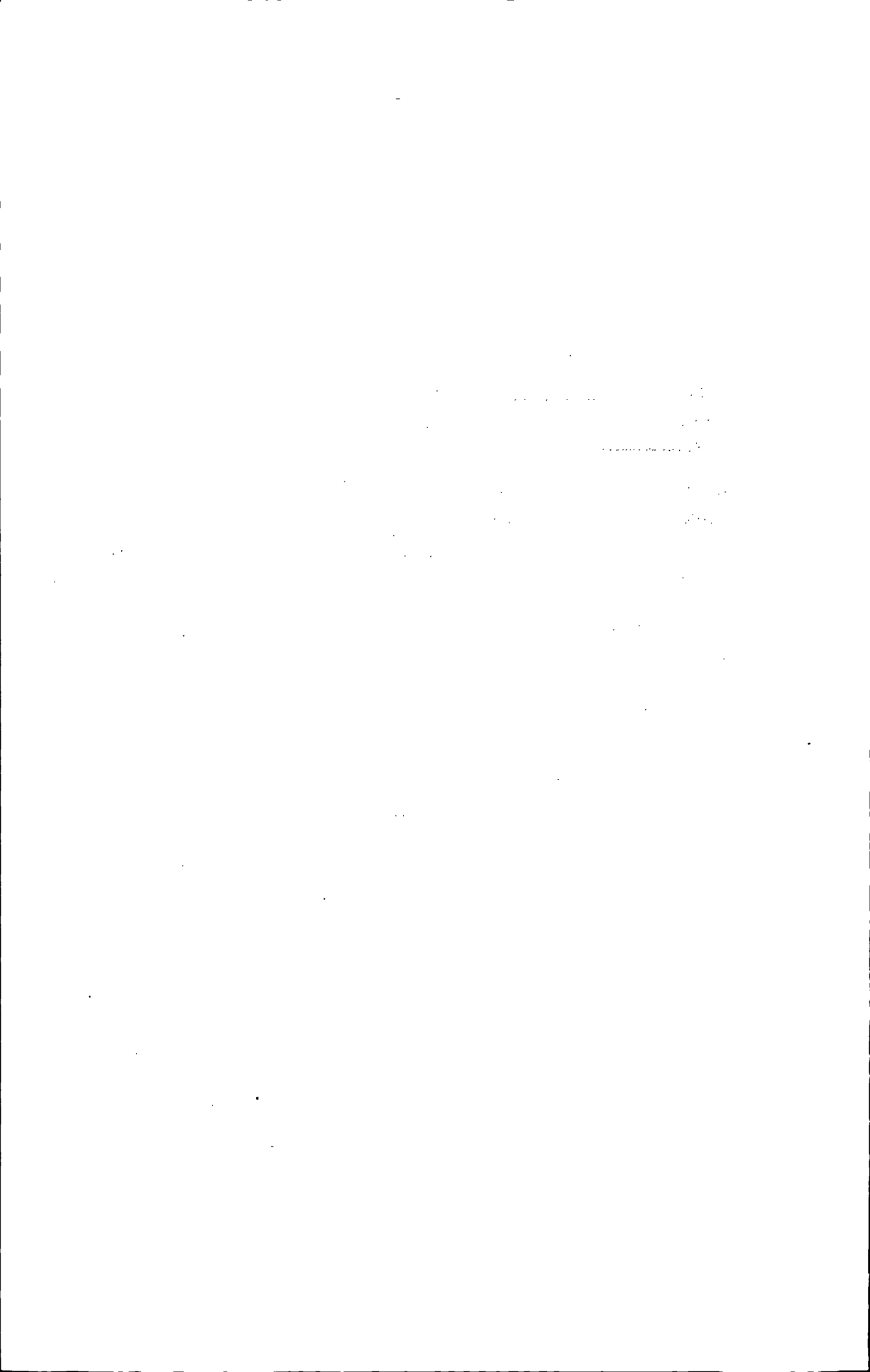
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Abstract

Alice's Adventures in Wonderland (AAW) is a very famous novel which has been translated into many languages, and adapted into many versions including some simplified ones. The novel has even become the subject of a great number of researches. But a survey of the literature in the study of the *AAW* reveals that few studies have been made in the contrastive study of the original version and the simplified version from the perspective of the systematic functional grammar. This dissertation compares the differences in clause complexes of the two versions for the purpose of exploring the nature and features of the two versions, and providing some implications for the future language learning and teaching.

The primary concern of the dissertation is to investigate how the clause complexes in the two different versions are constructed and presented to readers. Then the author uses Halliday's ideas of clause complexes to analyze the clause complexes in the two versions individually. Based on the research results and data of these two versions, a contrastive study at both vertical and horizontal levels is developed. Through this the author discovers that original version has more structures with more than two clauses. Some of them even consist of eleven clauses, with a very comprehensive structure involving almost all types and sub-types of the expansion and projection. By contrast, the simplified version has much fewer comprehensive structures than the original version. Most sentences in the simplified version are simple sentences or sentences with only two clauses. Therefore we conclude that the simplified sentence structures can make the language easier to understand.

Key words: systemic functional grammar, clause complexes, clause



摘要

《爱丽丝漫游奇境记》是一本非常著名的童话小说，曾被翻译成多种语言，改编成多个版本，也是许多影视、戏剧等多种艺术形式的素材来源；因而也成为许多学的研究对象。文学家和语言学家都从文学和语言学的角度对《爱丽丝漫游奇境记》做大量深刻的研究，但是对于比较各种不同版本的研究却比较少。本文致力于对于《爱丽丝漫游奇境记》的原版和一个简写版的对比研究，试图从比较研究中找出原版和简写版的语言特点，从而发现简化语言的方式。

韩礼德认为句子以上单位为小句复合体（clause complex），小句间的关系从相互关系分析，可确定小句是属于并列（paratactic）型还是从属（hypotactic）型；而从逻辑语义关系分析，可确定小句是属于扩展（expansion）型还是投射（projection）型。

本文以小句复合的理论作为基本理论基础，先分别分析原版和简写版中第一章中较复杂的复合小句（含有三个或三个以上从句的句子）并详细展现和说明分析结果和过程。然后以图表的形式呈现对一般复合小句（含有两个从句的句子）的分析结果。

在第五章中，通过对上一章中的研究结果进行对比研究，并通过比较分析得出新的数据，比较出复杂小句、并列关系、从属关系等在两个不同版本所占的比率。由此可证明，作者选取的简写版的确比原版简单很多，主要体现在小句复合体的小句含量上。简写版中小句复合体所含的小句含量比原版中的少很多，原版中最复杂的小句复合体含有 11 个小句，而简写版中的小句复合体最多含有 4 个小句，平均含量也少了 2.5 个小句。所以，由此可推断出复合体中小句含量的多少是使语义简单的关键。作者还对两个版本在相互依赖关系和逻辑语义关系方面进行了比较，从而发现无论是简写版还是原版都用了大量的延伸和增强关系，但是解释关系较少，这体现了这类型的童话小说的语言特点。

关键词： 功能语言学；复合小句；小句。

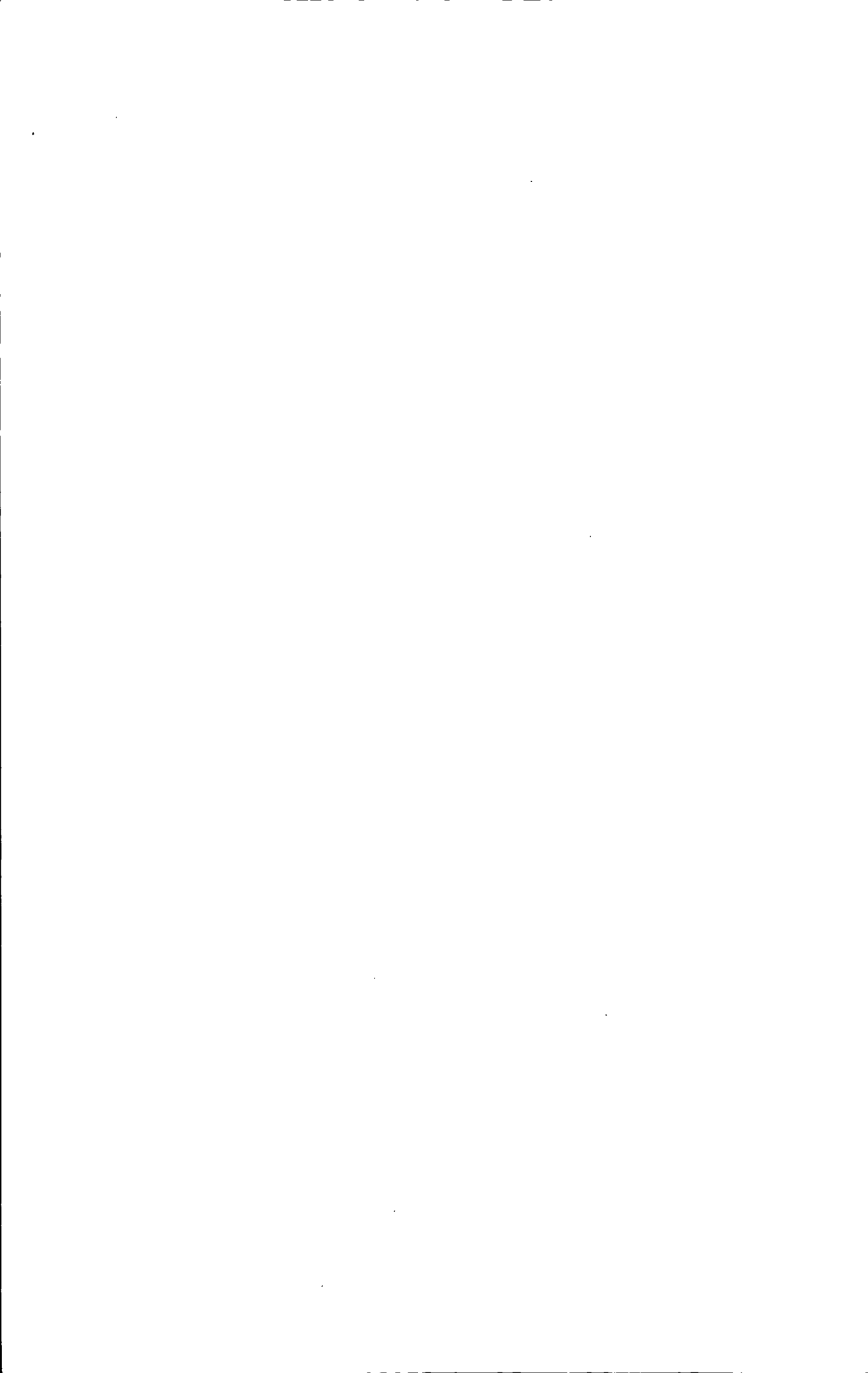
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Chapter 1 Introduction

The present study aims to achieve a multidimensional exploration of clause complexes from the vantage point of Systemic Functional Grammar (hence abbreviated as SFG). The main concerns will be both with the conceptual clarification and the empirical investigation of clause complexes. This chapter consists of four sections dealing respectively with the research background, purposes, significance, the research methodology, research questions, and finally the structure of the dissertation.

1.1 Background of the Dissertation

SFG founded by Halliday is a theory of meaning as choice, by which a language, or any other semiotic system, is interpreted as networks of interlocking options. (1994/2000:F40) Halliday takes SFG as a natural grammar which accounts for how the language is used, that is to say it can be applied in the analysis of language in use. Since the appearance of SFG, a large number of studies have been done on the three main metafunctions, while this dissertation focuses on the clause complexes. Halliday's theory of clause complexes mainly discusses the relationship between clauses in the clause complexes.

Fairy tale, as a kind of children's literature, always represents the true life in a very fantastic and exaggerated way. Most of the fairy tales personate all the nature things with very wonderful and flexural plot. *Alice's Adventures in Wonderland* (hence abbreviated as *AAW*) is a very representational work. It was first published in 1865. This mathematician (The author, Carroll, of this fairy tale was a mathematician.) first novel are popular among children and adults. The tale's fascinating plot and beautiful language also make it to be one of the most popular novels in the world. Till now it has many different versions and simplified versions and it also has been translated into many languages. There have been great studies based on it from the perspective of literature, linguistic and so on.

In order to find a way for the simplification for the language, the author chooses a simplified version rewritten by Stuart, which treated as the reading material for the primary English learners and middle school students in China. Through the contrastive study, it can be easily discovered that variation in the choice of the relations of the clauses is likely to bring about the variation in the meaning. For example, the original version uses enhancement relationship, while the simplified version may use extension relationship. Therefore the adoption of the complicated or simple combinations may also reflect the writing features of different authors.

1.2 Purposes and Significance of the Dissertation

The current view is complementary to most traditional researches in this field. As noted above, most studies develop their research from the three main metafunctions, whereas in this study clause complexes are chosen as the main research approach. Because the previous conceptions of clause complexes are inadequate to take into account the relationship between clauses, and lack explanatory power. This dissertation intends to compare the simplified version with the original version from the perspective of the clause complexes.

Different versions present their clause complexes in different ways. This dissertation will discuss the features of the simplified version via the analysis and the comparison of the original and simplified versions, and attempts to find out some implications for the language learning and teaching.

1.3 Research Methodology and Research Questions

The aim of the present study is to apply the SFG to the contrastive analysis of the original version and its simplified version, hoping the analysis will provide a good insight into the features of the simplified versions. In order to achieve this goal, two research questions are put forward as follows:

- 1) What are the characteristics of the original version and its simplified version in

choosing the clause complexes?

- 2) What are the similarities and differences between the original version and its simplified version in terms of clause complexes?

The present study is data-driven rather than theory-driven. The data include the original version of *AAW* written by Carroll, and the simplified version rewritten by Stuart. *AAW* is a famous children's literature which even rated as the most popular and well-known fairy stories all over the world. Thus it is easy to find a large number of different versions. Aiming to find a way for the simplification of the language, the author chooses a simplified version which is a simple version with fewer letters and simpler plot. Although the original version is a children's literature, it is still has difficulties for the English beginners, but the simplified version is simpler than the original one, because it can be treated as the reading material for the English beginners and middle school students in China.

In order to fulfill the aim, the author selects sentences in first chapter of the two versions as case studies, presenting the differences and similarities in an explicit way. Qualitative and contrastive statistical analysis will be largely used in this study.

1.4 Structure of the Dissertation

This dissertation consists of six chapters. Chapter One introduces this dissertation generally; it reveals the background for the study, elaborates the purposes and significance of the study. The research questions are raised in this chapter, and finally structure of the dissertation is exhibited.

After the general introduction of the first chapter, Chapter Two will be devoted to the reviewing of the literature on the present research topic. It includes three sections, the first section focuses on the studies on the definition of clause complexes. The second section focuses on the previous studies on clause complexes. It introduces the application of clause complexes by western scholars and Chinese scholars. The last section touches on other researches on relations between clauses.

Chapter Three unfolds with a framework with which clause complexes will be

analyzed in this study. The chapter then focuses on SFG theory which is necessary for the analysis framework. To be specific, the theoretical consideration includes all the dimensions of interdependency and logical relations and theory of stylistic.

Following the theoretical preliminaries, the analysis of the cases in two versions will be conducted in Chapter Four. The author presents analysis process and results, with the individual exploration of the original and simplified versions. Furthermore the explanations for the chosen sentences are presented in detail

Chapter Five provides the contrastive study of the two versions. Based on the results and discoveries from the above chapters, this chapter exhibits the differences and similarities.

And the final Chapter will give a conclusion on this dissertation, answering the research questions raised in chapter one, and summarizing advice for public writing and English teaching; also will point out the limitations as well as the prospects of the present research.

Chapter 2 Literature review

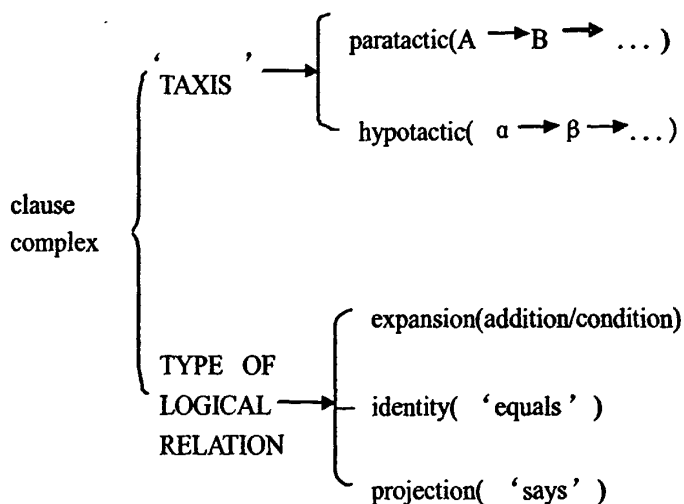
2.1 Introduction

This chapter offers the theoretical background of the research, beginning with the initial assumptions and definitions of the clause complexes, as well as the reviewing of the researches on the application of clause relations to the analysis of texts. Then it introduces other researches on clauses relations.

2.2 The Definition of Clause Complexes

Halliday (1977) proposes his initial assumptions about clause complexes. He suggests that the Complexes are univariate (recursive) structures formed by paratactic or hypotactic combinations—co-ordination, apposition, modification and the like—at the rank in question; a clause complex may be formed by two clauses in co-ordination. All other structures are multivariate (non-recursive). A “sentence” is defined as a clause complex. (Halliday, 1977: 24) He also offers his initial system of the clause complex, which including expansion, identity, projection, paratactic and hypotactic. His system of clause complexes can be shown more clearly in the following figure.

Fig 1-1 System of clause complexes (Halliday, 1977:65)



In addition, he notes the intersection of these two systems, which yields the following table, Table 1-1.

Table 1-1 The intersection of two systems (Halliday, 1977: 65)

| | | |
|------------|------------------------|------------------------------------|
| | | hypotactic |
| expansion | co-ordinate | Conditional, causal, concessive |
| identity | appositive | non-defining relative |
| projection | quoting(direct speech) | reporting(indirect speech) |

Sentence can be interpreted as a “clause complex” —a head clause together with other clauses that modify it. Clause complexes will be the only grammatical unit which we shall recognize above the clause, and it intended to study the relationship between clauses. (Halliday, 1994/2000) This can be taken as a very explicit and affirmatory definition of clause complexes. Halliday’s theory of clause mainly studies the relations between the clauses in one sentence, there are two dimensions to classify the relation, one is logical and the other is interdependency. And these two dimensions also can be deeper divided into more specific sub-dimensions, such as logical dimensions can be divided into expansion and projection; interdependency can be divided into hypotaxis and parataxis. And these sub-dimensions also can be deeper classified into more sub-dimensions. In this kind of way, Halliday offers a comparative systematic and complicated system for how to analyze the relationship between clauses.

Thompson’s (1996/2000) definition explains more explicitly the relations between clauses. “clause complex”—a combination of two or more clauses into a larger unit, with their interdependence normally shown by explicit signals such as conjunctions. (Thompson, 1996/2000: 215) Halliday also agrees that not all of the sentence structure in terms of Head + Modifier, simply. Thompson brings forward that the sentence is the unit which above the clause in written text, and it is more important in communicating meanings than clause. But a principled way of showing how clauses relate to each other without the restriction by written forms of the

language is necessary, therefore the clause complex is the unit which can illustrate this more explicit than sentence.

In the third edition of *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*, Halliday and Matthiessen give a further illustration of the sentence in traditional grammar and clause complexes. Each written sentence is one clause complex, and each-subsentence is one clause (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004/2008:8). He insists that sentence and sub-sentence can be used to describe the units of orthography, and clause when referring to units of grammar. And clause complex is used when a number of clauses are assembled in a grammatical way, and clause nexus is used to refer to the single linkage in a clause complex. Halliday also adopts another concept to describe the clause complex; he emphasizes the idea of the episode. He deems the flow of events is construed as a series of episodes. Each episode is developed step by step as sequence of figures that are linked by means of temporal relators (Halliday& Matthiessen, 2004/2008:363).

2.3 Studies on Clause Complexes

Halliday (1977) gives a systemic description of the clause complexes. Halliday (1985) uses the clause complexes theory to analyze a conversation, which can be regarded as a very good model for how to use it to examine the language. Halliday (1987) dissertates how the English poet, Alfred Lord Tennyson, incarnates his cognition towards nature from the perspective of clause complexes, mood and transitivity and so on; so as to let the reader realize the perfect combination of the poem language and scientific spirit. In this study, Halliday (1987:160) points out the significant feature of the clause complexes is not simply their great length, nor their combination of parataxis and hypotaxis, but their dynamic, choreographic nature: you cannot foresee the ending from the beginning, nor recover the beginning by looking at the end. Halliday (1992) offers another study in the perspective of theme, interpersonal, mood and modality, transitivity, clause complexes, lexical cohesion, nominalization and grammatical metaphor. But this time the study subject was the

every day text not the poetry language. It not only provides a paradigm for how to put the theory on functional grammar into practical use, it also proves that any text can be taken as an object of research, and a practical instance of language use.

Thompson (1996/2000) does a reviewing of Halliday's theory of clause complexes, including the introduction and reinterpretation for interdependency relation and logico-semantic dependency relation. Thompson also introduces the advantage and disadvantage of clause complex. Clause complex has the advantage that it is neutral with regard to any potential differences in the way meanings are organized in speech and writing (Thompson, 1996/2000: 194).

Bloor & Bloor's (1995/2001) study focuses on expansion and projection. They propose the significance and the differences for "equal" clause and "dependent" clause, the paratactic relation always formed by the linking of two or more equal clauses. In hypotaxis, a clause complex can be formed by the combination of the clauses in a way that one is dependent on another. Their study gives us a good way to judge the non-finite clauses: non-finite clauses in a clause complex with a finite clause are always dependent (Bloor & Bloor, 1995/ 2001: 185). According to Bloor & Bloor (1995/2001), non-defining relative clause is a kind of dependent expansion. A non-defining relative may have its antecedent as a nominal group or an entire clause or a clause complex. Non-defining relatives are distinct from defining relatives, which are rankshifted. They use the same Greek alphabetic symbols(α β δ γ) to label the relation between the clauses as in Halliday's theories, and in their study also presents some examples of how to analyze the more complicated complexes, like a case with two hypotactic clauses, one dependent on the other. They point out that in many texts; there is a complex interplay of parataxis, hypotaxis, and embedding. Any instance of one of these phenomena may occur inside another instance of the same phenomenon or inside an instance of one of the others. In addition, they also note their treatment of paratactic and hypotactic clause complexes by considering the function of Projection. Paratactic projection clauses are typically 'direct speech' (including verbatim speech, thought or writing). Projecting and projected clauses may occur in any order or projecting clauses may interrupt projected clauses. Hypotactic projection clauses are

typically 'reported speech' (or thought of writing). Hypotactic projections may be realized by finite clauses or non-finite clauses. The latter often occurs as indirect questions and commands when the projecting process is realized by verbs such as *tell order, ask, and wonder* (though these verbs can also occur with finite projection clauses).

Huang (1999) maintains the "which" clause is paratactic rather than hypotactic in Halliday's theory. Huang (1999) discusses the clauses with clause complexes from the perspective of recursion and rankshifted. He points out most systematic functional scholars have the same viewpoint with Halliday; they believe that the secondary clause in hypotactic relation is dependent clause not the embedding clause. This view can be exhibited in the strict description of the finite clause and non-finite clause, and treat them as two different structures, with the consideration of the different significant of them. But in this study, Huang adopts some ideas from Fawcett, when analyze the clause from the functional syntax, he believes if we treated the dependency as embedability then the research can be easier and more persuasive.

Huang (1999) offers us a research mainly focusing on the wh-clause. There has been great grammar works discusses the wh- clause. There are at least four names for the "which clause": ① Close (1975: 56) treat them as a relative clause with a clause as antecedent; ② Leech *et al* (1982: 98) regard them as adverbial clause; ③ van Ek and Robot (1984: 74,165), their idea weren't so explicit, on one hand they called them as sentential relative clause, and on the other hand they figured out that the function of the wh-clause is comment clause. ④ Quirk *et al* (Quirk. *et al*, 1972/1985) take them as sentential relative clause; Huang and Xiao (1996: 255-256) name it as sentential relative clause also, but they have other ideas of the genre of it (Huang, 1999: 147, The translation provided by the author of this dissertation).

Huang (2009) discusses the finite clause and non-finite clause, and the prepositional phrase. He discusses the difference between the finite clause and non-finite clause: finite clause holds the finite components; it is always restricted by the person, tense etc, while non-finite clause is not restricted by any finite components.

After the brief reviewing of Halliday's theory in clause complexes, Cheng (2005) figures out some limitations in Halliday's theory. And in order to enhance the practical value of Halliday's classification of clause complexes in language analysis, he suggests using some rhetorical relations and semantic relations to replace the logical relation.

Hu (1990/2008) takes a brief review of Halliday's theory on clause complexes in Chinese with some analysis in the Chinese language.

Zhang (2005) outlines all the clause complexes types in Halliday's theory, and it further illustrates the examples for each subtypes, such as, cause-reason, cause-purpose, condition-positive, condition-negative, condition-concessive relations, and so on. He further concludes some conjunctions with multiple functions, take *and* for example, which can be the signal for extension, and also the signal for enhancement when it means "and then" or "and so". He lists eight conjunctions with multiple functions, with the explicit illustration of their multiple functions in clause complexes.

And some practical use of Halliday's theory, Huang (2000) uses Halliday's theory to analyze the logical relations in Du Mu's "Qingming" and its translated versions. And it is easy to find some studies on projection.

In China, there are still a number of scholars who have made some controversies over clause complexes. Chen (2000) discusses the relationship between clause complexes and style by means of textual analysis based on Halliday's functional grammar. It suggests a new method of undertaking stylistic analysis by interpreting the logical relations between clauses with in clause complexes. Wang (2007) does some research on the English to Chinese comparison in expansion.

There have been numerous studies focusing on the clauses and the relationship between the clauses from other perspectives. Hopper and Traugott (2003/2005) review the different studies on the complex sentence structure by the citing of many linguists conclusion, and from this we can find out many different suggestions on clause complexes. For example, Longacre regards the clause, which can stand alone, as a "nucleus". Thus a complex sentence may consists of a nucleus and one or more

additional nuclei, or of a nucleus and one or more “margins”, relatively dependent clauses that may not stand alone but nevertheless exhibit different degrees of dependency (Longare 1985, cf Hopper & Traugott, 2003/2005). In Hopper and Traugott’s discussion, there are still some conclusions of the relations between clauses, and they also use parataxis and hypotaxis to define the relations in clause complexes, which are similar to those of Halliday’s. In addition, Hopper and Traugott (2003/2005) put forward some further suggestions on parataxis, hypotaxis, subordination, the grammaticalization of some clauses linkers.

2.4 Other Studies on Relations between Clauses

There have been great studies and researches on the relations between the clauses from other aspects like traditional grammar, syntax and so on. According to Quirk *et al.* (1985), there are two types of sentence. One is the simple sentence; the other is the multiple sentences. A simple sentence consists of a single independent clause and a multiple sentence contains one or more clauses as its immediate constituents. They divided the subordinator into four dimensions : ① the simple subordinator; ② the correlative subordinator; ③ the correlative subordinator; ④ the marginal subordinator. By contrast, Halliday’s defines the subordinator as the conjunction. In Halliday’s theories, conjunctions function as the signal of the relations between the clauses; we can judge the relations between clauses by conjunctions. And Halliday classifies the clauses according to their interdependency or logical relation; whereas Quirk *et al.* classify the clauses as the nominal clauses, adverbial clauses, subordinate clauses and so on. Thus Quirk *et al.* aim to study the function of the clause in sentence, while Halliday’s study focuses on the relation between the clauses. In fact, Quirk *et al.*’s develop their study basically according to the traditional grammar with more explicit and clear research on clauses. Quirk *et al.* include the “finite” clause, as a clause whose verb element is finite, the “nonfinite” clause, and a clause whose verb element is nonfinite. The finite clause and the nonfinite clause also appear in Halliday’s theory, in hypotactic structure the clause may be the finite or non-finite.

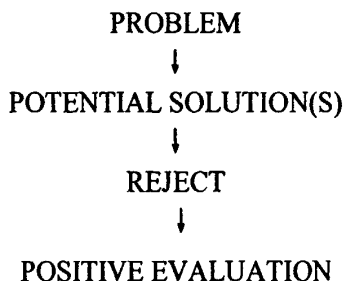
Leech and Short (1981/2003) discuss the language from the perspective of stylistic. They claim that the examining of the language in a literary text can be a means to a fuller understanding and appreciation of the writer's artistic achievement. They made researches of different kinds of simple and complex sentences in order to find out the language principles in fictions. They point out that the sentences with complicated structure and multi-clauses are the symbol of the author's complex ideas or complex reading experience, and the different role of the clauses in coordination and subordination relations. Besides that, they provide the principles of climax: last is most important and tone focus principles, and two sentence structures: periodic structure and loose structure. These findings provide a very effective approach for how to examine the language in fiction.

McCarthy and Carters' (1994/2004) discussion base on Winter's idea. A clause relation is the cognitive process whereby the reader interprets the meaning of a clause, sentence, or groups of sentences in the context of one or more preceding clauses, sentences, or groups of sentences in the same text (Winter 1977, cf McCarthy & Carter, 2005: 54). They make further investigation on the relationship between micro-structural properties of texts and macro-structural organization of texts. In order to dig out the common underlying patterns for different text, they develop their study from three patterns which have been identified by others: problem-solution, hypothetical-real and general-particular. And a text is schematized in Figure 2-1.

Radford (1988/2000) conducts his study from the perspective of transformational Grammar. His study on clauses involves the outline of the traditional finite and nonfinite clauses; the discussion of the constituent structure of ordinary clause, the further S-bar analysis to main clauses; the research on the internal structure of the proposition component of clauses.

In China, Huang (1999) summarizes nine types of relations between the sentences and ends his discussion with a sample of how to use these to analyze the text.

Fig 2-1 Common core patterns in text



Huang and Xiao (1996) offer a study based on the traditional grammar, with a deeper discussion on the form, significance and application of the compound sentence than the other grammatical books. There are three dimensions: 1) the clause as sentence element (including: subject clause, object clause, adverbial clause, and clause of complementation); 2) the clause of phrase element (including: adverbial clause of comparison, relative clause, appositive clause, adjective complement clause, comment clause, and the reported clause); 3) the clause as independent element (including: adjective complement clause, comment clause, reporting clause, and reported clause.) Their way of classification of the clauses, reveal their studies' creativity cognition of the quality of the clause, they treat the clauses as an open system, which can produce commutative influence with the other components. Thus the idiosyncrasy of a sentence not only can be determined by the sentence itself, also influenced by the circumstance in the same context. In addition, they advance some concepts which seldom mention in other grammar works, like the compound matrix clause, the compound subordinate clause and the complex subordinate clause. Furthermore, these concepts are similar to Halliday's theory on paratactic and hypotactic relations. They also adapt Eckersley and Eckersley's idea, the complex sentence is organized by a main clause and one or more subordinate clauses. They name the main clause as the matrix clause; the sentence consists of two or more than two independent clauses as the matrix clause is the compound matrix clause. The sentence contains two or more than two clauses as the subordinate clause is the compound subordinate clause. And the complex subordinate clause refers to the complex combinations of the subordinate clauses which act as different components of the sentences.

Huang's (2000) book on English clauses, concerns with part of grammar and usage which covers various kinds of clause in English sentences. Apart from the main clause, a clause may appear in an English sentence in the form of a coordinate clause, a relative clause, a noun clause, an adverbial clause, a comment clause, or a focal clause. (Huang, 2002: i) Then the study is developed according to the above types, which shows how to use the different kinds of clauses to make up the average type of sentence, and how the related ideas may be combined by coordination or subordination.

Chapter 3 Theoretical Foundations

3.1 Introduction

There are numerous studies on clauses and sentences from the perspective of traditional syntaxes, while this dissertation will study the problem in terms of SFG. Different from the traditional syntaxes, Halliday's theory on clause complexes mainly focuses on the relationship between clauses in terms of interdependency and logical dimensions. The current study identifies almost all the types and sub-types for the clause complexes. This chapter further outlines stylistic theories which are related with the analysis of the sentences.

3.2. Clause Complexes and Types of Relationship between Clauses

A sentence, which consists of one or more than one clause, can be taken as a clause complex. Most of the different relations between clauses can be marked by conjunctions such as: *but, and, while* and so on. In Halliday's theory there are two systemic dimensions to classify the clauses, one is interdependency, and the other is logical-semantic system of expansion and projection.

Dimension one: interdependency.

Interdependency focuses on the mutual relationship between clauses; if one modifies another and the status of two is unequal then the relation is Hypotaxis. If the status of two is equal, one initiating and the other continuing, the relation is parataxis.

For example:

- (i) I like play basketball ①, while Alice likes play football ②.
- (ii) I like play basketball ①, and Alice likes play football ② .

In sentence (i), clause 2 depends on clause 1; therefore clause 1 can be taken as the dominant element, whereas clause 2 can be taken as the dependent element. Contrasting with this, in sentence (ii) the two clauses are all the independent clause, one is the initiating clause and the other is the continuing clause. Thus in hypotactic relation, the two clauses hold equal status, and it contains only one independent clause in the sentence. On the contrary, in paratactic relation, both the two clauses depend on each other, and then it contains two clauses.

All 'logical' structures in language are either paratactic or hypotactic. The clause complex involves relationships of both kinds (Halliday, 1994/2000: 218).

Halliday uses Greek letters α β γ δ ..., to label the hypotactic structures and the numerical notation 1 2 3..., to label the paratactic structures. The primary is initiating clause in a paratactic nexus, and the dominant clause in a hypotactic; the secondary is the continuing clause in a paratactic nexus and the dependent clause in a hypotactic (Halliday, 1994/2000: 218). As shown in the Table 3-1.

Table 3-1 Primary and secondary clauses (Halliday, 1994/2000: 219)

| | Primary | Secondary |
|-----------|---------------------|---------------------|
| Parataxis | 1(initiating) | 2(continuing) |
| Hypotaxis | α (dominant) | β (dependent) |

Dimension two:

Dimension two concentrates on the logical relation, there is a wide range of different logico-semantic relations, such as cause and effect, comparison and addition, and so on. According to Mttiessen and Halliday (2009) the logical-semantic relations refer to the particular kind of logical interconnection, as its name suggested. And the logical relations here refers to the logic relations of natural languages, therefore the relations are bounded to be flexible and fuzzy. Because the natural language is the ultimate source of the logic relation, then it is profitless to interpret the natural language as a copy of imperfect logic relation. The two fundamental relationships of logical relation are expansion and projection.

Expansion develops the text by linking the frames that make up the strip (and also events within frames); this constitutes the 'horizontal' development of the text (Mtthiessen & Halliday, 2004/2008: 377). Therefore in the expansion relation, there must be one clause function as the expansion element for another clause. The basic subtypes of expansion are elaborating, extending and enhancing. **Elaborating** clause refers to the clause which conveys the same message as in another clause, without any addition to the essential message. It may offer the explanation for it; or clarification; or some examples for it; or particularization for it; or even just the repetition for it. These clauses are linked by some typical conjunctions such as *for example, i.e., in another words*. And it is marked by "=", means "equals". **Extending** clause is the clause which adds the new element for another clause. It extends another clause by adding, replacing, or varying, and signaled by conjunctions such as *and, nor, but*. The relation is marked by "+", means "is added to". **Enhancing** clause means the clause enhances another by qualifying it. These are clauses which are traditionally called adverbial clauses: they correspond very closely in function to Adjuncts, specifying aspects of the dominant process such as the time, reason, condition, etc; and in many cases there is an equivalent prepositional phrase or adverb (Thompson, 1996/2000: 204). They are connected by the conjunctions such as *when, meanwhile, therefore, because*, and it can be marked by "x", means "is multiplied by".

Projection transcends this sequence of events linked by expansion by linking events of saying and thinking to the content of saying and the content of thinking (Mtthiessen & Halliday, 2009: 377). Thus Halliday uses **locution** to refer to the projection of the wording, and **idea** to refer to the projection of the meaning. Then the marker for the **locution** is double quotes, and marker for **idea** is single quotes.

To sum up, a clause should be either hypotactic or paratactic relation. And all the hypotactic or paratactic relation may attribute into some kinds of logico-semantic relation, they may expansion or projection. The classification of some examples of all the types is shown in table 3-2.

The examples in Table 3-2 only include a single relation of expansion or projection with either hypotactic or paratactic relation. But according to Bloor and

Bloor (1995/2001:208) many cases in nature language are more complicated than those. We find clauses within paratactic within hypotactic, dependent clause within dependent clauses, or vice versa.

Table3-2 Basic type of clause complexes (Halliday, 1994/2000: 220)

| | | (i)paratactic | (ii) hypotactic |
|------------|--------------------|--|--|
| Expansion | (a) elaboration | John didn't wait; 1 he ran away. 2 | John ran away, α which surprised everyone $=\beta$ |
| | (b) extension | John ran away, 1 and Fred stayed behind. +2 | John ran away, α whereas Fred stayed behind + β |
| | (c) enhancement | John was scared, 1 so he ran away. $\times 2$ | John ran away, α because he was scared $\times \beta$ |
| Projection | (a) Locution | John said: 1 'I'm running away' "2 | John said α he was running away. " β |
| | (b) idea | John thought to himself: 1 'I'll run away' '2 | John thought α he would run away. ' β |

3.3 Types of Interdependency: Parataxis and Hypotaxis

According to Halliday univariate structure refers to the structure with same

functional relation, multivariate structure is the structure consists of different functional relations. Clause complexes only concern the univariate structure. In dependency relation there are two dimensions. One is hypotaxis and the other is parataxis.

Hypotactic relation is an unequal relation which consists of dominant and dependent element. Halliday uses α to label the dominant element and β to label the dependent element. In a hypotactic structure the elements are ordered in dependence, and the ordering is largely independent of the sequence. Hence we can have various sequences: dependent clause (i) following dominant, (ii) preceding dominant, (iii) enclosed in or (iv) enclosing dominant (Halliday, 1996/2000).

Paratactic relation is a kind of equal combination, which consists of equal status. Since in parataxis, both the two elements are dependent clauses or independent clauses, then the ordering can not be shown by the sequence. Thus Halliday uses 1, 2, and 3 to label the elements in paratactic relation.

3.4 Three Kinds of Expansion

As mentioned in 3.2, expansion means one clause expands another, and Halliday identifies three basic types of expansions: 1. elaboration. 2. extension 3. enhancement. According to Halliday each type can be identified by the conjunctions of the complex. But Thompson (1996/2000) assumes that the central examples are easy to identify, but in nature language there are many examples which are difficult to be defined into any types. They may use the same conjunction to signal different semantic relations, or there may no explicit conjunction, and there may be other cases which cause the confusion in the identification. Therefore he advances an approach to identify these cases: you can paraphrase these complexes with unambiguous conjunctions or conjunctive adjuncts, and then identify them according to the closest paraphrase.

3.4.1 Elaboration

In elaboration, one clause elaborates on the meaning of another by further

specifying or describing. The secondary clause does not introduce a new element into the primary clause but rather provides a further characterization of one that is already there. Many paratactic elaborating clauses are traditionally said to be in apposition to the preceding clause, especially when they restate the same message in different words, or make a nonspecific message more specific (Thompson, 1996/200:199). Thus Halliday suggests “=” to marked elaboration, elaboration may be paratactic or hypotactic.

(1) Paratactic

According to Halliday, there are three types of paratactic elaboration: (i) exposition, (ii) exemplification and (iii) clarification.

(i) Exposition.

Exposition is a kind of relation with the secondary clause explains or paraphrases the primary clause in different words, or from another aspect, for example:

That clock doesn't go; it's not working.

She wasn't a show dog; I didn't buy her as a show dog.

(ii) Exemplification.

Here the secondary clause adds some more specific information or some examples for the primary clause, for example:

We used to have races—we used to have relays.

Your face is the same as everybody else has—the two eyes so, nose in the middle, mouth under.

(iii) Clarification.

Here the secondary clause provides some explanation or comment for the primary clause, for example:

Alice could only look puzzled: she was thinking of the pudding.

They weren't show animals; we just had them as pets.

(2) Hypotactic.

Hypotactic elaborating clauses are those that are traditionally called non-defining relative clauses, which add extra information for element in the message (Thompson, 1996/200:202)

Halliday suggests that the dependent clauses may be finite or non-finite, thus both two of them should be taken into consideration.

(i) Finite

Finite elaboration clause is a bit like the non-defining clause, they have the same function: they do not define subset and usually separated by commas; unlike the defining clause define the message explicitly what kind of thing, who is and so on, they only give additional information for a person or thing. But there are still some differences between them, in traditional grammar, some clauses with *as* the non-defining clauses. In Halliday's theory three are sub-types which are as following:

a. The clauses modify the whole primary clause, with *which*, for example:

You always work hard, which everyone knows.

b. The clauses modify the nominal group in the primary clause, with *which* (occasionally *that*), *who* or *whose*, for example:

Dad, this is Zheng Jie, who I knew in Paris.

c. The clauses modify some expression of time or place in primary clause, with *when* or *where*, for example:

He was quickly taken to hospital, where a doctor wanted to examine Mr King's legs.

We will put off the outing until next week, when we won't be so busy.

(ii) Non-finite

Non-finite clauses modify some nominal group, or some larger segment of the primary clause, even the whole clause. As is usual with non-finite clauses, the meaning is less specific; both the domain of the dependent clause and its semantic relationship to its domain are left relatively inexplicit. There is no WH- form, as there is with the finites, nor is there usually any preposition acting conjunctively (Halliday, 1996/2000: 229)

The Subject for non-finite clause is inexplicit in most of the cases; it may be implied from the meaning of the complex or presupposed in the primary clause. But there are still some with explicit Subject in the dependent clause, for example:

John went off by himself, the rest of us staying behind.

It's a much bigger house, for the children to have their own rooms.

3.4.2 Extension

In extension relationship the extension clause adds some new information, a placement or an alternative to the primary clause, Halliday uses “+” to label this relation. According to Halliday there are three subtypes of extension: (i) addition, (ii) variation and (iii) alternation both for paratactic relation and hypotactic relation, but in hypotactic relation the extending clause is dependent.

1) Paratactic

Paratactic extension covers most of what is traditionally called coordination (Thompson 1996/2000:203).

i) Addition

In addition relation, one clause is the simple addition to another. The addition may be positive addition, typically signaled by *and*; may be negative addition, typically signaled by *nor*; may be opposite addition, typically signaled by *but*.

ii) Variation

If one clause is the total or partial replacement of another, then the relation should be variation. The second edition of *An Introduction to Functional Grammar* introduces three subtypes of variation: replacive (‘instead’), subtractive (expect) and alternative (or); but the third edition only mentions replacive and subtractive dimensions.

iii) Alternation

Alternation is a kind of either-or relation; one clause is the alternative to another.

2) Hypotactic

As in elaboration, the dependent clauses are either finite or non-finite.

(i) Finite

Although the main types for paratactic extension and hypotactic extension are the same, but some of the subtypes which we can find in paratactic combination are inexistent in finite. They are negative addition and replacive variation.

(ii) Non-finite.

The form for non-finite extending is an imperfective clause. They are often introduced by a preposition or preposition group functioning conjunctively, e.g. besides, apart from, instead of, other than, without. (Halliday, 1996/2000: 232) There is no alternation and replacive variation for non-finite extending.

3.4.3 Enhancement

In Enhancement one clause enhances the meaning of another by qualifying it in one of a number of possible ways: by reference to time, place, manner, cause or condition (Halliday, 1996/2000: 232). Therefore the notation for enhancement is “×”.

Halliday classifies the clauses in enhancement into four basic types: (i) temporal, (ii) spatial, (iii) manner and (iv) causal-conditional.

(1) Paratactic

The combination of enhancement with parataxis yields what is also a kind of co-ordination but with a circumstantial feature incorporated into it; the most frequently occurring subtypes are those of time and cause (Halliday, 1996/2000:232).

(i) temporal

Temporal concerns the sequence or time for the clause complexes; it always linked by conjunctions *meanwhile, subsequently, previously* and so on.

(ii) spatial

Spatial means the relation relating to the space, the typical conjunction *and there*.

(iii) manner

Manner typically expressed by conjunctions *in that way, thus, similarly, so*.

(iv) causal-conditional

According to Halliday, causal-conditional can be treated as cause and condition; therefore there are cause and effect, effect and cause; and positive condition, negative condition, concessive condition.

(2) Hypotactic

The combination of enhancement with hypotaxis gives what are known in

traditional formal grammar as 'adverbial clause'. There are also four types of clause complexes as in paratactic relation, and the typical conjunctions and classification are shown clearly in Table 3-3.

Table 3-3 Principal marker of hypotactic enhancing clauses (Halliday, 1996/2000: 237)

| | Finite | Non-finite | |
|---|---|--|--|
| | conjunction | conjunction | Preposition |
| (i) temporal same time: extent same time: point same time: spread different time: later different time: earlier | as, while when, as soon as, the moment whenever, every time after, since before, until/till | while when since until | in(the course/process of) on after before |
| (ii) spatial same place: extent same place: point same place: spread | as far as where wherever, everywhere | | |
| (iii) manner means comparison | as, as if, like, the way | like | by(means of) |
| (iv) causal-conditional cause: reason cause: purpose condition: positive condition: negative condition: concessive | because, as , since, in case , seeing, that, considering in order that, so that if, provided that, as long as unless even if , although | if unless even if, although | with, through, by, at, as a result, because of, in case of, (in order/so as)to; for (the sake of), with the aim of , for fear of in the event of but for, without despite, in spite of, without |

3.5 Expansion Clauses that are not Explicitly Marked for any Logical-Semantic Relation

Aside from the combinations with explicit conjunctions, we still can find many cases without explicit conjunctions or cases with multivalent markers which can mark elaboration, extension or enhancement. Take *but* for example, which has three kinds of meaning: (i) transition, (ii) alternation and (iii) concession. Mithras and Halliday (2004/2008) also list other seven conjunctions with two or more senses: *but, yet, or, while, as, since, if*.

It is difficult to analyze the clause complexes with more than two clauses. Zhang Delu (2005) suggests the best solution is to find the nearest co-genetic clause, and then explore the relation between them.

The study on this kind of clause also involves two types, one is finite the other is non-finite.

(i) finite

A finite clause is in principle independent; it becomes dependent only if introduced by a binding (hypotactic) conjunction. If it is joined in a clause complex, its natural status is paratactic. In this case its logical-semantic relationship to its neighbor is typically shown by a linking (paratactic) conjunction. (Halliday, 1996/2000:239)

(ii) non-finite

Contrasting to finite clause, non-finite clause is dependent by nature. It is difficult to be assigned markedly into just one category. With the appropriate context, the relation may be elaborating, extending, and even enhancing. Halliday suggests the best solution is to find the nearest finite form.

3.6 Embedded Expansions

The hypotactic relation and paratactic relation concern with the relation between the clause, while the embedded segment refers to the clause function as a constituent within the structure of a group, itself is a constituent of a clause. There is no direct

relationship between an embedded clause and the clause within which is embedded (Halliday, 1996/ 2000: 242). Thus Halliday's theory concerns the relationship between the embedding and the 'outer' clause. Halliday figures out that like clauses in a paratactic or hypotactic relation, an embedded may also be either an expansion or projection, with the same subtypes, such as, elaborating, extending and enhancing.

3.7 Projection

We saw that the boats had been turned. If I say *I can see the boats turning*, this is an event. If I say *I can see that the boats are turning*, this is a projection (Halliday, 1996/2000:249). Halliday (1996/2000:250) notices that **Projection** is the logical-semantic relationship whereby a clause comes to function not as a direct representation of (non-linguistic) experience but as a (linguistic) representation of a representation.

The characterization of projection applies most clearly to the prototypical kinds: a report of what someone else said or thought at a different time form the present. (Thompson, 1996/200:206) As mentioned in 3.2, Therefore the typically types for projection is **quote** (locution /verbal process) and **report** (idea/mental process). According to Thompson (1996/2000:206), we **quote**, we signal that we are re-using the wording of the other language event; **report**, on the other hand, we project not the wording but the meaning of the original language event. It was pointed out that projection with the same set of interdependencies that have been shown to occur with expansion: parataxis, hypotaxis and embedding. And all of these types can be shown in following Table3-4.

Table 3-4 Basic categories of projection

| | Locution(verbal) | Idea(mental) |
|--------------------|--|---|
| Quote(paratactic) | Haven't seen much of you lately, continued John Franklin. | Not I reflected that she would solve my problems for me. |
| Report(hypotactic) | The Report points out that milk fat is mostly saturated fat. | He hoped to goodness that LA flight would be called soon. |
| Embedded | All I wanted was an admission that she was there. | Her decision to come back was to do with Bill. |

3.8 Some Complementarities and Arguments

Huang (1999) advances his oppugn on the WH-clauses: Halliday assigns the WH-clause as the dependent segment in hypotactic relation, but Huang argues that this kind of clause can be treated as independent segment.

Zhu (2000) maintains that the relationship between clauses is very delicate; the changes in context may bring out the variation in relations. Thus it is difficult to assign the relation, only according to the conjunctions. Therefore Halliday's criterion for the classification for elaborating, extending and enhancing is not watertight. Cheng (2005) advances some complementarities to Halliday's theory of the problems we have discussed above. He suggests some theories of the traditional grammar, trope and semantics can be treated as the complementary for Halliday theory.

Chapter 4 Case Study

4.1 Introduction

Fairy tale, as a kind of children's literature, always represents the true life in a very fantastic and exaggerated way. Most of the fairy tales personate all the nature things with very marvelous and flexural plot. *AAW* which was published in 1865 is a very representational work. This mathematician's (The author, Carroll, of this fairy tale was a mathematician.) first novel is popular among children and adults. The tale's fascinating plots and beautiful language also make it to be one of the most popular novels in the world. Till now it has been translated into many languages, and the marvelous and fanciful world in the tale has also been the theme for many dramas, movies, TV series, ballets and operas, etc. It also arouses many scholars' attention. There have been a great many studies based on it from the perspective of literature, linguistic and so on.

In this chapter, a practical analysis of clause complexes in the first chapter of *AAW* in original and simplified version will be presented. The heroine in *AAW* is Alice, thus the story develops according to Alice's adventurous experience. The cases with more than two clauses regarded as more complicated complexes will be listed out clearly.

4.2 Cases Analysis in Original Version

4.2.1 Cases in Original Version

The analysis for the clause complexes with more than two clauses will be shown in the following examples.

1. Sentence 1 :

- ① Alice was beginning to get very tired of sitting by her sister on the bank,(1)
- ② and of having nothing to do: (+2 × β)

- ③ once or twice she had peeped into the book her sister was reading, (+2 α)
- ④ but it had no pictures or conversations in it, (+3)
- ⑤ “and what is the use of a book,” (+4 α ‘ β)
- ⑥ thought Alice (+4 α)

“without pictures or conversation?” (This clause can’t be taken as a clause, it only part for clause 5.)

This clause complex falls into four paratactic relations, therefore we label these 1, 2, 3 and 4. Clauses 1 and 4 are simple clauses, but clauses 3 and 6 contain two hypotactic relations. From clauses 3 to 6, all the descriptions focus on the book in Alice’s sister’s hand. Clause 4 describes “*the book*” is a book without pictures or conversation. And clause 5, 6 reflect what Alice thought in her mind, but the author put the dominant clause *Alice thought*, in the middle of clause five, in fact the sentence should be: *Alice thought* : “*and what is the use of a book, without pictures or conversation?*” For that reason, this sentence is divided into six clauses, and the analysis developed around the six clauses.

2. Sentence 2:

- ① So she was considering in her own mind (as well as she could, for the hot day made her feel very sleepy and stupid), (1 α)
- ② whether the pleasure of making a daisy-chain would be worth the trouble of getting up and picking the daisies, (1 = β)
- ③ when suddenly a White Rabbit with pink eyes ran close by her. (×2)

Here clause 2 introduces what Alice was considering in her mind, therefore clause 2 just the hypotactic locution of the dominant clause—clause 1. And clause 3 is the description of another thing happened at the same moment, thus the relation is paratactic enhancement. The analysis of the clause relations exclude the considering of the part in the blankets.

3. Sentence 3:

- ① There was nothing so VERY remarkable in that; (1)

- ② nor did Alice think it so VERY much out of the way to hear the Rabbit say to
itself,(+2)
- ③ “Oh dear! Oh dear! I shall be late!” (...); (“3)
- ④ but when the Rabbit actually TOOK A WATCH OUT OF ITS WAISTCOAT-
POCKET, and looked at it, and then hurried on, (+4)
- ⑤ Alice started to her feet, ($\times 5 \alpha$)
- ⑥ for it flashed across her mind ($\times 5 \times \beta \alpha$)
- ⑦ that she had never before seen a rabbit with either a waistcoat-pocket, or a watch
to take out of it, and burning with curiosity, ($\times 5 \times \beta \quad \beta$)
- ⑧ she ran across the field after it, (+6)
- ⑨ and fortunately was just in time to see it pop down a large rabbit-hole under the
hedge.(+7).

Sentence 3, is another complicated long sentence with 9 clauses. Clause 2 is the negative extension of clause 1. Clause 3 is what the rabbit said to itself and the sentence in the blanket is what Alice thought in her mind which can not be assigned into one of the component of the sentence 3, thus the analysis excludes the part in blanket. At the end of clause 3, we can find a semicolon “;”. Since semicolon is a mark of punctuation which used to connect independent clause, therefore the relation between clause 3 and 4 is paratactic extension. Clause 4 provides the adverbial for clause 5, hence the relation between them is enhancement. Clauses 6 and 7 illustrated the reason for Alice’s action: Alice started to her feet was just because an idea came into her mind. And clause 7 elaborates explicitly what the idea is, and then clause 7 is the hypotactic locution for clause 6. As a result, we discover the multiple functions for clause 6. It acts as the dependent clause for clause 5, and dominant clause for clause 7. Therefore, the relations between clauses 7, 8 and 9 are paratactic extending.

4. Sentence 5:

- ① The rabbit-hole went straight on like a tunnel for some way, (1)
- ② and then dipped suddenly down, ($\times 2 \alpha$)

③ so suddenly that Alice had not a moment to think about stopping herself ($\times 2 \times \beta$)

④ before she found herself falling down a very deep well. ($\times 3$)

This is a sentence with two paratactic relations, and one hypotactic relation. From the conjunctions, for example, *and then, so that*, we can judge all the relations are the enhancement expect clauses 2 and 3.

5. Sentence 6:

① Either the well was very deep, (1)

② or she fell very slowly, (+2 α)

③ for she had plenty of time ($\times 2 \beta \alpha$)

④ as she went down to look about her and to wonder ($\times 2 \beta \times \beta \alpha$)

⑤ what was going to happen next. ($\times 2 \beta \times \beta \beta$)

This is a sentence with two paratactic relations and two hypotactic relations, *either...or* is the signal conjunction for the negative paratactic extension, thus the relation between clauses 1 and 2 is paratactic extension. Clause 1 is a simple clause, but clause 2 contains 3 hypotactic clauses. Clause 2 is the dominant clause for the rest clauses; we therefore label it as 2 α . Clauses 3 and 4 are dependent on the other. Clause 3 is the independent clause for clause 2, and dominant clause for clause 4. The situation for clause 3 and 4 are the same. Therefore, the relations between clauses 3, 4, and 5 are very sophisticated, which can be taken as one of the most complicated combinations in chapter 1.

6. Sentence 7:

① First, she tried to look down and make out what she was coming to, (1)

② but it was too dark to see anything; (+2)

③ then she looked at the sides of the well, and noticed that ($\times 3$)

④ they were filled with cupboards and book-shelves; (=4)

⑤ here and there she saw maps and pictures hung upon pegs. (+5)

The relation between clauses 1 and 2 is extension, 2 and 3 are enchantment. Clause 4 is the elaboration for the clause 3, thus the relation is elaboration. Clause 5 provides some other information, and then it is labeled +5.

7. Sentence 8

- ① She took down a jar from one of the shelves as she passed; (1α)
- ② it was labeled 'ORANGE MARMALADE', ($1+\beta 1$)
- ③ but to her great disappointment it was empty: ($1+\beta+2$)
- ④ she did not like to drop the jar for fear of killing somebody, ($+2\alpha$)
- ⑤ so managed to put it into one of the cupboards ($+2\times\beta\alpha$)
- ⑥ as she fell past it. ($+2\beta\times\beta$)

This is a sentence with four paratactic relations and two hypotactic relation. Clause 1 is the description of Alice's action, clauses 2 and 3 are both about the jar mentioned in clause 1, thus the relations between them are extending. Clause 4 is the depiction of another action of Alice, clause 4 is the dominant clause for clause 5, while clause 5 is the dominant clause for clause 6. As discussed above in sentence 6, clause 5 is a structure with an embedded hypotactic structure; therefore clause 5 is the dependent clause for clause 4 and at the same time the dominant clause for clause 6.

8. Sentence 9

- ① "Well!" ('1)
- ② Thought Alice to herself, (+2)
- ③ "after such a fall as this, ('3)
- ④ I shall think nothing of tumbling down stairs! ('4)

Here clause 1 only includes one word—well, the punctuation for clause 1 is exclamatory mark. Hence "well" can be regarded as an interjection, interjection is a part of speech which is usually used to express emotion, and it can stand alone. Therefore clause 1 is the paratactic locution for clause 2. Clause 3 is also the paratactic locution for clause 3, and so as for clause 4.

9. Sentence 16

- ① Let me see:(1 α)
- ② that would be four thousand miles down, (1=β α)
- ③ I think—" (...)
- ④ "--yes, that's about the right distance- (=2)
- ⑤ but then I wonder (+3 α)
- ⑥ what Latitude or Longitude I've got to?" (...) (+3 α 'β)

Sentence 16 consists of three paratactic relations and two hypotactic relations, clause 2 provides the elaboration for clause 1, and the relation is hypotactic relation. There is a dash between *I think* and *yes*, here the function of this dash is continuing, and the full sentence should be *that would be four thousand miles, down, I think so.* (The part in the blanket isn't taken into the analysis) Clause 4 is the exposition of the clause 3; therefore the relation is paratactic elaboration. Clause 4 and clause 5 are linked by *but*, the relation is negative addition. Clause 6 is what *I wonder* in clause 5, hence clause 6 is the dependent clause for clause 5, and then the relation is hypotactic location.

10. Sentence20

- ① The Antipathies, I think—"(...) `-- (1)
- ② "but I shall have to ask them (+2 α)
- ③ what the name of the country is, you know. (+2=β)

This is another example as sentence 9; the author of original version uses the dash as the linker for the partite parts for the same sentence. Therefore this is a structure with one paratactic relation and one hypotactic relation without the consideration of the ingredient in the blankets.

11. Sentence30

- ① There are no mice in the air,(1 α)
- ② I'm afraid, (1+β)
- ③ but you might catch a bat, (+2)

- ④ and that's very like a mouse, you know. (+3)

Sentence 30 is a comparative simple structure, with only one hypotactic relation and three paratactic relations.

12. Sentence 32:

- ① And here Alice began to get rather sleepy, (1)
② and went on saying to herself, in a dreamy sort of way, (+2)
③ "Do cats eat bats? Do cats eat bats?" and sometimes, "Do bats eat cats?" ("3")
③ for, you see, as she couldn't answer either question, (+4 α)
④ it didn't much matter which way she put it. (+4 $\times \beta$)

This clause complex involves four paratactic relations and one hypotactic relation.

13. Sentence 33:

- ① She felt (1 α)
② that she was dozing off, (1 β)
③ and had just begun to dream (+2 α)
④ that she was walking hand in hand with Dinah, ('2 β)
⑤ and saying to her very earnestly, (+3 α)
⑥ "Now, Dinah, tell me the truth: ('3 $\beta \alpha$)
⑦ did you ever eat a bat?" ('3 $\beta = \beta$)
⑧ when suddenly, thump! thump! down she came upon a heap of sticks and dry leaves, (+4)
⑨ and the fall was over. (+5)

This is a very particular example with a very diverting combination of the clauses. Clauses 1 to clause 6 are the combination of three pairs of same structures. Clauses 2, 4 and 6 provide the content for clauses 1, 3 and 5 individually, and relate the detail information for what Alice felt, dreamed, and said. And clauses 8 and 9 add some other descriptions of Alice's feelings.

14. Sentence 34:

- ① Alice was not a bit hurt, (1)
- ② and she jumped up on to her feet in a moment:(+ 2)
- ③ she looked up,(+3)
- ④ but it was all dark overhead; (+4)
- ⑤ before her was another long passage,(+5)
- ⑥ and the White Rabbit was still in sight, hurrying down it. (+6)

This is a clause complex consists of five paratactic extending.

15. Sentence 35

- ① There was not a moment to be lost: (1)
- ② away went Alice like the wind, (=2)
- ③ and was just in time to hear it say, (+3 α)
- ④ as it turned a corner, (+3 $\times \beta$)
- ⑤ "Oh my ears and whiskers, how late it's getting"("4)

This is a clause complex with four paratactic relations and one hypotactic relation.

16. Sentence 36

- ① She was close behind it (1 α)
- ② when she turned the corner, (1 $\times \beta$)
- ③ but the Rabbit was no longer to be seen: (+2)
- ④ she found herself in a long, low hall, (=3 α)
- ⑤ which was lit up by a row of lamps hanging from the roof. (+3= β)

Clause 2 provides the time adverbial for clause 1, and it is why the relation is hypotactic enhancement. Clause 3 provides some other information, and owing to the conjunction is *but*, then the relation is negative extension. Clauses 4 and 5 clarify the dissertation of the primary clause—clause 3, therefore the relation is paratactic elaboration. Clause 5 modifies a nominal group in clause 4, thus the relation is hypotactic elaboration.

17. Sentence 37

- ① There were doors all round the hall, (1)
- ② but they were all locked; (+2)
- ③ and when Alice had been all the way down one side and up the other, ($\times 3 \beta 1$)
- ④ trying every door, (+3 $\beta 2$)
- ⑤ she walked sadly down the middle, (+3 α)
- ⑥ wondering how she was ever to get out again. (+3 $\beta 3$)

According to the conjunction *but*, and the context, clause 2 should be the negative addition for clause 1. Clauses 3, 4, 6 can be taken as the dependent clauses for clause 5, therefore they labeled as $\beta 1$, $\beta 2$, $\beta 3$. Clause 3 provides the time adverbial for clause 5, hence the relation should be enhancement. Clauses 4 and 6 are both the clauses without explicit conjunctions.

18. Sentence 38

- ① Suddenly she came upon a little three-legged table, (1)
- ② all made of solid glass; (+2 β)
- ③ there was nothing on it except a tiny golden key, (+2 α)
- ④ and Alice's first thought (+3 α)
- ⑤ was that it might belong to one of the doors of the hall; (+3 = $\beta 1$)
- ⑥ but, alas! either the locks were too large, (+3 = $\beta + 2$)
- ⑦ or the key was too small, (+3 = $\beta + 3$)
- ⑧ but at any rate it would not open any of them. (+3 = $\beta + 4$)

The combination of sentence 38 is similar to sentence 37. Clause 4 has four dependent clauses: clauses 5, 6, 7 and 8, therefore they labeled as $\beta 1$, $\beta 2$, $\beta 3$, $\beta 4$.

19. Sentence 39

- ① However, on the second time round, she came upon a low curtain she had not noticed before, (1)
- ② and behind it was a little door about fifteen inches high: (+2)

- ③ she tried the little golden key in the lock, (+3)
- ④ and to her great delight it fitted! ($\times 4$)

Clauses 1, 2, 3 are paratactic extension. Here *and* means *and then*, thus the relation can be assigned to the enhancement.

20. Sentence 41

- ① How she longed to get out of that dark hall, (1)
- ② and wander about among those beds of bright flowers and those cool fountains, (+2)
- ③ but she could not even get her head through the doorway; (+3)
- ④ “and even if my head would go through,” (+4 ‘ β 1)
- ⑤ thought poor Alice, (+4 α)
- ⑥ “it would be of very little use without my shoulders. (+4 ‘ β $\times 2$)

In fact, we can consider this sentence in such a way: *Alice thought poor, even if my head would go through, it would be of very little use without my shoulders.* Therefore the relation can be redefined as following:

Alice thought poor (α), even if my head would go through (β α), it would be of very little use without my shoulders. (β $\times \beta$)

21. Sentence 45

- ① There seemed to be no use in waiting by the little door, (1)
- ② so she went back to the table, ($\times 2$ α)
- ③ half hoping she might find another key on it, ($\times 2$ β 1)
- ④ or at any rate a book of rules for shutting people up like telescopes: (+2 β 2)
- ⑤ this time she found a little bottle on it, (...) (+3)
- ⑥ and round the neck of the bottle was a paper label, (+4 α)
- ⑦ with the words “DRINK ME” beautifully printed on it in large letters. (4+ β)

This is a clause complex with four paratactic relations and two hypotactic relations. Clause 1 provide the reason for clause 2, thus the relation is enhancement. Clause 3 and 4 are the dependent clauses for clause 2. Clause 3 can be taken as the

adverbial for clause 2, and through the imperfective form we identify it as hypotactic enhancement. The conjunction *or* in clause 4 indicates the relation should be extension. Clause 5 mentions the fact that she found a bottle, and clause 6 and 7 provide the specific information for the bottle. The element in blanket is also excluded from the analysis.

22. Sentence 47

- ① "No, I'll look first," ("1)
- ② she said, (2)
- ③ and see whether it's marked "poison" or "not"; ("1)
- ④ for she had read several nice little histories about children who had got burnt, and eaten up by wild beasts and other unpleasant things, (×3)
- ⑤ all because they WOULD not remember the simple rules their friends had taught them: (×4)
- ⑥ such as, that a red-hot poker will burn you if you hold it too long; (=5)
- ⑦ and that if you cut your finger VERY deeply with a knife, (+6×β)
- ⑧ it usually bleeds; (+6 α)
- ⑨ and she had never forgotten that, (+7)
- ⑩ if you drink much from a bottle marked "poison," (+8 × β)
- ⑪ it is almost certain to disagree with you, sooner or later. (8 α)

Sentence 47 has thirteen clauses, including 8 paratactic relations, and two hypotactic relations. And in fact clauses 1 and 3 are the constituents for clause 1, therefore the sentence should be: *she said, "No, I'll look first," and see whether it's marked "poison" or not*'. The relations between clause 2 and 3, 3 and 4 are enhancing, 4 and 5 is elaboration, and others are extension.

23. Sentence 48

- ① However, this bottle was NOT marked 'poison,' (1)
- ② so Alice ventured to taste it, (×2 α)

③ and finding it very nice, (...) ($\times 2 \times \beta$)

④ she very soon finished it off. ($\times 3$)

This is an examples has some expansion clauses with ambiguous marks for are for logic-semantic relation. Such as clause 3, through the imperfective form we can identify the relation should be hypotactic, therefore it is labeled $\times \beta$. Clause 3 starts with *and*, but we label it as enhancement instead of extension, because here *and* means *and then*. And clause 4 is also an example without explicitly marks. We can not find any conjunctions in clause 4, therefore the relation just identified according to the context. As a result, we confirm the relation should be enhancement.

24. Sentence 49

① "What a curious feeling!" ($\beta 1$)

② said Alice; (= α)

③ "I must be shutting up like a telescope.!" ($\beta 2$)

The main clause is clause 2, clauses 1 and 3 present what Alice said.

25. Sentence 50

① And so it was indeed: (1)

② she was now only ten inches high, (=2)

③ and her face brightened up at the thought (+3 α)

④ that she was now the right size for going through the little door into that lovely garden. (+3 ' β)

Clause 2 just restates the dissertation for the clause 1, then the relation is paratactic elaboration. Clause 3 is the depiction of another action of Alice, and the relation is extending. Clause 4 is something Alice thought about, and the relation is paratactic idea.

26. Sentence 51

① First, however, she waited for a few minutes to see (1 α)

- ② if she was going to shrink any further: (1=β)
- ③ she felt a little nervous about this; (+2)
- ④ “for it might end, you know,” (+3)
- ⑤ said Alice to herself, (+4)
- ⑥ “in my going out altogether, like a candle. (“5)

This clause complex has 5 paratactic relations, and one hypotactic relation.

27. Sentence 53

- ① And she tried to fancy (1 α)
- ② what the flame of a candle is like(1 ‘β α)
- ③ after the candle is blown out, (1 ‘β × β)
- ④ for she could not remember ever having seen such a thing. (×2)

Sentence 53 is a clause complex with two hypotactic relations and two paratactic relations. Clauses 2 and 3 are the dependent clauses for the primary clause 1. And clause 3 can be taken as the adverbial time clause for clause 2; clause 2 is the dependent clause for clause 1, and at the same time the dominant clause for clause 3, as showed above. Clause 4 illustrates the reason for Alice’s action in clause 1, hence the relation is paratactic enhancement.

28. Sentence 54

- ① After a while, finding that nothing more happened, (1 × β)
- ② she decided on going into the garden at once; (1 α)
- ③ but, alas for poor Alice! (+2)

Here the situation may be a little bit different from the former condition. This sentence starting from the modifying clause, the primary clause is clause 2, and clause three is the negative addition for clause 2.

29. Sentence 55

- ① when she got to the door, ($1 \times \beta$)
- ② she found she had forgotten the little golden key, (1α)
- ③ and when she went back to the table for it, ($+2 \times \beta$)
- ④ she found she could not possibly reach it: ($+2 \alpha$)
- ⑤ she could see it quite plainly through the glass, ($=3$)
- ⑥ and she tried her best to climb up one of the legs of the table, but it was too slippery; ($+4$)
- ⑦ and when she had tired herself out with trying, ($+5 \times \beta$)
- ⑧ the poor little thing sat down and cried. (5α)

This is a clause complex includes many adverbial clauses, such as 1, 3, and 7. Therefore we label them as $1 \times \beta$, $2 \times \beta$ and $5 \times \beta$. The rest of the sentence, being in two paratactic relations, is labeled $+3$ and $+4$.

30. Sentence 56

- ① "Come, there's no use in crying like that!" ("1)
- ② said Alice to herself, rather sharply; (2)
- ③ "I advise you to leave off this minute!" ("3)

Clauses 1 and 3 are direct speech, hence the relation for them are paratactic locution.

31. Sentence 57

- ① She generally gave herself very good advice, (...),
- ② and sometimes she scolded herself so severely ($+2 \alpha$)
- ③ as to bring tears into her eyes; ($+2 \times \beta$)
- ④ and once she remembered trying to box her own ears ($+3 \alpha$)
- ⑤ for having cheated herself in a game of croquet ($+3 \times \beta$)
- ⑥ she was playing against herself, ($\times 4$)
- ⑦ for this curious child was very fond of pretending to be two people. ($+5$)

This is a clause complex with five paratactic relations and two hypotactic relations. Most of the paratactic relations are position addition, except clause 6. Although clause 6 is a clause without conjunction, but from the context we can easily figure out that it is the reason for clause 5, as a result the relation should be paratactic enhancement. In addition, the both the two hypotactic relations are all enhancement.

32. Sentence 60

- ① Soon her eye fell on a little glass box that was lying under the table: (1)
- ② she opened it, (+2 α)
- ③ and found in it a very small cake, (+2 $\times \beta \alpha$)
- ④ on which the words 'EAT ME' were beautifully marked in currants. (+2 $\times \beta = \beta$)

Although the ending punctuation for clause 1 is colon, the function for this colon is continuing, and the relation between clauses 1 and 2 is paratactic extending. Clause 3 starts from the conjunction *and*, and the meaning for this *and* is and then, therefore the relation is hypotactic enhancement. Clause 4 just defines the nominal group *small cake*; therefore clause 4 is the finite elaboration for clause 3.

33. Sentence 61

- ① "Well, I'll eat it,"(1)
- ② said Alice, (2)
- ③ "and if it makes me grow larger, ("3 $\times \beta$)
- ④ I can reach the key; (+3 α)
- ⑤ and if it makes me grow smaller, (+4 $\times \beta 1$)
- ⑥ I can creep under the door; (4 α)
- ⑦ so either way I'll get into the garden, ($\times 5$)
- ⑧ and I don't care which happens!"(+6)

This sentence is the remarks of Alice. As shown above, the relation between clause 1 and 2 is paratactic locution. Clause 3 is also the remarks of Alice, and the relation between clauses 2 and 3 is also paratactic locution, however, clause 3 starts from conjunction *and* but the punctuation (') reflects it's also the remarks of Alice.

And clause 3 is the continuing clause for clause 1, the conjunction *and* in clause 3 shows the relation between clauses 1 and 3 is paratactic extending. And clause 3 also provides the condition adverbial for clause 4, so as shown above is paratactic enhancing, and the dominant clause is clause 4. Clause 5 is the starting of another additive meaning of clause 4, the relation between clauses 4 and 5 is paratactic extending, and like clause 3 it provides the condition adverbial for clause 6, so their relation is hypotactic enhancing. Conjunction *so* reflects the relation between clause 6 and 7 is paratactic enhancing. And the relation between clause 7 and 8 is paratactic extending.

34. Sentence 62

- ① She ate a little bit, (1)
- ② and said anxiously to herself, (+2 α)
- ③ “Which way? Which way?”, (2 “ β 1)
- ④ holding her hand on the top of her head to feel(2 \times β 2 α)
- ⑤ which way it was growing, (2 \times β 2= β)
- ⑥ and she was quite surprised to find (\times 3 α)\
- ⑦ that she remained the same size: to be sure, (3= β)
- ⑧ this generally happens (=4 α)
- ⑨ when one eats cake, (=4 \times β)
- ⑩ but Alice had got so much into the way of expecting nothing but out-of-the-way things to happen, (+5)
- ⑪ that it seemed quite dull and stupid for life to go on in the common way.(=6)

It has six paratactic relations and four hypotactic relations. It is one of the typical examples in the original version. Clause 1 describes the action for Alice, clause 2 indicates the *dramatis persona* started to say something to herself, and this dominant clause has two dependent clauses: one is clause 2 which illustrate what Alice said to herself, and clause 3 can be taken as the adverbial modifier in traditional grammar, and in Halliday’s theory it is the hypotactic enhancement of clause 2. Although clause 4 is the dependent ingredient for the clause 2, but it is also the dominant clause for

clause 5, because clause 5 shows us clearly what Alice felt. Although clause 6 starts with conjunction *and*, which is always regarded as the signal conjunction for extension, here the meaning for this *and* is *and then*, hence the relation between clause 5 and 6 is enhancement. Clause 7 elaborates what she found out. And the initiate *this* in clause 8, refers what has mentioned in the above clauses, the relation is elaborating. Clause 9 provides the qualification for the action in clause 8, the relation is hypotactic relation. Clause 10 just talks about another thing, therefore the relation is extending. While the first that in clause 11 refers to the things mentioned in clause 10, and the relation is elaboration. It is a sentence with all the interdependency relation, and all kinds of expansion. It is easy to find out many sentences with more than two clauses.

4.2.2 Summary

From the analysis we have presented above, we can find out the author's preference of long sentences with complicated combinations. The longest sentence is sentence 47, which consists of thirteen clauses. It's a complicated structure with four paratactic extensions, two paratactic enhancements and two hypotactic enhancements, one paratactic elaboration, and one paratactic locution. We still can find many sentences with more than eight clauses, such as sentences 3, 33, 38, 47, 29 and 62. This kind of long complicated clause complexes may make the content and plot of the story to be more liquidity and cohesion, but it also bring a lot of difficulties in understanding.

Aside form these, we also find some sentences which consist of five or even less clauses, contains very complicated clause complexes. Such as sentence 6, it has five clauses with two hypotactic relations. But clause 3 and 4 act double roles in the dependent relationship, they are both the dependent clauses for the precede clauses, and dominant clauses for the clauses followed them.

To sum up, there are totally 34 sentences with more than two clauses, which consist of 188 clauses, and the summarization analysis is shown in Table 4-1.

Table4-1 The sentences with more than two clauses

| | Hypotactic | Paratactic |
|-------------|------------|------------|
| Elaborating | 20 | 8 |
| Enhancing | 33 | 16 |
| Extension | 6 | 63 |
| Locution | 7 | 7 |
| Idea | 3 | 2 |

In addition, there are totally 14 sentences with two clauses, the analyses for these sentences are set out in Table 4-2:

Table 4-2 The sentences with two clauses

| | Hypotactic | Paratactic |
|-------------|------------|------------|
| Elaborating | 3 | 1 |
| Enhancing | 3 | 1 |
| Extension | 0 | 3 |
| Locution | 0 | 0 |
| Idea | 0 | 2 |

4.3 Case Analysis of Simplified Version

4.3.1 Cases in Simplified Version

In simplified version, there are only 12 sentences with more than two clauses and most of them are assembled in a simpler way than the sentences in original version. The detail analyses of these sentences are shown as following:

1. Sentence 9

- ① He had large, pink ears, (1 α)
- ② like most rabbits, (1= β)
- ③ but unlike most rabbits, (+2= β)
- ④ he was wearing a blue coat and had a watch in his hand. (+2 α)

This is a divertive structure, clauses 2 and 3 are the dependent clauses for clauses

1 and 4, and they are the elaboration for clauses 1 and 4 individually, it just likes a symmetrical structure.

2. Sentence 11

- ① "Oh, what an unusual rabbit!" ("1)
- ② said Alice to herself, (2)
- ③ and she jumped up and ran across the field after him. (+3)

This is a simple structure with three paratactic relations.

3. Sentence 30

- ① As he turned a corner, ($1 \times \beta$)
- ② she heard him say, (1α)
- ③ " Oh, dear! Oh, dear! I'm so late!" ("2)

Clause 1 provides the time adverbial for clause 2, therefore the relation between clause 1 and 2 is hypotactic extension. Clause 3 is the remarks of Alice, and the relation between clauses 2 and 3 is paratactic locution.

4. Sentence 31

- ① Alice was close behind him, (1)
- ② but when she turned the corner, ($+2 \times \beta$)
- ③ the white rabbit was not there anymore (2α)

The conjunction *but* in clause 2, reveals their relation is paratactic extension. And *when* in clause 2 reflects it's relation with clause 3, thus as shown above the relation between clauses 2 and 3 is hypotactic enhancement.

5. Sentence 44

- ① "It's strange I didn't notice this one before," ("1)
- ② she thought (2α)
- ③ as she turned the key. ($2 \times \beta$)

The author put the primary clause *she thought* after the continuing clause, clause

1, as shown above, clause 1 labeled as ("1). Clause 3 provides the time adverbial for clause 2, so the relation is hypotactic enhancement.

6. Sentence 58

- ① "Now I can get into the garden!" ("1)
- ② she cried, (2)
- ③ but then she remembered the key. (+3)

This sentence is just like sentence 43 with the first clause labeled as "1, because the primary clause "she cried", appears after the citing part. And clause 3 is the addition part of clause 2; therefore the relation is paratactic extension.

7. Sentence 59

- ① It was on top of the table (1)
- ② and, of course, she couldn't reach it now($\times 2\alpha$)
- ③ because she was too much too small. ($\times 2 \times \beta$)

The relation between clauses 1 and 2 is reason and effect, therefore the relation is paratactic enhancement. Clause 3 provides the reason adverbial for clause 2, thus the relation is hypotactic enhancement.

8. Sentence 65

- ① "I'm not a very useful size now, ("1)
- ② so I suppose it doesn't really matter," ($\times 2$)
- ③ she decided. (3)

Clauses 1 and 2 are the citing part. The primary clause—clause 3, appears after the citing part, as shown above, clause 1 labeled as ("1) . And clause 2 brings forth the result for the clause 1, therefore the relation is paratactic extension.

9. Sentence 67

- ① "Ow!" ("1)

- ② cried Alice(2 α)
- ③ as her head hit the ceiling of the hall. (2 \times β)

This is a structure like sentence 43: clause 1 is the citing part for clause 2, and clause 3 is the time adverbial for clause 2. Then the relation between clauses 1 and 2 is practice locution, and the relation between clauses 2 and 3 is hypotactic enhancement.

10. Sentence 78

- ① He was still talking to himself, (1)
- ② but Alice needed help badly, (+2)
- ③ so she began, (\times 3)
- ④ " Excuse me, sir."("4)

This is a clause complex falls into four paratactic relations.

4.3.2 Summary

The sentences with more than two clauses are less than the sentences in original version. The most complicated cases are sentence 8 and sentence 77 with four clauses. Most of them include only three clauses which are easy to understand, that is to say these sentences consist of 3 clauses on average. And the analyses of these sentences are given in Table 4-3:

Table 4-3 The relation for sentences with more than two clauses

| | Hypotactic | Paratactic |
|-------------|------------|------------|
| Elaborating | 2 | 0 |
| Enhancing | 6 | 3 |
| Extension | 0 | 8 |
| Locution | 0 | 7 |
| Idea | 0 | 0 |

There are all together 33 sentences with two clauses, and the analysis of these

sentences is shown in Table 4-4:

Table 4-4 The relation for the sentences with two clauses

| | Hypotactic | Paratactic |
|-------------|------------|------------|
| Elaborating | 1 | 0 |
| Enhancing | 8 | 0 |
| Extension | 1 | 12 |
| Locution | 7 | 0 |
| Idea | 3 | 0 |

Chapter 5 The Contrastive Study

5.1 Introduction

Based on the analysis established in previous chapter, this chapter will compare the differences and similarities between the two versions. The emphasis in is on the analysis of the length and complexity of the sentences, interdependency and logical relation. The immediate goal of the analysis is to identify the discursive behavior of clause complexes in two versions. The ultimate goal is to bring out the functional choices the authors make, which are closely related to their different needs.

5.2 The Comparison of the Length and Complexity of the Sentences

From the analysis presented in the last chapter, we can conclude that: there are totally sixty-three sentences in original version and eighty in simplified version and the analysis of these sentences is shown in Table 5-1.

Table 5-1 No.of simple sentences, clause complexes, the sum for sentences in two versions, and average clauses for each sentence

| | Original version | Simplified version |
|--|------------------|--------------------|
| No. of simple sentences | 15 | 31 |
| No. of clause complexes with two clauses | 14 | 39 |
| No. of clause complexes with more than two clauses | 34 | 10 |
| Sum for sentences | 63 | 80 |
| Clauses per sentence | 5.5 | 1.7 |

Table 5-1 allows us to conclude the following points:

1. The total number for the sentences in simplified version is larger than original version.
2. The total number for the sentences with more than two clauses in original version is larger than simplified version.
3. The number for simple sentences in simplified version is more than twice as many as in original version.

Then we can conclude from the above findings that most of the complicated combinations have been transferred into simpler combinations or even simple sentences. Let us take the first sentence in original version for example:

Sentence 1:

- ① Alice was beginning to get very tired of sitting by her sister on the bank, (1)
- ② and of having nothing to do: ($+2 \times \beta$)
- ③ once or twice she had peeped into the book her sister was reading, ($+2 \alpha$)
- ④ but it had no pictures or conversations in it, ($+3 \alpha$)
- ⑤ 'and what is the use of a book,' thought Alice 'without pictures conversation?' ($+3 \alpha = \beta$)

The first sentence has five clauses, with three paratactic and two hypotactic relations. It is transferred into four sentences with two clauses, and one simple sentence in the simplified version, as shown in following:

- (1) Alice felt too sleepy to play, and there was nobody to play with.
- (2) It was a hot afternoon, so she was sitting in the garden under a tree.
- (3) Her sister was sitting beside her, but she was reading a book.
- (4) Alice looked at the book.
- (5) There were no pictures in the book, and Alice didn't like books without pictures.

Because the simplified version makes some changes on the basis of the original version, the author adds and reduces some of the content and plots of the original

version. Hence it is difficult to find the exactly corresponding parts in the two versions; we just can use some relative corresponding parts. Then let us compare the relative parts in these two versions. Alice was very tired, and she was sitting behind her sister on the bank, and it also indicates a information--- she was very tired of sitting behind her sister. And the first sentence of the simplified version, she *was too sleepy to play*, the meaning of sleepy is different from tired; *and there was nobody to play with*, is the continuing part for the sentence one, where the author adds some information which did not appear in the original version, we can take it as the reason for why she felt tired. And the information about the site for the story turns out in the sentence 2; it also adds some information about the time *It was a hot afternoon*. We can not find the corresponding clause for clause 2 in simplified version. And then, clause 3 in original version tells us what her sister was doing at that time, and what Alice did.

From the above discussion, we can conclude that most of the complicated clause complexes in original version are transferred into many simple clause complexes with only two clauses or simple sentences. Apart from, the sentences like the sentences 6 which we have discussed in 4.2.2 are seldom appeared in the simplified version. Therefore, the clause complexes with more than four clauses or complicated combination are all the aporias in understanding.

5.3 The Comparison of the Relationship between Clauses

5.3.1 Interdependency Relation

From the summarize study in 4.2.2 and 4.3.2 we can get the comparison study, as in Table 5-2.

Table 5-2 The interdependency relations in two versions

| | No. of clause complexes | No. of clause complexes with hypotactic relation | No. of clause complexes with paratactic relation |
|--------------------|-------------------------|--|--|
| Original version | 48 | 71 | 103 |
| Simplified version | 43 | 28 | 30 |

Then it is easy to get the rate the interdependency relation in the two versions from Table 5-2, as in Table 5-3.

Table 5-3 The rate of interdependency relation in two versions

| | Hypotactic relation% | Paratactic relation% |
|--------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| Original version | 40 | 59 |
| Simplified version | 48 | 51 |

It proves that the both for the original and simplified versions tend to use more structures with paratactic relation. Original version adopts more paratactic relation, and from the research in chapter four, the original version undertakes many clause complexes with more than three paratactic relations, like sentences 1, 2 and 8. Hence the rate for the paratactic is high. But it can not prove that the highly frequency use of the paratactic relation is the barrier for the understanding of language.

And another phenomenon is revealed that the original version has more structures involve both hypotactic and paratactic relation. This kind of structures can be taken as a more complex and more difficult structures for understanding.

5.3.2 Logical Relation

The differences between the two versions in logical relation are summarized in Table 5-4.

Table 5-4 Expansion in two versions

| | Original version | Simplified version |
|-------------|------------------|--------------------|
| Elaborating | 32 | 3 |
| Enhancing | 53 | 17 |
| Extending | 74 | 21 |

From the above table, the rate for the three logical relations in original and simplified version can be summarized, as in Table 5-5.

Table 5-5 The rate for the three logical relations in two versions

| | Elaborating % | Enhancing % | Extending % |
|--------------------|---------------|-------------|-------------|
| Original version | 20 | 33 | 46 |
| Simplified version | 7 | 41 | 51 |

After the contrastive and inductive study about the logical relation, we can find most the clauses complex both in simplified version and original version are enhancement and extension relation rather than elaboration relation. Then we can deduce one of the natures of the language in novel, because most language in novels aims to describe an episode, thus the author may choose more clauses complex with enhancement or extension relation in order to keep the cohesion of the language and the compactness of the plot of the whole story. While in other styles, like composition, essay and so on, we may find more elaborating relations, because they need to explain many phenomenon or statements.

Chapter 6 Conclusion

6.1 Introduction

This chapter is intended as a summing up of the previous chapters which have studied the sentences in two versions of *AAW* from the perspective of clause complexes. Within the theoretical framework of SFG, inspired by previous studies, the present research provides a detail contrastive study of the two versions. As the conclusion of the dissertation, the chapter will review the prim aspects the current study has covered, summarize the major findings, and discuss the significance and implications of the current study.

6.2 Overview

Grammar is one of the subsystems of a language; more specifically, it is the system of wordings of a language. It is a phenomenon that can be studied, just like light, physical motion, the human body, and decision-making processes in bureaucracies; and just as in the case of these and other phenomena under study, we need theory in order to interpret it (Matthiessen & Halliday, 2009). And SFG aims to construct a grammar for purpose of text analysis: one that would make it possible to say sensible and useful things about any text, spoken or written, in modern English (Halliday, 1994/2000:F41). Here, this dissertation we direct our attention to the clause complexes. Clause complex is the concept proposed by Halliday, which means the sentence in original grammar. Halliday's theory about clause complex aims to explore the inter-relationship between clauses within a sentence.

There have been a great deal studies about the relations between sentences, or clause complexes. And we can also find many studies about the relations between clauses in sentences or clause complexes. In traditional grammar, there are many different kinds of clauses, which called subordinate clause, such as subject clause, predicative clause, objective clause, attributive clause, adverbial clause. These clauses

are classified according to their functions in the sentence. Whereas, Halliday's theory about clause complexes aims to explore the relations between sentences from logical-semantic and interdependency relation, and he puts forward a systematic system of how to define and classify the various relations.

After the introduction for some basic issues about the current study, namely the background, the objectives of the present investigation, the approach of the current study, data collection and the brief description of methodology, and the overall organization of the dissertation. The present study brings forth the background studies about clause complexes. Halliday (1977) puts forward his early assumptions about clause complex. A sentence can be defined as a clause complex, which is formed by hypotactic and paratactic relation. He advanced his definition about clause complex in 2000: Clause complex is organized by a head and modifying clauses. In his third sections of *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*, he devoted more descriptions about the relaters between the clauses.

Thompson (1996/2000) reviews Halliday's theory of functional grammar; he re-defines the definition of the clause complex, in which the signal and relater are regarded as conjunctions. In his work on functional grammar, there is one chapter about clause complex, it reviews and explains Halliday's theory about clause complex. In China, Zhang (2005/2007)'s reviewing of Halliday's theory about clause complex is comparative systematic and unabridged.

When it comes to the application of the theory, Halliday (1977, 1985, and 1987), Thompson (1996/2000), and Zhang (2005/2007) provide some important samples of how to use the theory to analyze the language data. Bloor and Bloor (1995/2001) adopt the theory about clause complex to make a studies from the perspective of the functional analysis, they also advance the approach for the more complicated clause complexes.

Some scholars propose their annotation and some different suggestions about Halliday's theory. Huang (1999) does great researches about clause complex involving some future studies about logical relation, recursion and rankshifted, the "which" clause, the wh-clause and so on. In his studies, he proposes some different

suggestions about Halliday's theory like the range of the "which" clause and so on. Some scholars pointed out the limitations of Halliday's theory like Cheng (2005) and Chen (2000), they also suggested some different approaches to treat the relations between the clauses. In addition, this dissertation also presents some studies on clause relation from other perspectives, such as traditional grammar, syntax and stylistic, etc.

In order to provide a more particular and systematic analysis results, the theoretical framework of clause complexes are elaborated in detail. We list almost all the types and subtypes for interdependency and logical-semantic relation, as well as some ambiguous and more complicated cases. And, in order to investigate the relations between the clauses, it also lists some other theories about clause.

The next part is devoted to the practical research about the data, and it analyzes chapter one of the original version and the simplified version of *AAW* from the perspective of clause complex. The author chooses some typical long sentences (the sentences with more than three clauses) to show the analytic process and the detailed explanation of the analysis process. The results of the sentences with two clauses are shown in the summarizing study.

The contrastive study is shown in the fifth chapter. It compares the results of the case study of the original and simplified version from the perspective of the complexity of the combination, the comparison of the logical and interdependency relation. The author compares the data for the analysis results, in order to do some quantitative study.

The last part of this study is the conclusion part includes the overview of the whole study, the major findings, implications as well as the limitations and suggestions for the future studies.

6.3 The Major Findings of This Dissertation

The major findings of the dissertation will be elaborated with respect to the objectives proposed in the introductory chapter.

First, the literature survey reveals that, although the studies of sentences or

clauses have been approached under various terms by many scholars, there are two points worthy of particular notice. One is that the relation between the clauses within a sentence has been considered barely. Most studies concern the functions of the clauses from the traditional grammar. Another is that few studies have focused upon the contrastive studies of the different versions of the original novel.

Second, after the multidimensional research from the perspective of clause complexes in the two versions, it can be proved that the simplified version is simpler than the original version.

Third, the dissertation observes that the author of original version tend to use more long sentences with more than four clauses or complicated combination of the clauses, while in simplified version this phenomenon is rarely seen. Therefore we can conclude that most of the difficult clause complexes are transferred into simple clause complexes or simple sentences, which can be treat as a valid approach to simplify the language.

Fourth, this dissertation notices that the findings of the interdependency relation without sharp difference between the two versions. The paratactic relation can be taken as the simple relation, which is easier to understand. But the according to the amount of the hypotactic and paratactic relation, we can not find great difference. It may be due to the fact that the original version also is a kind of children literature, and the language of it is not a very complex.

Fifth, it is found that in both two versions the use of the elaborating relation is least; most relations are extension or enhancement. So it can be concluded that in this kind of fairy tale or this kind of narration, we can find more structures with extension and enhancement in order to keep the cohesion of the passage.

6.4 Implications

With reference to the objectives proposed in the initial chapter, the present study has made the subsequent achievements.

First, as *AAW* has been studied form many angles and genres, among which the

clause complexes aspect in the academic articles is a relatively neglected area. Therefore, our suggested model to the analysis of clause complexes in *AAW* can be enrichment to the study of clause complexes which can shed many new lights on the analysis of this kind of linguistic phenomena.

Second, it provides a comprehensive and constructive survey of how clause complex has been dealt with in traditional schools and other approaches. The survey bring into vision what features of clause complexes have been identified and focused upon.

Third, the current study presents a preliminary framework for the identification and classification of clause complexes in the language of English. The framework makes it possible to analyze the clause complexes in a systematic and comprehensive way.

Fourth, within the framework established, the current study offers a depiction of identified clause complexes in the present corpora. In this sense, the study provides a possible and plausible perspective in phenomena like the contrstive study between different versions can be approach.

Finally, from the contrstive study in the clause complexes of the two versions, it can be proved that the simplified version is simpler than the original version. Then the findings for the differences may have great help to the simplified for the English language, and the teaching and learning for the English language. And the findings for the common points may also have pedagogical implications. Thus the study offers a complementary contribution to the current prevailing cross-disciplinary studies.

6.5 Limitations and Suggestions

This dissertation conducts a theoretical as well as practical inspection on the contrstive study of the different versions of *AAW* form the clause complexes perspective. As has been stated, the analysis has resulted in some significant findings. However, it has to be acknowledged that it is far from safe to say the present study is immune to limitations. In fact, the present study has emerged at least subsequent

limitations.

First, the dissertation mainly focuses on the logical and interdependency relations between the clauses which may not be minor details at all. It is just a preliminary study in this field; therefore the research might not be deeper enough. And because the limitations of time and space, the research is difficult to make them as consummate as possible. It is suggested that future studies complement this limitations.

Second, the language data for this study is not sufficient enough. All the sentences were from the first chapter of the two different versions form the *AAW*.

Third, it might be a little subjective to say the analysis of the sentences is not unconditionally the unique choice. Based on the different understandings and occasions, some of the relations may have multiple choices for the adscription. Thus some subjective judgments are unavoidable in the case analysis and comparison. It is suggested further searching explorations shall be overcome the limitations.

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Appendix

Chapter one of Original Version

(1) Alice was beginning to get very tired of sitting by her sister on the bank, and of having nothing to do: once or twice she had peeped into the book her sister was reading, but it had no pictures or conversations in it, "and what is the use of a book," thought Alice "without pictures or conversation?"

(2) So she was considering in her own mind (as well as she could, for the hot day made her feel very sleepy and stupid), whether the pleasure of making a daisy-chain would be worth the trouble of getting up and picking the daisies, when suddenly a White Rabbit with pink eyes ran close by her.

(3) There was nothing so VERY remarkable in that; nor did Alice think it so VERY much out of the way to hear the Rabbit say to itself, "Oh dear! Oh dear! I shall be late!" (when she thought it over afterwards, it occurred to her that she ought to have wondered at this, but at the time it all seemed quite natural); but when the Rabbit actually **TOOK A WATCH OUT OF ITS WAISTCOAT-POCKET**, and looked at it, and then hurried on, Alice started to her feet, for it flashed across her mind that she had never before seen a rabbit with either a waistcoat-pocket, or a watch to take out of it, and burning with curiosity, she ran across the field after it, and fortunately was just in time to see it pop down a large rabbit-hole under the hedge.

(4) In another moment down went Alice after it, never once considering how in the world she was to get out again.

(5) The rabbit-hole went straight on like a tunnel for some way, and then dipped suddenly down, so suddenly that Alice had not a moment to think about stopping herself before she found herself falling down a very deep well.

(6) Either the well was very deep, or she fell very slowly, for she had plenty of time as she went down to look about her and to wonder what was going to happen next.

(7) First, she tried to look down and make out what she was coming to, but it was too dark to see anything; then she looked at the sides of the well, and noticed that they were filled with cupboards and book-shelves; here and there she saw maps and pictures hung upon pegs.

(8) She took down a jar from one of the shelves as she passed; it was labeled "ORANGE MARMALADE", but to her great disappointment it was empty: she did not like to drop the jar for fear of killing somebody, so managed to put it into one of the cupboards as she fell past it.

(9) "Well!" thought Alice to herself, "after such a fall as this, I shall think nothing of tumbling down stairs!

(10) How brave they'll all think me at home!

(11) Why, I wouldn't say anything about it, even if I fell off the top of the house!"
(Which was very likely true.)

(12) Down, down, down.

(13) Would the fall NEVER come to an end!

(14) "I wonder how many miles I've fallen by this time?" she said aloud.

(15) "I must be getting somewhere near the centre of the earth.

(16) Let me see: that would be four thousand miles down, I think—" (for, you see, Alice had learnt several things of this sort in her lessons in the schoolroom, and though this was not a VERY good opportunity for showing off her knowledge, as there was no one to listen to her, still it was good practice to say it over) "--yes, that's about the right distance--but then I wonder what Latitude or Longitude I've got

to?”(Alice had no idea what Latitude was, or Longitude either, but thought they were nice grand words to say.)

(17)Presently she began again.

(18)“I wonder if I shall fall right THROUGH the earth!

(19)How funny it’ll seem to come out among the people that walk with their heads downward!

(20)The Antipathies, I think—“(she was rather glad there WAS no one listening, this time, as it didn’t sound at all the right word) “--but I shall have to ask them what the name of the country is, you know.

(21)Please, Ma’am, is this New Zealand or Australia?”

(22)(and she tried to curtsy as she spoke—fancy CURTSEYING as you’re falling through the air! Do you think you could manage it?) “And what an ignorant little girl she’ll think me for asking!

(23)No, it’ll never do to ask: perhaps I shall see it written up somewhere.”

(24)Down, down, down.

(25)There was nothing else to do, so Alice soon began talking again.

(26)“Dina’ll miss me very much to-night, I should think!” (Dinah was the cat.)

(27) “I hope they’ll remember her saucer of milk at tea-time.

(28)Dinah my dear!

(29)I wish you were down here with me!

(30)There are no mice in the air, I'm afraid, but you might catch a bat, and that's very like a mouse, you know.

(31)But do cats eat bats, I wonder?"

(32)And here Alice began to get rather sleepy, and went on saying to herself, in a dreamy sort of way, "Do cats eat bats? Do cats eat bats?" and sometimes, "Do bats eat cats?" for, you see, as she couldn't answer either question, it didn't much matter which way she put it.

(33)She felt that she was dozing off, and had just begun to dream that she was walking hand in hand with Dinah, and saying to her very earnestly, "Now, Dinah, tell me the truth: did you ever eat a bat?" when suddenly, thump! thump! down she came upon a heap of sticks and dry leaves, and the fall was over.

(34)Alice was not a bit hurt, and she jumped up on to her feet in a moment: she looked up, but it was all dark overhead; before her was another long passage, and the White Rabbit was still in sight, hurrying down it.

(35)There was not a moment to be lost: away went Alice like the wind, and was just in time to hear it say, as it turned a corner, "Oh my ears and whiskers, how late it's getting!"

(36)She was close behind it when she turned the corner, but the Rabbit was no longer to be seen: she found herself in a long, low hall, which was lit up by a row of lamps hanging from the roof.

(37)There were doors all round the hall, but they were all locked; and when Alice had been all the way down one side and up the other, trying every door, she walked sadly down the middle, wondering how she was ever to get out again.

(38)Suddenly she came upon a little three-legged table, all made of solid glass; there was nothing on it except a tiny golden key, and Alice's first thought was that it might

belong to one of the doors of the hall; but, alas! either the locks were too large, or the key was too small, but at any rate it would not open any of them.

(39) However, on the second time round, she came upon a low curtain she had not noticed before, and behind it was a little door about fifteen inches high: she tried the little golden key in the lock, and to her great delight it fitted!

(40) Alice opened the door and found that it led into a small passage, not much larger than a rat-hole: she knelt down and looked along the passage into the loveliest garden you ever saw.

(41) How she longed to get out of that dark hall, and wander about among those beds of bright flowers and those cool fountains, but she could not even get her head through the doorway; "and even if my head would go through," thought poor Alice, "it would be of very little use without my shoulders.

(42) Oh, how I wish I could shut up like a telescope!

(43) I think I could, if I only know how to begin."

(44) For, you see, so many out-of-the-way things had happened lately, that Alice had begun to think that very few things indeed were really impossible.

(45) There seemed to be no use in waiting by the little door, so she went back to the table, half hoping she might find another key on it, or at any rate a book of rules for shutting people up like telescopes: this time she found a little bottle on it, ("which certainly was not here before," said Alice,) and round the neck of the bottle was a paper label, with the words 'DRINK ME' beautifully printed on it in large letters.

(46) It was all very well to say "Drink me," but the wise little Alice was not going to do THAT in a hurry.

(47) "No, I'll look first," she said, "and see whether it's marked "poison" or not"; for she had read several nice little histories about children who had got burnt, and eaten up by wild beasts and other unpleasant things, all because they WOULD not remember the simple rules their friends had taught them: such as, that a red-hot poker will burn you if you hold it too long; and that if you cut your finger VERY deeply with a knife, it usually bleeds; and she had never forgotten that, if you drink much from a bottle marked "poison," it is almost certain to disagree with you, sooner or later.

(48) However, this bottle was NOT marked "poison," so Alice ventured to taste it, and finding it very nice, (it had, in fact, a sort of mixed flavour of cherry-tart, custard, pine-apple, roast turkey, toffee, and hot buttered toast,) she very soon finished it off.

(49) "What a curious feeling!" said Alice; "I must be shutting up like a telescope."

(50) And so it was indeed: she was now only ten inches high, and her face brightened up at the thought that she was now the right size for going through the little door into that lovely garden.

(51) First, however, she waited for a few minutes to see if she was going to shrink any further: she felt a little nervous about this; "for it might end, you know," said Alice to herself, "in my going out altogether, like a candle.

(52) I wonder what I should be like then?"

(53) And she tried to fancy what the flame of a candle is like after the candle is blown out, for she could not remember ever having seen such a thing.

(54) After a while, finding that nothing more happened, she decided on going into the garden at once; but, alas for poor Alice!

(55) when she got to the door, she found she had forgotten the little golden key, and when she went back to the table for it, she found she could not possibly reach it: she

could see it quite plainly through the glass, and she tried her best to climb up one of the legs of the table, but it was too slippery; and when she had tired herself out with trying, the poor little thing sat down and cried.

(56) "Come, there's no use in crying like that!" said Alice to herself, rather sharply; "I advise you to leave off this minute!"

(57) She generally gave herself very good advice, (though she very seldom followed it), and sometimes she scolded herself so severely as to bring tears into her eyes; and once she remembered trying to box her own ears for having cheated herself in a game of croquet she was playing against herself, for this curious child was very fond of pretending to be two people.

(58) "But it's no use now," thought poor Alice, "to pretend to be two people!"

(59) Why, there's hardly enough of me left to make ONE respectable person!"

(60) Soon her eye fell on a little glass box that was lying under the table: she opened it, and found in it a very small cake, on which the words "EAT ME" were beautifully marked in currants.

(61) "Well, I'll eat it," said Alice, "and if it makes me grow larger, I can reach the key; and if it makes me grow smaller, I can creep under the door; so either way I'll get into the garden, and I don't care which happens!"

(62) She ate a little bit, and said anxiously to herself, "Which way? Which way?", holding her hand on the top of her head to feel which way it was growing, and she was quite surprised to find that she remained the same size: to be sure, this generally happens when one eats cake, but Alice had got so much into the way of expecting nothing but out-of-the-way things to happen, that it seemed quite dull and stupid for life to go on in the common way.

(63) So she set to work, and very soon finished off the cake.

Chapter One of Simplified Version

- (1) Alice felt too sleepy to play, and there was nobody to play with.
- (2) It was a hot afternoon, so she was sitting in the garden under a tree.
- (3) Her sister was sitting beside her, but she was reading a book.
- (4) Alice looked at the book.
- (5) There were no pictures in the book, and Alice didn't like books without pictures.
- (6) "I think I'll go and pick some flowers," she said to herself.
- (7) She began to get up, but she forgot about the flowers at once because she saw a rabbit.
- (8) She often saw rabbits in the garden, but this rabbit was different.
- (9) He had large, pink ears, like most rabbits, but unlike most rabbits, he was wearing a blue coat and had a watch in his hand.
- (10) He was looking at his watch and saying, "Oh, dear! Oh dear! I shall be too late!"
- (11) "Oh, what an unusual rabbit!" said Alice to herself, and she jumped up and ran across the field after him.
- (12) The white hurried on.
- (13) He was still looking at his watch.
- (14) "I'll catch him at the fence," thought Alice.
- (15) But, when the rabbit came to the fence, he suddenly went down a rabbit hole.
- (16) Alice followed him.
- (17) She was inside a dark hole and she was falling.
- (18) Either the hole was very deep or she was falling very slowly.
- (19) She saw lots of things on her way down.

- (20) There were cupboards on the sides of the hole, and maps and pictures.
- (21) She fell and fell such a long way!
- (22) She began to think she was going to fall all the way to Australia!
- (23) But, after a very long time, her fall suddenly came to an end.
- (24) Alice found herself sitting on a heap of dry leaves, and she wasn't hurt at all.
- (25) She stood up quickly.
- (26) She could see the white rabbit in the distance.
- (27) He was still hurrying and looking at his watch.
- (28) "I mustn't lose him now," thought Alice.
- (29) She ran after him.
- (30) As he turned a corner, she heard him say, "Oh, dear! Oh, dear! I'm so late!"
- (31) Alice was close behind him, but when she turned the corner, the white rabbit was not there any more.
- (32) Alice looked around.
- (33) She was in a long, dark, empty hall, but some lamps on the ceiling gave it light.
- (34) There were doors all around the hall.
- (35) Did the rabbit go out of one of the doors?
- (36) She walked right around and tried to open each door, but she couldn't.
- (37) There weren't any keys.
- (38) "It isn't a very good idea to run down rabbit holes after rabbits," she decided.
- (39) Suddenly she noticed a small table in the middle of the hall.
- (40) There was nothing on it except a small gold key.

(41) She picked up the key and ran to one of the doors, but the key was too small to open the door.

(42) Alice was trying all the doors for a second time when she saw a low curtain.

(43) Behind the curtain she found a door about fifteen inches high.

(44) "It's strange I didn't notice this one before," she thought as she turned the key.

(45) The door opened, but Alice had to go down on her knees to see what was on the other side.

(46) The little door led to a beautiful garden.

(47) Alice wanted very much to go into that beautiful garden, but she was too big.

(48) She wandered sadly back to the table.

(49) Then, as she put the key back, she noticed a bottle on the table.

(50) "That's funny. This bottle wasn't here before," she said in surprise.

(51) She picked it up.

(52) There was a piece of paper on the bottle.

(53) Alice read these words: DRINK ME. So she did, and the drink tasted so nice that she drank it all!

(54) "Oh, what's happening?" cried Alice.

(55) "I do feel strange."

(56) She was getting smaller and smaller!

(57) Soon she was only ten inches tall.

(58) "Now I can get into the garden!" she cried, but then she remembered the key.

(59) It was on top of the table and, of course, she couldn't reach it now because she was much too small.

(60) "I'll never get out of this hall," thought Alice sadly.

- (61) "I can't climb up that table leg."
- (62) Then she noticed a very small cake on the floor beside her.
- (63) She picked it up and read the words EAT ME on top of the cake.
- (64) "Will it make me bigger or smaller?" Alice wondered.
- (65) "I'm not a very useful size now, so I suppose it doesn't really matter," she decided.
- (66) She put the cake in her mouth.
- (67) "Ow!" cried Alice as her head hit the ceiling of the hall.
- (68) She was suddenly nine feet tall!
- (69) She quickly picked up the little gold key and went to the door to the garden.
- (70) Now she was so tall that she could only see the garden if she lay down and looked through the door with one eye.
- (71) "Oh, what can I do now?" said Alice.
- (72) "I'll never get into that garden."
- (73) She sat down and began to cry.
- (74) Her tears were so big that they soon made a small lake which covered half the hall.
- (75) Alice stopped crying when she heard footsteps in the distance.
- (76) She looked up and dried her eyes as the white rabbit came into the hall.
- (77) He was carrying white gloves in one hand and a pink fan in the other.
- (78) He was still talking to himself, but Alice needed help badly, so she began, "Excuse me, sir."
- (79) The sound of Alice's voice took the rabbit by surprise.
- (80) He dropped his gloves and fan, and turned and ran away.

