原書と簡易化テキストが英語学習者に与える経験の相違の考察

How can the English language learning experience in simplified texts differ from the one in 'real' English?

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Abstract

It is not uncommon to use simplified texts in the language classroom for reading. This study seeks to understand what types of simplifications are used in language learner literature and how the kinds of language used in simplified texts can be different from the ones in authentic texts. This has been done through a comparison and an analysis of two classroom texts in terms of grammar, vocabulary and discourse to provide a commentary on the processes of simplifying texts. The first text is extracted from a short story, 'the Adventure of the Golden Pince-Nez', written by Sir Arthur Conan Doyle, published in 1904. The second text is extracted from a simplified version, 'the Golden Glasses', originally written by Sir Arthur Conan Doyle and retold by Janet McAlpin. It was produced for learners of English (level 3 of Penguin readers) and published in 2000. The following features of the two texts are compared: sentence length, phrase structure, clause structure, tense and aspect, word choice, cohesive features, meanings omitted and meanings changed and metaphors. Subsequently the ways in which we teach reading in the classroom will be discussed and some suggestions will be made to facilitate our reading instructions.

1. Introduction

This study seeks to understand what types of simplifications are used in language learner literature and how the language of the English language learning experience is different from 'real' English. This study further aims to analyse the differences between two classroom texts in terms of grammar, vocabulary and discourse, and to provide a commentary on the processes of simplifying texts. The first text (Text A1) is extracted from a short story, 'the Adventure of the Golden Pince-Nez', written by Sir Arthur Conan Doyle, published in 1904. The second text (Text A2) is extracted from a simplified version, 'the Golden Glasses', written by Sir Arthur Conan Doyle and retold by Janet McAlpin. It is produced for learners of English for level 3 of Penguin readers and published in 2000. The following features of the two texts are compared:

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sentence length, phrase structure, clause structure, tense and aspect, word choice, cohesive features, meanings omitted and meanings changed and metaphors. Subsequently the ways in which we teach reading in the classroom will be further discussed.

2. Types of simplification

2. 1. The sentence length and the text length

In order to contrast Text A1 and Text A2 they will be compared in terms of the text structure through dividing them by sentences (see Appendix). Table 1.1. shows at a glance that Text A2 (only 270 words) is much shorter than Text A1 (708 words). Text A2 has been simplified by shortening the overall length of the original text. Some sentences or paragraphs of the original text have been entirely eliminated (see Appendix).Another technique to simplify an authentic text has also been used: Text A2 has been rewritten in order to make sentences shorter. As the table shows, the average sentence length of Text A1 is 13.88, whereas that of Text A2 is 8.14.

Table 1
A comparison of the sentence length and the text length

	Text A1 (Original)	Text A2 (Simplified)
Total words	708	270
Number of sentences	56	33
Average sentence length (number of words per sentence)	13.88	8.14

2. 2. Phrase structure

The following table contains a description of the comparison of the phrase structures used in Text A1 and Text A2. Abbreviations are used to indicate a noun phrase (NP), a verb phrase (VP), an adjectival phrase (AdjP), an adverbial phrase (AdvP) and a prepositional phrase (PreP).

Table 2
An example of a comparison of the texts

A1-2	Holmes and I (NP) / sat (VP) / together (AdvP) / in silence (PreP) / all the evening (AdvP) /, he (NP) / engaged (VP) / with a powerful lens (PreP) / deciphering the remains (AdvP) / of the original inscription (PreP) / upon a palimpsest (PreP) /, I (NP) / deep (AdvP) / in a recent treatise (PreP) / upon surgery (PreP).
A2-2	*Sherlock Holmes and I (NP) / were reading (VP) / by the fire (PreP).*

Text A2 is simplified by providing simpler and fewer phrases in place of those in Text A1. The sentence A1-2 for example, consists of three noun phrases, two verb phrases, four adverbial phrases, and six prepositional phrases. The opening words, 'Holmes and I' is a noun phrase functioning as the subject of the verb, 'sat', and as the sentence is extended, the two noun phrases that consist of a proper noun, 'he' and 'I', are also used. In A2-2, 'Sherlock Holmes and I' is the only noun phrase and it functions as the subject of the verb, 'were reading'. The noun phrase in each sentence functions as a subject and is both clear and comprehensible.

In A1-2, a number of adverbial phrases that modify a verb are used. For example 'together' modifies 'sat'. A number of prepositional phrases are also used. The function of the prepositional phrases is different. A prepositional phrase such as 'in silence', describing how 'Holmes and I' 'sat', is used instead of an adverb, such as 'silently'. 'Upon' is a preposition and a more formal term for 'on'. In the context of, 'upon a palimpsest', it means 'in a position forming part of a surface of' or 'located in the surface area of' the palimpsest. However, 'upon' in 'upon surgery' is similar to 'about' or

'concerning' surgery. The form of the preposition is identical in each case, but the function differs. Section A2-2 consists of only three phrases: a noun phrase, a verb phrase and only one prepositional phrase that indicates the location. Learners make mistakes with prepositions for various reasons. The use of fewer prepositional phrases makes the sentence more tangible.

2. 3. Sentence and clause structure

When looking into the sentence complexity of the texts it can be summarised that the simplified text uses more simple sentences than the original text (see Appendix). Table 3 shows that in both texts many simple sentences, some complex sentences and a few compound and compound-complex sentences are used. The larger percentage of simple sentences is from Text A2. The relatively high percentage of complex sentences in Text A1 demonstrates the complexity of the original text. Some of the longer, more complex, sentences are broken up into shorter simple ones in Text A2.

Table 3
A comparison of sentence and clause structures

	Text A1 (Original)	Text A2 (Simplified)
Number of simple sentences	35 (60.3%)	33 (78.6%)
Number of complex sentences	19 (32.8%)	6 (14.3%)
Number of compound sentences	2 (3.4%)	2 (4.8%)
Number of compound-complex sentences	2 (3.4%)	1 (2.4%)
Number of sentences*	58	42

The number of sentences is different from Table 1.1. in which the sentences are divided according to meaning. In this analysis of the sentence and clause structure, for example, '"So am I", I replied*' is considered to be two simple sentences.

The following analysis shows that the most complicated syntax in A1 has been revised by using

simpler clause structures in A2. A1-27 is the twenty-seventh sentence of the original text; A2-27a and 27b are the simplified sentences that correspond to A1-27 in terms of meaning. All the sentences in Table 4 below are simple sentences. The verbs in the main clauses are underlined. Though simple sentences are thought to be plain and easy to understand, they can be repetitive and lack richness and expression. Nevertheless A1-27 includes a present participle, 'promising' and a relative adverb, 'in whose', thus it is not grammatically simple. A1-27 becomes simplified by being divided into the two simple sentences: A2-27a and 27b. A2-27b contains a compound subject, 'Holmes and I', that makes the subjects clearer than the single subject, 'Holmes' in Text A1, which requires the reader to infer the fact that Holmes and Watson always act together. In addition to grammatical complexity, A1-27 expects the reader to have some background knowledge of the series, whereas A2-27s does not.

Table 4
An example of a comparison of the texts

A1-27	It <u>was</u> young Stanley Hopkins, a promising detective, in whose career Holmes had several times shown a very practical interest. [SS]
A2-27a	*It <u>was</u> Stanley Hopkins, a young detective from Scotland Yard. [SS]*
A2-27b	*Holmes and I <u>had helped</u> him with a few cases in the past. [SS]*

2.4. Tense, aspect and passive voice

Here I would like to analyse the use of tenses, aspects and passive voice in the texts by looking into the number of each of the above (see Appendix). Table 5 shows that in both Text A1 and A2, simple present tense (46.6%, 35.7%, respectively) and simple past tense (36.2%, 50%, respectively) are largely used. Therefore more than 80% of both texts (82.8%, 85.7%,

respectively) use simple tense. There is a marked difference in the proportion of simple present tense and simple past tense between the two texts. Text A1 uses more simple present tense (46.6%) than simple past tense (36.2%), whereas Text A2 uses less simple present tense (35.7%) than simple past tense (50.0%). Text A1 contains a number of written representations of spoken texts, such as, 'What <u>can</u> he <u>want</u>?', '<u>Is</u> he in?' and '<u>I hope</u> you have no designs upon us on such a night as this'. These lines are omitted in Text A2 resulting in less coverage of simple present tense.

Present and past perfect aspects are used more in Text A1, for example, '<u>I've done</u> enough for one sitting' and 'The cab which I had seen <u>had pulled</u> up at our door'. On the other hand, the present and the past progressive aspects are used more in Text A2, for example, 'Someone <u>was getting out</u>' and 'Someone <u>is coming</u> here'.

Table 5
A comparison of tense, aspect and passive voice

	Text A1 (Original)	Text A2 (Simplified)
Number of simple present tense	27 (46.6%)	15 (35.7%)
Number of simple past tense	21 (36.2%)	21 (50.0%)
Number of present progressive aspect	1 (1.7%)	1 (2.4%)
Number of past progressive aspect	1 (1.7%)	2 (4.8%)
Number of present perfect aspect	5 (9.6%)	2 (4.8%)
Number of past perfect aspect	3 (5.2%)	1 (2.4%)
Number of passive voice	1 (1.7%)	0
Number of sentences	58	42

In A1-43, 'I <u>was wired</u>' is in passive voice. Text A2 contains no passive voice. The grammar (tense and aspect) has been simplified for the sake of clarity.

Table 6
An example of the use of passive voice

A1-43	I <u>was wired</u> for at three-fifteen, reached Yoxley Old Place at five, conducted my investigation, was back at Charing Cross by the last train, and straight to you by cab.

2.5. Word choice

To compare difficulty levels of the words in the texts I used the 'Classic VP English V3'. The Classic VP English V3 is Laufer and Nation's four-way word sorter (Cobb;Heatley and Nation, 1994). If you type or paste a text into the box on their webpage and click the 'Submit' icon, the vocabulary profilers break down texts through word frequencies in the language. It can tell you how many words the text contains from the following four frequency levels: (1) the list of the most frequent 1000 word families, (2) the second 1000, (3) the Academic Word List (4) words that do not appear on the other lists. The assumption here is that in the process of simplification if the word choice is controlled by avoiding lower frequency words and academic words, a reader will be able to comprehend the text. The coverage of the first 1000 and/or 2000 words shows how accessible each text would be for a learner with a limited vocabulary. Table 7 shows that for Text A1 knowing the first 1000 words (82.68% coverage; 80% coverage means that there is one unknown word in every five words) is not sufficient, nor is the first 2000 words (88.41% coverage) enough for the reader to comprehend the text. According to Nation (2008), where only 80% of the running words were known no learners gained adequate comprehension. The degree of comprehension was predictable from the density of unknown words. The optimum density is 98% (Nation, 2008). The vocabulary size needed to comprehend Text A1 is a vocabulary of well over the first 2000 words. For Text A2, the table

shows that knowing the first 2000 words covers 90.37% of the text (90 % coverage means one unknown word in every ten words).

Table 7
A comparison of word choice: word frequency

	Text A1 (Original)	Text A2 (Simplified)
Words in text	716	270
Percentage covered by the first 1000 words of English (1)	82.68%	87.04%
Percentage covered by the first 2000 words of English (1+2)	88.41%	90.37%
AWL Words (academic)	1.54%	0.74%
Off-List Words	10.06%	8.89%

The 'WordCount' is an interactive presentation of the 86,800 most frequently used English words (Harris, 2003). Waring (2010) describes it as an artistic experiment in the way we use language. It showed that while 'tempestuous' in Text A1 is the 42999th most frequently used English word, 'stormy' in Text A2 is the 13645th; while 'palimpsest' in Text A1 is the 59262th, 'book' is the 357th. Table 7 and the results gained from the WordCount suggest that Text A2 is rewritten to delete or rephrase low frequency words, academic words and off-lists words. We must note, however, that the Classic VP English V3 and the WordCount do not take into account the learner's background knowledge, strategy-use, text structure, proficiency and so forth. All of these would influence the comprehensibility of a text.

2. 6. Cohesive features: lexical cohesion

Halliday and Hasan (1976) categorise lexical items into two groups: grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. Grammatical cohesion is further classified into four types: reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction. Lexical cohesion is divided into two types: reiteration

and collocation. Lexical cohesion is more complicated than grammatical cohesion because it is established through semantic relationships in vocabulary, though grammatically constrained (Graddol, et al., 1994). Halliday and Hasan (1976) further classify reiteration into four types: the same word, a synonym/near-synonym, a superordinate and a general word. In Text A1, for example, 'a detective' can be replaced in the following sentences with 'the detective' (the same word), 'a man' (a superordinate) and 'our visitor' (a general word). Those nouns create lexical cohesion. The descriptors, 'he', 'it', 'you', 'young Stanley Hopkins' and 'my dear Hopkins' are considered to be types of grammatical cohesion rather than lexical cohesion. In Text A2, 'a detective' can be replaced in the following sentences with 'the detective' (the same word), 'someone' (a superordinate) and 'our visitor' (a general word). Grammatical cohesion is created through 'Stanley Hopkins' and 'he'.

Table 8
Examples of a comparison of the texts

A1	he, a man, our midnight visitor, It, young Stanley Hopkins, a promising detective, my dear sir, The detective, my dear Hopkins, him, you.
A2	*someone, our visitor, Stanley Hopkins, a young detective, the detective, Hopkins, he*

In Text A1, the noun phrase, 'wild tempestuous night' and the noun, 'gale', can be considered to be two synonyms or near-synonyms creating lexical cohesion. Similarly, in Text A2, 'a very stormy night' and 'a very, cold wet night' are considered to be near-synonymous phrases. Text A2 includes short chunks of words which are accessible to beginners and does not include much variety in lexical cohesion.

Table 9

An example of a comparison of the texts

A1-1	It was a wild, tempestuous nighttowards the close of November.
A2-1	*It was a very stormy night near to the end of November.*

Halliday and Hasan (1976) recognise collocation as another significant part of creating cohesion in texts. English language learners need to be aware of the importance of collocation. McCarthy (2005) argues that collocations will help the student to speak and write English in a more natural and accurate way. To look into collocations I used the 'BYU-BNC (Davies, 2004)'. It searches the BNC (British National Corpus) and offers a unique combination of queries, size, speed and genre balance. I searched the BYU-BNC for general information on the frequency distribution of collocations in the texts. Firstly, 'wild, tempestuous night' in Text A1 is compared to 'stormy night' in Text A2. 'Wild night' is a collocation, meaning a stormy night (*Oxford Collocations Dictionary for students of English*, 2002) and it hits the total count of 17 matching records on the BYU-BNC. However 'tempestuous night' hits no matching records. The word 'tempestuous' is a formal or a literary one, meaning caused or affected by a violent storm (*Oxford Collocations Dictionary for students of English*, 2002) or very stormy (*The Concise Oxford Dictionary*, 1999). In total, 'stormy night' hits 23 matches. Secondly, 'towards the close of' in Text A1 is compared to 'to the end of' in Text A2. 'Towards the close of' is aprepositional phrase and it hits 16 matches on theBYU-BNC, whereas 'to the end of' hits 881 matches.From a learner's perspective it is rewarding to read the simplified text, which includes collocations of high frequency.

2. 7. Meanings omitted

A closer reading of the texts reveals several clues about how meanings in the original text are omitted in the simplified one. In the following lines from Text A1, Holmes goes into a long monologue about his reading. This entire monologue is omitted in Text A2. Text A1 describes what Holmes and Watson were reading, but Text A2 totally omits it. The reader only knows that Holmes has been reading a book, but has no idea what book Holmes is reading.

Table 10
Examples of Holmes' monologues

A1-9	I've done enough for one sitting.
A1-10	It is trying work for the eyes.
A1-11	So far as I can make out it is nothing more exciting than an Abbey's accounts dating from the second half of the fifteenth century.

Practically, Holmes' monologues and near-monologues in Text A1 are often omitted in Text A2. Lines A1-18 to 25 are a mixture of monologues and near-monologues. In Text A2, however, there are no corresponding lines to it.

Table 11
Example of monologues and near-monologues

A1-18	Want!
A1-19	He wants us.
A1-20	And we, my poor Watson, want overcoats and cravats and goloshes, and every aid that man ever invented to fight the weather.
A1-21	Wait a bit, though!
A1-22	There's the cab off again!
A1-23	There's hope yet.
A1-24	He'd have kept it if he had wanted us to come.
A1-25	Run down, my dear fellow, and open the door, for all virtuous folk have been long in bed.

Detailed and factual descriptions of the visual scenes and/or character behaviours in Text A1 are also omitted. Text A2 does not let the reader imagine the

surrounding sounds.

Table 12
An example of detailed and factual descriptions

A1-14	Amid the droning of the wind there had come the stamping of a horse's hoofs and the long grind of a wheel as it rasped against the kerb.

The reader could not imagine anything without these lines of a detailed description.

Table 13
Examples of a detailed description

A1-31	The detective mounted the stairs, and our lamp gleamed upon his shining waterproof.
A1-32	I helped him out of it while Holmes knocked a blaze out of the logs in the grate.

Every reader who is familiar to the Sherlock Holmes series knows how satisfying it can be when Holmes spills all of his secrets in the form of monologue. It is a shame if such charms must be omitted in the process of simplification.

2.8. Meanings changed

How are the meanings in the original text changed in the simplified one?It seems that unfamiliar content in Text A1 is changed into something familiar to the learner in Text A2. For example, A1-2, 'Holmes and I sat together in silence all the evening, he engaged with a powerful lens deciphering the remains of the original inscription upon a palimpsest, I deep in a recent treatise upon surgery' is changed into A2-2, 'Sherlock Holmes and I were reading by the fire'. The phrase, 'reading by the fire' is more general, hence, can be said to be more familiar to the learner. What Holmes and Watson were reading is, 'the remains of the original inscription upon a palimpsest' and 'a recent treatise upon surgery' in Text A1. However A2-2 does not convey this exact meaning

of the original text. Rather, it is something different. The reader could possibly assume that Holmes and Watson are engaged in reading some sort of lightweight novels.

Table 14
An example of a comparison of the texts

A1-2	Holmes and I sat together in silence all the evening, he engaged with a powerful lens deciphering the remains of the original inscription upon a palimpsest, I deep in a recent treatise upon surgery.
A2-2	*Sherlock Holmes and I were reading by the fire.*

The original text has been quite radically revised in some parts. Comparing Text A2 with Text A1, all the vivid descriptions of the town and the details of Watson's feelings towards it in Text A1, such as, 'It was strange there in the very depths of the town, with ten miles of man's handiwork on every side of us, to feel the iron grip of Nature, and to be conscious that to the huge elemental forces all London was no more than the molehills that dot the fields', are simplified in Text A2. Instead, the above sentence reads as 'It was late, and most people were in bed.' The shortened version has neither the descriptions of the town nor of Watson's feelings. It can be said that this sentence in Text A2 was edited in a way that it removed somewhat the life out of the original.

In Table 15, Text A2 is telling the story with great fidelity to Text A1. Not only is the shape, formed from the sentence length and lexis, near to the original, but the meaning also agrees with the original. Although 'promising' is not an exact synonym or near-synonym of 'young', 'promising' connotes youthfulness. Likewise, 'in whose career Holmes had several times shown a very practical interest' is simplified into 'Holmes and I had helped him with a few cases in the past' without radically changing the meaning. Faithful reproduction of

the original text has been ensured here.

Table 15
An example of a comparison of the texts

A1-27	It <u>was</u> young Stanley Hopkins, a promising detective, in whose career Holmes had several times shown a very practical interest. [SS] (Simple past)
A2-27b	*Holmes and I had helped him with a few cases in the past. [SS] (Past perfect)*

2. 9. Metaphors

I will consider firstly what the function of a metaphor is. A metaphor is the non-literal use of a linguistic form, designed to draw attention to a perceived resemblance (Trask, 1999). Another definition of a metaphor is, a word or phrase used in an imaginative way to describe somebody/something else, in order to show that the two things have the same qualities and to make the description more powerful (*Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, 2000). In Text A1, for example, it describes 'the droning of the wind' in the 14th sentence. A drone is a male bee and to drone means to make a continuous low noise as a male bee does and therefore 'droning' is used as a metaphor for the low continuous sound made by the wind.

Trask (1999) refers to cognitive metaphors, which are large-scale metaphors that condition a broad range of expression and which appear to be related to the way we perceive the world. In the table 16, an example of a cognitive metaphor in Text A1 is, 'London was no more than the molehills'. A molehill is a small pile of earth that a mole leaves on the surface of the ground when it digs underground (*Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, 2010). The phrase 'make a mountain out of a molehill' is a common disapproving metaphor meaning to make an unimportant matter seem important (*Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, 2010).In this way,

conceptual metaphors exist to enhance or facilitate the understanding of certain concepts (Valenauela and Soriano, 2005). The metaphor adds colour to the text. Metaphor is a literary device, like parallelism and rhyme, which has gained a wide spread occurrence in texts which were not written to be literary texts, such as advertising copies, graffiti and public notices (Maley, 2001). Trask (1999) argues that, like every language, English is stuffed with thousands of metaphors and most of them are so familiar to us that we no longer regard them as metaphorical in nature. Metaphors are commonplace in ordinary speech and writing (Trask, 1999). In Text A2, on the other hand, no noticeable metaphors or metaphorical expressions can be found.

Table 16
Examples of metaphors and their comparison

A1-4	It was strange there in the very depths of the town, with ten miles of man's handiwork on every side of us, to feel the iron grip of Nature, and to be conscious that to the huge elemental forces all London was no more than the molehills that dot the fields.
A2-4	*It was late, and most people were in bed.*

3. Discussion

Linguistic simplification of authentic texts is a common practice in second language reading material, but research results on whether it actually increases comprehension are inconsistent (Young, 1999). One of the main arguments for simplified texts is their readability based on controlled vocabulary. Nation (2008) argues that in order to help learners to get meaning-focused input at all levels of proficiency, it is essential to use material where the vocabulary has been controlled. Vocabulary control means using texts that have been specially written or simplified so that almost

all the vocabulary in the text is within a certain level. The most well-known example of materials using vocabulary control is graded readers (Nation, 2008). Krashen (2009) suggests that graded readers are acceptable; it is acceptable for readers to read 'easy' books (below their level); it is also acceptable for readers to read 'hard' (books above their level).

For some teachers and researchers, on the other hand, graded readers are seen as being inauthentic, watered-down versions of richer original texts (Nation, 2008). Vocabulary simplification is seen to result in more complicated grammar, since what could be neatly expressed in one word is now expressed in several simpler words. This can be true of the poorest quality graded readers, but there are many high quality and very high quality graded readers available (Day and Bamford, 1998).

From a vocabulary learning perspective, it is very useful to read simplified texts because they are educationally rewarding with few low frequency words together with a recycling of high frequency words. From an autonomous learning or sustainable study perspective, accessibility to the language learner material would take priority over any other criterion. However, from a literature experience or language experience perspective, simplified texts offer rather less hope. Considering current and future trends and directions, Maley (2001) argues that it is likely there will be a demand for the new genre of writing, that is readers written as originals, specifically for the foreign language learning market. For example, the Cambridge English Readers list is exclusively composed of original texts. The Cambridge English Readers series offers original, exciting fiction at the appropriate language level (Prowse, 1999).

4. Limitations

No definite conclusions can be made with a comparison of just two texts although the attempt seems to be worthwhile in the sense that it may well enlighten the language teacher on the issues that she has to face in everyday classroom situations. In particular, the kinds of simplification of authentic texts have been found richer in variety and methods. This, I believe, may well be of great use for teachers and learners of English as a second language.

5. Conclusion

The findings indicate that methods of text simplification vary from lexical (word choice, lexical cohesion) or grammatical (phrase structure, clause structure, tense and aspect) in nature, to modification from literary devices (metaphor) and so forth. A learner's reading experience of the simplified text could be superior to reading the original one if its level matches with that of the learner. To assist students in reading, multiple factors should be considered before a selection is made. Using vocabulary profilers such as the Classic VP English V3 or the WordCount alone is not sufficient. Instead, texts should be examined through a set of multiple criteria, such as the learner's background knowledge, strategy-use, text structure proficiency and so forth. Under collaboration between literature and language teachers, as well as book publishers and authors, much progress can be made in order to create language learner literature that compliments effective teaching for learners and teachers.

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Appendix

The sentence and clause structure/ Tense and aspect

Text A1 (Original)	
1	It <u>was</u> a wild, tempestuous night towards the close of November. [SS] (Simple past)
2	Holmes and I <u>sat</u> together in silence all the evening, he engaged with a powerful lens deciphering the remains of the original inscription upon a palimpsest, I deep in a recent treatise upon surgery. [CXS] (Simple past)
3	Outside the wind <u>howled</u> down Baker Street, while the rain beat fiercely against the windows. [CXS] (Simple past)
4	It <u>was</u> strange there in the very depths of the town, with ten miles of man's handiwork on every side of us, to feel the iron grip of Nature, and to be conscious that to the huge elemental forces all London was no more than the molehills that dot the fields. [SS] (Simple past)
5	I <u>walked</u> to the window and <u>looked</u> out on the deserted street. [SS with compound verbs] (Simple past)
6	The occasional lamps <u>gleamed</u> on the expanse of muddy road and shining pavement. [SS] (Simple past)
7	A single cab <u>was splashing</u> its way from the Oxford Street end. [SS] (Past progressive)
8	"Well, Watson, it'<u>s</u> as well we have not to turn out to-night [CXS]," <u>said</u> Holmes, laying aside his lens and rolling up the palimpsest. [SS] (Simple present, simple past)
9	"I'<u>ve done</u> enough for one sitting. [SS] (Present perfect)
10	It <u>is trying</u> work for the eyes. [SS] (Present progressive)
11	So far as I can make out it <u>is</u> nothing more exciting than an Abbey's accounts dating from the second half of the fifteenth century. [CXS] (Simple present)
12	Halloa! halloa! halloa!
13	What'<u>s</u> this?" [SS] (Simple present)
14	Amid the droning of the wind there <u>had come</u> the stamping of a horse's hoofs and the long grind of a wheel as it rasped against the kerb. [CXS] (Past perfect)
15	The cab which I had seen<u>had pulled</u> up at our door. [CXS] (Past perfect)
16	"What <u>can</u> he <u>want</u>?" [SS] (Simple present)
17	I <u>ejaculated</u>, as a man stepped out of it. [CXS] (Simple past)
18	"<u>Want</u>! [SS] (Simple present)
19	He <u>wants</u> us. [SS] (Simple present)
20	And we, my poor Watson, <u>want</u> overcoats and cravats and goloshes, and every aid that man ever invented to fight the weather. [CXS] (Simple present, simple past)
21	<u>Wait</u> a bit, though! [SS] (Simple present)
22	There'<u>s</u> the cab off again! [SS] (Simple present)
23	There'<u>s</u> hope yet. [SS] (Simple present)
24	He'<u>d</u> have kept it if he had wanted us to come. [CXS] (Past perfect [conditional])
25	<u>Run</u> down, my dear fellow, and <u>open</u> the door, for all virtuous folk <u>have been</u> long in bed." [CXS] (Simple present)
26	When the light of the hall lamp fell upon our midnight visitor I <u>had</u> no difficulty in recognising him. [CXS] (Simple past)
27	It <u>was</u> young Stanley Hopkins, a promising detective, in whose career Holmes had several times shown a very practical interest. [SS] (Simple past)
28	"<u>Is</u> he in? [SS]" he <u>asked</u>, eagerly. [SS] (Simple present, simple past)
29	"<u>Come</u> up, my dear sir," said Holmes's voice from above.[SS] (Simple present, simple past)
30	"I <u>hope</u> you have no designs upon us on such a night as this." [CXS] (Simple present)
31	The detective <u>mounted</u> the stairs, and our lamp <u>gleamed</u> upon his shining waterproof. [CDS] (Simple past)
32	I <u>helped</u> him out of it while Holmes knocked a blaze out of the logs in the grate. [CXS] (Simple past)
33	"Now, my dear Hopkins, <u>draw</u> up and <u>warm</u> your toes, [SS with compound verbs]"<u>said</u> he. [SS] (Simple present, simple past)
34	"Here'<u>s</u> a cigar, and the doctor <u>has</u> a prescription containing hot water and a lemon which is good medicine on a night like this. [CDS] (Simple present)
35	It <u>must be</u> something important which has brought you out in such a gale." [CXS] (Simple present)
36	"It <u>is</u> indeed, Mr. Holmes. [SS] (Simple present)
37	I'<u>ve had</u> a bustling afternoon [SS], I <u>promise</u> you. [SS] (Present perfect, simple present)
38	<u>Did</u> you <u>see</u> anything of the Yoxley case in the latest editions?" [SS] (Simple past)
39	"I'<u>ve seen</u>nothing later than the fifteenth century to-day." [SS] (Present perfect)
40	"Well, it <u>was</u> only a paragraph, and all wrong at that, so you have not missed anything. [CXS] (Simple past, present perfect)
41	I <u>haven't let</u> the grass grow under my feet. [SS] (Present perfect)
42	It'<u>s</u> down in Kent, seven miles from Chatham and three from the railway line. [SS] (Simple present)
43	I <u>was wired</u> for at three-fifteen, <u>reached</u>Yoxley Old Place at five, <u>conducted</u> my investigation, <u>was</u> back at Charing Cross by the last train, and straight to you by cab." [SS with compound verbs] (Simple past [Passive])
44	"Which means, I <u>suppose</u>, that you are not quite clear about your case?" [CXS] (Simple present)
45	"It <u>means</u> that I can make neither head nor tail of it. [CXS] (Simple present)

46	So far as I can see it <u>is</u> just as tangled a business as ever I handled, and yet at first it <u>seemed</u> so simple that one couldn't go wrong. [CCS] (Simple present, simple past)
47	There<u>'s</u> no motive, Mr. Holmes. [SS] (Simple present)
48	That<u>'s</u> what bothers me [CXS] -- I <u>can't put</u> my hand on a motive. [SS] (Simple present, simple present)
49	Here<u>'s</u> a man dead [CXS]-- there<u>'s</u> no denying that -- but, so far as I can see, no reason on earth why anyone should wish him harm." [CCS] (Simple present, simple present)
50	Holmes <u>lit</u> his cigar and <u>leaned</u> back in his chair. [SS with compound verbs] (Simple past)
51	"Let us <u>hear</u> about it, [SS]" <u>said</u> he. [SS] (Simple present, simple past)

Text A2 (Simplified)	
1	*It <u>was</u> a very stormy night near to the end of November. [SS] (Simple past)*
2	*Sherlock Holmes and I <u>were reading</u> by the fire. [SS] (Past progressive)*
3	*Outside we <u>could hear</u> only the sound of the wind and the rain. [SS] (Simple past)*
4	*It <u>was</u> late, and most people <u>were</u> in bed. [CDS] (Simple past)*
8	*Holmes <u>put</u> down his book, and <u>said</u>, [SS with compound verbs] "I<u>'m</u> glad that we <u>don't</u> have to go out tonight, Watson." [CXS] (Simple past, simple present)*
	"So <u>am</u> I, [SS]" I <u>replied</u>. [SS] (Simple present, simple past)
15	*Just then we <u>heard</u> a carriage stop outside the house. [CXS] (Simple past)*
17	*Someone <u>was getting</u> out. [SS] (Past progressive)*
5	*I <u>went</u> to the window and <u>looked</u> into the darkness. [SS with compound verbs] (Simple past)*
	"Someone <u>is</u> coming here, [SS]" I <u>said</u>. [SS] (Present progressive, simple past)
16	*"I <u>wonder</u> who it is, [CXS]" Holmes <u>answered</u>. [SS] (Simple present, simple past)*
26	*Very soon we <u>knew</u> who our visitor was. [CXS] (Simple past)*
27a	*It <u>was</u> Stanley Hopkins, a young detective from Scotland Yard. [SS] (Simple past)*
27b	*Holmes and I <u>had helped</u> him with a few cases in the past. [SS] (Past perfect)*
33	*"<u>Come</u> in, and <u>sit</u> down by the fire, [CDS]" <u>said</u> Holmes. [SS] (Simple present, simple past)*

	past)
	"It <u>is</u> a very, cold wet night. [SS] (Simple present)
35	*I <u>think</u> you must have an interesting case for me!" [CXS] (Simple present)*
36	*"Yes, I <u>have</u>, [SS]" the detective <u>replied.</u> [SS] (Simple present, simple past)*
38	*"<u>Have</u> you <u>seen</u> the newspapers this evening, Mr Holmes?" [SS] (Present perfect)*
39a	*"No," <u>said</u> Holmes. [SS] (Simple past)*
39b	*"I <u>have been</u> busy with a book." [SS] (Present perfect)*
40a	*Hopkins <u>said</u>, [SS] "It <u>doesn't matter</u>. [SS] (Simple past, simple present)*
40b	*There <u>were</u> only a few facts in the newspapers. [SS] (Simple past)*
41 42a 43	*The case <u>is</u> very new[SS]; the police at Yoxley only <u>sent</u>for me this afternoon.[SS]" (Simple present, simple past)*
	"Where <u>is</u>Yoxley? [SS]" I <u>asked</u>. [SS] (Simple present, simple past)
42b	*"It<u>'s</u> in Kent, [SS]" he <u>replied</u>. [SS] (Simple present, simple past)*
	"It<u>'s</u> a very small place. [SS] (Simple present)
46a	*When I <u>arrived</u> there, I <u>thought</u> this was going to be an easy case. [CXS] (Simple past)*
46b	*Now it <u>seems</u> very difficult. [SS] (Simple present)*
47 48 49	*A man <u>is</u> dead, and I really <u>don't know</u> why anyone wanted to kill him. [CCS]" (Simple present)*
51	*"<u>Tell</u> me everything, [SS]" <u>said</u> Sherlock Holmes. [SS] (Simple present, simple past)*

Abbreviations
SS: Simple sentence
CXS: Complex sentence
CDS: Compound sentence
CCS: Compound-complex sentence
Simple present (tense)
Simple past (tense)
Present progressive (aspect)
Past progressive (aspect)
Present perfect (aspect)
Past perfect (aspect)
Passive (voice)