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Adverbial Clauses in Journalistic Style

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Annotation

This bachelor paper clarifies the use of adverbial clauses in journalistic style. The theoretical part firstly discusses a role of subordinate clauses, then the term adverbial clause is introduced and finally, the particular semantic types of adverbial clauses are examined. The whole part forms a basis for the practical part studying the frequency of occurrence of particular semantic clauses and other characteristic properties from samples of adverbial clauses selected from journalistic articles. The aim of the thesis to accomplish is to examine and determine the most frequent clauses within the journalistic style and evaluate overall research findings.

Keywords

English language; linguistics; adverbial clauses; journalistic style

Název

Vedlejší věty příslovečné v anglickém žurnalistickém stylu.

Souhrn

Tato bakalářská práce se osvětluje užívání vedlejších vět příslovečných v anglickém žurnalistickém stylu. Teoretická část práce se nejdříve zabývá větou vedlejší, poté vysvětluje termín vedlejší věta příslovečná a závěrem jsou popsány jednotlivé sémantické typy vedlejších vět příslovečných. Tato část poskytuje poklad pro část praktickou, která zkoumá četnost výskytu sémantických typů a další charakteristické rysy těchto jednotlivých typů příslovečných vět. Praktická část práce je založena na vzorku vedlejších vět příslovečných detekovaných v anglických žurnalistických článcích, a dává si za cíl analyzovat tyto věty s ohledem na jejich vlastnosti, a dále zhodnotit celkové výsledky analytického šetření.

Klíčová slova

Anglický jazyk; lingvistika; analýza; vedlejší věty příslovečné; žurnalistický styl

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INTRODUCTION

Nowadays professional journalism became one of the most essential and key aspects in people's lives as they require real-time and factual information on a current real-world situation. When providing news and facts, the emphasis is put on answering the fundamental questions on an event - who, what, when, where, why and how. In the journalism these questions are called Five Ws (Maddox, *The Writer's 5 Ws* [online]) and they formulate a rule for obtaining all necessary information for a reader. When responding to some of these questions, a particular grammatical phenomenon is present – it is called an adverbial clause. Therefore, the main objective of the thesis is to investigate whether or not the adverbial clauses are frequently applied in the journalistic style and if so, to explore the reason for the high occurrence in this style.

The paper is divided into two key parts. In the first chapter of the theoretical part there are described the subordinate clauses (their types and function in the complex sentence) as they are absolutely relevant in order to fully understand the complexity of adverbial clauses. The second chapter examines the adverbial clause as a grammatical construction. Syntactic functions are studied as well as the various sentence structures of adverbial clauses. The third chapter provides a useful framework of semantic types of adverbial clauses. The adverbial clauses significant for the practical part are analyzed and described in a greater detail. Other types are mentioned and an additional source of relevant literature, where these types are expounded, is proffered.

The specialized knowledge acquired in the theoretical part is applied in the practical part. Firstly, the practical part discusses a role the journalistic style plays in the usage of adverbial clauses. This style is further defined; more precisely, its main features and typical structures are listed and annotated.

The research analyzes a corpus of 152 samples of adverbial clauses detected in the journalistic articles. The clauses are clearly divided with regard to their semantic and syntactic functions in the sentence and they are additionally examined. In the introduction to the research a hypothesis is formulated as it suggests that the adverbial clauses of time, purpose and condition are mostly repeated as the journalistic style provides mainly the information when, under which condition and for which purpose

certain news happened. The next chapter is devoted to analyzing and reporting the results of analysis and its summary. Finally, the bachelor thesis is concluded by summarizing the relevant facts of theoretical part and the research findings of practical part.

1. SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

For purposes of an effective and sufficient explanation of the adverbial clauses, it is indispensable to explain a term of a subordinate clause as the adverbial clause belongs to a subcategory of subordinate clauses. This chapter presents significant details of the subordinate clauses, specifically, their meaning and function in the complex sentence, subordinators, and their types are briefly defined and explicated.

1.1 Significance and function of the subordinate clauses

As Quirk et al. claim the subordinate clause may be realized only in so called complex sentences. These sentences contain a matrix (main) clause and one or more subordinate clauses which are fully **dependent** on the matrix one. Actually, the subordinate clause has a function of an element of the sentence. (Quirk et al., 1985, p.987)

Eastwood completes the information about the function of the subordinate clause saying: “A sub clause is part of the main clause, in the same way as a phrase is.” (Eastwood, 2002, p.318) He also gives an example of the subordinate clause fulfilling a function of an adverbial phrase [1] compared to the adverbial clause [2]:

[1] A gust of wind caught him *on the way down*. (Eastwood, 2002, p.318)

[2] A gust of wind caught him *as he fell*. (Eastwood, 2002, p.318)

The examples illustrate that the adverbial clause as well as the adverbial phrase enriches the main clause by the adverbial in terms of providing additional information to the situation in the main clause. The main difference lies in the form. The example [1] is the phrase consisting of a preposition (*on*) and a noun (*the way down*). On the contrary, the example [2] demonstrates the subordinate (adverbial) clause. It has a subject (*he*) and a full verb (*fell*). The clause is introduced by a subordinator *as*, so it is a dependent clause.

Likewise, Greenbaum remarks that the subordinate clause is a part of other clauses and he offers an example demonstrating the subordinate clause as subject or as complement

of a verb. He adds information that they may function also as the constituents of phrases. (Greenbaum, 1996, p.314) Additionally, he offers an example of postmodifier within a noun phrase:

[3] It's caused by two germs *that live together*. (Greenbaum, 1996, p.314)

Greenbaum makes clear that the subordinate clause modifies and adds information about the object of the main clause (*two germs*). It may be noticed that the subordinate clause would not be able to stand on its own as it would not make any sense, unlike the main clause. In this example the dependence (subordination) on the main clause is obvious.

1.2 Subordinators

As mentioned in the chapter 1.1 the subordinate clause is usually marked by an indicator. For a following description of the indicators of subordination, Leech's and Svartvik's division is used, because they provide a detailed classification of them. The chapter provides only a brief introduction of the markers of subordination, since the subordinators relevant for the practical part are covered in the chapters 3.1, 3.2, 3.3.

Biber et al. define the term "subordinator" as: "Subordinators, or subordinating conjunctions, are words which introduce (mainly finite) dependent clauses." Besides, they explain that subordinators hold only a syntactic role so they cannot take a role of sentence elements. (Biber et al., 1999, p.85)

Biber et al. classify the subordinators by the main criteria: The subordinators introducing various types of the clauses (adverbial clauses, degree clauses and complement or nominal clauses). The adverbial clauses are introduced by a greatest number of subordinators and they signify the meaning of the subordinate clause (time, place, condition, etc.). Concerning the degree clauses and complement (or nominal) clauses there are only three subordinators introducing each type of clauses. They also mention the complex and correlative subordinators, but they do not deal with them thoroughly. (Biber et al., 1999, p.85)

In contrast to Biber et al., Leech and Svartvik distinguish between simple, compound and correlative subordinators. The simple subordinators are introduced by a one-word conjunction, e.g. *after, as, before, if, once*, etc. The compound subordinators consist of two or more parts, usually conjunction and ending in *that* (often omitted) or *as*, for

example: *so that, in order that, providing (that), as long as, according as*, etc. The correlative subordinators contain two structures divided by a phrase, for example: *if...then, as...as, whether...or*, etc. (Leech, Svartvik, 2003, p.276)

1.3 Types of subordinate clauses

Regarding the types of subordinate clauses, various authors divide them into many categories, out of which three categories always remain the same: **nominal clauses**, **relative clauses** and **adverbial clauses**. The nominal and the relative clauses are summarily discussed in this subchapter as well as other types the authors mention. The adverbial clauses are alternatively approached in the second chapter of the theoretical part.

Quirk et al. distinguish between four “functional classes of subordinate clauses”: nominal, adverbial, relative and **comparative**. They explain that the nominal clauses have a similar purpose as the noun phrases. Therefore, the nominal clauses function as subject, object, complement, appositive, and prepositional complement in the main clause. These clauses are introduced by either a subordinator *that* or by a *wh*-element, both of them may be omitted. The function of the relative clauses is to modify the noun phrase and they are comparable to adjectives. The comparative clauses have modifying functions as well and they approximate adjectives and adverbs with reference to their function. (Quirk et al., 1985, p.1047-1048)

Biber's et al. division is more complex, they classify the types mentioned above plus **comparative and other degree clauses**, **reporting clauses**, **comment clauses** and **other peripheral clauses**. Information on the nominal clauses is alike to Quirk's et al. Biber et al. emphasize the position of these clauses in the sentence which may differ substantially. As to the relative and comparative clauses they basically explain them as Quirk et al. do. The **reporting clauses** form a part of direct speech (somebody's reports, thoughts). (Biber et al., 1999, p.193-196) For illustration see the example:

[4] *They said*, “Yes sir” and saluted. (Biber et al., 1999, p.196)

They said is the reporting clause as it accompanies the direct speech (“Yes sir”). The clause is fully dependent on the direct speech, *they said* cannot stand on its own, it would form an incomplete sentence.

The **comment clauses** closely resemble the reporting clauses in their form, but they are not fully linked to the main clause. The major difference arises from being more formulaic. (Biber et al., 1999, p.197)

[5] It's a nice approach *I think*. (Biber et al., 1999, p.197)

I think is the comment clause which provides author's comment to the statement in the main clause and it practically expresses their attitude and opinion. The main clause may independently exist without the subordinate one in opposition to the main clause in the previous example [4], which would not make much sense ("Yes sir" and saluted).

Biber et al. note on **other peripheral clauses** claiming that these clauses are most common in conversations: question tags and declarative tags. (Biber et al., 1999, p.197-198)

As mentioned above, many other authors generally make a distinction between three basic types of subordinate clauses: The nominal (often called noun), relative and adverbial clauses. A few authors (Biber et al., Quirk et al.) add other categories (e.g. comment clauses, comparative clauses, etc.) For the purposes of the thesis, it is essential to familiarize with all the types in order to correctly analyze the adverbial clauses and not to mistake them for other subordinate clauses.

To summarize, the beginning of chapter explicated the term "subordinate clause" affirming that it is a clause related to the main clause with no possibility to stand on its own. Equivalently, the function of subordinate clauses was explored as well as diverse subordinators and eventually, the different types of subordinate clauses were explicated.

2. ADVERBIAL CLAUSE

This chapter intends to discover what the term "adverbial clause" means as a grammatical phenomenon in a complex sentence. In addition to that, semantic and syntactic functions are scrutinized. Lastly, the various structures of adverbial clauses are expounded.

2.1 Term adverbial clause and its distinctive qualities

Similarly as the term "subordinate clause" was explained, it is cardinal to reveal what "adverbial clause" expresses. Dušková explains the adverbial clause as: "The adverbial

clauses express the syntactic realization of adverbial as they substitute this sentence element.” (Dušková, 2006, p.627)

Likewise, Eastwood pursues a congruent approach claiming: “An adverbial clause plays the same part in a sentence as other adverbials do.” (Eastwood, 2002, p. 327)

He provides an example indicating the function of the adverbial phrase in comparison to the adverbial clause:

[6] I listen to music *in the car*. (Eastwood, 2002, p. 327)

[7] I listen to music *while I'm driving*. (Eastwood, 2002, p. 327)

The example [6] illustrates the adverbial phrase. It consists of the preposition (*in*) and the noun (*car*). Contrariwise, the example [7] demonstrates the adverbial clause comprising the subordinator (*while*), the subject (*I*) and the verb (*be driving*). But considering the function, both examples have the same – adverbial, which is one of the sentence elements. Put it intelligibly, as explained in the previous chapter, the subordinate clause usually has a function of the sentence element and generally, the adverbial clause has a function of adverbial.

The adverbial clauses have typical distinguishing characteristic features helping to recognize them in a sentence. Biber et al. state that adverbials in general are not limited to the position in the clause (sentence). They may take both initial and final placement. Another property of the adverbial clauses is that they are characterized by a subordinator (see chapter 1.2), which signifies the relationship to the main clause. (Biber et al., 1999, p.194)

Leech adds a more distinctive and fundamental quality of the adverbial clause declaring that it modifies the main clause and it attaches supplementary information concerning the time, place, condition, result, etc. Basically, it determines the circumstances drawn in the main clause. (Leech, 1992, p. 12)

This subchapter clarified that the adverbial clause has a same function in a sentence as the adverbial has in a clause. The clauses are frequently introduced by subordinators, which make them recognizable in the sentence. Their position in the sentence is not inherently limited.

2.2 Structural types of adverbial clauses

The adverbial clauses as well as all subordinate clauses are realized in three structural types: **finite**, **non-finite** and **verbless clauses**. The subchapter aims to provide an explanation of these types. This classification is based on what kind of a verb phrase (if there is) operates as its verb element. (Leech, Svartvik, 2003, p.193)

2.2.1 Finite clauses

Eastwood explains: “A finite clause has a main verb.” (Eastwood, 2002, p. 319)

Downing and Locke interpret this information more specifically telling that these clauses are indicated by either tense or modality (but not both). Modality is denoted by the modal verbs (e.g. can, may). (Downing, Locke, 2006, p.12)

Biber et al. comment on the position of finite adverbial clauses in the sentence describing that these clauses as distributed in different positions as opposed to non-finite clauses (see the next chapter). (Biber et al., 1999, p.883)

[8] He won't be back until ten, *because he's working late*. (Leech, Svartvik, 2003, p. 193)

The example indicates that the verb (*to work*) takes a form of present continuous tense and due to this fact, it is the finite structure.

2.2.2 Non-finite clauses

Again, a simplified explanation of non-finite clause is given by Eastwood: “A non-finite clause has an **infinitive** or a **gerund** or a **participle**.” (Eastwood, 2002, p. 319) If needed, see detailed information on these forms in the chapter 3.56. (Quirk et al., 1985, p.153-154)

This summary is expanded by Quirk et al. who state that the non-finite clauses are absent of tense, modal indicators, often also of the subordinating conjunctions and person and number distinctions, because these clauses lack the subject. They notify that condensation of subject may be problematic within the meaning of ambiguity. (Quirk et al., 1985, p.994-995)

Biber et al. incorporate information concerning the position of non-finite adverbial clauses telling that the majority of these clauses appear in a final position. (Biber et al., 1999, p.831)

As mentioned above, there are three basic forms of non-finite clauses. The infinitive may alter to two forms (to infinitive and bare infinitive), participle consists of two forms (–ing participle, –ed participle). (Leech, Svartvik, 2003, p.193) The example below shows the non-finite form:

[11] *Covered with confusion*, I left the room. (Quirk, Greenbaum, 1973, p. 311)

The example demonstrates –ed participle (*covered*) in the clause without a subject. A reader has to realize that the subject is provided by the main clause (*I*).

2.2.3 Verbless clause

The verbless clause is the last cited structure. This clause holds no verb element and it often lacks a subject. The excluded verb is mainly a form of the verb *to be* and it is recoverable from the background context. (Downing, Locke, 2006, p.15)

Biber et al. add that the verbless clauses are used usually in the written register and they indicate information as less important in communication. (Biber et al., 1999, p.201) For easier comprehension see the example:

[10] Book your tickets well in advance, *whenever possible*. (Downing, Locke, 2006, p.15)

It is noticeable that the subject and the verb element of the subordinate clause are missing but they are recoverable from the context. It may be rewritten as *whenever it is possible*.

The subchapter covered the topic of structural types of adverbial clauses, more precisely: the finite clause (the verb is marked by tense or modality), the non-finite clause (the verb is not marked by tense and modality, lacks a subject) and the verbless clause (the clause absent of the verb element).

2.3 Syntactic function of adverbial clauses

The following chapter explores a syntactic function of adverbial clauses. The syntactic function reveals a sentence element in which the subordinate clause operates. As already known, the adverbial clauses have the function of adverbials in the sentence. Adverbials are further classified into four groups: adjuncts, disjuncts, subjuncts and conjuncts, whereas the adverbial clauses primarily fulfill the function of **adjuncts** and

disjuncts. Nevertheless, conjuncts and subjuncts may be found as well, but only in rare structures described in the chapters 15.18 and 15.19 (Quirk et al., 1985, p.1068-1069)

Actually, Quirk et al. are the only authors focusing on adjuncts and disjuncts in the adverbial clauses. Other authors convey only general views on adjuncts and disjuncts as adverbials, however, these two attitudes are brought together and presented in this chapter.

Quirk et al. declare that concerning the semantic viewpoint, adjuncts express circumstances of the situation described in the main clause. As for the syntactic viewpoint, the position of adjunct clauses may be both initial and final. (Quirk et al., 1985, p.1070)

Radford shares a corresponding idea that adjunct is an element serving to provide supplementary information about time or place (or manner, or purpose etc.) of an activity or an event interpreted in the main clause. (Radford, 2009, p.8)

Čáňová integrates information on adjunct clauses stating that these clauses are to some amount integrated into the sentence. (Čáňová, 2001, p. 14)

Relating to disjuncts, Quirk et al. explain that the function of disjuncts is to make a comment on the style, form or content of what is being said in the main clause. They complete that: “disjuncts are peripheral to the clause to which they are attached.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p.1070)

Börjars and Burridge describe disjuncts as attitude markers as they express the speaker’s attitude towards what is being said and they comment on the whole sentence itself. (Börjars, Burridge, 2010, p.97)

To exemplify both these structures, see the sentences below:

[11] I have been relaxing *since the children went away on vacation*. (Quirk et al., 1985, p.1070)

[12] He took his coat, *since it was raining*. (Quirk et al., 1985, p.1070)

The examples show that the subordinator (*since*) may introduce the various types of adverbial clauses. The clause [11] is the temporal adverb clause, whereas the clause [12] is the reason clause. The main difference lays in the syntactic function. The clause [11] acts as adjunct because it expresses the circumstance of the situation the person has

been relaxing. While the clause [12] illustrates disjunct as it just comments on the content (that he took his coat) in the main clause.

To conclude this chapter, it should be understood that the adverbial clauses fulfill the function of either adjuncts, describing the circumstances of the situation stated in the main clause, or disjuncts, providing the specific comment on style or content in the main clause. All cited authors basically shared the same opinion on the phenomena.

3. TYPES OF ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

The chapter is aimed to investigate a topic of a semantic role of adverbial clauses. Initially, a semantic function of adverbial clauses is examined, then a classification of these clauses is introduced and finally three chosen semantic types of adverbial clauses are described in greater detail. As mentioned in the introduction, other types are named and briefly commented on, with an explanation of particular a choice of those three selected types.

When clarifying the semantic role of adverbial clauses, it signifies that a type of adverbial clause is being recognized. Generally, the type of clause is problematic to identify, because (as was foreshadowed above in the examples [11] and [12]) the same subordinators present clauses with various meaning. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1077)

Eckersley further states that subordinators may not be determined as an objective criterion for the type of clause it introduces, but the purpose the clause accomplishes is essential. (Eckersley, 1966, p. 337)

Many authors categorize the adverbial clauses by contrasting concepts, on the other hand, dissimilarities between them are hardly significant with one noticeable exception. Quirk et al. classify the adverbial clauses as follows: the adverbial clauses of **time**, **contingency**, **place**, **concession**, **contrast**, the **conditional clauses**, the **clauses of exception**, **reason**, **purpose**, **result**, **similarity and comparison**, **proportion**, **preference** and lastly **comment clauses**. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1078-1112)

In opposition to Quirk et al., Eastwood divides the adverbial clauses in this manner: clauses of time, reason, purpose and other adverb clauses (place, manner, comment and truth clauses, clauses of exception, whoever, whatever etc. clauses). Conditional clauses are treated separately in an alternative chapter. (Eastwood, 2002, p.328-333)

Likewise the Quirk et al. division, Greenbaum makes the following distinction: place, temporal, conditional, circumstantial, alternative-conditional, wh-conditional, concessive, reason, purpose, result, manner, proportion and similarity and finally comment clauses. (Greenbaum, 1996, p. 339-346)

Leech et al. sort the adverbial clauses as: the clauses of place, time, manner/comparison, reason, purpose, condition and contrast. (Leech et al., 1983, p.87)

The only exception in the semantic classification of adverb clauses is made by Biber et al.. Concerning the adverbial clauses, they refer to circumstance adverbial clauses, additionally grouped into the clauses of time, place, manner, reason, condition, preference, proportion, and supplementary clauses. (Biber et al., 1999, p.818-820)

To compare all these divisions, one may notice that they are very much alike, but differences may be found. Quirk et al. provide the most complex categorization, but they lack the clause of manner provided by all above-mentioned authors. However, these clauses may be semantically substituted by clauses of similarity and comparison in their division. This suggestion is supported by Leech's et al. classification, because they classify the manner and comparison clauses as only one category. Subsequently, Quirk et al. and Greenbaum are the only authors including the comment clauses. As other authors cover the topic of conditional clauses as a whole, Greenbaum further divides the conditional clauses, alternative-conditional clauses, and wh-conditional clauses. Alexander suggests that: "Adverbial clauses of concession introduce an element of contrast into a sentence and are sometimes called contrast clauses" (Alexander, 2003, p.26), which means that he differs from Quirk et al. who treat these clauses in two categories.

For the purposes of this bachelor thesis, the classification provided by Quirk et al. is used as they impart complex, specialized knowledge of adverbial clauses in a comprehensible way. Certainly, other grammarians' approaches and information are included for the most objective description of a particular topic.

3.1 Temporal adverbial clauses

This chapter aims to discover the function of the adverbial clauses of time and their usage and form in the complex sentence. Throughout the chapter the role of various

subordinators in different structures is described, as well as the time relationship in the sentences.

An adverbial clause of time is a subordinate clause which fulfills the same function in the sentence as an adverb of time does. More precisely, Quirk claims that “an adverbial clause of time relates the time of the situation denoted in its clause to the time of the situation denoted in the matrix clause.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p.1080)

Čáňová remarks that the temporal clauses clarify the time when a situation happens by pointing to a period of time or to another event. (Čáňová, 2001, p. 50)

Likewise, Greenbaum demonstrates the fundamental importance of time in the subordinate clause “the situation in the host clause may occur before that of the temporal clause, at the same time, or at a later time.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p.339)

Quirk et al. reflect the similar attitude towards the time as Greenbaum claiming that the time of the main clause might be previous to, subsequent to, or simultaneous with the time of the subordinate clause. (Quirk et al., 1985, p.1080)

Similarly, Broughton displays a resembling approach: “Adverbial clauses of time express meaning of fixed time, duration and frequency”. (Broughton, 1990, p.38)

The adverbial clauses may take a form of a finite, non-finite or verbless clause. For a following description of subordinators Quirk’s et al. division is used as they demonstrate the most complex division of the subordinators.

Concerning the finite adverbial clauses, they are usually introduced by “*after, as, before, once, since, till, until, when, n~henever, while, whilst, now (that), as long as, so long as, as soon as, immediately, directly.*” (Quirk et al., 1985, p.1078)

Thomson and Martinet add that these clauses may be introduced by *the minute, the moment*. (Thomson, Martinet, 1986, p.301)

Non-finite clauses are further divided into infinitive, participle and gerund structures. For easier orientation, these structures are simplified to groups of –ing, –ed and to-infinitive forms according to Quirk’s et al. division. Relating to –ing structure, they state that adverbial –ing clauses of time are introduced by one of the following subordinators: “*once, till, until, when, whenever, while, whilst*” and in addition, by

prepositions “*after, before, on, and since*”. (Quirk et al., 1985, p.1078) This structure is shown in a given example:

[13] *Once having made a promise*, you should keep it. (Quirk et al., 1985, p.1078)

As referring to –ed structure, Quirk et al. provide information on introducing by subordinators that are also used with finite clauses: *as soon as, once, till, until, when, whenever, whilst*. (Quirk et al., 1985, p.1078)

[14] He slept *while stretched out on the floor*. (Quirk et al., 1985, p.1078)

The last mentioned non-finite structure to explore is to-infinitive clause which tends to have no subordinator. Quirk and Greenbaum further explain that these clauses may fulfill the temporal function and therefore they are classified as the temporal clauses. Due to the fact that these to-infinitive clauses indicate the outcome of the situation, they are called “infinitive clauses of outcome”. (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973, p. 323)

[15] He left, *never to return*. (Quirk et al., 1985, p.1079)

The example indicates that the outcome clauses may be placed only in the final position, otherwise they would not make any sense. One may notice the correspondence between this clause and the result clause which is similar in the meaning. The sentences may be restated by inverting the relationship of subordination using the when- or after-clause. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1079) The reversed sentence may look in such a way: *After he left*, he never returned.

Following verbless adverbial clauses are introduced by subordinators as: *as soon as, once, till, until, when, whenever, while, whilst* which are the same as the subordinators occurring in –ed structure sentences described above. (Quirk et al., 1985, p.1079)

[16] *While in Rome*, be sure to see the Colosseum. (Quirk et al., 1985, p.1079)

Concerning the syntactic function of time clauses, Quirk et al. remark that these clauses function as **adjuncts**, taking mainly the initial position, but on occasion also the medial one. (Quirk et al., 1985, p.1080)

Alexander describes a matter of tenses in the temporal clauses. The first rule does not allow using the future tense after temporal subordinators. In particular, when the temporal clause indicates the future simple, the present simple is used. Additionally, if

the clause of time relates to the future perfect, the present perfect is applied after the subordinator. (Alexander, 2003, p.24)

Downing and Locke agree with this statement claiming that the verb in the temporal clauses does not take *will* or a future perfect form of the verb, but rather a present or past form. (Downing, Locke, 2006, p.294)

This chapter covered the topic of adverbial clauses of time and specifically, it provided the explanation of their meaning and usage in the complex sentence. The various structures of time clauses were described and demonstrated as well as the time relationship detected in these clauses.

3.2 Conditional adverbial clauses

The following chapter explores the role of conditional clauses in the sentence. Diverse types of conditional clauses are specified, also their subordinators, the rules applied on these clauses are formulated along with their structures and semantic features.

Radford defines the conditional clause stating that it is a type of subordinate clause which expresses conditions. (Radford, 2009, p.379)

Greenbaum characterizes it more broadly claiming: “The conditional clauses generally express a direct condition, indicating that the truth of the host clause is dependent on the fulfillment of the condition in the conditional clause.” (Greenbaum, 1996, p.340)

Similarly to Greenbaum, Dušková affirms that the realization of the meaning of the main clause is determined by a fulfillment of the condition described in the subordinate clause and she completes that the conditional clause indicates the connection between cause and consequence. (Dušková, 2006, p. 638)

The conditional clauses are realized in either a **direct** or an **indirect** condition. The direct conditional clauses express that the situation in the main clause is directly dependent on that of the conditional clause and: “the truth of the proposition in the matrix clause is a consequence of the fulfillment of the condition in the conditional clause.” In opposition to the indirect condition which does not show the connection to the situation in the main clause. (Quirk et al., 1985, p.1088-1089) The examples below represent both types of conditions:

[17] *Unless the strike has been called off*, there will be no trains tomorrow.

[18] His style is florid, *if that's the right word*. (Greenbaum, Quirk, 1990, p.316-317)

The example [17] is the direct condition. It fully depends on the main clause and the truth of the situation in the main clause depends on the fulfillment of the condition. Put it simply, if there is no strike, there will be trains tomorrow and vice versa. The example [18] is the indirect condition. There is no visible meaningful connection between the main and the conditional clause. The conditional clause provides a comment on the situation described in the main clause.

When investigating the direct conditional clauses, authors further define whether the condition might be fulfilled or not. Eastwood interprets two types of conditional clauses – open and unreal. He explains that the open conditional clauses indicate the situation which may be or become true. On the contrary, the unreal conditional clauses illustrate an unreal or imaginary situation. (Eastwood, 2002, p.334)

Biber et al. establish another division. They distinguish between **open**, **hypothetical** and **rhetorical** clauses. Relating to open conditions, they clarify that the open condition (often called real) is realized when it is not specified whether the condition is fulfilled or not. As for the hypothetical condition (often called unreal), there is specified that the condition is not fulfilled. At last, the rhetorical conditional clause, which is not very common, is described as a combination of conditional and main clauses which makes a strong assertion. (Biber et al., 1999, p.819) They exemplify the last mentioned structure:

[19] You may think that I want to destroy the milk boards, but *if you believe me that* you will believe anything. (Biber et al., 1999, p.819)

The example shows that the condition is strongly connected to the main clause, since the main clause would not make any sense without the subordinate one. A strong assertion (a recommendation in this case) provided by the conditional clause means that you should not believe that I want to destroy the boards.

Concerning a classification of the indirect conditions, Quirk et al. state: "Indirect conditions are open conditions (that are dependent on an implicit speech act of the utterance) and are therefore style disjuncts." (Quirk et al., 1985, p.1095)

Alike the temporal clauses, the clauses of condition discuss the issue of time reference. As Greenbaum emphasizes, if the condition refers to the future or to the present, the

verb in the conditional clauses takes a form of the past tense. In the main clause, the present conditional verb form (which means *would*, *should*, *could*, *might* and infinitive in present tense) is used. Regarding to the sentence referring to the past, the verb in the conditional clause takes a form of the past perfect tense and past conditional verb form (meaning *would*, *should*, *could*, *might* and past infinitive) is present in the main clause. (Greenbaum, 1996, p.340-341)

Quirk et al. remark that recognizing the difference between the open and hypothetical conditional clauses is crucial as the verbs in the hypothetical conditions are backshifted. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1092)

Quirk and Greenbaum outline that the most frequent subordinators occurring in the conditional clauses are: *if* for a positive condition and *unless* for a negative one. (Quirk, Greenbaum, 1973, p. 324)

Downing and Locke further specify less often subordinators for the positive condition: *and then*, (*and*) *in that case*. Regarding the negative condition, they mention: *otherwise*, *or else*. (Downing, Locke, 2006, p.291)

Quirk et al. list the subordinators used in the finite clauses: *if*, *unless*, *as long as*, *so long as*, *assuming (that)*, *given (that) (formal)*, *in case*, *in the event that*, *just so (that)*, *on condition (that)*, *provided (that)*, *providing (that)*, *supposing (that)*, etc. They stress that a few subordinators integrate a condition with time: *before*, *as long as*, *so long as*, *when*, *whenever*, *once*. (Quirk et al., 1985, p.1089)

As for non-finite (mostly –ed clauses) and verbless clauses, Quirk et al. make clear that only they are introduced only by *if* and *unless*, which are also on a small scale allowed to be used with –ing clause. Verbless if-clauses often contain the subordinate conjunctions *if possible* and *if necessary*, in such a case: “the implied subject is the matrix clause itself (or part of it).” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1090) See the example below summarizing all the topic of conditional clauses:

[20] *Unless otherwise instructed*, you should leave by the back exit. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 1090)

It demonstrates a non-finite –ed participle clause in the direct condition, because the realization of the situation in the main clause again is dependent on the completion of

the condition. Moreover, it is an open condition (it may become true) and also a negative one (introduced by *unless*).

The conditional clauses are linked to the special structural and semantic features. The most often structure in conditional clauses is based on a subject – verb inversion. The subordinator lacks in realization of this structure. (Quirk, Greenbaum, 1973, p. 325)

Eastwood furthermore says that the clauses of condition are used as the short clauses with *if* and without verb. (Eastwood, 2002, p.339) To exemplify, see below:

[22] *If in difficulty*, ring this number. (Eastwood, 2002, p.339)

Actually, the verbless structure may be reversed to the finite structure by adding the subject and verb: *If you are in difficulty*, ring this number.

This chapter observed the conditional clauses in the complex sentence. The meaning and purpose of these clauses were clarified, the formal and categorical distinctions were drawn and the subordinators in the sentence structures were determined. Finally, the structural and semantic features were briefly illustrated.

3.3 Adverbial clauses of purpose

This brief chapter uncovers the topic of clauses of purpose. Firstly, these clauses are explained, then it displays their identifying attributes and lastly, the subordinators within the different sentence structures are specified.

Leech and Svartvik explain that the purpose clause describes “the intended result of purpose of an action.” (Leech, Svartvik, 2003, p.77) Eastwood points out that the purpose clauses are used to signify the purpose of an action or a general purpose of a thing or a specific need. (Eastwood, 2002, p.331)

Quirk and Greenbaum highlight that the clauses of purpose are very common in English registers. They function as adjuncts and are more often found in the infinitive structure than in the finite one. The negative purpose may be expressed as well. (Quirk, Greenbaum, 1973, p. 328)

Greenbaum characterizes finite purpose clauses explaining that they require a modal auxiliary verb, because they signify the situation which has to happen. (Greenbaum, 1996, p.344)

Quirk et al. mention other characteristic features for the purpose clauses. They claim that the implied subject of the infinitive clause might be reversed to the object of the main clause and this infinitive clause may be put into the initial position in case the implied subject is the subject of the main clause. They further debate the topic of the purpose being expressed by an if-clause containing auxiliary verbs *be to* or *be going to*. (Quirk et al., 1985, p.1108) See the example below:

[23] *If I'm to be there on time*, I must leave at once. (Quirk et al., 1985, p.1108)

This purpose clause resembles to the conditional clause. But provided the subordinator *if* and the subject are reduced, it would become again the purpose clause.

Relating to subordinators, Thomson and Martinet say that the clauses of purpose are most frequently expressed by *to*-infinitive. Common subordinate conjunctions present in these clauses are: *in order to* and *so as to*. Both these subordinators are applied in the non-finite (infinitive) clauses. They add that *in order to* is used to stress that the subject had that purpose. (Thomson, Martinet, 1986, p.295) Negative purpose in the non-finite clauses is indicated by the conjunctions: *as not to* and *in order not to*. (Quirk et al., 1985, p.1108)

Quirk et al. comment on finite purpose clauses as less common, may have different subjects and often are introduced by: *so that*, *by so* (informal), *in order that* (formal) and *that* (archaic). Concerning the negative purpose, it is introduced by conjunctions: *in order that . . . not*, *for fear (that)*, *in case*, *lest* (very formal). (Quirk et al., 1985, p.1108)

In this chapter there were examined the clauses of purpose and their distinctive features, the most important part was devoted to the sentence structures and their subordinators.

Third chapter as a whole approached the topic of semantic types of adverbial clauses. In the introduction there were presented all the types, but only three types were closely dealt with – the temporal, conditional and purpose clauses. These particular clauses were selected due to the assertion of Biber et al. that in the news register there are most frequently used the temporal and purpose adverbial clauses. (Biber et al., 1999, p.823) Nevertheless, for purposes of a thorough and detailed research described in the practical part, a pilot research consisted of 50 tokens of adverbial clauses explored in the journalistic articles was conducted. The results showed that among the clauses of time

and purpose, there were repeatedly discovered the conditional clauses. Other types of adverbial clauses were found as well, but in a minimum quantity, which was the reason for a specific choice of the temporal, conditional and purpose adverbial clauses.

If necessary, Quirk et al. provide the reliable source of relevant literature, where all types of adverbial clauses are expounded. (Quirk et al., 1985, p.1078-1127)

4. INTRODUCTION TO THE RESEARCH PART

The chapter introduces the research based on 152 samples of the adverbial clauses of time, condition and purpose. Further, applied methods are described and a hypothesis is formed, examined and evaluated. However, firstly the journalistic style and its basic characteristic features are necessary to define. In the end, the research results are reported.

4.1 Characteristic properties of English journalistic style

As Urbanová and Oakland claim, a principal objective of newspaper writing is not only to inform, but mainly to extract, collate and accurately interpret information and to persuade a reader of its accuracy. Means of language used in the journalistic articles, news or advertisement are purposely applied to develop an interest among readers and to attract their attention. (Urbanová, Oakland, 2002, p. 36)

Likewise, Crystal and Davy say that the newspaper style is extensive and cannot be applied only at the newspapers. They integrate articles of a various topic focus, reviews, ‘imaginative writing’ of different characteristics, advertising, etc. Thus, its main aim to accomplish is to provide information, to report it, but also it is used to draw reader’s attention. Additionally, this style is genuinely eclectic and heterogeneous, altogether a mixture of diverse styles. (Crystal, Davy, 1997, p.173)

Reah divides newspapers into three types: “The broadsheet newspapers (as *The Times* or the *Guardian*), the middle-range tabloids (the *Daily Mail*) and lastly the tabloids (the *Sun*).” Similarly to Crystal and Davy, Reah remarks that the content of newspapers considerably differs. Primary, the newspapers are dedicated to the daily news. Nevertheless, they consistently include comments on current events, analyses, scientific, cultural or environmental articles, entertainment, etc. (Reah, 2003, p.2)

Having considered the *Guardian* the broadsheet, Rundell et al. offer an explanation of this term as the broadsheet is a kind of newspaper which is printed on large sheets of paper and the broadsheet is commonly understood to deliver the more serious and valid news than a tabloid. (Rundell et al., 2002, p.171)

Typical sentence structures applicable for this thesis in the journalistic style are outlined by Galperin declaring: “the shorter the news item, the more complex its syntactical structure.” Galperin integrates information of grammatical peculiarities distinctive to the journalistic style stating that complex sentences are very frequently used in this style as well as the non-finite structures. (Galperin, 1977, p.274)

Regarding to syntactic features in the newspaper style, mainly the past tense is used, sometimes the present tense as well. The most important information is placed in the main clause of a complex sentence. In addition, the main clause often precedes the subordinate clause. (*The Newspaper Style* [online])

Concerning the usage of adverbials (as adverbials fulfill identical function as the adverbial clauses in the sentence do) in the news register, Biber et al. assert that time adverbials are used in order to clarify when the situation happened and these adverbials provide the background information, which leads up to the situation. Apropos of the condition adverbials, they report and explain the condition of the action, described in the article; however, these adverbials are not frequent in the news register, while they are commonly used in the registers dealing with conversation. Finally, purpose adverbials are used to express the purpose connected with feelings or with the events. (Biber et al., 1999, p.785-786) They further add: “Purpose clauses reflect the need for news stories to explain motivations behind events.” (Biber et al., 1999, p.823)

4.2 Purpose of the research and hypothesis

Before giving close attention to the research itself, its form and aim are clarified. In order to properly introduce the undertaken research, it is requisite to familiarize with the corpus consisted of sentences including the adverbial clauses. 152 samples of adverbial clauses were discovered, analyzed and statistically interpreted. The chosen adverbial clauses entirely involve the clauses of time, condition and purpose. As aforementioned,

these semantic types were selected due to the Biber's et al. statement that these semantic types of adverbial clauses are the most frequent in the news register. However, to prove and support their viewpoint, a pilot research of 50 samples of adverbial clauses was pursued and the results confirmed veracity of the Biber's et al. declaration.

152 tokens of these clauses were detected in thirty short journalistic articles of diverse categories of newspaper writing, specifically: daily news (8 articles), sports news (5 articles), culture (4 articles), travelling (5 articles), lifestyle and education (5 articles), and lastly, business and money (3 articles). These specific categories were equally balanced in the corpus (with the daily news articles prevailing since they tend to be shorter) in order to guarantee obtaining reliable data in the analysis. The *Guardian* was the most common source of the articles, considering it a quality and reputable broadsheet newspaper.

In the corpus, the clauses are arranged on the basis of their semantic type and organized according to their structural types and syntactic functions in the sentence. Within the research, the number of occurrence, the time relationship and the usage of tenses, the application of subordinators, the various types of namely conditional clauses (direct, indirect; open, hypothetical) or the position in the complex sentence are closely investigated.

Other types of adverbial clauses were naturally discovered as well, but they were present in a rare occurrence and moreover, these clauses were not prominent for the thesis and therefore they were excluded from the corpus and the research does not focus on them.

The hypothesis is formulated predicting the most frequent occurrence of the temporal clauses and the non-finite structures in the corpus comprised of journalistic articles, since it is substantial to apprehend the **time when** the particular situation happened, because without time information, all articles would become invalid and insignificant. Subsequently, the non-finite structures are arranged for being space-saving in the articles, which is a relevant factor for journalistic style.

While analyzing the articles, a few problematic clauses were encountered and they were a complicated matter to categorize. These clauses were covered in the thesis and further investigated in the following chapters.

The prime and overall research objective is to indentify whether the suggested hypothesis is validated or not. The research part is contingent on the theoretical part which was described in the previous chapters and thus, the knowledge of theory is put into practice.

5. RESEARCH ANALYSIS

The following chapters analyze and report the final research results regarding to the adverbial clauses of time, condition and purpose. The clauses are surveyed and introduced according to their semantic types described in the theoretical part in the same sequence. This part examines the occurrence within the investigated discourse and moreover, the additional features of individual clauses are studied as mentioned above, e.g. the time reference in the temporal clauses or the types of condition in the conditional clauses. All these features are outlined separately in every subchapter devoted to the specific semantic type. The last section examines and assesses the overall results and provides the conclusion to the research part.

5.1 Adverbial clauses of time

Initially, this chapter investigates the temporal clauses which were the most frequently occurring in the corpus. These clauses were discovered 67 times, which comprises 44.1% of the whole corpus of the analyzed adverbial clauses. Concerning the types of articles the clauses were found in, results appeared to differ. The highest occurrence of temporal clauses was observed in the articles dealing with lifestyle and education – 24% of all clauses of time. Cultural news comprises 22%, traveling 18%. Surprisingly, the news and sports news constitute only 16% for both, although they were represented most frequently in the corpus and it is generally known that these articles report on the time-dependent situations. This finding may be based on the fact that the daily news articles are generally shorter, because they are primarily focused on relevant actualities, whereas the articles of lifestyle or education are longer and they contain practical information, not only bare facts. The business and money articles revealed the lowest

number of the temporal clauses, only 4%, which is caused by both the lack of these articles in the corpus and the fact that these articles rather provide an explanation about the condition.

The verb forms of those sentences extensively alter. These clauses take precedence over the other types of adverbial clauses as they were the only being realized by all 3 sentence structures (finite, non-finite and verbless). More precisely, the temporal finite clauses are considered the most common, they were detected 47 times (70% of all temporal clauses), non-finite clauses follow with 15 occurrences (22%) and lastly, verbless clauses were discovered 5 times (8%).

Concerning the non-finite clauses, their overall proportion of 22% was an unexpected finding, since in the journalistic style there would be assumed a more common occurrence, because this style shortens the sentences in order to save space for being able to publish particular information within the concise writing. The non-finite structures economize the space since they do not require attaching the subject of the clause, because the subject is apparent from the context. Regarding to the types of non-finite structures, –ing participle clauses were discovered 12 times (80% of all non-finite clauses), whereas –ed participle clauses only 3 times (20%). The infinitive structures were not detected at all. The examples below summarize all three types of verb structures in the clauses.

8) Birnbacher was not as confident *when he went into the final loop*. (A27)

The example demonstrates the finite temporal clause introduced by the subordinator *when* (the occurrence of subordinators is further discussed later on in this subchapter). All temporal clauses may be identified when putting a question: “when does/did the action in the main clause happen?” A response to this question formulates the subordinate clause itself. When indentifying the temporal clauses, a problem of a possible transition between the adverbial and the relative or the nominal clause was encountered. In order to prevent mistaking, one should realize that the relative clauses are related to nouns and besides, modifying them.

6) The soul singer Adele triumphed on her return to the music stage, collecting six Grammys *after winning every category* in which she was nominated, including album of the year for 21 and best record for Rolling In the Deep. (A1)

X

14) There was an interesting twist at the start of the 16th frame when both players agreed to a rerack before a ball had been potted - and when they were respotted the cagey nature continued until O'Sullivan produced a break of 46. (A28)

The example 6) above presents the non-finite -ing participle clause introduced by the subordinating conjunction *after*. It may be seen that even if this is a non-finite clause, it is not notably space-saving. If the clause were rewritten into the finite structure, it would take the same space: *after she won every category*. The choice of a non-finite structure may be adopted due to avoidance of putting many finite clauses in a row. The underlined clause in the example 14) indicates a relative clause. Although the clause is introduced by the subordinator *when*, the underlined clause postmodifies the noun phrase *the start of the 16th frame*. Due to a possible confusion, one has to be very cautious when analyzing the temporal clause.

42) The 18-year-old, who is originally from Los Angeles, was discovered *while in an arcade*. (A11)

The last mentioned and realized structure is the verbless one as it is indicated in the example above. The clause does not include any verb element, nevertheless, the subject and the verb are logically implied from the context: she was discovered *while she was in an arcade*. This structure is very economical of the space since there is no need to repeat the subject recoverable from the context and therefore this tendency should be commonly used in the journalistic style, but the results showed otherwise.

Regarding to the position of the clause in the sentence, again, the position markedly differs and results are equally represented. 19 clauses (28%) were placed initially, 20 clauses (30%) were located medially and finally, 28 clauses (40%) were found in the final position. See the examples of initially and finally positioned clauses:

63) *Once you're committed*, you have to finish it – there's no easy way off it. (A16)

2) I did not anticipate any of this *when I was writing the book*. (A9)

The first clause displays an initially situated adverbial clause. This clause does not provide any new knowledge, unlike the main clause delivering new information. However, the second clause presents the adverbial clause in the final position. In contrast to the first example, the main clause does not possess new knowledge, whilst the adverbial clause bears the meaning of the whole sentence. According to these findings, it may be suggested that new and advanced information tends to be placed to

the final position, whereas the initially located clause only provides background information. Unexpectedly, this discovery does not identify with assertion from the chapter 4.1 stating that the main clause carries the most important information in the sentence.

Additionally, the emphasis was put on the character of the articles and results were obtained. Generally, the daily news and sports news contained predominantly the adverbial clauses in the final placement, which is consequent upon the objective of news – to inform, but also to entertain the reader. The reader is obliged to read the whole sentence in order to receive the relevant temporal information when the situation happened. Contrarily, the adverbial clauses in the initial position were found mainly in the travelling and cultural articles, which was the same case of the medial position. This conclusion may be caused by the fact that in these articles, temporal clauses rather provide the background context than the salient facts about the time, because temporal information is not so important there.

Temporal clauses counted the most assorted number of the use of subordinators. There were detected 6 various subordinators with the most frequent one - *when* (28 occurrences). The incidence may be related to proposition that *when* introduces not only the news but also the clauses of everyday reality, e.g. *when travelling*. There was a higher occurrence (6 clauses) of missing subordinators. This tendency is possible in the sentences where the temporal clauses are linked by compound conjunction, because the reader is able to deduce it from the context. See the example:

51) When you've worked on it and *you know all the angst* you've had to sort the locations. (A10)

The example demonstrates the clause which is not introduced by the subordinator, nevertheless, it is obvious that the subordinator may be notionally added without changing the meaning of the sentence: *and (when) you know all the angst*.

The syntactic form of the temporal adverbial clauses in the corpus was precisely and exclusively identical. All the clauses were detected as adjuncts therefore it reflects the consensus on Biber's et al. statement in the chapter 2.3. The clauses provide the circumstance giving information about time. There were not found any clauses

commenting on the content or style, thus no disjuncts appeared in the corpus of temporal clauses, which was an expected outcome.

Pertaining to the time reference of temporal clauses, there were discovered only 3 clauses (5%) making reference to the future. Contrariwise, the clauses implying the past and the present were noticed regularly. The most commonly detected – the clauses referring to the past comprises 73% of the corpus of the clauses of time. 22% constitute the category of the clauses relating to the present.

31) The decision means Bulgaria will not take any action concerning Acta *before European Union member states come up with a unified position.* (A2)

The above-stated example demonstrates the temporal clauses indicating the future reference. Although the auxiliary verb *will* is not used, the reader understands the implied connection with the future. The future tense applied in the main clause marks the whole sentence, drawing the distinction of the future reference to the subordinate clause too. Actually, all kinds of news are usually intended to mediate information that already happened, which may be the reason for a lack of the clauses referring to the future, while there was the excess of the clauses relating to the past.

In the corpus of the temporal clauses, there were found a few abnormalities. As illustrated above, the temporal clauses are easily to be exchanged for the relative clauses. Furthermore, the corpus contains some verbless clauses, but they may operate as the adverb phrases. For illustration, see the example:

39) *After the degustation*, we pick out a couple of bottles we like and join the groups of settled-in Czechs upstairs to drink them and chat and listen to Moravian music. (A14)

No verb and no subject are present in the clause in italics, thus it may be considered the adverbial phrase. Nevertheless, this “phrase” is separated from the main clause by a comma. Besides, the reader is able to complete the phrase by adding the verb in the non-finite structure: *After having the degustation*. Hence, the clause was included into the corpus.

To conclude this subchapter devoted to the analysis of the temporal clauses, it provided a description of findings, specifically the overall occurrence, the verbs forms in the clauses, the clause position, the subordinators, the temporal reference, the syntactic forms and the abnormalities in the corpus have been analyzed, demonstrated on the

particular examples and briefly commented on. All these categories were also considered from the point of view of particular types of journalistic articles.

5.2 Adverbial clauses of condition

Subsequently, the conditional clauses are discussed in this chapter. These clauses were detected in the lowest number among three explored types of adverbial clauses – 42 times, creating 27.6% of the corpus. The highest amount of conditional clauses was calculated in the business and money articles (31%) and lifestyle and education ones (26%). The culture and travelling articles follow, both with 14%. As expected, the conditional clauses were not highly discovered in the daily news and the sports news articles. As Biber et al. stated above, the conditional clauses preferably provide information on the condition in the conversational topics, which is the case of the lifestyle, education or business articles. The news and sports news do not emphasize the conditions under which the action happened, they rather present straightforward facts.

The majority of the clauses of condition were found in the finite structures. More precisely, 95% of the conditional clauses were detected as finite. There was not present any non-finite verb form, which is very unusual in the journalistic style which attempts to form the compressed structures. On the other hand, the conditional clauses were identified mainly in the articles focusing on various everyday topics whose main objective is to inform the reader about the topic. These articles do not require shortening; actually they are more extensive than the news stories, which may be the reason for the immense number of the finite structures. Nevertheless, there were discovered 2 cases of verbless structures in the corpus of the conditional clauses (5%).

The vast number of the clauses of condition expresses the direct condition (98%). Only one clause indicates the indirect condition (2%). These results were generally awaited, any condition, provided in the journalistic article, expresses the truth of the situation in the main clause and this truth depends on the fulfillment of the condition. Notwithstanding, the expected number of indirect condition would be higher since the indirect condition comments on the action defined in the main clause and the majority of analyzed articles containing the conditional clauses were more of the conversational character, thus the comments were assumed. Relating to the news and sports news the

tendency of providing mainly factual information is obvious, so the direct conditions are used very frequently in this register.

The syntactic form is connected to the type of condition the clause expresses. Therefore, 98% of conditional clauses are adjuncts, while 2% are recognized as disjuncts. The reason is briefly described in the chapter 3.2 and the reader may presently notice a clear connection between the type of condition and the syntactic form of conditional clauses.

A relatively even distribution was preserved between the open conditions and the hypothetical ones. The open conditions were detected most frequently – 23 times, comprising 55% of the analyzed clauses. The hypothetical conditions occurred 18 times, constituting 43%. One conditional clause expressed the rhetorical condition (3%) and this particular type of condition is shown on the example below:

85) *If French Polynesia's lush tropical paradise does not fulfil the honeymoon remit, what will?* (A13)

The mark of the rhetorical condition is obvious from dependence of the main clause on the subordinate one. The main clause would make no sense without the conditional clause. These clauses generally provide some assertion, in this case: French Polynesia will fulfill the honeymoon remit and if not, then there is nothing else that will.

The balance between the open and hypothetical conditions may be caused by the need for both of the types of conditions, those indicating the situation being or becoming true and the ones illustrating the unreal or imaginary situation. The news stories usually discuss what would change if the particular situation did not happen, which is the case of the hypothetical conditions. In fact, all news and sports news indicated the hypothetical condition (with one exception). In contrast, the open conditions express the condition under which the particular situation will happen/happens/happened and its real consequences, also often clarified in the journalistic features. These conditions were distributed equally among the types of articles, excepting the news stories, as described above.

With regard to the sentence position, 45% of clauses were placed initially, 36% medially and 19% finally. Similarly to the temporal clauses, new information is situated at the end of the whole sentence. Therefore, one notices that the conditional clauses seldom carry the new and important information, as opposition to the main clauses.

108) *If you want to be rated*, you must pay an agency between \$1,500 and \$2,500,000 for the privilege, depending on the size of your company. (A6)

The example presents the conditional clause occupying the initial position. The conditional clause only provides the condition for new information determined in the main clause. The reader already has background knowledge about the rating, hence, there is no need to develop any information on a rated thing.

Throughout the corpus of the conditional clauses, the predominant subordinator *if* creates 76%. There are missing subordinators in 8 clauses (19%) and the subordinator *given* was present in 2 cases (5%) – these clauses are studied individually as they are very specific. Concerning the missing subordinators, an explanation lies in coordinating 2 (or more) conditional clauses on the same level. The subordinator is not repeated in the following clause, because it is easily deduced from the context.

90) If there is no pain and *the rehabilitation goes as scheduled*, a comeback is possible at Kranjska Gora (March 10-11). (A29)

The coordination of 2 conditional clauses is illustrated here. Despite the subordinator is not present, the clause is definitely subordinate and it expresses the condition for a possible comeback, i.e. *if the rehabilitation goes as scheduled*.

91% of conditional clauses express the positive condition. Even though the subordinator *unless* indicating the negative condition was not encountered, the negative conditions occurred in 4 samples of conditional clauses (9%), as the following example shows:

96) You can get five A* to Cs in your exams, but if you go to an interview and you can't shake hands, look someone in the eye and (*if you can't*) *speak in the appropriate register*, you are not going to get the job or place at university. (A21)

The negative condition is created by inserting the negative into the subordinate clause. The clause may be paraphrased as follows: *unless you speak in the appropriate register*.

Regarding to the time reference, the majority of the clauses refer to the present, exactly in 26 cases (62%). The future reference occurred in 13 cases (31%) and surprisingly, the past reference was found only in 3 cases (7%). The results showing the lack of the reference to the past were unexpected, because it is assumed that the news stories retell the action that already happened. The present reference in the conditional clauses means that the whole sentence is either fulfilled in the present or is generally applicable

throughout the time. The second possibility is more applied in the corpus and it is reasonable, because the articles very often contain the conditions valid now, but they were valid in the past, as well as they will be probably valid in the future.

Reiteratively, there were revealed several abnormalities in the corpus of the conditional clauses. Firstly, it has to be explained that in the corpus of temporal clauses there were detected the clauses expressing the condition to some extent, but these clauses were introduced by the subordinator *when* and they express also some temporal relationship and therefore they were not included to the corpus of conditional clauses.

36) *When a pregnant woman is diagnosed with cancer*, she and her family and doctors are faced with difficult decisions about her health and that of her unborn child. (A25)

The subordinate clause actually creates a condition for the main clause, despite it is not introduced by the subordinator *if*. The clause may be paraphrased as follows: *If a pregnant woman is diagnosed with cancer*, without any substantial change in the meaning. The similar examples of these clauses were often encountered and they were integrated into the section of temporal clauses.

When analyzing the subordinators, the results revealed that 2 conditional clauses were introduced by the subordinating conjunction *given*. Both mentioned cases were fairly problematic, as recognizable on the examples:

70) *Given the chocolates were not cheap* I would have expected the decor to reflect a more upmarket feel, making the price seem more justifiable as an affordable luxury. (A18)

86) And *given the long flight*, you will want to stay as long as your wallet allows. (A13)

The example 70) resembles the conditional clause because of the subordinator and the form and tense the main clause uses. Specifically, the past conditional verb form (would plus past infinitive) is present in the main clause and the conditional clause takes a form of the past tense. However, the meaning of the subordinate clause expresses the reason instead. It explains the reason why the person has expected the decor to reflect a more upmarket feel. On the other hand, if the conditional clause is paraphrased, it creates a condition: *If the chocolates were expensive*, I would have expected [...]. For this reason the clause was incorporated into the corpus.

The example 86) defines a corresponding problem. The clause may be analyzed as the reason clause: *Because of the long flight*. On the contrary, the writer maybe intended to express a general condition: *If there was the long flight*, you will want to stay [...], which would concern any long flight. The example is ambiguous, but due to the above-stated explanation, the clause is covered in the corpus.

This chapter revealed the results of the analysis of the temporal clauses and it offered a possible clarification of findings. The overall occurrence, the various types of condition, the forms of verbs in the clauses, the position of the clause, the occurrence of subordinators, and the time reference were analyzed and interpreted. The abnormal cases were studied and their integration into the corpus was explained. The practical examples demonstrated the findings in simplified representation.

5.3 Adverbial clauses of purpose

Finally, this chapter analyzes the clauses of purpose, the second most frequently occurring adverbial clauses within the corpus. 43 cases of purpose clauses were detected, comprising 28.3% of the whole corpus. A dispersion of the clauses in various types of journalistic articles is considerably equal, with the exception of the daily news containing a slightly prevailing number of clauses of purpose. This tendency is based on the need of news to clarify and interpret the action and motivations behind events, as Biber et al. assumed.

With reference to the chapter 3.3 there was expected that the greatest number of purpose clauses forms the non-finite structures. Certainly, the clauses expressed by to-infinitive structures were detected in 41 of 43 tokens, creating 95% of these clauses. Only 2 clauses were realized by the finite structures (5%).

In connection with the structures of the verbs in the clauses, the subordinators distinguished in the corpus hardly varied as well. The great preponderance of the clauses is introduced by to-infinitives – 70%. Following, the subordinator *in order to* was discovered in 9 clauses, constituting 20% of the purpose clauses. Lastly, the subordinator *so that* was present in 2 cases, comprising 5%. Two clauses with a missing subordinator were discovered, nevertheless, the subordinator may be determined from

the context. The last mentioned subordinator was detected also in the news stories, which presumes that these articles should prevent ambiguity so the subordinator using for expressing different subjects is applied. For an illustration see the examples:

135) The chancellor, Angela Merkel, cancelled a trip to visit the Italian premier, Mario Monti, *in order to deal with the fallout*. (A3)

147) Passengers were faced with busy queues on Friday morning at immigration checkpoints in Heathrow's Terminal 5, according to BA, which subsequently sent out a memo to cabin crew *so that they could inform passengers of potential delays on arrival*. (A8)

The clause 135) is expressed by to-infinitive and it holds the subordinator *in order to*. Since this subordinator is not very formal, it is used very frequently in the various journalistic articles. The subject of the subordinate clause is omitted, but the reader distinguishes it from the whole sentence - the chancellor, Angela Merkel. The second clause 147) is formed in the finite structure, introduced by the subordinator *so that*, used when the subject of the main clause and the subject of the subordinate clause differ. Although the subject of the clause of purpose is expressed by the pronoun *they*, the reader probably understands that the pronoun represents the noun phrase "*cabin crew*", but despite the use of *so that*, the ambiguity is not avoided, because the pronoun *they* may stand for both the *cabin crew* and the abbreviation *BA*.

The theoretical part mentioned the possibility of encountering the negative purpose. In fact, the corpus contains one example of the negative purpose:

125) More than 4,000 people marched in the capital Sofia last Saturday calling on parliament *not to ratify the act*. (A2)

The example illustrates the negative condition created by inserting *not* in front of the infinitive of the subordinate clause. Actually, the clause is semantically problematic, because it does not express the purpose only. The reader may ask: Why were they calling on parliament? Considering the question, the subordinate clause would state the reason. On the other hand, the more presumable question would be: For which purpose were they calling on parliament? The answer predicts that the people do not want the parliament to ratify the act.

Relating to the position of the clauses in the sentences, the most of the clauses was placed in the final (49%) and the medial (42%) positions, as was expected. The initial

position of the purpose clause is not frequent, because the sentence is not often begun by the infinitive and the clauses placed initially were found in 9%. Additionally, when considering new information in English, it is usually situated to the end of the sentence. Therefore, many purpose clauses in the corpus carry new information.

133) *To discover other wines*, the next day we take a leisurely two-hour walk along the River Dyje to Hnanice, a small, hamlet with a pretty little church, and a hill lined with wine cellars. (A14)

150) In fact, the holiday was almost a metaphor for a good relationship: spend time apart *in order to appreciate time together*. (A17)

Firstly, in the clause 133) the purpose clause is situated initially and does not provide any new information, because it is based on the former knowledge from the article focusing on wines. The main clause describes a new situation of taking a leisure walk along the River Dyje. The example 150) demonstrates the purpose clause placed finally. The main clause discusses the issue of the holiday, which was mentioned previously in the article, whereas the subordinate clause contains new information on appreciating time together.

Pertaining to the syntactic form, all the samples of purpose clauses function as adjunct, which corresponds with the statement of Biber et al. from the chapter 3.3. These clauses purely provide supplementary information about the purpose.

Both chapters discussed abnormalities revealed within the corpus and the clauses of purpose are not exceptional in this viewpoint. Many clauses do not express the true purpose and they resemble other semantic types of subordinate clauses according to the meaning they interpret. As aforementioned, several purpose clauses approximate the reason clauses. Additionally, the clauses having the identical form as the purpose clauses were detected, nonetheless their meaning extensively varied.

116) O'Sullivan hit back with a 96 clearance *to reduce the gap to two frames*, then picked up the next one to trail by just one. (A28)

118) He says it offers a great opportunity *to influence government policy*. (A19)

139) Imagine our surprise when we walked into our local, the Devonshire Hotel, *to find Daniel Radcliffe* sitting there. (A10)

The clause 116) is introduced by to-infinitive and its meaning expresses the purpose for which he hit back, hence the clause belongs to the corpus. On the other hand, the clause

reflects an outcome the main clause has on the subordinate clause: He hit it and therefore he reduced the gap, thus the clause may pertain to the corpus of temporal clauses as well. The example 118) should be excluded from the corpus, because it is not a purpose clause, even though the form is the same. The clause in italics postmodifies the noun phrase *great opportunity*, forming the relative clause. Finally, the sample 139) does not express any purpose as well. We did not walk into our local to find Daniel Radcliffe, we walked into our local and we found him, which establishes a relation of coordination. However, to illustrate the complexity of the subordinate clauses, the clauses were included to the corpus.

The chapter analyzed the clauses of purpose in the corpus and more specifically, the percentage of overall occurrence, the forms of verbs in the clauses in connection with the occurrence of subordinators, the negative purpose, the position of the clause and the syntactic form. The peculiar cases were exemplified and their incorporation to the corpus was clarified.

5.4 Overall research results

Relating to the research findings, the stated hypothesis proved to be verified only partly. The temporal adverbial clauses were recognized as the most frequent semantic type in the corpus, notwithstanding the structural type did not correspond to the expected results and the most frequent structural type proved to be the finite structure.

Generally, the finite structure was detected as the most common, specifically in 89 clauses of 152 (59%). The results revealed that the finite structures are used in the journalistic style despite this style tends to shorten the sentences. The non-finite structure was discovered in 56 clauses (37%), but a large number of this structure is constituted by to-infinitives analyzed in the purpose clauses. These structures were probably limited in order to eliminate ambiguity which is not required in the articles, because the reader should not be distracted by uncomprehending the story, which may be caused by using the non-finite structures. These structures should be used provided there is no chance to misunderstand the message of the story. The verbless clauses occurred 7 times in the corpus (4%) and the majority of them were identified within the corpus of temporal clauses.

Concerning the position of the clause in the sentence, 38% of all clauses took the final position, 35% were positioned medially and 27% of clauses were placed initially. The findings suggest that the adverbial clauses may carry new or significant information which is usually placed in the final clause. The temporal clauses were the ones most frequently found in the final position, which predicts that the temporal clauses often express new information, whereas the conditional clauses (positioned finally only 8 times) rather provide background information of the sentence. The purpose clauses were predominantly placed finally as well as the temporal clauses (21 times) and therefore the explanation for the final positioning remains corresponding to the one for the temporal clauses.

The syntactic form was alike throughout the corpus; the syntactic form of the clause was expressed by adjunct in 99% of cases. Disjunct was found only in one case, in the conditional clause commenting on the content of the sentence. The corpus almost exclusively consisted of adjuncts is explained by the fact that all analyzed clauses of time, condition and purpose provide supplementary information about the time, condition and purpose of a situation interpreted in the main clause and this information is valuable for the journalistic style.

All the results of the individual semantic types of adverbial clauses were discussed in the previous chapters and only key findings are further summarized in the conclusion.

CONCLUSION

As coming to a conclusion, the results of the research are recapitulated in connection with the theoretical part. The purpose of the bachelor thesis was to examine the use of adverbial clauses in the journalistic style. The theoretical part provided all essential knowledge by studying linguistic literature, relevant for analyzing the results in the practical part. The corpus containing 152 samples involving the adverbial clauses of time, condition and purpose was specifically selected from thirty short journalistic articles of diverse categories of journalistic writing.

The hypothesis has proposed the most frequent occurrence of the temporal and the non-finite clauses within the studied corpus, because the time when the situation happened is

crucial to apprehend, since without time information, all the news would be incomplete, invalid and insignificant. Additionally, the non-finite clauses form shortened structures without the subject and therefore they save space, which is a relevant factor for the journalistic style. The principal objective of the thesis was to conduct the research, either affirming the validity of the hypothesis or rejecting it.

Primary, the corpus of adverbial clauses was categorized according to the semantic type, the structure of the clause and the syntactic function, as may be noticed in Appendix 1. The number of occurrence was considered however, the corpus is arranged systematically according to the semantic type and in the same order as described in the theoretical part (firstly temporal, then conditional and lastly purpose clauses). Subsequently, all selected clauses were examined relating to the overall occurrence, the structure of clauses, the position of the clause in the sentence, the use of subordinators, the temporal reference (only concerning the temporal and conditional clauses), type of the expressed condition and the negative condition and purpose.

Nevertheless, with reference to the findings results, the stated hypothesis was verified only in part, because the temporal clauses recorded the most frequent occurrence from all analyzed semantic types, but the non-finite structures were less common. In regard to the occurrence, the temporal clauses were followed by the purpose clauses which were realized mainly in to-infinitive structures. The conditional clauses, mainly forming the finite structures represented the least frequent semantic type. The assumption stating that the non-finite clauses would be most frequent has been based on shortening the articles in order to provide much information within less space, but the clauses were realized in the finite structures more often, because they avoid ambiguous reference which is inconvenient in the journalistic articles.

As stated above, the research was supported by the linguistic literature studied in the theoretical part and the majority of the statements declared by linguistic experts were confirmed in the practical part, e.g. the high usage of various subordinators in the temporal clauses or expressing the purpose mainly by to-infinitives. Moreover, the results were briefly considered from the viewpoint of different types of journalistic articles (the daily news, sports news, culture, travelling, business and money and lastly lifestyle and education articles) and interesting findings were revealed.

The theoretical part firstly examined the subordinate clauses, because the adverbial clauses are their indispensable parts, then, the characteristic features of adverbial clauses were introduced and eventually, the theoretical part provided a useful framework of semantic types of adverbial clauses appearing in the journalistic style more precisely, the emphasis was put on the clauses of time, condition and purpose which were studied in detail, because they were prominent for the practical part.

The specialized knowledge acquired in the theoretical part was put into use in the practical part. Firstly, this part investigated the role of the journalistic style, its typical structures and characteristic features. The findings of the individual chapters were described above and additionally, a few problematic cases of subordinate clauses were encountered, which were a complicated matter to classify. These clauses were covered in the research and further investigated in order to offer a complex view on the topic.

To conclude this thesis, the most importantly occurring adverbial clauses in the journalistic style are considered the clauses of time, purpose and condition, because when, under which condition and for which purpose specify the situation described in the main clause and these adverbial clauses complete the information concerning the time, condition and purpose which has to be stated, because there is a demand for precise and accurate information in the journalistic style so that the reader would not be perplexed and distracted by searching for the information.

RESUMÉ

Tato bakalářská práce se věnuje problematice užívání vedlejších vět příslovečných v anglickém žurnalistickém stylu. Studuje výskyt individuálních sémantických typů příslovečných vět v anglických žurnalistických textech (internetových článcích), které jsou následně klasifikovány a analyzovány. Dílčí typy příslovečných vět jsou dále studovány též ze syntaktického hlediska, tudíž se práce zabývá i funkcí, kterou tyto věty realizují v celém souvětí. Dalším, v diskursu zkoumaným, jevem je struktura těchto příslovečných vět, tedy systém, jakým jsou tyto věty uskutečněny. Cílem této práce je zhodnotit, na základě analýzy, jaké druhy vedlejších vět příslovečných se v anglickém žurnalistickém stylu objevují vůbec nejfrekventovaněji a zhodnotit i důvod pro tuto četnost výskytu. S ohledem na žurnalistický styl bylo zjištěno, že jedna

z nejdůležitějších vlastností tohoto stylu je poskytnout co možná nejpresnější informace o situaci, kterou článek popisuje. Na základě tvrzení Bibera a kol. a předem provedeného pilotního výzkumu, čítajícího 30 vedlejších vět příslovečných detekovaných v žurnalistických člancích, bylo zjištěno, že v tomto stylistickém registru jsou právě nejčastěji se vyskytující věty časové, podmínkové a účelové, jelikož popisují a naznačují informace kdy, za jakých podmínek a za jakým účelem v souvětí vyjádřená situace nastala. Na základě této úvahy byly pro analýzu provedenou v praktické části, vybrány pouze věty časové, podmínkové a účelové.

Práce je členěna do dvou signifikantních částí. Do části teoretické, která popisuje teoretické poznatky relevantní pro následný výzkum provedený v části druhé, tj. praktické. V obecném úvodu je vysvětlen námět práce, stejně tak její struktura a cíl. První kapitola teoretické části se zabývá vedlejšími větami, které je možné zaznamenat v anglické syntaxi. Vysvětluje jejich důležitost, popisuje podřadící spojky a závěrem i typy vedlejších vět. Kapitola je nezbytná pro správnou identifikaci vět příslovečných, jelikož mohou být lehce zaměněny na jiný typ, vedlejších vět například za věty vztažné.

Druhá kapitola se již zabývá příslovečnými větami v souvětí. První podkapitola vyjasňuje, co odborný výraz „vedlejší věta příslovečná“ znamená, ilustruje její typické charakteristické vlastnosti a roli, kterou tato věta hraje v celém souvětí v kontrastu s větou hlavní. Dále také vysvětluje pozice, ve kterých tato věta může být realizována. Druhá podkapitola poskytuje informace o strukturálních typech rozlišitelných v příslovečných větách (o určitých nebo o neurčitých tvarech slovesných, či o neslovesných větách). Poslední podkapitola interpretuje syntaktickou funkci příslovečných vět, která může být realizovaná buď jako adjunct, který popisuje okolnosti situace vyjádřené v hlavní větě, nebo jako disjunct, který komentuje a hodnotí styl či formu výroku či stavu v hlavní větě. Dále jsou charakterizovány důležité znaky obou forem.

Poslední kapitola teoretické části specifikuje dané typy příslovečných vět ze sémantického hlediska, což znamená z hlediska jejich významu. Nejdříve osvětluje roli sémantických typů vět a podřadících spojek, dále jsou popsány obecné klasifikace těchto druhů vět z pohledu různých autorů. Práce upřednostňuje klasifikaci založenou

na gramatice Quirka a kol., jelikož je nejkomplexnější a poskytuje specializované znalosti srozumitelným způsobem. Následující podkapitoly se již zabývají vybranými typy vedlejších vět příslovečných, jmenovitě větami časovými, podmínkovými a účelovými. Tyto podkapitoly obsahují základní charakteristiku, vysvětlení funkce, kterou daný typ věty plní v souvětí, uvádí seznam podřadicích spojek typických pro typ věty, popisuje pozici věty i syntaktickou funkci. Časové a podmínkové věty jsou doplněny o informace o časovém odkazování, podkapitola podmínkových vět řeší problematiku přímých a nepřímých podmínek, stejně tak vysvětluje podmínky otevřené, čili reálné, hypotetické (nereálné) a rétorické. Pro ilustraci problematiky a následné snazší pochopení jsou různé gramatické termíny a jevy diskutované v teoretické části znázorněny na příkladech, které jsou následně vysvětleny. Teoretická část poskytuje relevantní informace, které jsou poté převedeny do praxe v části praktické, z čehož plyne, že teoretická část společně se zkoumaným vzorkem tvoří základ pro výzkum provedený v praktické části.

Praktická část se sestává ze dvou kapitol, které mají za úkol představit výzkum. Čtvrtá kapitola se zabývá popisem typických znaků a struktur anglického žurnalistického stylu, na jehož základě byly příslovečné věty zohledňovány. Dále kapitola pojednává o výzkumu samotném, představuje její metodologii, čímž popisuje, jak celý proces výzkumu probíhal. Je uvedena hypotéza, která předpokládá, že nejčastěji se vyskytující příslovečnou větou v daném korpusu je věta časová a neurčitý slovesný tvar, jelikož žurnalistický styl, a pak primárně registr aktuálních zpráv, je závislý na časové informaci situace popsané v článku, bez níž by se celý článek stal irelevantním. Dodatečně, tento styl má sklon k co nejúspornějšímu zkracování vět za účelem poskytnutí co nejrozsáhlejších informací, což neurčité slovesné věty splňují, jelikož nenesou předmět věty. Následně je popsán korpus, který byl vytvořený za účelem analýzy k tomuto výzkumu. Korpus je složen ze 152 příslovečných vět, složených výhradně z vět časových, podmínkových a účelových. Dané věty byly roztříděny na základě jejich sémantické funkce, větné formy a syntaktického typu a jednotlivé typy jsou popsány v pořadí, ve kterém s nimi zabývala teoretická část. Vzorky příslovečných vět byly detekovány v třiceti krátkých žurnalistických článcích různého druhu, jmenovitě články aktuálních zpráv, sportovních zpráv, články zabývající se kulturou, články o životním stylu a vzdělání, články o cestování a poslední články diskutující

problematiku obchodu a peněz. Tyto kategorie byly v korpusu vyváženy, aby nedocházelo ke zkreslování výsledků výzkumu. Bylo poznamenáno, že v člancích byly nalezeny věty, které byly problematické na jejich klasifikaci, nicméně byly zařazeny do korpusu, aby poskytly komplexnější pohled na problematiku příslovečných vět.

Pátá kapitola se věnuje výsledkům analýzy provedeného výzkumu. Kapitola je rozdělena do čtyř menších podkapitol, v nichž jsou diskutované jednotlivé výsledky s ohledem na dílčí sémantické typy. Poslední podkapitola shrnuje celý výzkum, rekapituluje a interpretuje kompletní zjištění a jeho finální výsledky a přináší komparaci teoretických poznatků s praktickými zjištěními a aplikuje je na žurnalistický styl a typy článků.

Z výsledků výzkumu bylo zjištěno, že nejčastěji se objevující typ příslovečné věty v anglickém žurnalistickém stylu je vedlejší věta časová, která byla detekována 67krát, což tvoří 44.1% celého korpusu. Následuje vedlejší věta účelová, která se objevila 43krát a tím čítá 28.3% všech vět podrobených analýze. Poslední, nejméně se vyskytující věta byla větou podmínkovou, vyskytující se v 42 případech, což sestává 27.6% korpusu. Tento výsledek potvrdil jednu část hypotézy, že nejfrekventovanější větou v korpusu je příslovečná věta časová. Důvod byl vysvětlen výše a je totožný i v praxi. Následně ze zjištění vyplývá, že většina zkoumaných vět je formována do určitých tvarů slovesných, což bylo uskutečněno v 89 případech, sestávajících se téměř výhradně z vedlejších vět časových a podmínkových. Naopak, majorita účelových vět je realizována prostřednictvím neurčitých slovesných tvarů, jelikož tyto věty jsou téměř vždy uvedeny infinitivem. Celkově se tyto tvary v korpusu objevily 56krát, z toho 41krát pouze v účelových větách. Neslovesné formy vět byly detekovány 7krát, přičemž 5 v korpusu vět časových a 2 v korpusu vět podmínkových. Na rozdíl od první části hypotézy, která se potvrdila, druhá část byla výzkumem vyvrácena. Neurčité slovesné tvary nebyly zjištěny nejčastěji, jelikož jejich aplikace může být příčinou mnohoznačnosti a nepřesného si vyložení situace, což je zcela v rozporu s cílem žurnalistického stylu, který má primárně za úkol zprostředkovat informaci co nejpresněji a nejpochopitelněji. Neurčité tvary proto mohou být užity jen za podmínky, kdy si autor je naprosto jistý, že čtenáři nemusí čelit riziku nejednoznačné interpretace významu věty a následkem toho nepochopení celého obsahu zprávy.

Zjištění týkající se pozice věty v souvětí odhalila, že nejvíce vět je postaveno finálně, tj. 57 případů. Naopak, počáteční umístění ve větě bylo nejméně frekventované, v 42 případech. Střední pozice vět v souvětí se vyskytovalo také hojně, konkrétně v 53 větách korpusu. Z těchto výsledků vyplývá, že vedlejší věty příslovečně často nesou novou a relevantní informaci, která je v anglické větě typicky umístěna na samý konec souvětí, což se neshoduje s tvrzením lingvistů popsáním v kapitole 4.1.

Syntaktická funkce vět byla téměř jednotná, 151 vzorků ve větě funguje jako adjunct, zatímco pouze v 1 případě byl objeven disjunct, komentující na styl dané věty. Toto zjištění je shodné s tvrzením gramatiků, kteří prohlašují, že jak věty časové, tak věty podmínkové a účelové jsou realizovány jako adjuncty.

S odkazem na výše uvedené výsledky provedeného výzkumu, který si kladl za cíl zmapovat výskyt vedlejších vět příslovečných v anglickém žurnalistickém stylu, lze usuzovat, že nejfrekventovaněji používanými vedlejšími větami v tomto stylu jsou věty časové, účelové a podmínkové (v tomto pořadí), jelikož poskytují informace o času, podmínce a účelu, k uskutečnění situace popsané hlavní větou. Z výsledků tedy vyplynulo, že hypotéza se neverifikovala, jelikož bylo vyvráceno, že neurčité slovesné věty se vyskytují v tomto registru vůbec nejčastěji.

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APPENDICIES

Appendix 1 - Samples used in the analysis of adverbial clauses

TEMPORAL CLAUSES

- 1) The Handmaid's Tale has not been out of print *since it was first published, back in 1985*. (finite, adjunct) **A9**
- 2) I did not anticipate any of this *when I was writing the book*. (finite, adjunct) **A9**
- 3) I began this book almost 30 years ago, in the spring of 1984, *while living in West Berlin*. (non-finite, -ing participle, adjunct) **A9**
- 4) *Once you've been intrigued by a literary form*, you always have a secret yen to write an example of it yourself. (finite, adjunct) **A9**
- 5) *When asked* whether The Handmaid's Tale is about to "come true", I remind myself that there are two futures in the book, and that if the first one comes true, the second one may do so also. (non-finite, -ed participle, adjunct) **A9**
- 6) The soul singer Adele triumphed on her return to the music stage, collecting six Grammys *after winning every category* in which she was nominated, including album of the year for 21 and best record for Rolling In the Deep. (non-finite, -ing participle, adjunct) **A1**
- 7) Another surprise came *when Bon Iver took the Grammy for best new artist ahead of Nicki Minaj*, who had been widely expected to win. (finite, adjunct) **A1**
- 8) Birnbacher was not as confident *when he went into the final loop*. (finite, adjunct) **A27**
- 9) However, Maguire - who whitewashed Shaun Murphy and John Higgins en route to the final - pulled level in the second frame *after easing to a confident 130 break*, the highest of the tournament so far. (non-finite, -ing participle, adjunct) **A28**
- 10) He followed up with an equally assured 106 in the third and then produced a 128 to move 3-1 ahead *after finding himself snookered from the break*. (non-finite, -ing participle, adjunct) **A28**
- 11) A scrappy sixth frame went the way of O'Sullivan *before a 55 helped Maguire restore his three-frame lead*. (finite, adjunct) **A28**
- 12) *Soon after it was 8-6*, he looked well placed to wrap up victory when he produced a break of 43 in the 15th frame. (finite, adjunct) **A28**
- 13) *Soon after it was 8-6*, he looked well placed to wrap up victory *when he produced a break of 43 in the 15th frame*. (finite, adjunct) **A28**
- 14) There was an interesting twist at the start of the 16th frame when both players agreed to a rerack *before a ball had been potted* - and when they were respotted the cagey nature continued until O'Sullivan produced a break of 46. (finite, adjunct) **A28**

- 15) There was an interesting twist at the start of the 16th frame when both players agreed to a rerack before a ball had been potted - and when they were respotted the cagey nature continued *until O'Sullivan produced a break of 46*. (finite, adjunct) **A28**
- 16) However, *after Maguire had missed the blue*, O'Sullivan wrapped up the 16th frame, which lasted nearly 40 minutes, and the match. (finite, adjunct) **A28**
- 17) *Once they had hooked people's heads up to computers*, presented them with menus and studied their eye movements, the researchers found that participants read menus sequentially from left to right, like books. (finite, adjunct) **A22**
- 18) Once they had hooked people's heads up to computers, *presented them with menus* and studied their eye movements, the researchers found that participants read menus sequentially from left to right, like books. (finite, adjunct) **A22**
- 19) Once they had hooked people's heads up to computers, presented them with menus *and studied their eye movements*, the researchers found that participants read menus sequentially from left to right, like books. (finite, adjunct) **A22**
- 20) For many couples, a honeymoon spent basking in the sun is the perfect respite *after hectically planning a wedding*. (non-finite, -ing participle, adjunct) **A13**
- 21) *After a few days exploring sites such as Corcovado mountain, home to the Christ the Redeemer statue, and samba dancing in the soulful Lapa neighbourhood*, head 100 miles northeast for a few days in Buzios, a beach town that moves to the beat of a slower-moving drummer. (non-finite, -ing participle, adjunct) **A13**
- 22) There is an all-inclusive resort for every budget, from sophisticated Playa del Carmen to coast-hugging Tulum, where the Mayan ruins are spectacular and spiritual — *especially when viewed from the water*. (non-finite, -ed participle, adjunct) **A13**
- 23) Kostelic limped away *after winning Sunday's World Cup super-combined race at the Russian resort of Krasnaya Polyana* which will host races at the 2014 Sochi Winter Olympics. (non-finite, -ing participle, adjunct) **A29**
- 24) World Cup holder Maria Hoefl-Riesch took her first victory of the Alpine ski season *when she beat Lindsey Vonn* to win the women's super-combined in St Moritz. (finite, adjunct) **A30**
- 25) Victory is even sweeter *when you have been waiting for it*. (finite, adjunct) **A30**
- 26) Modeling is a seemingly glamorous profession, and models are certainly not the people you picture *when you think of bad working conditions*. (finite, adjunct) **A23**
- 27) *When I entered the business as a 14-year-old schoolgirl*, I was routinely asked to do topless shoots and pose seductively. (finite, adjunct) **A23**
- 28) I was paid the outstanding earnings they owed me only *after my lawyer threatened legal action*. (finite, adjunct) **A23**
- 29) Designers of America (CFDA), aims to protect models from invasive photography *while they are naked* and changing backstage at New York Fashion Week. (finite, adjunct) **A23**

- 30) Designers of America (CFDA), aims to protect models from invasive photography while they are naked *and changing backstage at New York Fashion Week*. (non-finite, -ing participle, adjunct) **A23**
- 31) The decision means Bulgaria will not take any action concerning Acta *before European Union member states come up with a unified position*. (finite, adjunct) **A2**
- 32) *When I interviewed Sergei Polunin just before Christmas* I certainly got no sense that he was about to do a runner from the Royal Ballet. (finite, adjunct) **A12**
- 33) August was previously a headteacher of Manchester Academy, where she forbade pupils from using the word "innit" *when talking to teachers*. (non-finite, -ing participle, adjunct) **A21**
- 34) *When people go on the phone* or talk to anyone in authority they put on a different voice. (finite, adjunct) **A21**
- 35) When people go on the phone *or talk to anyone in authority* they put on a different voice. (finite, adjunct) **A21**
- 36) *When a pregnant woman is diagnosed with cancer*, she and her family and doctors are faced with difficult decisions about her health and that of her unborn child. (finite, adjunct) **A25**
- 37) Researchers in the Lancet Oncology journal report that they have followed the progress of 70 children whose mothers had chemotherapy *while they were in the womb* – and their findings are reassuring. (finite, adjunct) **A25**
- 38) Although she and her husband had been trying for a second child, *when she went for the consultation* that would confirm her breast cancer, she did not feel pregnant. (finite, adjunct) **A25**
- 39) *After the degustation*, we pick out a couple of bottles we like and join the groups of settled-in Czechs upstairs to drink them and chat and listen to Moravian music. (verbless, adjunct) **A14**
- 40) *After a slew of shows last New York fashion week* – and a brilliant catwalk strut for Vivienne Westwood's Red Label collection in London in September – Free is now taking the Big Apple runways by storm. (verbless, adjunct) **A11**
- 41) *After a slew of shows last New York fashion week – and brilliant catwalk strut for Vivienne Westwood's Red Label collection in London in September* – Free is now taking the Big Apple runways by storm. (verbless, adjunct) **A11**
- 42) The 18-year-old, who is originally from Los Angeles, was discovered *while in an arcade*. (verbless, adjunct) **A11**
- 43) The German president, Christian Wulff, has resigned *after being caught up in a corruption scandal* involving a dubious loan, an apparent attempt to block a report in a German tabloid and a string of apparently undeclared freebies. (non-finite, -ing participle, adjunct) **A3**

- 44) That was followed in January by intense criticism over a furious call he made to the editor of Bild, Germany's biggest-selling newspaper, *before it reported on the loan*. (finite, adjunct) **A3**
- 45) Wulff was a deputy leader of Merkel's conservative Christian Democratic Union *before he became president*. (finite, adjunct) **A3**
- 46) During filming there was much excitement locally *when "Harry Potter" was spotted*. (finite, adjunct) **A10**
- 47) Imagine our surprise *when we walked into our local*, the Devonshire Hotel, to find Daniel Radcliffe sitting there. (finite, adjunct) **A10**
- 48) Even though I had read the script loads of times, *when I saw it on film* I finally realised why you see the chair rocking. (finite, adjunct) **A10**
- 49) He laughs long and hard at me *when I tell him* I could not watch most of the film because I was so petrified. (finite, adjunct) **A10**
- 50) *When you've worked on it* and you know all the angst you've had to sort the locations. (finite, adjunct) **A10**
- 51) When you've worked on it and *you know all the angst* you've had to sort the locations. (finite, adjunct) **A10**
- 52) We learned of the farm children, long ago, who had to be tied to trees to stop them falling off cliffs *when the parents were away* working in the fields. (finite, adjunct) **A15**
- 53) The temperature outside was -1°C and seeing an ice cream cabinet *as I walked in* seemed a little strange. (finite, adjunct) **A15**
- 54) Greek hopes of winning the final go-ahead for a new €130bn (£108bn) bailout *when eurozone finance ministers meet on Monday* could be shattered even though Athens has agreed to further bruising savings. (finite, adjunct) **A4**
- 55) Angela Merkel's chief spokesman said *after the German chancellor held a conference call with Mario Monti, Italian premier, and Lucas Papademos*, his Greek counterpart, that the three were "confident" a deal would be struck on Monday. (finite, adjunct) **A4**
- 56) Einhorn, whose short-selling famously helped to bring down Lehman Brothers, owns Greenlight Capital, the hedge fund that the FSA said had been warned by Osborne about the fundraising *before it was made public*. (finite, adjunct) **A5**
- 57) *When the fundraising was formally announced on 15 June 2009*, the shares fell 29.9% and Greenlight avoided losses of £5.8m. (finite, adjunct) **A5**
- 58) Fitch has about 15%, and is usually engaged *when S&P and Moody's disagree significantly about the creditworthiness of a debt*. (finite, adjunct) **A6**
- 59) People believe that it won't make a difference *when applying for internal roles*. (non-finite, -ing participle, adjunct) **A20**

- 60) *Until the recent cold snap*, it had been a mild winter – remember the daffodils in December? (verbless, adjunct) **A16**
- 61) *As I drove up from Glasgow*, the Loch Lomond hills looked voluptuously inviting. (finite, adjunct) **A16**
- 62) His dream was to build an indoor ice wall on which climbers might train *before committing themselves to the capricious outdoors*. (non-finite, -ing participle, adjunct) **A16**
- 63) *Once you're committed*, you have to finish it – there's no easy way off it. (finite, adjunct) **A16**
- 64) *When Jamie set off* there were already two other parties struggling up the slope towards us, clearly bent on the same route. (finite, adjunct) **A16**
- 65) By Thursday snow clouds were gathering, so we seized the chance to tackle the Cascades *before it was too late*. (finite, adjunct) **A17**
- 66) *When we pitted Aldi against Lidl* it was a close run thing but in the end readers came down on the same side as our reviewer, with just under 60% saying they favoured Lidl. (finite, adjunct) **A18**
- 67) If we can present this reassuring data to pregnant women with cancer, women might be more likely to accept treatment during pregnancy *when indicated*. (non-finite, -ed part., adjunct) **A25**

CONDITIONAL CLAUSES

- 68) *If you wanted to seize power in the US*, abolish liberal democracy and set up a dictatorship, how would you go about it? (finite, direct, hypothetical, adjunct) **A9**
- 69) When asked whether *The Handmaid's Tale* is about to "come true", I remind myself that there are two futures in the book, and that *if the first one comes true*, the second one may do so also. (finite, direct, open, adjunct) **A9**
- 70) *Given the chocolates were not cheap* I would have expected the decor to reflect a more upmarket feel, making the price seem more justifiable as an affordable luxury. (finite, direct, open, adjunct) **A18**
- 71) *If this was just about luxury and passion*, Hotel Chocolat would have been close to a perfect score. (finite, direct, hypothetical, adjunct) **A18**
- 72) Let us know which of today's stores you favour, or leave a comment *if you are not a fan of either* or think another store offers better choice or prices. (finite, direct, open, adjunct) **A18**
- 73) Let us know which of today's stores you favour, or leave a comment if you are not a fan of either or *think another store offers better choice or prices*. (finite, direct, open, adjunct) **A18**

- 74) *If you are in any doubt* about what makes John Lewis Partnership different from the average retailer, look no further than the entrance to its London headquarters. (finite, direct, open, adjunct) **A19**
- 75) *If you are a standard public limited company (PLC)*, your starting position is how to create financial value. (finite, direct, open, adjunct) **A19**
- 76) *If we were not commercially very successful in retail* we would not be here as it is such a tough competitive business. (finite, direct, hypothetical, adjunct, negative) **A19**
- 77) So what does Lewis think would happen *if he woke up tomorrow* to find the company had suddenly been transformed into a PLC? (finite, direct, hypothetical, adjunct) **A19**
- 78) We have been explaining to government both the benefits but also the challenges and barriers that need overcoming *if they want to support others like us*. (finite, direct, open, adjunct) **A19**
- 79) *If you look at the business intermediaries – lawyers, accountants –* we are very poorly understood. (finite, indirect, open, adjunct) **A19**
- 80) You fit this culture best *if you are a team player* and enjoy working with other people and want to create together. (finite, direct, open, adjunct) **A19**
- 81) You fit this culture best if you are a team player *and enjoy* working with other people and want to create together. (finite, direct, open, adjunct) **A19**
- 82) You fit this culture best if you are a team player and enjoy working with other people and *want to create together*. (finite, direct, open, adjunct) **A19**
- 83) *If something is in a box on a menu*, it's a reasonable bet that the restaurant makes a decent profit on that dish – or at least that the kitchen is particularly proud of the product. (finite, direct, open, adjunct) **A22**
- 84) These are low-rate, unimpressive dishes, and you'd be forgiven *if you felt a bit cheap ordering them*, especially in such a grand setting. (finite, direct, hypothetical, adjunct) **A22**
- 85) *If French Polynesia's lush tropical paradise does not fulfil the honeymoon remit*, what will? (finite, rhetorical, direct, adjunct) **A13**
- 86) *And given the long flight*, you will want to stay as long as your wallet allows. (verbless, direct, open, adjunct) **A13**
- 87) *If you are adventurous*, try diving from the top; if not, you can applaud those who do. (finite, direct, open, adjunct) **A13**
- 88) If you are adventurous, try diving from the top; *if not*, you can applaud those who do. (verbless, direct, negative, open, adjunct) **A13**
- 89) *If there is no pain* and the rehabilitation goes as scheduled, a comeback is possible at Kranjska Gora (March 10-11). (finite, direct, hypothetical, adjunct) **A29**

- 90) If there is no pain *and the rehabilitation goes as scheduled*, a comeback is possible at Kranjska Gora (March 10-11). (finite, direct, hypothetical, adjunct) **A29**
- 91) Many Bulgarians also fear the free download of movies and music, a common practice in the bloc's poorest state, might lead to imprisonment *if the treaty is ratified*. (finite, direct, hypothetical, adjunct) **A2**
- 92) *If he was a scientist, an engineer, a visual artist (let alone a banker)*, his talent would be financially acknowledged. (finite, direct, hypothetical, adjunct) **A24**
- 93) You can get five A* to Cs in your exams, but *if you go to an interview* and you can't shake hands, look someone in the eye and speak in the appropriate register, you are not going to get the job or place at university. (finite, direct, open, adjunct) **A21**
- 94) You can get five A* to Cs in your exams, but if you go to an interview and *you can't shake hands*, look someone in the eye and speak in the appropriate register, you are not going to get the job or place at university. (finite, direct, open, negative, adjunct) **A21**
- 95) You can get five A* to Cs in your exams, but if you go to an interview and you can't shake hands, *look someone in the eye* and speak in the appropriate register, you are not going to get the job or place at university. (finite, direct, open, negative, adjunct) **A21**
- 96) You can get five A* to Cs in your exams, but if you go to an interview and you can't shake hands, look someone in the eye *and speak in the appropriate register*, you are not going to get the job or place at university. (finite, direct, open, negative, adjunct) **A21**
- 97) The way they are written suggests that *if you are black and from a particular postcode* you will only understand the message if it is presented in a certain informal way, in a 'street' form. (finite, direct, hypothetical, adjunct) **A21**
- 98) The way they are written suggests that if you are black and from a particular postcode you will only understand the message *if it is presented in a certain informal way, in a 'street' form*. (finite, direct, hypothetical, adjunct) **A21**
- 99) Their work suggests cancer treatment should not be delayed *if a pregnant woman needs it* and that it may be more damaging to the child in the long term to wait and then deliver the baby prematurely. (finite, direct, open, adjunct) **A25**
- 100) *If we can present this reassuring data to pregnant women with cancer*, women might be more likely to accept treatment during pregnancy when indicated. (finite, direct, hypothetical, adjunct) **A25**
- 101) *If there's no one there*, just dial the phone numbers on the doors to summon them. (finite, direct, open, adjunct) **A14**
- 102) *If you've been keeping an eye on the catwalk this week*, you'll have noticed a flash of bright pink dominating the runway, courtesy of model-of-the-moment Charlotte Free. (finite, direct, hypothetical, adjunct) **A11**
- 103) *If there are any errors* and the audience "sees" something they shouldn't, then they're back in the 21st century, it breaks the illusion and suddenly the "Woman in Black" is just a woman in makeup. (finite, direct, hypothetical, adjunct) **A10**

- 104) If there are any errors *and the audience "sees" something* they shouldn't, then they're back in the 21st century, it breaks the illusion and suddenly the "Woman in Black" is just a woman in makeup. (finite, direct, hypothetical, adjunct) **A10**
- 105) *If the film were more upbeat*, the attention to vintage detail could be described as lavish. (finite, direct, hypothetical, adjunct) **A10**
- 106) This account would be topped up only *if Athens did indeed service its debts and implement reforms*. (finite, direct, hypothetical, adjunct) **A4**
- 107) More people would trust the agencies, *if they hadn't got so much so wrong so recently*. (finite, direct, hypothetical, adjunct) **A6**
- 108) *If you want to be rated*, you must pay an agency between \$1,500 and \$2,500,000 for the privilege, depending on the size of your company. (finite, direct, open, adjunct) **A6**
- 109) They'll cater for vegetarians or special diets *if you let them know in advance*. (finite, direct, open, adjunct) **A17**

PUPROSE CLAUSES

- 110) Like any theocracy, this one would select a few passages from the Bible *to justify its actions*, and it would lean heavily towards the Old Testament, not towards the New. (infinitive, adjunct) **A9**
- 111) Surely the Gilead command would have moved *to eliminate the Quakers*, as their 17th-century Puritan forebears had done. (infinitive, adjunct) **A9**
- 112) Jay-Z and Kanye West won best rap performance with their song Otis, from the album Watch the Throne, but they failed to show up *to claim their prize*. (infinitive, adjunct) **A1**
- 113) Björndalen shot clean *to give him a 11 second lead over Fourcade* as they left the stadium, with Malyshko 25 seconds back and Svendsen 35 seconds back in fifth position. (infinitive, adjunct) **A27**
- 114) *In order to get a better idea of which retailers are delivering* and which are falling short, we would like you to tell us about your experiences of the same shops. (infinitive, adjunct) **A18**
- 115) O'Sullivan finished strongest, rattling off five in a row *to take control of the 30-year-old Scot*. (infinitive, adjunct) **A28**
- 116) O'Sullivan hit back with a 96 clearance *to reduce the gap to two frames*, then picked up the next one to trail by just one. (infinitive, adjunct) **A28**
- 117) O'Sullivan hit back with a 96 clearance to reduce the gap to two frames, then picked up the next one *to trail by just one*. (infinitive, adjunct) **A28**
- 118) He says it offers a great opportunity *to influence government policy*. (infinitive, adjunct) **A19**

- 119) He gives the example of a meeting the other week with all the staff at the Stratford store *to collectively decide* how late to stay open during the Olympics. (infinitive, adjunct) **A19**
- 120) He contrasts this with other retailers, who would go through the financial figures in head office and then hire inexperienced temporary workers *to fill in the extra hours*. (infinitive, adjunct) **A19**
- 121) The Delaunay's menu, progressing from soups to coupes, is obviously designed *to be read from left to right*. (infinitive, adjunct) **A22**
- 122) What is worse, in an industry where the majority of models start their careers before age 16, most working unchaperoned and far from home, the incentive to say nothing *in order to keep your job creates an unconscionable environment of coercion*. (infinitive, adjunct) **A23**
- 123) *To combat this systemic abuse*, I recently formed the Model Alliance, a nonprofit organization that aims to give models in the American fashion business a voice. (infinitive, adjunct) **A23**
- 124) The Model Alliance has also partnered with Actors' Equity and the American Guild of Musical Artists (AGMA), members of the AFL-CIO, America's largest federation of trade unions, *to establish Model Alliance Support, a confidential grievance service to members* who have experienced any kind of abuse. (infinitive, adjunct) **A23**
- 125) More than 4,000 people marched in the capital Sofia last Saturday calling on parliament *not to ratify the act*. (infinitive, adjunct, negative) **A2**
- 126) They use advances in sports medicine *to take care of their dancers' bodies in other ways*. (infinitive, adjunct) **A24**
- 127) A secondary school has instructed its pupils to stop using slang words such as hiya, cheers and ta, *to enhance their prospects of landing a top job*. (infinitive, adjunct) **A21**
- 128) The United Learning Trust (ULT), a charity that runs the school, said the policy had been introduced *so that pupils could recognise* what kind of language was acceptable between friends and what would be suitable in more formal situations. (finite, adjunct) **A21**
- 129) At Sheffield Springs, sixth-formers wear suits rather than a conventional school uniform, *to encourage a business-like approach to their work*. (infinitive, adjunct) **A21**
- 130) After the degustation, we pick out a couple of bottles we like and join the groups of settled-in Czechs upstairs *to drink them* and chat and listen to Moravian music. (infinitive, adjunct) **A14**
- 131) After the degustation, we pick out a couple of bottles we like and join the groups of settled-in Czechs upstairs to drink them *and chat* and listen to Moravian music. (infinitive, adjunct) **A14**
- 132) After the degustation, we pick out a couple of bottles we like and join the groups of settled-in Czechs upstairs to drink them and chat *and listen to Moravian music*. (infinitive, adjunct) **A14**

- 133) *To discover other wines*, the next day we take a leisurely two-hour walk along the River Dyje to Hnanice, a small, hamlet with a pretty little church, and a hill lined with wine cellars. (infinitive, adjunct) **A14**
- 134) If there's no one there, just dial the phone numbers on the doors *to summon them*. (infinitive, adjunct) **A14**
- 135) The chancellor, Angela Merkel, cancelled a trip to visit the Italian premier, Mario Monti, *in order to deal with the fallout*. (infinitive, adjunct) **A3**
- 136) The chancellor said she hoped to begin talks with the opposition Social Democratic (SPD) party, as well as the Greens, *to agree on a candidate* to replace Wulff. (infinitive, adjunct) **A3**
- 137) Wulff has faced allegations that Groenewold, whose firm was granted a loan guarantee by Lower Saxony's government, paid for him and his wife *to stay at a luxury hotel on the German resort island of Sylt in 2007*. (infinitive, adjunct) **A3**
- 138) Earlier, Andrea Nahles, the general secretary of the Social Democrats, said her party would vote *to lift Wulff's immunity* and indicated that he should go. (infinitive, adjunct) **A3**
- 139) Imagine our surprise when we walked into our local, the Devonshire Hotel, *to find Daniel Radcliffe* sitting there. (infinitive, adjunct) !!!! **A10**
- 140) As I had never been to Norway I consulted the map, as I love to do, *to find our destination*. (infinitive, adjunct) **A15**
- 141) The plane carried many trekkers and skiers, but we left them at the airport *to take the bus from Ålesund to Geiranger*. (infinitive, adjunct) **A15**
- 142) *To help me to cope*, I had invited my sisters to accompany me. (infinitive, adjunct) **A15**
- 143) The scenario we're trying to achieve is that Greece complies with all necessary measures and demands made by the international community *in order to have a deal on the entire package*. (infinitive, adjunct) **A4**
- 144) Whilst I decided not to pursue proceedings against the FSA *in order to draw a line under this very long, arduous and time-consuming process*, I do not believe that the FSA's decision represents a fair outcome. (infinitive, adjunct) **A5**
- 145) There are more than 150 ratings agencies worldwide, but *in order to have any credibility*, companies really need at least one of Moody's, S&P and Fitch on their side, and preferably all three. (infinitive, adjunct) **A6**
- 146) The government has launched a Whitehall review of bonus structures in public sector organisations *in order to ensure* the rules are fit for purpose and command public confidence. (infinitive, adjunct) **A7**
- 147) Passengers were faced with busy queues on Friday morning at immigration checkpoints in Heathrow's Terminal 5, according to BA, which subsequently sent out a memo to

cabin crew *so that they could inform passengers of potential delays on arrival*. (finite, adjunct) **A8**

- 148) We are working with Heathrow airport and speaking to UK Border Agency *to understand* why the immigration area was affected. (infinitive, adjunct) **A8**
- 149) I need a protracted season of cold, miserable winter weather *in order to see me through the protracted, miserable summer*. (infinitive, adjunct) **A16**
- 150) In fact, the holiday was almost a metaphor for a good relationship: spend time apart *in order to appreciate time together*. (infinitive, adjunct) **A17**
- 151) Svendsen waited until the final uphill alongside the shooting range *to unleash a mighty pole-flying sprint* that demolished Birnbacher, who eased home in second. (infinitive, adjunct) **A27**
- 152) We learned of the farm children, long ago, who had to be tied to trees *to stop them* falling off cliffs when the parents were away working in the fields. (infinitive, adjunct) **A15**