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**Postmodification of Nouns by Relative and Appositive Clauses
in Newspaper Reports**

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Zásady pro vypracování:

Cílem práce je analýza výskytu jednotlivých typů větné postmodifikace podstatného jména v anglických novinových zprávách. Studentka na základě studia odborné lingvistické literatury shrne podstatné charakteristické rysy anglických vztažných a přístavkových vět. U jednotlivých typů se zaměří na rozdíly sémantické vyplývající z toho, zda jde o větu omezující nebo neomezující, i na rozdíly strukturální, tzn. zda jde o formu finitní nebo nefinitní. V následné analytické části bude zkoumat texty novinových zpráv. Za účelem tohoto zkoumání studentka vytvoří korpus článků z anglických novin, zpracuje kvantitativní analýzu a její zjištění patřičně okomentuje. V závěru shrne zaznamenané rozdíly ve využití jednotlivých typů postmodifikací, a to s ohledem na jejich funkci v procesu komunikace.

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Souhlasím s prezenčním zpřístupněním své práce v Univerzitní knihovně Univerzity Pardubice.

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ABSTRACT

This paper focuses on the use of clausal structures in the function of noun postmodifiers in newspaper reports. In the theoretical part, the discourse of newspaper reporting is described, attention being paid to the role of nominalization and nominal postmodification in newspaper articles. Then, the notion of noun phrase is introduced, with focus on clausal postmodifiers and possible variants of their realization. In the practical part, the analysis of selected English broadsheet newspapers is carried out. Overall occurrence of individual types of clausal postmodifiers is closely examined, with regard to both the frequency and communicative function.

SOUHRN

Tato práce se věnuje užití větných struktur ve funkci postmodifikátoru podstatného jména v anglických novinových zprávách. Nejdříve je popsán diskurz novinových zpráv, pozornost je zaměřena hlavně na úlohu, kterou v článcích plní nominalizace a nominální postmodifikace. Poté je vysvětlen pojem nominální fráze, důraz je kladen na větné postmodifikátory, jejich klasifikaci a možnosti jejich konkrétní realizace. Praktická část se zabývá analýzou vybraných anglických novinových článků, především četností užití jednotlivých typů postmodifikujících vět a také jejich komunikativní funkcí.

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1. INTRODUCTION

The aim of this paper is to observe nominal clausal postmodifiers in the discourse of newspaper reporting. In the theoretical part, it is explained why the study of nominal structures in news reports is important, and some essential concepts and terms regarding the two types of clausal postmodifiers, the relative clause and the appositive clause, are introduced.

In the first chapter, the newspaper discourse is characterized from the viewpoint of its main function. Then, the focus is given on participants, audience and news producers, and the mutual relationship between those two groups. Further, the linguistic tools used in the newspaper discourse are commented on. The emphasis is on the nominalization and complex modification and how those structures contribute to better comprehension of an article while facing the constraints of news production. It is also mentioned how the frequent use of nominalized structures can serve the purposes of news producers. The second chapter is devoted to the grammar of relative and appositive clauses. Firstly, the notion of noun phrase and its constituents is described. Then, the different approaches preferred by some distinguished linguists towards the distinction and terminology of the clauses are introduced. Further, the individual types of the clauses are studied to give a brief outline on the structural and semantic features of relative and appositive clauses.

The practical part is aimed at demonstrating that the clausal postmodification is a very frequent phenomenon in the newspaper reporting and that there exist some tendencies concerning the use of relative and appositive clauses which are specific for the newspaper discourse. The analysis is carried out from the selected articles from the online version of some of the British broadsheet newspapers and the official BBC website. Firstly, the quantitative analysis is made to provide the statistical data for further investigation. Then, the results of the analysis are commented on, the occurrence of the individual types of clausal modifiers is examined with respect to their form, meaning and communicative function in the newspaper discourse.

2. The role of nominal postmodification in the newspaper reporting

2.1 Discourse of newspaper reporting

The notion of newspaper discourse is quite broad and implies many forms including news articles, reviews, advertisements, editorials or weather reports. In this paper the focus is on news articles. According to Crystal and Davy, the central function of newspapers is to inform, or, in other words, to "present a certain number of facts in as interesting a manner as possible to audiences whose constitution they are fairly clear about." (2001: 173 – 174) In the newspaper discourse, the audience are readers of a particular newspaper. Van Dijk describes readers as large groups of people, who might share some common political beliefs or values, but are "undifferentiated at a personal level". As the news is a written medium, readers are not present but only implied. Though the reader base is very broad with different levels of general knowledge and education, some common knowledge, beliefs, norms and values have to be presupposed in order for the news to be intelligible. The second participant in the newspaper discourse is a news producer. Van Dijk argues that a feature typical of newspaper reporting is impersonality. The news producer is not a single individual but an organization. The news stories are not stories of an individual author and should not express his or her personal beliefs or opinions. (1988: 74 – 76) The fact that the way the news stories are presented should be unbiased should be of particular importance for broadsheet newspapers, which are generally considered as the source of reliable and authoritative information. However, as Reah advocates, the newspapers exist within a free market system, thus the aim of a newspaper producer is also the commercial success. (2003: 9) Newspapers have to be attractive for a particular group of readers to buy it. Besides news they contain also comment, advertisements, entertainment. Editors pay careful attention to what can be included in newspapers or not:

> "Decisions may be made to exclude information because it is felt necessary to conceal that information from the readership, or to include information that is seen as in some way beneficial to groups other than the readership – the advertisers, the owners of the paper, the political party the owners of the paper support." (Reah, 2003: 4 – 5)

Therefore, the choice of the information to be presented in a newspaper may reflect producer´s political, ideological and other beliefs. Fowler explains that not all readers are able to reveal the structures that imply some potential ideological perspectives. It depends on individuals to recognise whether some information is biased or not. He also says that many newspapers´ concern is to "construct ideal readers", that is to make a reader adapt values and opinions of a particular medium. (1991: 232) Similar approach is presented by Ermida, who claims that the role of newspapers is to "shape readers´ opinions and disseminate the political discourses of the ruling groups". (2009: 47) Those statements are quite in contradiction with how Crystal and Davy define the main function of the newspaper reporting - to inform (cf. p. 2) – as it seems that media imply the values they prefer on purpose – to create a broad base of readers with strong preferences for a particular newspaper. Fowler argues that:

> "The real reader will continue to buy the newspaper with which s/he is comfortable, keeping circulation up; sales figures are of immense importance to newspapers, because they determine advertising revenue." (1991: 232).

Reah claims that even broadsheet newspapers aim at having their own readership base which would share identical beliefs and opinions, therefore, the authors focus on certain aspects of the news they want to emphasize or suppress. (2003: 50) Therefore, it seems that though the main function of the newspaper reporting is to inform, news producers may imply their own values and perspective to newspapers to influence a readers´ viewpoint. This is done by careful selection of the news and also the language used, which is described in the following chapter.

2.2 The style of newspaper reporting

As an established medium, newspapers have developed a typical style of writing characteristic only for newspaper discourse. The style is influenced by both the objective constraints the authors of news are facing, and the goals set by the news producers, which are aimed mostly at presenting some values which might be of benefit for some groups of people and increasing the profit.

Regarding the objective factors that influence the newspaper production, Fowler argues that "the medium is used by people working under certain economic circumstances, and following certain conventions of production." (1991: 25) The pressure that is put to the authors writing news is mainly the lack of space for a particular news-item. Therefore, there is a need to condense the style and present all the necessary information within few complex sentences. Van Dijk says:

> "There are space constraints, which necessitate compact writing style. To avoid repetition, sentences are packed with much information contained in relative clauses. Full propositions are simply condensed to nominalizations, which also may be used to carry the bulk of presuppositions and brief back reference to previous events of the actual news." (1988: 76)

As mentioned above, a certain level of readers´ common knowledge has to be presupposed by an author to avoid unnecessary wordiness of an article. However, besides presenting the actual news, that is for example the latest report from some place or event, it is necessary to provide a reader with all relevant information that is related to the topic, if it is essential for proper understanding of the article. The additional information often includes reference to some past events or closer description or identification of news story participants, so that a reader understands their relevance to issues discussed in an article. This condensation of information within a sentence is frequently realized by using nouns accompanied by modifiers. Crystal and Davy say that in the newspaper discourse, only few nouns occur without any modification. (2001: 186) An author of a news article can include a substantial amount of facts in relative or appositive clauses. The most complex sentences are to be found at the beginning of articles, in so called lead sentences, where various background information of a particular event have to be introduced to a reader. (Van Dijk, 1988: 80)

The high occurrence of complex nominal structures in newspapers does not have purely practical reasons. Fowler says that each medium has its own social values, and may imply its own perspective to news stories to influence readers' own viewpoint of events.

He argues that a typical stereotype which occurs in newspaper reporting capable of presenting (or concealing) some values preferred by a particular medium is a high degree of nominalization. It means that predicates (verbs and adjectives) are realized syntactically as nouns, such as "allege" is changed to "allegation". The derived nominal is less explicit in the meaning when compared to the finite clause, thus, the use of such a structure might offer "ideological opportunities". Nominals lack indication of time as they cannot express the tense; do not indicate any participants, therefore, can potentially conceal unpopular actions of some persons or groups that a particular newspaper may favour; and do not indicate modality, the stance towards any proposition presented. Therefore, Fowler claims that nominalization is potentially mystificatory and "permits habits of concealment". (1991: 79 – 80)

Besides the power of nominalization to emphasize or conceal some information or its aspects, the use of complex nominal structures is associated with the need to add attractiveness of a news article. Instead of focusing the reader's attention on a real subject or problem, that is to use it as a head of a noun phrase, newspapers often place the real matter as the modifier. As heads there are often used words which imply some perspective, usually general terms as *affair*, or *episode*; the term *problem* occurs very frequently as "a euphemistic term used by politicians". Alternatively, the head nouns often express subjective reactions as *anxiety, scare, dilemma, hysteria*; or interpret some issue as a political event: *crisis, fight, debate, row, conspiracy, scandal*. (Fowler, 1991: 178). Those head nouns can be found very frequently in both relative and appositive clauses, which are examined in this paper. To conclude, the complex nominal structures have two main functions in the newspaper reporting. Firstly, they are the means of condensation of information, thus, they enable to present more propositions within one sentence and spare the limited space for a particular news item. Secondly, nouns are less explicit than full verbs, and do not indicate participants, which might be important for news producers´ interests outside newspapers. Nouns also frequently take modifiers which can add different perspectives to the news, usually the subjective ones, which arouse interest and emotions in readers.

3. Noun phrase and its constituents

Firstly, the basic notions which occur when analysing noun phrase structure are explained. It should be distinguished between the terms "noun" and "noun phrase". The noun is a lexical category and is defined as "the name of a person, place or thing". (Van Valin, 2001: 6) However, the notion of noun phrase is broader. Biber defines it as "a major phrase type with the lexical word as head and a number of accompanying elements." (1999: 96) As a head of the NP there can occur a noun, either a common noun or a proper noun. Besides nouns, noun phrases may be headed by pronouns, and nominalised adjectives. (Biber, 1999: 97) As Huddleston says, the head is the basic constituent of the noun phrase, however, the head itself cannot function as an element of a clause structure and has to be accompanied by optionally one or more elements. (1984: 232)

According to Huddleston, those elements are called dependents. He distinguishes between the dependents which precede the head **(pre-head dependents)** and those that follow the head **(post-head dependents).** Among the pre-head dependents there is the distinction between *determiners*, which specify the reference of the head (for example articles, items like *some, this, a few*, or numerals) and *premodifiers*, mostly adjectives (*that glorious sunset),* nouns (*a Yorkshire dialect),* and non-finite verb forms (*the simmering stew)*. From the viewpoint of form, post-head dependents can be realised by prepositional phrases (*a girl with red hair*), finite clauses (*the man who stole the silver*), non finite clauses (*the man working in the garden*), adjective phrases (*a poem full of alliteration*), or another noun phrases (*the opera "Carmen")*. From the viewpoint of function, Huddleston further divides post-head dependents into *postmodifiers* and *complements*. The example of the postmodifier is the relative clause (*The fact that John had overlooked*), whilst content clauses are considered to be complements (*The fact that John had overeaten*). (1984: 256 – 263).

Whereas the distinction and terminology concerning pre-head dependents is quite unified, the approach of some distinguished linguists to the division of post-head

dependents is more diverse. Unlike Huddleston, Quirk does not recognise the further division of post-head items to postmodifiers and complements, and uses the term "postmodifier" for all the items which are placed after the noun-phrase head. (1985: 1238 – 1239). The division between postmodifiers and complements is supported by Biber and Jacobs, who both prefer the term complement clause to content clause. Jacobs explains why there should be made a difference between modifiers and complements. He says that whereas the complement clause specifies the content of its head noun, the relative clause identifies the reference of the head noun: *the story that Eleanor had met with the senator vs. the story that Eleanor had given to the senator*. (1995: 99 – 100). The complement clauses are also closely connected to the head, whereas the relationship between the relative clause and the head noun is looser. Therefore, if both the types of clause are linked to one head noun, the complement clause usually immediately follows the head, as it specifies the real content of the head noun, whilst the relative clause is placed after the complement clause, as it only further identifies the head noun: *The announcement [that the Green Party had been elected][which contained many typological errors]*. (1995: 305). Huddleston explains the difference when contrasting the meaning of complements and modifiers:

> "From a semantic point of view, complements generally correspond to arguments of a semantic predicate expressed in the head noun, while modifiers generally give properties of what is denoted by the head." (1984: 262)

At a clausal level, Quirk too draws the line between two types of clauses, relative clauses and appositive clauses. (1985: 1244) The syntactic and semantic features of appositive clauses correspond to the features of complement (or content) clauses as presented by Jacobs and Huddleston. Therefore, the difference is in using a different term for the subordinate clause. Huddleston advocates the use of the term "content clause" instead of "appositive clause". He says that the traditional grammar's argument, that in appositive clauses, a head noun and a clause can be paraphrased by the construction with *be* (*His fear was that he might lose his job*), is not satisfactory, as there might be exceptions where it is not possible (**Their insistence was that the meetings should be held at lunch-time*). Secondly, he argues that unlike in the typical

apposition, it is often not possible to omit the noun *(*That he might lose his job was increasing)*. (2002, 1017) However, in this paper, the approach and terminology of Quirk and traditional grammar is preferred, therefore, the terms **relative** and **appositive** clause are used. The distinction between complements and postmodifiers is not made in this paper, both clauses are referred to as **postmodifiers**. As the aim of this paper is to observe nominal postmodification, we do not further elaborate on determinatives, premodifiers and non-clausal postmodifiers and focus on clausal structures.

3.1 *Explicitness of postmodification*

Quirk argues that "in general, premodification is to be interpreted (and, most frequently, can only be interpreted) in terms of postmodification and its greater explicitness." (1985: 1243) Provided that the semantics of the premodifier allows more interpretations, the correct one may remain unknown. For example, the expression *an oil man* can have several interpretations, which can be fully revealed in the finite clause: *a man who sells oil/ who delivers oil/ who produces oil/ who investigates oil/ who advocates the use of oil*. However, a specific meaning of such a noun phrase is usually restricted in a particular context. (Quirk, 1985: 1243) As stated above, this ambiguity usually does not arise in postmodified noun phrases, which are more explicit. The degree of explicitness is greatest in the finite clauses, containing a finite verb with indication of tense, than in non-finite clauses, where the tense is only implied, or prepositional phrases, where a verb is missing. Dušková demonstrates the growing degree of explicitness at the following set of noun phrases: *the pupil in the corner – the pupil standing in the corner – the pupil who was standing in the corner.* (2006: 497)

3.2 *Restrictive and non-restrictive modification*

From the semantic viewpoint, there is the distinction between restrictive and non-restrictive modification. The modification is **restrictive** when "the reference of the head can be identified only through the modification that has been supplied." (Quirk, 1985: 1239) It means that if the referent of the head noun is to be found easily (if at all), the modification cannot be omitted in a sentence. The **non-restrictive** modification means

that the modification is not essential for identifying the referent of the noun phrase. The head of the noun phrase can be either a unique entity, which does not need any further specification, or the referent can be identified for example in the preceding text. Therefore, the function of the non-restrictive relative clause is usually to offer additional information about the referent. (Quirk, 1985: 1239 – 1241) The semantic difference between restrictive and non-restrictive clauses can be seen in examples given by Dušková. The restrictive postmodification in *I have two friends who write me regularly* means that the speaker has more friends, and two of them write him or her regularly. Whilst the non-restrictive *I have two friends, who write me regularly* indicates that the speaker has only two friends, and both write him or her regularly. (2006: 615)

Huddleston goes beyond the standard classification restrictive vs. non-restrictive and distinguishes between **integrated** and **supplementary** modification. He prefers the term integrated to restrictive, as he says the only feature of integrated clause is not only that it restricts the denotation of its antecedent, but that the modification that is supplied is an integral part of the message conveyed. (2002: 1064 – 1066) In this paper, the traditional classification is preferred and the terms restrictive and non-restrictive clause are used.

3.3 Postmodification by relative clauses

When dealing with relative clauses, we will use the terms **antecedent**, which is the part of the noun phrase to which a relative pronoun anaphorically refers; **relative pronoun**: *who, which, whose, whom, that,* alternatively **relative adverb**: most frequently *where, when, why*; and **gap**. The gap refers to the location within the relative clause which would be occupied by a missing constituent corresponding to the head noun. (Biber, 1999: 608)

From the viewpoint of form, Huddleston distinguishes three formal types of relative clauses: **wh-relatives** containing one of the *wh*-words *who*, *whom*, *whose*, *which*, *where, etc.* and **non-wh relative**s, where the anaphoric element is a gap. The non-*wh*

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relatives are further divided into ***that* relatives** (containing a subordinator *that*) and **bare relatives** (*that* is absent, relative clause contains only a gap). (2002: 1033 – 1034) Also Quirk recognizes three types of relative clauses: the **adnominal relative clause**, the central type, which functions as the postmodifier of the noun-phrase head (*The news which we saw in the papers this morning was well received*), the **nominal relative clause**, where we cannot draw any distinction between the head and the postmodifying clause (*What surprises me is that they are fond of snakes and lizards*). The third type is the **sentential relative clause**, where the antecedent is the whole clause (*They are fond of snakes and lizards, which surprises me*). (1985: 1244 - 1245) Neither nominal nor sentential relative clauses can be in the function of the noun-phrase head postmodifier. Therefore, we do not further elaborate on them in this paper and focus only on the adnominal relative clauses, which are referred to as relative clauses in this paper.

3.3.1 Postmodification by finite relative clauses

As stated above, finite clauses are the most explicit means of nominal modification. They may contain a relative pronoun, which can (but does not have to) indicate the gender concord with its antecedent, and a finite verb, which is tensed and may express aspect and modality. Therefore, the finite clause is used in the contexts when the explicit indication of those categories is important: *Now 48 sites which could be maintained by local authorities have been identified*. (Biber, 1999: 632)

3.3.1.1 Restrictive relative clauses

As stated above, the restrictive clause is essential for identifying the referent. The next features of the restrictive clause are that it creates one intonation unit with the head noun, and is not separated from the rest of the sentence by punctuation. Further, the restrictive clause does not necessarily have to immediately follow the head noun (*The women arrived who wanted to run for the Senate*), which is not acceptable with the non-restrictive clause. Finally, there are differences in using pronouns. In addition to *wh*-relative, the restrictive relative clause allows also non-*wh* relative, *that* relative and bare relative. (Jacobs, 1995: 309 – 311) When choosing the correct relative pronoun in the

restrictive clause, the gender of the antecedent and the syntactic function of the gap have to be taken into account.

Gender concord: choice between *who* and *which*

The relative pronouns *who* and *which* show concord with its antecedent, which can be either personal or nonpersonal. With **personal antecedents**, the pronoun *who* is used, whilst *which* is used with **non-personal antecedents**. Generally, *who* occurs with human antecedents, but also when referring to animals, especially pets: *Rover, who was barking, frightened the children*. On the other hand, the pronoun *which* can be used when referring to human babies: *This is the baby which needs inoculation*. (Quirk, 1985: 1245) It seems that the choice of a pronoun is related very closely to the presupposed level of mental development. As Dušková says, we can use *which* when referring to babies, but not to children, who seem to be thought of having more developed personality. (2006: 619) There are two exceptions concerning the gender concord between the antecedent and the relative pronoun: "*Which* can have a personal noun as its antecedent when the relative is a complement with the semantic role of characterization attribute." (*He imagined himself to be an artist, which he was not.*) (Quirk, 1985: 1246). Secondly, *which* is used with personal antecedents when the relativised element is complement of *have (got)*: *Remember that they have a house-keeper, which we don´t have*. (Huddleston, 2002: 1049)

Syntactic functions of relative gaps

So far it has been commented on the choice of a relative pronoun based on gender concord of the relative pronoun to its antecedent. Those rules can be applied to both restrictive and non-restrictive clauses. As mentioned above, to decide on which pronoun to use (or, alternatively, to omit the pronoun), the syntactic function of the relative gap has to be taken into account. In the restrictive relative clause, the sentence elements that can be relativised are subject, object, complement, prepositional complement, determiner, or adverbial. In the function of **subject**, the pronouns *who* or *which* may be used with regard to the antecedent gender. Additionally, there might be used the pronoun *that*. *That* does not have gender marking, therefore, there does not arise a

problem whether to use *who* or *which*, for example with two antecedents of mixed gender: *The people and things that amuse her most*. (Quirk, 1985: 1246) On the other hand, both Quirk and Huddleston say that with personal antecedents, *who* is preferred to *that* when functioning as the subject of the relative clause: *The boy who threw the dart*. (Quirk, 1985: 1054) *That* is not omissible in this function, irrespective of the gender of the antecedent. Huddleston explains that *that* has to be present because there has to be some explicit signal where the subordinate clause starts. (2002: 1055) However, we cannot say that *that* functions as the subject, as it is considered to be rather a subordinator or a conjunction than an element of the clause structure. Therefore, even when *that* is present, the clause lacks its subject, as *that* is only a formal element distinguishing the beginning of the relative clause from the main clause. (Jacobs, 1995: 397)

Contrary to subject gaps, relative pronoun can be omitted with some of the non-subject gaps. For example **object** gaps, in which bare (or zero) relative can be used (*They are delighted with the book ( ) she has written*). With personal antecedents, there is the choice between *who* and the objective case *whom*. The latter is preferred in formal English (*The person whom he met*), whereas in informal use, the bare relative is most common. (Quirk, 1985: 1248 - 1251). Object gaps allow also *that*, which is generally preferred to *wh*-pronouns with items like *anything* and *all* (*Anything (that) you say may be used in evidence against you*) or with superlatives (*She gave me the best meal (that) I'd had for many years*). (Huddleston, 2002, p. 1054) The similar preferences can be seen when a relative pronoun functions as **prepositional complement**. There is the preference for *that* or bare relative (*People (that) I speak to*). When using *that* or bare relative, the preposition has to be deferred (postponed, stranded) as *that* does not allow prepositions to be placed before it. (Quirk, 1985: 1251) However, the *wh*-pronouns allow that: *the person to whom he spoke*. (Quirk, 1985: 1249) As Huddleston says, with a relative clause introduced by a *wh*-pronoun, a preposition can be either postponed or occur in a so called prenuclear position, that is the position before the subject of the clause. (2002: 1039) In case the gap is in the function of **complement**, there are certain exceptions in using *which* with personal antecedents, which are described on the page

11. When the relativised element is **adverbial**, there are four main options. The first is to use the pronoun *which* with a preposition in a prenuclear position: *the apartments in which no one lives*. The next alternative is the construction with *that* and the deferred preposition: *the one that old James used to live in*. Other options are to omit the preposition: *the time that I began*, or use adverbial pronouns: *where* for place adverbials, *when* for adverbials indicating time and *why* for adverbials expressing reason (*the area where the chapels have closed; one day when she was at school; the other reason why the ambulance workers have lost out*). There is no relative adverb for adverbial of manner. (Biber, 1999: 624) Finally, the relative pronoun can be in the function of **determiner**. A typical pronoun which occurs in this role is *whose*. With *whose*, the gender problem does not arise, as it is the genitive form of both personal *who* and non-personal *which*: *She started a home for women whose husbands were in prison.* vs. *The report contains statements whose factual truth is doubtful.* (Huddleston, 2002: 1049) Alternatively, there can occur the construction *of + which/ whom*, either in post head position or separated from the head: *a child the parents of whom were constantly quarrelling/ a house of which the roof had been damaged in the storm*. (Huddleston, 2002: 1049)

According to Biber's findings on the syntactic roles of relative gaps and their frequency, the majority of relative clauses in the newspaper reports, around 75 per cent, have subject gaps. As the subject gaps usually immediately follow the head noun, they are easier to process. When the subject is gapped, the main function of the relative clause is to provide new information, in addition to its restrictive function. Whereas with non-subject gaps, the central function of the relative clause is to "associate the head noun with that known entity given in the subject position" (*the store that Robin made*). (1999, 621- 622)

3.3.1.2 *Non-restrictive relative clause*

As mentioned on the page 8 of this paper, the non-restrictive clause does not serve to identify the reference of the head, but usually to provide some additional information

about the antecedent. This information is sometimes added "to continue the narrative line": *Hanson introduced Senator Obfusker to my mother, who promptly began to interrogate him about his support for tobacco subsidies*. (Jacobs, 1995: 310) Prosodically, non-restrictive modification creates a separate intonation unit. In written discourse, the pauses in intonation signalling the non-restrictive modification are replaced by commas, less often by dashes or parentheses. (Huddleston, 2002: 1058 – 1059) Concerning the use of relative pronouns, non-restrictive clauses allow only *wh*-relatives (with rare exceptions – cf. p. 15). Further, there exist some antecedents which do not allow non-restrictive clauses and vice versa. Non-restrictive clause only can occur when the antecedent is a proper name not preceded by a determiner. Here, the function of the subordinate clause is to give additional information about the antecedent, as the identification of the referent is sufficient by using the proper name. (Huddleston, 2002: 1060) Restrictive relative clauses are more common that non-restrictive clauses in all written registers. However, among fiction, academic prose, and news discourse, it is the news discourse that is most abundant with non-restrictive clauses. They create 30 per cent of all relative clauses in news reports, which is twice as much as in fiction or academic prose. (Biber, 1999: 603)

The choice of the relative pronoun in non-restrictive clauses

In the non-restrictive clause, only *wh*-relatives can occur freely. If the pronoun is in the **subject** position, there is the choice between *who* and *which*, depending on the gender of the antecedent. When functioning as **object** and referring to **personal antecedents**, there is the option between *who* and the objective case *whom*. The latter seems to be preferred in non-restrictive clauses. The pronoun *which* seems to be the only option when the relative pronoun is in the function of **complement**, irrespective of the gender of the antecedent: *Anna is a vegetarian, which no one else is in our family*. (Quirk, 1985: 1258) The relativised element in the non-restrictive clause can be also **adverbial**: *In those days, when he was still a student, he used to babysit for us.* (Huddleston, 2002: 051) In non-restrictive relative clauses, *which* can function as the **determiner**: *In 1960 he came to London, in which city he has lived ever since*. Bare relatives cannot occur in non-restrictive clauses. (Quirk, 1985: 1257 - 1259) The occurrence of *that* in non-

restrictive clauses is very rare, however, Huddleston demonstrates that some speakers accept *that* in non-restrictive clauses: *The patas monkey, that spends almost all of its time in open grassland, adopts just such tactics.* (2002: 1052)

3.3.2 Postmodification by non-finite clauses

In this part of the paper, the focus is given on non-finite structures that can occur as postmodifiers in a noun phrase structure. In this function, all the non-finite clause types can be found: *-ing* participle, *-ed* participle and infinitive clauses. These three terms are used by Biber and Quirk. Huddleston refers to the three groups as to gerund-participials, past-participials, and infinitival relative clauses. Moreover, he does not recognise the participial clauses as relative clauses; unlike infinitive clauses, they cannot contain either a relative pronoun or a zero relative (*a solid foundation on which to build* vs. * *People who living near the site*). (2002: 1264-5) In this paper, the terminology of Biber and Quirk is used. All three types are examined in terms of the syntactic function in which they can occur, and their capability to express tense, voice, and aspect.

3.3.2.1 *Postmodification by –ing clauses*

Quirk explains that "the correspondence between *–ing* clauses and the relative clauses is limited to those relative clauses in which the relative pronoun is subject." (1985: 1263) The *–ing* clause is less explicit that the finite relative clause, as there is no indication of tense. Hence, the sentence *The person writing reports is my colleague* can be paraphrased for example as *The person who writes/ who is writing/ who wrote/ who was writing reports is my colleague*. The *–ing* participle is usually associated with active voice. It has to be emphasized that *–ing* participle is not the ellipsis of the progressive verb form, but it corresponds to the relative clause where the distinction of progressive or non-progressive aspect is neutralized. (Dušková, 2006: 581) Thus, *the man working behind the desk* can be interpreted either as non-progressive (*the man who works behind the desk) or progressive (the man who is working behind the desk*). (Quirk, 1985: 1263) Therefore, the *–ing* participle can be used especially in cases when it is unacceptable that a full verb occurs in a progressive meaning, as with stative verbs (*A society

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consisting of educated people, packages weighing over twenty pounds). It is most likely that *–ing* clause occurs instead of finite clause with the verb in progressive meaning. (Dušková, 2006: 581, Biber, 1999: 632)

3.3.2.2 *Postmodification by –ed clauses*

As *–ing* clauses, the *–ed* clause always contains the gap in the position of subject. (Biber, 1999: 630) Similarly, the tense is not indicated, and its interpretation depends on the context. However, *-ed* clauses can express the progressive aspect: *the measures taken to prevent further deterioration of the environment vs. the measures being taken to prevent further deterioration of the environment* (Dušková, 2006: 583) Biber argues that *–ed* clauses are a frequent option whenever a relative clause contains a passive verb. The main reason is economy, as when the finite clause containing a verb in passive is an option, the use of *–ed* clause is given priority, as the non-finite structure has the same informative value but the message is expressed in fewer words. (1999: 632)

3.3.2.3 *Postmodification by infinitive clauses*

Unlike *–ing* or *–ed* clauses, infinitive clauses can have not only subject gaps (*The man to help you is Mr Johnson*), but also non-subject gaps, notably object (*The man [for you] to see is Mr Johnson*) and adverbial (*The time [for you] to go is July*). (Quirk, 1985: 1266) As the examples above show, with non-subject gaps, there can be optionally a subject of the infinitive clause introduced by *for*. However, less than 10 % of infinitive clauses contain a *for*-phrase. The reason is that usually the subject of the clause is easy to find in the context. (Biber, 1999: 633) With adverbial gaps, the infinitive clause can be introduced by a relative pronoun, however, this option is more formal (*The time at which to go*). Concerning the voice, infinitive clause can be active or passive (*He is the best man to choose/ to be chosen*). These clauses can have also aspectual distinction (*The man to meet/ to be meeting/ to have met is Wilson*). Contrary to *–ing* and *–ed* clauses, infinitive clauses can to some extent indicate tense and modality. It is the case of some passive constructions. The expression *The procedure to*

be followed can be interpreted as *the procedure that must, or should, or will, be followed*. (Quirk, 1985: 1267 – 1268)

3.3.2.4 *Non-restrictive postmodification by non-finite clauses*

Non-finite clauses occur in both restrictive and non-restrictive meaning. Non-restrictive relative clauses can be realized by all three types of non-finite clauses. Unlike in the restrictive meaning, the non-restrictive infinitive clauses can have only subject gaps (*This scholar, to be found daily in the British Museum, has devoted his life to the history of science*). (Quirk, 1985: 1270)

3.4 Postmodification by appositive clauses

As has been already mentioned, the main feature distinguishing appositive clauses from relative clauses is the fact that they specify the content of the head noun. The next important features of appositive clauses are that the pronoun *that* is used in both restrictive and non-restrictive clauses. Finally, the appositive clauses are headed by the small class of nouns which is limited to abstract nouns such as *fact, idea, proposition*, etc. (Quirk, 1985: 1260)

3.4.1 Postmodification by finite appositive clauses

Concerning the form, the finite appositive clause may contain the particle *that*: *The idea that nobody will survive is appalling*. (Dušková, 2006: 600) Head nouns may be derived from verbs that are followed by putative should or mandative subjunctive (such as *recommend, suggest*). In this case, the verb form is retained even if the original object clause becomes the postmodifying appositive clause (*There was a recommendation that she (should) be promoted*). (Quirk, 1985: 1262) The minor type of the finite appositive clause is the *wh*-interrogative clause: *There was no question who was the star*. In some cases, a *wh*-clause can be preceded by *of*: *We will then lack any appropriate explanation of why a vote for a checkerboard solution is wrong*, or *as to*: *Recent studies have posed the question as to whether there is a link between film violence and real violence*. (Biber, 1999: 645 – 646) With the reference to corpus findings, we can say that *that-*

clauses are less common than non-finite structures, since they occur in less than a third of all the types of appositive clause. The most frequent head nouns taking *that*-clauses in news register are *fact, hope, doubt*, and *suggestion*. Plural heads are very rare, as over 95 % of *that*-clauses have a singular head noun, and 85 % have singular and definite heads. *Wh*-interrogative clauses seem to be the least frequent type of appositive structures. (1999: 646 – 649)

3.4.2 Postmodification by non-finite appositive clauses

Contrary to relative clauses, appositive postmodification occurs with only two non-finite structures, infinitive and –ing clauses.

3.4.2.1 *Appositive postmodification by infinitive clauses*

The subject of the infinitive clause can be either implicit or expressed by a preposition and subject: *The appeal (for us/ to us) to give blood received strong support*. In the case of this sentence, the infinitive clause can be paraphrased as finite clause: *The appeal that we (should) give blood received strong support*. (Quirk, 1985: 1271) In the news discourse, the most common head nouns taking infinitival clauses are: *chance, attempt, decision, plan,* and *bid*; commonly used are also *effort, ability, opportunity*, and *right*. Those head nouns refer to human goals, opportunities or generally actions, therefore, they are very frequent in the newspaper reporting. (Biber, 1999: 647) Not all infinitive clauses can have their *that*-clause counterparts in appositive postmodification. Instead, they can have an alternative construction with a prepositional phrase *of + ing*: *He lost the ability to use his hands/ of using his hands*. (Quirk, 1985: 1271-1272) The head nouns which frequently occur with *of + ing* in the news are: *way, cost, hope* and *chance* (1999: 652 – 654).

3.4.2.2 *Appositive postmodification by –ing clauses*

The –*ing* participle in the function of postmodifying appositive clause does not occur very often; as Quirk says, "The typical postmodifying function of –*ing* clauses is as complement of a preposition (*the job of driving cars*)." However, there are some cases

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of appositive postmodification realised by *–ing* clause (*We can offer you a career counselling delinquents*) (Quirk, 1985: 1272)

3.4.3.3 *Non-restrictive postmodification by appositive clauses*

Unlike in relative clauses, the particle *that* occurs in both restrictive and non-restrictive appositive clauses (*It was a pleasing thought, that I might soon be moving in more exalted circles.* (Biber, 1999: 646) The items like *namely*, *that is (to say)* or *ie*, or *viz.* can be optionally used in non-restrictive appositive clauses: *His last wish, viz. that his collection should be donated to the city museum, was respected.* Dušková argues that the concept of those non-restrictive clauses resembles the non-restrictive apposition, and is a strong argument for qualifying such clauses as appositive. Like restrictive clauses, non-restrictive clauses in appositive postmodification can have either implied subject, or subject introduced by a preposition: *This last appeal to us, to come and visit him, was never sent.* (Quirk, 1985: 1262, 1271; Dušková, 2006: 600)

4. ANALYSIS

4.1 Hypotheses

The aim of this paper is to observe nominal postmodification in the newspaper reporting. As mentioned in the theoretical part, the study of nominal structures in newspaper reports is of particular importance. In this paper, the focus is given on postmodification that is realized by clauses, namely relative and appositive. The paper is aimed at demonstrating that clausal postmodification is a very frequent phenomenon in the newspaper reporting and has certain tendencies which are specific for the news discourse. Besides general grammar rules, which are dealt with in this paper and which can be applied to the relative or appositive clauses irrespective of the discourse, there are discussed some hypotheses concerning the use of clausal postmodification in the newspaper reporting. As the main source of hypotheses in this paper there are used mainly corpus findings carried out by Biber.

Firstly, it is demonstrated how clausal postmodifiers can function as the tool for condensation of information presented in the news. Then, there is discussed the proportion between relative and appositive clauses. We suggest that relative clauses prevail, as they can be headed by almost unlimited number of nouns. Also the use of restrictive and non-restrictive clauses is commented on, as the occurrence of non-restrictive clauses is supposed to be high in the news discourse. Further, we observe also the frequency of syntactic functions of relative gaps, it is likely that majority of them are subject gaps. Concerning the distinction between finite and non-finite clauses, it is demonstrated on the selected examples why the finite clause is given priority to non-finite or vice versa. Regarding the formal types of clause, the occurrence of individual relative pronouns is examined, for example the hypothesis that the pronoun *who* is preferred to *that* with personal antecedents. Also the types of non-finite clause are examined, with regard to the function they have in the newspaper discourse. So far, the hypotheses concern mainly the syntactic viewpoint. Regarding the semantic viewpoint, we focus on the meaning of head nouns, especially in the appositive clauses. As Fowler says, the choice of the head noun can add another perspective to an issue

which is discussed, and can influence a potential interpretation. Therefore, on selected examples, we observe to which extent the news is presented objectively, and where we think the author might have added another meaning to the information either to influence a reader's perspective, or to make it more attractive.

4.2 Methods

The analysis was carried out from the selected articles from the British broadsheet newspapers The Times and The Daily Telegraph. For the purpose of this paper, the online version of the newspapers was used (www.timesonline.co.uk and www.telegraph.co.uk). As the online newspapers are becoming very popular and the readership base is growing fast, also official BBC News web site, news.bbc.co.uk, was included in the analysis. We think this medium can be treated as a broadsheet, as there is the general belief that it provides authoritative and well-founded news. Proportionally, each medium creates approximately a third of the analysed articles. To avoid the influence of potential idiosyncracies on the analysis, only around first 130 - 170 words of each article were chosen to be examined, depending on the length of the sentences. Therefore, the sample articles contain mainly lead sentences. When referring to the term "article", we mean a news-item, dealing with world or UK news, mainly from the field of politics, marginally science or health. Editorials or commentaries are not included in the analysis.

In the analysis, each of the selected articles is labelled with a character (A – S). Within an article, individual postmodifying clauses are numbered; the first starting from "1" on (A1, A2, ..., P1, P2, ...). The head noun is in bold, and the postmodifying clause is underlined. The beginning of the clause is marked with an index (^{B3}) to indicate where the analysed clause starts. In the case that the head noun does not precede immediately the postmodifying clause, the underlined clause is headed by the most proximate head noun (in bold) preceding the clause. All the articles with analyses are included in the Appendix, which comprises also the list of the abbreviations and shortenings used.

4.3 Overall occurrence of clausal postmodifiers

Generally, the frequency of clausal postmodification in the selected articles was high. This might be because the analysed clauses came from the beginning of the articles, or so called lead sentences, which have to contain information about the participants, place and other circumstances of the event discussed in the article (cf. p. 4). Therefore, the sentences are long and complex to contain several propositions. The high degree of complexity can be demonstrated on the initial sentence from the article J:

*A **man** [J1] who was presumed to be in a vegetative state for five years has answered questions using his thoughts alone in a ground-breaking **experiment** [J2(1)] that promises to allow some **patients** [J3] who are "locked in" by brain injuries [J2(2)] to communicate.*

The sentence contains three clausal postmodifiers, all restrictive relative clauses. The first dependent clause, J1, is headed by the general noun *man*. In this case, the relative clause has basically two functions. Firstly, it serves to identify the reference of the head, which is the basic function of the restrictive clause. However, it seems that this is not the only function of this clause. There exists some general knowledge about the vegetative state, that this state has certain consequences on the ability of people to communicate. Though the vegetative state is described in more details later in the article (see the example J4, p. 28), it is presupposed that an average reader understands the proposition given in J1 and can paraphrase the modification as a concession: *Though the man was presumed to be in a vegetative state (= not being able to communicate) for five years, he was able to answer the questions ...* This possible interpretation of the clause corresponds to the concept of integrated relative clause as presented by Huddleston (cf. p. 9). The relative construction here allows the author to avoid wordiness of the article as he can rely on the general knowledge of readers. The author paraphrases the first postmodification in J3, where he further specifies the consequences of the vegetative state in more common words and makes it sound more familiar even to less educated readers. The clause J2 in fact summarises the message of the whole article; it states that there is a hope for patients in the vegetative state that they could communicate, which had not been possible before. The results of the analysis show that from the total number of 19 articles, only in 4 cases, the article starts with a sentence which does not

contain any clausal postmodifier (articles F, H, P, Q). 10 articles start with a sentence containing one clausal postmodifier (for example articles C, D, E, L, O), and in 5 cases, more than one postmodifying clause occurs in the initial sentence (articles J, A, B, G, R).

So far, it has been demonstrated how postmodifying clauses can contribute to clear comprehension of a news article while facing the constraints of limited space for the news production. However, the aim of this paper is to observe both functional types of postmodifying clauses, relative and appositive. To give a general overview of the types of clause examined, the results of analysis are organised into a chart. The chart shows the frequency of occurrence of individual types of postmodifying clauses. The results show that relative clauses prevail, as they create 91 per cent of all the analysed clausal postmodifiers compared to appositive clauses, which occurred in only 9 per cent of the cases. Regarding the structure, the results indicate that concerning the relative clauses, finite clauses predominate over non-finite. On the contrary, the occurrence of non-finite appositive clauses was slightly more frequent in comparison with finite clauses. Regarding the restrictiveness, both relative and appositive clauses are more often to be found in the restrictive meaning, there even is not found any appositive non-restrictive clause. However, it is worth mentioning that there is a high proportion of non-restrictive relative clauses.

		RESTRICTIVE	NON-RESTRICTIVE	RATIO (%)
RELATIVE	FINITE	43	20	63
RELATIVE	NON-FINITE	24	4	28
RELATIVE	**TOTAL**	**67**	**24**	**91**
APPOSITIVE	FINITE	4	0	4
APPOSITIVE	NON-FINITE	5	0	5
APPOSITIVE	**TOTAL**	**9**	**0**	**9**

Chart 1: Overall occurrence of clausal postmodifiers

4.4 Relative clauses

As mentioned above, relative clauses create a vast majority of all the clausal postmodifiers analysed in the articles. It might be because the number of nouns which can function as a head is almost unlimited when compared to appositive clauses (cf. p. 17). The head nouns usually denote persons or other specific entities: *workers* (D5), *police* (G3), *testimonials* (B6). When analysing the relative clauses, the focus is given firstly on the distinction between restrictive and non-restrictive clauses.

4.4.1 Restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses

Though the frequency of restrictive clauses is higher, non-restrictive clauses make a significant part, as they create 26 per cent of all relative clauses. The results indicate that with finite clauses, the proportion of restrictive clauses is even higher, as they form 31 per cent of all finite clauses (see examples C6, G4, M3). Regarding the non-finite clauses, on the contrary, the non-restrictive clauses form only 14 per cent of all non-finite relative clauses (example clauses O5, S2). Therefore, the results of the analysis roughly correspond to the corpus findings of Biber, who claims that non-restrictive clauses make up about 30 per cent of all relative clauses in the news discourse (cf. p. 14). The frequent occurrence of non-restrictive clauses in news may have several reasons. Firstly, many clauses are headed by proper nouns, therefore, the reference is limited by the uniqueness of the head noun. In the articles there were found 16 relative clauses headed by a proper noun, 15 of which were non-restrictive. The proper nouns referred mostly to persons: *Boa Sr* (C2), *Ms Petherick* (F3), *Matt Andreson* (Q4), *Najibullah Zazi* (N3); names of geographical areas: *Calais* (A4), *South West Coast Path* (F2), *Latin America* (M3), *China* (P2); or generally products of human thinking: *Cancer Act 1939* (B3), *Gray Pigeons software* (L5). In the examples, the relative clause serves to add some extra information about the antecedent. On the other hand, it seems that the clauses, though non-restrictive, are important for a reader's comprehension of the article. The modification is necessary, as the person discussed may not be known to general public and the reader might not understand the relevance of this person to the

topic presented: ***Najibullah Zazi***, *who is accused of planning an attack on New York commuters* (N3).

In one of the cases with a proper noun functioning as head, the postmodifying clause was restrictive: *the last member of the Bo – one of the ten Great Andamanese **tribes** that are considered indigenous inhabitants of the islands* (C3). As Huddleston says, with a proper noun as a head there can occur only non-restrictive modification, unless the head is preceded a determiner (cf. p. 14). In this case, there are two determiners – the definite article *the* and the numeral *ten*. Here the postmodification may imply that there are more than ten Andamanese tribes, and some of those tribes are not indigenous. In some cases, the reference of the head noun is specified in the preceding context of the article. In the following example, the exact place is denoted by a proper noun (*Mt Ruapehu*) in the preceding sentence, therefore, the non-restrictive clause presents extra information added for a reader´s interest only: *the **area**, which is home to some of New Zealands´s most popular skiing and snowboarding terrain.* (G4)

4.4.2 *Finite relative clauses*

Another level of analysis focuses on the distinction of relative clauses to finite and non-finite. Firstly, finite clauses are examined. As already mentioned, finite relative clauses are more frequent than non-finite, in the analysed sample they create more than two thirds of all relative clauses (see for example A6, B7, D3, E4, K2, O7, S5). As stated on the page 8, the finite clauses are the most explicit means of modification: *a **tourist** who was stranded on a mountain in New Zealand over the weekend* (G2). As Biber suggests, the finite clauses are preferred when tense, aspect, or modality are important. The sample articles include several examples when the modality has to be expressed, therefore, the use of a finite clause was given priority. Such as in the sentence *Postmen are being armed with a new **weapon** which could hand them a crucial advantage in their perennial battle with dogs (D1).* The modal verb expresses the degree of possibility. In the given context, it implies that there is a possibility that the new weapon will help postmen battle with dogs, but that it is not certain whether it will do so or not.

The probability of the action is indicated, therefore, the objectiveness of the news is not weakened. Similarly in the sentence *Pictures of clinking wine glasses and a pair of shapely female legs ... warn of **experiences** that ought to be avoided* (O3), the modal verb in fact carries the main message of the clause, as it expresses to which extent it is necessary that the experiences be avoided. In this case, the infinitive clause is a viable non-finite alternative, as the expression *experiences to be avoided* imply some modality. However, when compared to the full relative clause with the modal verb, the modality is implied only to a certain degree, as the non-finite clause may be interpreted for example as *experiences that should/ have to be avoided*. The modality of the clause can be expressed by the modal verb, but also by other linguistic tools, such as in article B: *A self-proclaimed "**visionary healer**", who claims to be able to treat illness from a distance* (B1). Here, the word indicating modality is the verb *claim*. By using this full verb, the author of the article expresses the stance towards the message communicated to a reader. The author implies that what is presented in the news is how the man identifies himself, not the undisputable truth. Therefore, the trustworthiness of the news is retained. Concerning the formal types of the finite relative clause, *wh*-relative was the most frequent type. As it can be seen from the Chart 2, *wh*-relative created 62 per cent of all finite relative clauses.

	RESTRICTIVE	NON-RESTRICTIVE	TOTAL	RATIO (%)
WH-RELATIVE	19	20	39	62
THAT RELATIVE	19	0	19	30
BARE RELATIVE	5	0	5	8

Chart 2: Formal types of finite relative clause

The *wh*-relative is followed by *that* relative, which occurred in 30 per cent of the cases, and bare relative, with 8 per cent of the finite clauses. This might be caused also by the fact that only *wh*-relatives can occur in the non-restrictive clauses, which are common in the selected articles. The Chart 3 below shows the frequency of occurrence of individual relative pronouns with the distinction between restrictive and non-restrictive clauses.

PRONOUN	RESTRICTIVE	NON-RESTRICTIVE	TOTAL	RATIO (%)
THAT	19	0	19	30
WHO	12	6	18	29
WHICH	5	12	17	26
ZERO	5	0	5	8
WHERE	2	1	3	5
WHOSE	0	1	1	2

Chart 3: Frequency of relative pronouns

Regarding *that* relatives, which are the most common in the sample articles, all clauses containing the pronoun *that* have subject gaps. According to Quirk, if the pronoun functions as the subject of the clause, the pronoun *who* is preferred to *that* in case the antecedent is personal (cf. p. 12). The pronoun *that* occurred only once with a personal antecedent: *his **in-laws** that had helped the couple buy the house* (H2). We suggest that in this case, the use of this pronoun does not necessarily have to indicate any special reason and might be the result of a random choice of the author of the article. On the contrary, we suppose that the use of the pronoun *that* in the noun phrase *a unique **tribe** that inhabited the Andaman Islands for as long as 65,000 years* (C1) might be motivated by the effort of the author to avoid the decision between personal *who* and non-personal *which*. The word *tribe* is a collective noun and may be interpreted either as animate, a group of individual human beings, or inanimate. It seems that the author solved the problem by using the gender-neutral expression *that*. In the same article, the author also speaks about *tribespeople,* where the gender distinction is clear and the pronoun *who* is used. On the other hand, it has to be pointed out that the clause is non-restrictive, therefore, the use of *that* is not an acceptable alternative: *the **Great Andamanese tribespeople**, who now number only 52 among the archipelago's total population of about 300,000* (C5). In the other cases, the pronoun *that* usually refers to non-personal antecedents, for example *factories* (E1), *experiment* (J2), *decision* (K1), *company* (L6).

Regarding frequency, the pronoun *that* is followed by the *wh*-pronouns *who* and *which*. The personal *who* is slightly more frequent. The pronoun *who* occurred in 18 clauses, 12 of which were restrictive: *a **man** who kept the family home to pay back a gift of €29,000 (£25,000) from his in-laws* (H1); (further examples A1, B1, G3, O4). The rest, that is exactly a third of them, were non-restrictive: ***Ms Petherick**, who describes herself as a wordsmith* (F3); (see also C2, N3). We suggest that the high occurrence of *who* might be associated with the fact that news are oriented to humans and human actions, therefore, there is a focus on closer description of news-story participants: *the **man** who, he is certain, raped and murdered his 14-year-old daughter* (K4). The pronoun *which* was more frequent in non-restrictive meaning, where it made up more than two thirds of all clauses with *which*: ***Bo language**, which is distinct from those of the other Great Andamanese tribes* (C6); (then A4, B3, F2, P2), compared to restrictive: *three **factories** which supply Apple* (E2); (see examples D1, H3, L7). In the articles, the pronouns *who* and *which* have almost exclusively subject gaps. The only exception is the sentence *A **vegetative state (VS)**, in which patients wake from a coma but appear to have no awareness, had been diagnosed* (J4). This clause has an adverbial gap and the pronoun *which* is used with a preposition in a prenuclear position, which the *wh*-pronouns allow (cf. p. 12).

Bare relative is found mostly where the gap is object: *the **noises** the animals were making* (Q3); (also B7, B9). Then, the clauses which are in coordination with another finite relative clause and where the relative pronoun is ellipted were analysed as bare relatives too: *a **device** which releases compressed air and makes a hissing sound* (D2, D3); ***package**, which will increase taxes and cut the income of public-sector worker by up to 8 per cent* (I2, I3). Though the relative pronoun is in the function of subject and as such is non-omissible, the pronoun is not explicitly indicated, therefore, the clause cannot be classified as a *wh*-relative, too.

The pronouns *where* and *whose* were quite rare, as they imply non-subject gaps, which occur only in minor cases in the sample articles. The clauses with relative adverb *where* have an adverbial gap. In one case, where occurs in non-restrictive clause, as head noun

is the proper noun: ***Latin America***, *where Argentina´s claims over the islands has broad*
support in the region (M3). In other two cases, the relative clause is restrictive (D7, E5).
The pronoun *whose* functions as the determinative: ***Armenia****, which is landlocked and*
whose economy is suffering one of the sharpest declines in growth in the former Soviet
Union (S5 + S6).

As the results of the analysis show, subject gaps are by far more common than non-
subject gaps in the analysed articles, they made up 87 per cent, which is a higher rate
than 75 per cent suggested by Biber (cf. p. 13). The Chart 4 below indicates the
syntactic function and frequency of relative gaps in finite clauses:

GAP	RESTRICTIVE	NON-RESTRICTIVE	TOTAL	RATIO (%)
SUBJECT	37	18	55	87
ADVERBIAL	2	2	4	6
OBJECT	3	0	3	5
DETERMINER	0	1	1	2

Chart 4: Syntactic function of relative gaps in finite clauses

Regarding the frequency, subject gaps are followed by adverbial gaps (D7, E5, J4, M3),
object gaps (B7, B9, Q3), and a determiner (S6). In non-finite clauses, the ratio of
subject-gapped clauses was even higher, 96 per cent, as from the total amount of 28
non-finite clauses, only one has non-subject gap (cf. p. 32). Without the distinction
between finite and non-finite clauses, the proportion of clauses where the relativised
element is subject is 90 per cent. When the relativised element is subject, the function of
the relative clause is to provide new information and identify the reference of the head
noun. The clauses in which the subject is gapped are also easier to process, which is
important for smooth comprehension of an article. On the contrary, when the non-
subject element is relativised, the main function of the relative clause is to express the
relationship which the antecedent has to the subject which is usually known from the
preceding context. (cf. p. 13). We suggest that the reason why the percentage of the
subject-gapped clauses was higher than the one proposed by Biber is that the sample

articles are usually lead sentences or sentences from the very beginning of the articles, where most of the participants and other issues are introduced and further specified: *text messages sent to family members in Greece have helped save the life of a tourist ...* (G1); *French riot police were involved in a stand-off with UK bound **migrants** who had moved on mass to a building in northern France* (A1). The relationships that the participants have towards each other or towards the issue discussed are usually described later in the article: *Mr Pengelly helped to shrink a **tumour** he had in his jaw* (B9).

4.4.3 Non-finite relative clauses

The non-finite relative clauses make up almost a third of all relative clauses in the sample articles. The Chart 5 below compares the frequency of the three types:

TYPE OF CLAUSE	RESTRICTIVE	NON-RESTRICTIVE	TOTAL	RATIO (%)
-ED PARTICIPLE	16	4	20	71
-ING PARTICIPLE	5	0	5	18
INFINITIVE CLAUSE	3	0	3	11

Chart 5: Types of the non-finite clause

As the results indicate, *-ed* clauses were the most frequent, as they create 71 per cent of all non-finite clauses, followed by *–ing* clauses (18 per cent) and infinitive clauses (11 per cent). Among all the types, it is only *–ed* clause that occurred in the non-restrictive meaning, in 20 per cent of the cases, mostly with the proper noun as the head: *the **Verkhny Lars crossing** – situated on a narrow mountain pass high in the Caucasus mountains* (S2); (then see L5, N2, O5). Firstly, the focus is given to the most frequent type, the *–ed* clause.

As Biber says, most of the postmodifying clauses which have the verb in passive are non-finite. He advocates that the main reason is economy. We can say that most of the –

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ed clauses found in the analysis support this theory, as the phrase: *the number of postal* **workers** *attacked by dogs while on their rounds* (D5); (also A2, B6, G1, K3). On the other hand, the preference is given to finite clauses when aspect, tense or modality is important, which is described on page 26, example sentence O3, which has the verb in passive but contain a full verb. However, *-ed* clauses can indicate progressive aspect, as in the sentence **Men** *seen as likely to be violent towards their wives* *could be forced to wear an electronic tag under a* **law** *being debated by the French parliament* (R1 + R2). The clause R2 contains the non-finite verb *being debated*, which has a progressive contrast. The clause can be paraphrased as "*a law which is being debated*". Therefore, the explicitness of the clause is quite high (at least in terms of the progressiveness), although it is non-finite. It is also worth mentioning how modality can be expressed in a non-finite clause, as it is in R1. Though, as a non-finite clause it does not contain a modal verb, the modality is indicated by the adjective *likely*, which is capable of indicating probability of action. Thus, we can say that although the –*ed* clause cannot express modality of its own, the use of non-finite clauses does not necessarily have to be avoided even in contexts where the indication of modality is an integral part of the message. Regarding the most frequently used verbs, even in a small number of –ed clauses (20), the verb *given* was used three times, which is quite a significant proportion (D6, H4, O8).

As stated at the beginning of this chapter, the second most frequent type of the on-finite clause is –*ing* clause, which makes up 18 per cent of all non-finite clauses. The –*ing* clause is a viable option in case the verb is stative and therefore does not normally occur in progressive form as full verb (cf. p. 15): *there are some handy hints for* **officials** *wanting to stay on the straight and narrow* (O1). As the verb *want* is stative, this sentence could be re-phrased as finite only in non-progressive meaning as *officials* *who want to stay on the straight and narrow*. The rest of the –*ing* clauses contained verbs capable of having a finite progressive form: **officers** *blocking the entrance to the shed* (A7); (see also A5, B8).

The least frequent type of postmodifying clause in the sample articles is the infinitive clause. Unlike the two previous types of non-finite clauses, the infinitive clause can have also non-subject gaps. There occur three relative infinitive clauses, two with a subject gap (I4, O6), and one where the gap is a prepositional complement: *a matter for the United States to make a judgment on* (M2). This clause also has a subject given in a *for*-phrase, which is quite rare, as Biber suggests that less than 10 per cent of infinitive clauses have a *for*-phrase (cf. p. 16). In the case of the clause M2, the explicit indication of the subject is essential, since it is a part of the quote which is uttered by the US Secretary of State, and as such should be stated in a clear way not to have any diplomatic consequences.

To summarize this chapter, we can say that relative clauses predominate over appositive, they create more than 90 per cent of all clausal postmodifiers. The reason is that there are almost unlimited possibilities of nouns that can head the relative clause. The ratio of non-restrictive clauses is quite high, 26 per cent, which is caused mainly by the fact that many of those clauses are headed by a proper noun. Concerning the structure, finite relative clauses, as the most explicit means of modification, were more frequent than non-finite, they create almost 70 per cent of all relative clauses. Among the formal types of the relative clause, the *wh*-relative was most common, followed by *that* relative and bare relative. The most frequent pronoun was *that*, then *who* and *which*, the least common were *where* and *whose*. The vast majority of relative clauses, both finite and non-finite, were subject-gapped, which seems to be caused by the fact that the sample sentences are mostly initial or lead sentences, introducing all participants discussed in the article. Non-finite clauses make up about a third of all relative clauses. The most frequent are *–ed* clauses, which occurred also in non-restrictive meaning, followed by *–ing* clause and infinitive clause.

4.5 Appositive clauses

As the results of the analysis indicate, the occurrence of appositive clauses is significantly lower compared to the relative clauses; they make up only 9 per cent of all the clausal postmodifiers in sample articles. The low ratio may be caused by the fact

that the number of head nouns that can license the appositive clause is limited to certain groups of nouns: *word* (A3), *suggestions* (B2), *fears* (L3), *speculation* (P1), *opportunity* (P3). Regarding the restrictiveness, only restrictive clauses can be found in the sample articles. As with the relative clauses, the distinction is made between finite and non-finite appositive clauses.

4.5.1 *Finite appositive clauses*

As the Chart 1 shows, the frequency of finite clauses is slightly lower, they occur in 4 cases out of 9. Concerning the form of the finite clauses, all of them are *that*-clauses: **word** *that it was offering shelter in Calais* (A3); (then B2, L3, P1). No *wh*-interrogative clauses were found in the articles. With reference to the theory of Biber and Quirk, that the finite clauses are preferred in cases where the modality, tense or aspect is important, we can say that in all the cases of *that*-clauses, one of those categories is an essential part of the meaning of the clause, and therefore it is necessary that they should be expressed. The clause **suggestions** *that he can cure cancer* (B2) contains the modal verb indicating the ability of someone to do something, the modality is expressed explicitly. The indication of progressive aspect is important in the clause **fears** *that China is becoming a growing centre for internet crime* (L3), including the verb in its progressive meaning, which in this case might indicate the inevitability of the action. The expression **speculation** *that Mr Obama will meet the Tibetan spiritual leader in Washington later this month* (P1) containing the verb *will* may imply both the willingness and the probability that something may happen in the future. Therefore, in all cases, the finite clause, as the most explicit means of modification, is used.

That-clauses are constructions used typically to express the stance towards the proposition which is introduced by the head noun. In the news discourse, the careful choice of the head nouns is usually associated with the effort of the news producer to either catch the attention of a reader by making the real issues more subjective, or to imply the attitude of a particular medium to what is presented in the news (cf. p. 5). The latter is the case of the clause B2 above. The strength of the proclamation that

somebody is able to cure cancer is weakened by the head noun *suggestions*, which implies that the proposition introduced by the head noun is not a fact. Also in P1, the head noun *speculations* might conceal the source of the information which the news producers rely on. Regarding the sentence L3, it seems that the head noun *fears* partially refers to the news as a fact, as it is most likely that the Chinese police considers the issue discussed to be a big problem, but also might imply certain beliefs. The article comes from The Times, which is the medium representing the values and beliefs of the western or European society. The noun *fears* may imply also that this society feels to be endangered by Chinese growing economy and power and is threatened by any kind of potential dangers coming from China. Therefore, the article is made more subjective and more attractive for readers, as it arouses more passionate interest about the issue discussed.

Regarding the form of the head nouns, it is also worth mentioning that 3 appositive clauses are headed by the noun in plural: *suggestions* (B2), *offers* (B4), and *fears* (L3), which makes up a third of all appositive clauses included in the analysis. This is not very common in appositive clauses, as corpus findings claim over 95 per cent of that-clauses have a singular head (cf. p. 18). We suggest that the plural heads are perfectly acceptable in those cases, as for example *fears* might indicate that more people or unspecified groups of people might be afraid of China´s growing criminality.

4.5.2 *Non-finite appositive clauses*

As mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, non-finite clauses preponderate in the sample articles: ***offers*** *to treat cancer* (B4), ***plot*** *to bomb New York City last year* (N1), (see also P3, R4, S4). In all 5 cases the clauses are infinitival, which corresponds to the theory of Biber that in news discourse, the infinitive clauses are very common as the head nouns they usually take are associated with human goals and actions (cf. p. 18): *opportunity* (P3), *plot* (N1), *offer* (B4), *order* (R4), *agreement* (S4). The head noun *opportunity* represents a goal, whereas the other clauses are headed by nouns which denote human action, mostly products of human thinking and decision-making: *plot,*

order, offer, agreement. All of these nouns are derived from verbs expressing intentional human action. Other types of non-finite appositive clause, *-ing* clause or *of + -ing* clause were not found in the sample articles.

The results of the analysis indicate that the appositive clause is the less frequent type of nominal clausal postmodifiers. It makes up less than 10 per cent of all postmodifying clauses. The reason for the low number of clauses is that the appositive clauses can be headed by a small subclass of nouns only. Regarding the form, non-finite clauses prevail, namely infinitive clauses, which are connected with human goals and actions. Finite clauses are often headed by nouns that may imply attitudes of a particular medium.

5. CONCLUSION

The aim of this thesis is to analyse and comment on the specifics and tendencies regarding the clausal postmodification which are typical of news discourse. The news discourse faces the constraints of the limited space for a particular news-item. To deal with these restrictions, the newspaper reports abound with the nominal structures. As emphasized in the first chapter, the primary concern of the newspaper reporting should be to inform readers. However, news producers are influenced by certain pressures outside newspapers, mostly economic and political. The use of relative and appositive clauses might emphasize or suppress certain aspects of the news, which may change the perspective with which the news is presented. How relative and appositive clauses can serve as the means of condensation of information on one side, and the purposes of news producers on the other side, is one of the primary concerns of the paper. To obtain the data for the analysis, the articles from British quality press and media were collected and all occurrences of clausal postmodifiers were examined.

The results of the analysis indicate that the occurrence of clausal postmodifiers in the selected news articles is high. The reason is that most of the sample sentences come from lead sentences, the sentences that occur at the beginning of articles and have to introduce most of actors and issues discussed in a particular news story. Regarding the types of postmodifying clauses, relative clauses prevail as they make up more than 90 per cent of all clauses found in the articles. We suggest it is because the relative clauses can be headed by innumerable nouns compared to appositive clauses, in which head nouns are restricted mostly to abstract nouns. The analysis shows that there is quite a significant proportion of non-restrictive clauses, especially finite (about 30 per cent of all finite relative clauses). The reason is that in the news discourse, there is often referred to specific persons, places and other entities, denoted by proper nouns, which do not require any further specification. Secondly, the non-restrictive clause can offer additional information, which might make the newspaper more interesting for a reader. Concerning the structure, almost 70 per cent of relative clauses in the sample articles are finite. The finite clauses seem to be used when the indication of tense, modality and

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aspect is important, and also in the cases where the relative clause further describes a person. Regarding the formal types of the finite relative clause, the *wh*-relatives are most common, followed by *that* relative and bare relative, which occurred only in minor cases. The most common relative pronouns are *that,* which occurs in a third of finite clauses, then *who*, and *which*. The results of the analysis prove that the pronoun *who* is given priority to *that* when the antecedent is personal. The pronouns *where* and *whose* are quite rare. The argument for the low occurrence of these two pronouns may be that most of the finite clauses in the selected articles were subject-gapped, almost 90 per cent. It might be because the sample contained mostly lead sentences, which introduce new information (therefore, have mostly subject gaps), in comparison with non-subject gaps, which express the relations the antecedent has towards the information given in the preceding context. Concerning the non-finite clauses, the results of the analysis indicate that they make up approximately 30 per cent of all relative clauses in the articles. Non-finite clauses play an important role in contexts where the use of finite clause would be redundant, as they convey the same message whilst using fewer words. The most frequent type is *–ed* clause, followed by *–ing* clause and infinitive clause. The first two types are less explicit, as they primarily cannot indicate category of tense, modality or aspect. However, the results suggest that the non-finite clause may be a possible alternative even in the context where the indication of these is important, since for example modality can be expressed also by other linguistic tools, mainly lexical. Moreover, the *–ing* clause can be used when the progressive form of some verbs is unacceptable.

Regarding the second type of the clausal postmodifiers, appositive clauses, their frequency is much lower than of relative clauses, as described at the beginning of this chapter. In the sample articles, all appositive clauses are restrictive. The greater variety is with the structural types. There occurs a finite clause containing the particle *that* and non-finite clauses, represented by infinitive clauses. The high occurrence of infinitive clause is associated with the fact that these clauses are headed by nouns denoting human goals and actions, which is common in the news. The use of appositive clauses in particular allows the news producers to imply the values they prefer. The perspective

expressed by the head noun may be also subjective, to arouse more emotions in the reader, whilst the information contained in the postmodifying clause carries the real matter. To conclude, the analysis proves that the occurrence of the clausal postmodifiers in the newspaper reports is high, especially in lead sentences, as the complex nominal structures can express more propositions within limited space. Though the primary function of clausal postmodifiers is to provide a reader with all necessary information s/he needs, in the selected articles were found some cases where the author might imply another perspective which might be somehow biased.

6. RESUMÉ

Tato práce se zabývá výskytem jednotlivých typů větné postmodifikace podstatného jména v anglických novinových zprávách. V teoretické části se zaměřuje nejprve na celkovou charakteristiku stylu novinových článků, představuje jednotlivé účastníky procesu komunikace a zmiňuje se o hlavních funkcích, které média zajišťují. Následně jsou popsány jazykové prostředky, kterými jsou tyto funkce docíleny, hlavní důraz je kladen na nominalizaci a větné struktury v postmodifikaci podstatných jmen. Dále se věnuje základnímu rozčlenění nominální fráze, tj. podstatného jména a různými variantami jeho doplnění. Poté se zabývá již výlučně větnou postmodifikací. Nejprve představuje různé přístupy k rozlišení a názvosloví vět rozvíjejících podstatné jméno a následně se zaměřuje na základní charakteristické rysy obou typů větné postmodifikace včetně možností jejich realizace. V praktické části je provedena analýza vybraných anglických novinových článků, jejímž cílem je ukázat, že větná postmodifikace je v novinových zprávách velmi častý jev, a zda existují určité tendence týkající se četností určitých typů vět a jejich funkce v novinových článcích.

Hlavní funkcí tištěných médií je podat čtenáři podrobné zprávy o nejnovějším dění okolo něho i ve světě. Protože je rozsah novin omezen, je vhodné hojně využívat nominalizovaných výrazů. Tímto způsobem jedno bohatě rozvité podstatné jméno vyjádří více skutečností najednou při úspoře místa, jako například fráze *plot to bomb New York City last year.* (N1) Autoři novinových článků musí také do vysoké míry spoléhat na určitou všeobecnou úroveň znalostí svých čtenářů. Aby čtenář nebyl ochuzen o podstatné informace a zpráva nebyla příliš dlouhá, často se využívá dlouhých komplexních souvětí obsahujících podstatné jméno dále rozvité a blíže vymezené vedlejší větou: *Text messages sent to family members in Greece have helped save the life of a tourist who was stranded on a mountain in New Zealand over the weekend.* (G1, G2) Ve zkoumaných článcích celých 80 procent úvodních vět obsahovalo alespoň jednu větnou postmodifikaci. Lze tedy říci, že primární funkcí větné postmodifikace v novinových článcích je poskytnout maximum informací při úspoře místa. Zadruhé, čtenářské publikum je autorům neznámé a je pouze implikováno, protože noviny jsou

masově produkované tištěné médium. Stejně tak i na výrobce novin nelze hledět jako na individuální osoby, ale jako na instituce a zejména podnikatelské subjekty. Jako takové mohou mít i zájmy, které se netýkají přímo produkce novin a jejich informační hodnoty pro čtenáře, a to zájmy ekonomické či politické. Určitá ideologická stanoviska se pak mohou promítnout do výběru článků a samotného textu, a tím ovlivnit perspektivu, se kterou je bude čtenář vnímat a následně i jeho politické či jiné preference. Větná postmodifikace podstatných jmen je velmi účinným nástrojem umožňujícím zdůraznit nebo popřít určité aspekty zpráv: například uvozující podstatné jméno ve frázi *the agreement to open the crossing* (S4) neudává účastníky děje, to znamená, že může potenciálně skrýt nepopulární aktivity některých lidí či seskupení, které může určité médium upřednostňovat. Zatřetí, podstatné jméno uvozující postmodifikující větu může vyjadřovat určité subjektivní pocity a emoce, což může čtenáři zatraktivnit četbu novin a tím i zvýšit zájem o pravidelný nákup určitých novin: *the <u>dangers</u> that await anyone given power in China* (O7, O8).

Jak vyplývá z předchozího textu, nominální fráze (*noun phrase*) zahrnuje především podstatné jméno a další stavební prvky, které ho doprovázejí. Každá nominální fráze musí mít tzv. *head*, řídící člen fráze, který tvoří její jádro. Dalším prvkem je *determinátor* (člen, kvantifikátor, číslovka nebo jejich kombinace), který je povinnou součástí každé nominální fráze, dále *premodifikátor* (hlavně přídavná jména) a *postmodifikátor* (např. předložková fráze, přístavek, finitní a nefinitní věty). Tato práce se zabývá právě větnými postmodifikátory. Pohled různých autorů na další členění větných postmodifikátorů se liší, například Huddleston, Biber a Jacobs se kloní k rozdělení na věty vztažné (*relative*) a doplňkové (*complement*), resp. obsahové (*content*), zatímco Quirk rozlišuje věty vztažné (*relative*) a přístavkové (*appositive*). Tato práce upřednostňuje přístup Quirka, a proto se v dalším textu odkazuje na vztažné a přístavkové věty. Hlavní významový rozdíl mezi větou vztažnou a přístavkovou je ten, že vztažná věta blíže vymezuje referenta uvozujícího podstatného jména, tj. slouží k jeho identifikaci, kdežto přístavková věta specifikuje vlastní obsah uvozujícího jména: *encounter <u>that will be watched closely by Downing Street</u>* (M1) vs. *suggestions <u>that he</u>*

can cure cancer (B2). Přístavková věta je také do značné míry omezena počtem podstatných jmen, kterými může být uvozena, a to především na abstraktní výrazy jako _suggestions_ (B2), _matter_ (M2), _speculation_ (P1). Tato limitace se ve vybraných článcích projevila tím, že celých 91 procent všech větných postmodifikátorů tvořily vztažné věty. Další rozdíl je v tom, že ve finitních přístavkových větách nemůže částici _that_ nahradit vztažné zájmeno _which_. Jak vztažné, tak i přístavkové věty se mohou vyskytovat ve formě finitní (vedlejší věta obsahuje sloveso v určitém tvaru) a nefinitní (vedlejší věta má sloveso ve tvaru neurčitém, tj. participia nebo infinitivu). Finitní věty jsou nejvíce explicitní formou postmodifikace podstatného jména, protože obsahují sloveso v určitém tvaru, které vyjadřuje čas, způsob, slovesný rod a aspekt. Ve zkoumaných článcích byl celkový poměr finitních vět 67 procent, u vztažných vět byl podíl finitních vět ještě vyšší, 73 procent, zatímco u přístavkových nižší, 44 procent. Analýza potvrdila, že finitní struktury se používají v kontextu, kde je na místě explicitní vyjádření slovesných kategorií: _a landmark judgement which could allow in-laws to reclaim presents_ (H3). Nefinitní struktury tyto kategorie vyjadřují pouze do omezené míry nebo vůbec, proto jsou méně explicitní než finitní: _the website targeted by police_ (L9). To však neznamená, že užití nefinitních vět je v určitých kontextech vyloučeno, protože existují i jiné jazykové prostředky, zejména lexikální, které tyto kategorie mohou vyjádřit, jako v následující větě výraz _likely_ implikující modalitu: _Men seen as likely to be violent towards their wives_ (R1). Z hlediska významového se oba typy vět mohou vyskytovat jako restriktivní (omezující) nebo nerestriktivní (neomezující). Užití restriktivní věty je nutné v kontextech, kde je tato věta jediným prostředkem, na jehož základě se dá identifikovat referent uvozujícího výrazu: _a man who kept the family home to pay back a gift of €29,000 (£25,000) from his in-laws_ (H2), zatímco nerestriktivní věta je v dané situaci pouze doplňující informací, protože referent byl již dostatečně vymezen v předchozím kontextu nebo je označen vlastním jménem, jehož reference je v daném kontextu nezaměnitelná: _Matt Anderson, who led the project (Q4)._ Ve vzorových článcích byl podíl nerestriktivních vět poměrně vysoký, u vztažných vět tvořil 26 procent. Výraznější byl tento poměr u finitních vět, celkem 31 procent. Důvodem je zřejmě fakt, že velké procento uvozujících jmen byla vlastní jména (celkem 16), která jsou jedinečná sama o sobě a nepotřebují bližší určení: _Boa Sr, who_

died last week aged about 85 (C2). Nerestriktivní věty dále poskytují dodatečné informace o svém uvozujícím jménu, většinou takové, co mohou být atraktivní pro čtenáře: *the area, which is home to some of New Zealand´s most popular skiing and snowboarding terrain* (G4). U nefinitních vět se nerestriktivní postmodifikace vyskytla pouze s *–ed participle*, a to ve 20 procentech případů: *the Chinese Communist Party´s 17th congress, the ruling party´s main political gathering, held every five years* (O5). Přístavkové věty se v nerestriktivním významu v zkoumaných článcích neobjevily vůbec.

V analýze byl kladen důraz také na vlastní realizaci jednotlivých typů vztažných a přístavkových vět. Vztažné věty finitní se nejčastěji vyskytovaly ve formě tzv. *wh-relatives*, které jsou uvozeny výrazy začínajícími *wh-*, především vztažnými zájmeny *who, which, whose,* nebo příslovci *where, when, why.* Tento typ věty tvořil 62 procent všech vztažných finitních vět. V rámci *wh-relatives* se nejčastěji vyskytovaly věty uvozené neživotným *which: three factories which supply Apple* (E2). Ve dvou třetinách případů se *which* vyskytovalo ve významu nerestriktivním: *China, which took Tibet in 1950* (P2). Druhým nejčastěji užívaným výrazem bylo *who*, odkazující na životné antecedenty: *migrants who had moved on mass to a building in northern France* (A1). Důvodem pro častý výskyt životného *who* je, že novinové články jsou primárně orientované na lidi a lidskou činnost, proto na ně často odkazují. Dalšími méně početnými zájmeny byly *where*, udávající určení místa: *premises where a dog is loose* (D7), a *whose*, fungující jako determinátor: *Armenia, whose economy is suffering one of the sharpes declines in growth in the former Soviet Union* (S6). Dále se finitní vztažné věty objevovaly ve formě tzv. *that* relatives, tj. vět, uvozených zájmenem *that*: *frequencies that are too low to be picked up by our hearing* (Q2). Tyto věty tvořily celkem 30 procent finitních vět. Na rozdíl od zájmen *who* a *which*, nevyjadřuje *that* protiklad rodu, a může tedy být použito jak s životnými, tak neživotnými antecedenty. Analýza také potvrdila, že pokud je podmět rodu životného, zájmenu *who* se dává přednost před *that*. Nejméně častým typem finitní věty byl tzv. bare relative, tj. vztažná věta, kde chybí uvození jakýmkoli zájmenem. Užití tohoto typu není možné, pokud je

usouvztažňován podmět, protože vedlejší věta musí obsahovat explicitní signál, kde je její začátek. Ve zkoumaných článcích se bare relative vyskytl hlavně tam, kde je relativizován předmět: *the noises ( ) the animals were making* (Q3). Nízký výskyt bare relative je spojen právě s tím, že ve většině případů byl relativizovaný větný člen právě podmět (celkem 90 procent). Důvodem je, že většina zkoumaného materiálu tvoří úvodní věty, tzv. *lead sentences*, které blíže určují účastníky děje. Vztahy mezi jednotlivými účastníky (které jsou realizovány např. jako předmět nebo příslovečné určení) jsou pak popisovány dále v článku, což však již nebylo předmětem analýzy. Všechny tyto typy vět, tj. *wh-*relative, *that* relative a bare relative, se mohou vyskytovat pouze v restriktivních větách, nerestriktivní věty nedovolují užití bare relative, *that* relative jen ve velmi omezené míře. Nefinitní vztažná věta může být realizována ve formě participiální, tj. *–ing participle* a *–ed participle*, nebo infinitivní. Ve většině případů je užití nefinitních struktur dána přednost kvůli úspoře místa, protože jsou schopna vyjádřit stejnou informaci při užití méně slov. Ve zkoumaných článcích bylo nejčastější užití *–ed* participle, celkem 71 procent. Na rozdíl od *–ing* participle tento typ věty umožňuje vyjádřit průběhový aspekt: *a law being debated by the French parliament*. Na druhou stranu, výhodou *–ing* participle je, že se může použít i se slovesy, která se jako finitní běžně v průběhové formě nevyskytují, a to se statickými slovesy: *officials wanting to stay one the straight and narrow* (O1). Nejméně častým nefinitním tvarem byla infinitivní věta: *a matter for the United States to make a judgement on* (M2). Infinitivní věta může obsahovat podmět uvozený předložkou *for*.

Jak již bylo řečeno, přístavkové věty byly méně častým typem větné postmodifikace. Na rozdíl od vztažných vět, nefinitní struktury převládaly, tvořily 56 procent všech přístavkových vět. Všechny byly realizovány formou infinitivní věty, kterou na sebe vážou nejčastěji výrazy spojené s produkty záměrné lidské činnosti a vůle: *offers (B4), plot (N1), opportunity (P3), order (R4), agreement* (S4). Na druhou stranu finitní přístavkové věty slouží převážně k vyjádření postoje mluvčího k tomu, co uvádí v přístavkové větě: *speculation that Mr Obama will meet the Tibetan spiritual leader in Washington later this month* (P1). Uvozující slovo vyjadřuje, že informace je pouze

spekulací, čímž autor článku zároveň chrání svůj informační zdroj. To potvrzuje, že užití nominálních struktur může sloužit k potlačení určitého aspektu prezentované informace. Závěrem lze říci, že analýza potvrdila, že rozvíjení podstatného jména větnými postmodifikátory je v anglických novinových zprávách velmi častý jev, který slouží především ke kondenzaci informací. Druhotnou funkcí je, že může článkům dodat na čtenářské atraktivitě, a také schopnost větné postmodifikace zdůraznit či potlačit určitá ideologická stanoviska a tím potenciálně ovlivnit méně kritického čtenáře.

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APPENDICES

List of shortenings used in the analysis:

ANT-P: personal antecedent

ANT-N: non-personal antecedent

REL: relative clause

APPO: appositive clause

F: finite

N-F: non-finite

RESTR: restrictive

N-RESTR: non-restrictive

-ing PART: -ing participle

-ed PART: -ed participle

S gap: subject gap

O gap: object gap

ADV gap: adverbial gap

PrepC gap: prepositional complement gap

A   French police in stand-off with UK bound migrants

Source:
http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/worldnews/europe/france/7182272/French-police-in-stand-off-with-UK-bound-migrants.html

French riot police were involved in a stand-off with UK bound **migrants** [A1] who had moved on mass to a **building** in northern France [A2] rented by an activist group. About 90 migrants spent the night at the hangar after the "No Border" group sent **word** [A3] that it was offering shelter in **Calais,** [A4] which is mostly used as a springboard by **workers** [A5] trying to get to Britain. "The police are allowing the migrants to leave but not to enter," said Rodolphe Nettier, a member of a separate **group**, "SOS support for undocumented workers" [A6] that rented the shed. About 75 anti-riot police and other reinforcements were deployed to help **officers** [A7] blocking the entrance to the shed. Police set up a security cordon around the building.

A1: ANT-P, REL, RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, who, S gap
A2: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, N-F, *-ed* PART, S gap
A3: ANT-N, APPO, RESTR, F, that
A4: ANT-N (proper noun), REL, N-RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, which, S gap
A5: ANT-P, REL, RESTR, NF, *ing*-PART, S gap
A6: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, F, *tha*t relative, S gap
A7: ANT-P, REL, RESTR, N-F, *ing*-PART, S gap

B 'Visionary healer' faces Trading Standards prosecution for cancer cure claims

Source:
http://www.telegraph.co.uk/health/healthnews/7338671/Visionary-healer-faces-Trading-Standards-prosecution-for-cancer-cure-claims.html

A self-proclaimed **"visionary healer"** [B1] who claims to be able to treat illness from a distance is facing prosecution by Trading Standards for **suggestions** [B2] that he can cure cancer. Adrian Pengelly, 43, is accused of violating the **Cancer Act 1939,** [B3] which states that it is illegal to advertise **offers** [B4] to treat cancer. He describes himself on his website as a **"visionary healer, energy worker, teacher and psychic"** [B5] who has "become world-famous for treating people with cancer". **Testimonials** [B6] posted from clients claim that he has not only lessened the symptons of cancer but in some cases banished the disease itself. Among **those** [B7] he is said to have treated is a three year-old **boy** [B8] suffering from neuroblastoma, a form of childhood cancer. One poster, RS in the West Midlands, wrote that Mr Pengelly helped to shrink a **tumour** [B9] he had in his jaw.

B1: ANT-P, REL, RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, who, S gap
B2: ANT-N, APPO, RESTR, F, that
B3: ANT-N (proper noun), REL, N-RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, which, S gap
B4: ANT-N, APPO, N-F, infinitive
B5: ANT-P, REL, RESTR, F*, wh*-relative, who, S gap
B6: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, N-F, *-ed* PART, S gap
B7: ANT-P (pronoun), REL, RESTR, F, bare relative, O gap
B8: ANT-P, REL, RESTR, N-F, *-ing* PART, S gap
B9: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, F, bare relative, O gap

C Language lost as last member of Andaman tribe dies

Source:

One of the world's most endangered languages has disappeared forever after the last remaining member of a unique **tribe** [C1] that inhabited the Andaman Islands for as long as 65,000 years died of old age. **Boa Sr,** [C2] who died last week aged about 85, was the last member of the Bo - one of the ten **Great Andamanese tribes** [C3] that are considered indigenous inhabitants of the **islands,** [C4] which lie 750 miles off the east coast of India. Boa Sr was the oldest of all the Great Andamanese t**ribespeople**, [C5] who now number only 52 among the archipelago's total population of about 300,000, the Times reports. She was also the last known speaker of the **Bo language**, [C6] which is distinct from those of the other Great Andamanese tribes, according to Anvita Abbi, a professor of linguistics at Jawaharlal National University in Delhi. **Professor Abbi,** [C7] who had known Boa since 2005, said that she had been losing her sight in recent years and was unable to converse with anyone in her own language since the other surviving Bo speaker died several years ago.

C1: ANT- N, REL, RESTR, F, *that* relative, S gap
C2: ANT-P (proper noun), REL, N-RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, who, S gap
C3: ANT-N (proper noun) REL, RESTR, F, *that* relative, S gap
C4: ANT-N, REL, N-RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, which, S gap
C5: ANT-P (proper noun), REL, N-RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, who, S gap
C6: ANT-N (proper noun), REL, N-RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, which, S gap
C7: ANT-P (proper noun), REL, N-RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, who, S gap

D   Posties get new weapon in war with dogs

Source:

http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/newstopics/howaboutthat/7172877/Posties-get-new-weapon-in-war-with-dogs.html

Postmen are being armed with a new **weapon** [D1] which could hand them a crucial advantage in their perennial battle with dogs. Royal Mail delivery staff are being equipped with a **device** [D2] which releases compressed air and [D3] makes a hissing **sound** [D4] designed to scare off dogs. It comes as new figures reveal the number of postal **workers** [D5] attacked by dogs while on their rounds increased by almost 20 per cent last year. In 2008/09, there were 4,810 attacks on staff – a rate of 92 per week – compared with 4,067 the previous year. The statistics have been released by the Royal Mail along with **copies** of guidance [D6] given to staff on how to protect themselves. This includes the instruction: "Never enter **premises** [D7] where a dog is loose. Even the most friendly dog is likely to view your approach as a possible threat."

D1: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, which, S gap
D2: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, which, S gap
D3: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, F, bare relative, S gap
D4: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, N-F, *-ed* PART, S gap
D5: ANT-P, REL, RESTR, N-F, *-ed* PART, S gap
D6: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, N-F, *-ed* PART, S gap
D7: ANT-N , REL, RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, where, ADV gap

E   Apple admits using child labour

Source:
http://www.telegraph.co.uk/technology/apple/7330986/Apple-admits-using-child-labour.html

Apple has admitted that child labour was used at the **factories** [E1] that build its computers, iPods and mobile phones. At least eleven 15-year-old children were discovered to be working last year in three **factories** [E2] which supply Apple. The company did not name the offending factories, or say where they were based, but the majority of its goods are assembled in China. Apple also has **factories** [E3] working for it in Taiwan, Singapore, the Philippines, Malaysia, Thailand, the Czech Republic and the United States. Apple said the child workers are now no longer being used, or are no longer underage. "In each of the three facilities, we required a review of all employment records for the year as well as a complete analysis of the hiring process to clarify how underage people had been able to gain employment," Apple said, in an annual report on its suppliers. Apple has been repeatedly criticised for using **factories** [E4] that abuse workers and [E5] where conditions are poor. Last week, it emerged that 62 workers at a **factory** [E6] that manufactures products for Apple and Nokia had been poisoned by n-hexane, a toxic **chemical** [E7] that can cause muscular degeneration and blur eyesight.

E1: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, F, *that* relative, S gap
E2: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, which, S gap
E3: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, N-F, *-ing* PART, S gap
E4: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, F, *that* relative, S gap
E5: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, where, ADV gap
E6: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, F, *that* relative, S gap
E7: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, F, *that* relative, S gap

F   Celtic crop circle comes to Cornwall

Source:
http://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/newstopics/howaboutthat/7343489/Celtic-crop-circle-comes-to-Cornwall.html

A Celtic crop circle with "magical links" to the spirit world is the latest attraction for walkers in Cornwall. At the top off the cliffs above the fishing port of Looe ramblers will find a **"seven-fold labyrinth"**[F1] constructed by a local landowner. The **South West Coast Path,**[F2] which overlooks St George's Island, was the stopping point for Joseph of Arimathea and his nephew Jesus on their way to Glastonbury, according to local legend. Caroline Petherick, has spent the past year creating the "crop circle with Celtic twist". The 60 foot wide spiral pattern was inspired by a similar design at Tintagel on the north Cornish coast and is said to originate from Palaeolithic times. It took two days to move the 14 tonnes of soil and grass and cost about £500 to build. **Ms Petherick,** [F3] who describes herself as a "wordsmith" does not ask for payment but there is a tip box for donations beside information about the pattern's significance.

F1: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, N-F, *-ed* PART, S gap
F2: ANT-N (proper noun), REL, N-R, F, *wh*-relative, which, S gap
F3: ANT-P (proper noun), REL, N-R, F, *wh*-relative, who, S gap

G   Texts to Greece save tourist stranded on mountain in New Zealand

Source:
http://www.timesonline.co.uk/tol/travel/news/article7018743.ece

Text **messages** ^{G1} sent to family members in Greece have helped save the life of a **tourist** ^{G2} who was stranded on a mountain in New Zealand over the weekend. Marios Symeonidis became lost when he went for a short walk to take photos of a waterfall on Mt Ruapehu on North Island, at about 6pm (7am GMT) on Saturday. When Mr Symeonidis did not return from his walk, his travelling companion alerted local **police** ^{G3} who immediately began a search and rescue operation in the **area** ^{G4}, which is home to some of New Zealand's most popular skiing and snowboarding terrain. Mr Symeonidis was only dressed in light clothing and was not equipped for an overnight stay in the mountains. However luckily he had phone reception, so he sent text messages to his family in Greece to tell them of his predicament.

G1: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, N-F, *-ed* PART, S gap
G2: ANT-P, REL, RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, who, S gap
G3: ANT-P, REL, RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, who, S gap
G4: ANT-N, REL, N-RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, which, S gap

H   German ordered to repay house deposit to his in-laws after divorce

Source:

http://www.timesonline.co.uk/tol/news/world/europe/article7015795.ece

It is not just the grasping ex that Germans must contend with during a divorce. Now it is the in-laws as well. Judges in Berlin yesterday ordered a **man** [H1] who kept the family home to pay back a gift of €29,000 (£25,000) from his **in-laws** [H2] that had helped the couple buy the house. The ruling by the Federal Court of Justice has been interpreted as a landmark **judgment** [H3] which could allow in-laws to reclaim **presents** [H4] given to their child's spouse if the marriage breaks down. Judges said that the "contractual basis" of such presents depended on the in-laws' child being able to enjoy the fruits of the gift. That basis no longer applied after a divorce.

H1: ANT-P, REL, RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, who, S gap
H2: ANT-P, REL, RESTR, F, *that* relative, S gap
H3: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, which, S gap
H4: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, N-F, *-ed* PART, S gap

I   Protesters clash with police outside Greek Parliament over debt plan

Protesters clashed with riot police outside the Greek parliament yesterday over the Government's austerity **package** [I1] to tackle the country's debt. Elsewhere in Athens, masked youths attacked the leader of the biggest union, while George Papandreou, the Prime Minister, continued talks overseas with European officials. Police in the Greek capital said that they had arrested six people, while witnesses said that at least two officers had been badly beaten. More than 7,000 demonstrators had gathered outside Parliament to protest against the **€4.8 billion (£4.3 billion) austerity package**, [I2] which will increase taxes and [I3] cut the income of public-sector workers by up to 8 per cent. Inside Parliament, politicians debated **the draft austerity law,** [I4] which is expected to pass despite huge opposition because the governing socialists have a strong majority.

I1: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, N-F, infinitive, S gap
I2: ANT-N, REL, N-RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, which, S gap
I3: ANT-N, REL, N-RESTR, F, bare relative, S gap
I4: ANT-N, REL, N-RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, which, S gap

J   Patient 'locked in' by brain injury answers question using thoughts alone

Source:
http://www.timesonline.co.uk/tol/news/science/medicine/article7014246.ece

A **man** [J1] who was presumed to be in a vegetative state for five years has answered questions using his thoughts alone in a ground-breaking **experiment** [J2(1)] that promises to allow some **patients** [J3] who are "locked in" by brain injuries [J2(2)] to communicate. The 29-year-old Belgian was able to reply to simple "yes"/"no" questions such as "Is your father's name Alexander?" by changing his brain activity. Scientists then read his answers by studying functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) scans. He had previously failed to show any signs of consciousness after suffering a severe brain injury in a road accident. A vegetative **state** (VS), [J4] in which patients wake from a coma but appear to have no awareness, had been diagnosed.

J1: ANT-P, REL, RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, who, S gap
J2: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, F, *that* relative, S gap
J3: ANT-P, REL, RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, who, S gap
J4: ANT-N, REL, N-RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, which, ADV gap

K   André Bamberski: father turned to kidnapping in name of 'murdered' daughter

Source:
http://www.timesonline.co.uk/tol/news/world/europe/article7054541.ece

The late winter sun was setting over the Palais de Justice last week when nine judges reached a **decision** [K1] that brought cold joy to an elderly kidnapping accomplice.
"Free. I feel free," said André Bamberski, 72, a retired **accountant** from Toulouse [K2] who had stood all afternoon last Wednesday in the highest appeal court in the land, listening to an unusual **argument** [K3] conducted below a grand portrait of Napoleon Bonaparte. Mr Bamberski has spent 27 years fighting to bring to justice the **man** [K4] who, he is certain, raped and murdered his 14-year-old daughter.

K1: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, F, *that* relative, S gap
K2: ANT-P, REL, RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, who, S gap
K3: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, N-F, *-ed* PART, S gap
K4: ANT-P, REL, RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, who, S gap

L   Chinese police arrest six as hacker training website is closed down

Source:

http://www.timesonline.co.uk/tol/news/world/asia/article7019850.ece

A hacker training **website** [L1] that recruited thousands of people to launch cyber attacks was closed in what police claim was the largest operation of its kind. Six people were arrested in the **clampdown**, [L2] which followed an 18-month inquiry, and comes amid **fears** [L3] that China is becoming a growing centre for internet crime. The advanced capabilities of Chinese hackers have been in the spotlight since Google threatened last month that it planned to cease censoring its search engine in China or quit the country after discovering that it was among 34 companies under cyber-attack from China. A quick scan of the Chinese internet showed the scale of the **challenge** [L4] faced by the police in tracking down the country's growing hacker community. Websites openly sell **Gray Pigeons software** — [L5] developed by a **company** [L6] that has now been closed and [L7] which enables users to gain remote access to other computers for just 100 yuan (£9). However, Gray Pigeons is smalltime hacker software compared with the 1,500-yuan (£135) **technology** [L8] developed by Black Hawk Safety Net — the **website** [L9] targeted by police.

L1: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, F, *that* relative, S gap
L2: ANT-N, REL, N-RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, which, S gap
L3: ANT-N, pl, APPO, RESTR, F, that
L4: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, N-F, *-ed* PART, S gap
L5: ANT-N (proper name), REL, N-RESTR, N-F, *-ed* PART, S gap
L6: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, F, *that* relative, S gap
L7: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, which, S gap
L8: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, N-F*, -ed* PART, S gap
L9: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, N-F, *-ed* PART, S gap

M   Hillary Clinton to face Falklands row in meeting with Argentine President

Source:
http://www.timesonline.co.uk/tol/news/world/us_and_americas/article7044712.ece

Hillary Clinton, the US Secretary of State, will be directly confronted today with Argentina's claims over the Falklands when she meets President Fernández de Kirchner, an **encounter** [M1] that will be watched closely by Downing Street. The Obama Administration has steadfastly refused to be drawn into the row between Britain and Argentina over offshore drilling, insisting that "it's not a **matter** [M2] for the United States to make a judgment on". Aides to Mrs Clinton indicated yesterday that she would be willing to "mediate" in the dispute with Britain but that US neutrality on the issue would remain. The encounter will take place on the fringes of the inauguration of President José Mujica of Uruguay, and at the beginning of a week-long tour of **Latin America** [M3] by Mrs Clinton, where Argentina's claims over the islands has broad support in the region. The State Department scaled back the length of the meeting to only ten minutes, according to officials in Argentina.

M1: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, F, *that* relative, S gap
M2: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, N-F, infinitive (*for* + subject), PrepC gap
M3: ANT-N (proper noun), REL, N-RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, where, ADV gap

N   Two arrested over New York City 'bomb plot'

Source:
http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/americas/8448563.stm

Two more men have been arrested in the US in connection with an alleged **plot** [N1] to bomb New York City last year. The **two** – [N2] named as Adis Medunjanin and Zasrein Ahmedzay - were detained as part of an "ongoing investigation", an FBI spokesman told reporters. They are said to be associates of an Afghan-born Colorado man, **Najibullah Zazi**, [N3] who is accused of planning an attack on New York commuters. Mr Zazi and two other men were charged in September. All deny the charges. Investigators said at the time that the imminent threat of an attack had been disrupted but that they would continue to examine a "wide range of leads". Mr Medunjanin is described as a Bosnian immigrant and Mr Ahmedzay as a US citizen. FBI spokesman Richard Kolko said they had been arrested after Mr Medunjanin was involved in a car accident.

N1: ANT-N, APPO, RESTR, N-F, infinitive
N2: ANT-P (numeral), REL, N-RESTR, N-F, *-ed* clause, S gap
N3: ANT-P (proper name), REL, N-RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, who, S gap

O   China's rogues gallery of graft

Source:
http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/asia-pacific/6977561.stm

At a new exhibition in Beijing, there are some handy hints for **officials** [O1] <u>wanting to stay on the straight and narrow</u>. Pictures of clinking wine glasses and a pair of shapely female **legs** [O2] <u>shod in red, high-heeled shoes</u> warn of **experiences** [O3] <u>that ought to be avoided</u>. The exhibition has been organised to showcase China's battle against corruption. It gives details of several **officials** [O4] <u>who have fallen from grace</u>. The exhibition is being held just weeks before the Chinese Communist Party's 17th congress, the ruling party's main political **gathering**, [O5] <u>held every five years</u>. A central component of the exhibition is a **display** [O6]<u>to educate officials about the</u> **dangers** [O7] <u>that await</u> **anyone** [O8] <u>given power in China</u>.

O1: ANT-P, REL, RESTR, N-F, *-ing* PART, S gap
O2: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, N-F, -ed clause, S gap
O3: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, F, *that* relative, S gap
O4: ANT-P, REL, RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, who, S gap
O5: ANT-N, REL, N-RESTR, N-F, *-ed* PART, S gap
O6: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, N-F, infinitive, ADV gap
O7: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, F, *that* relative, S gap
O8: ANT-P, REL, RESTR, N-F, *-ed* PART, S gap

P   China warns Obama not to meet Dalai Lama

Source:
http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/asia-pacific/8492608.stm

China has warned that ties with the US would be undermined if US President Barack Obama met the Dalai Lama. There is **speculation** [P1] that Mr Obama will meet the Tibetan spiritual leader in Washington later this month, but no date has been confirmed. Communist Party official Zhu Weiqun said such a meeting would "threaten trust and co-operation" between Beijing and Washington. The dispute is the latest of several strains on the countries' relations. **China**, [P2] which took over Tibet in 1950, considers the Dalai Lama a separatist and tries to isolate the spiritual leader by asking foreign leaders not to see him. Last year Mr Obama passed up the **opportunity** [P3] to see the Dalai Lama when he visited the US, but a White House spokesman said last month the two men intended to meet when the Tibetan monk visited Washington later in February.

P1: ANT-N, APPO, RESTR, F, that
P2: ANT-N (proper noun), REL, N-RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, which, S gap
P3: ANT-N, APPO, RESTR, N-F, infinitive

Q   Elephant 'secret language' clues

Source:
http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/science/nature/8527009.stm

Researchers at San Diego Zoo have been studying what has been described as the "secret language" of elephants. They have been monitoring **communications** between animals ^{Q1} <u>that cannot be heard by human ears</u>. The elephant's trumpeting call will be familiar to most people, but the animals also emit growls. Their growls, however, are only partly audible; two-thirds of the call is at **frequencies** ^{Q2} <u>that are too low to be picked up by our hearing</u>. To learn more about the inaudible part of the growl, the team attached a microphone sensitive to these low frequencies and a GPS tracking system to eight of the zoo's female elephants. The researchers could then correlate the **noises** ^{Q3} <u>the animals were making</u> with what they were doing. **Matt Anderson**, ^{Q4} <u>who led the project</u>, told BBC News: "We're excited to learn of the hierarchy within the female herd and how they interact and intercede with one another."

Q1: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, F, *that* relative, S gap
Q2: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, F, *that* relative, S gap
Q3: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, F, bare relative, O gap
Q4: ANT-P (proper noun), REL, N-RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, who, S gap

R   Violent French husbands 'may be tagged'

Men [R1] seen as likely to be violent towards their wives could be forced to wear an electronic tag under a **law** [R2] being debated by the French parliament. The tag would have to be worn by **men** [R3] who have received a court **order** [R4] to stay away from their partner. The proposal is part of a draft law on conjugal violence. It has cross-party support and is expected to pass easily. According to the government, around 160 women in France are murdered by their husbands or partners every year. Parliament is also considering outlawing psychological violence in the home, because it is seen by many as a precursor to physical violence. It is rare for the left and the right in France to agree on anything, says the BBC's Hugh Schofield, so the near unanimity in parliament behind this law comes as something of a novelty. Everyone agrees that domestic violence is bad and getting worse.

R1: ANT-P, REL, RESTR, N-F*, -ed* PART, S gap
R2: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, N-F, *-ed* PART, S gap
R3: ANT-P, REL, RESTR, F, *wh-relative*, who, S gap
R4: ANT-N, APPO, RESTR, N-F, infinitive

S   Russia-Georgia border crossing reopens

Source:
http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/europe/8542746.stm

Russia and Georgia have reopened a border **crossing** [S1] that has been closed since July 2006, officials say. The Verkhny Lars **crossing** – [S2] situated on a narrow mountain pass high in the Caucasus mountains - was closed by Russia amid deteriorating relations. It is the **only crossing** [S3] that does not go through the Russian-backed breakaway regions of Abkhazia and South Ossetia. The **agreement** [S4] to open the crossing came after a request from Georgia's landlocked neighbour, Armenia. If the unceremonious opening is of benefit to anyone it is to **Armenia**, [S5] which is landlocked and [S6] whose economy is suffering one of the sharpest declines in growth in the former Soviet Union, says the BBC's Tom Esslemont at the border. Georgian forces were driven out of the two regions in a bitter war with Russia in August 2008. Diplomatic relations between the two have not been restored since the war.

S1: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, F, *that* relative, S gap
S2: ANT-N, REL, N-RESTR, N-F, *-ed* PART, S gap
S3: ANT-N, REL, RESTR, *that* relative, S gap
S4: ANT-N, APPO, RESTR, N-F, infinitive
S5: ANT-N (proper noun), REL, N-RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, which, S gap
S6: ANT-N (proper noun), REL, N-RESTR, F, *wh*-relative, whose, DETERMINER gap