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**The Clausal Postmodification of a Noun Phrase
in the Spoken and Written Language**

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Z á s a d y p r o v y p r a c o v á n í :

Práce se soustředí na porovnání výskytů jednotlivých typů větných postmodifikací podstatného jména na podkladě analýzy anglických textů psaného a mluveného projevu. Na základě studia odborné lingvistické literatury studentka vydefiniuje jednotlivé typy větných postmodifikací, z hlediska formy je bude primárně členit na finitní a nefinitní, z hlediska funkce na vztažné a přístavkové. Dále bude pozornost věnována konkrétní syntaktické funkci řídicího podstatného jména ve větě.

Na zvolených autentických textech (mluveném a psaném, ve zhruba stejném rozsahu) bude poté diplomandka analyzovat výskyt jednotlivých typů postmodifikací substantiva, okomentuje jejich funkci, včetně dopadů na proces komunikace. Tyto výskyty bude posuzovat i z hlediska syntaktické funkce řídicího jména.

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Abstract

The aim of this thesis is to focus on the occurrence of various types of the clausal postmodification of a noun phrase in spoken and written English. The theoretical part closely defines a noun phrase with the focus on its syntactic functions and then classifies its clausal postmodification on the basis of the finite and non-finite forms and also whether they have relative or appositive function.

In the practical part of the thesis the author will investigate the occurrence of linguistic phenomena discussed in the theoretical part. It will be based on the analysis of authentic spoken and written English. The work will compare the frequency of individual clausal postmodifiers as well as their qualitative features. The focus will be also laid on the possible substitution of the various types. Eventually, the syntactic functions of head nouns will be discussed in terms of the postmodification that follows.

Key words

sentence structure, noun phrase, postmodification, relativizer, relative clause, apposition, non-finite clause

Souhrn

Cíl této práce se soustředí na výskyt jednotlivých typů větných postmodifikací jmenné fáze v mluveném a psaném projevu. Teoretická část definuje jmennou frázi a její syntaktické funkce. Dále pak vymezuje její větné postmodifikace na základě tvarů na finitních a nefinitních a hlediska funkce na vztažné a přístavkové.

V praktické části je zkoumán výskyt lingvistických jevů, jež byly uvedeny v části teoretické. Vše je založeno na analýze autentické mluvené a psané angličtiny. Práce porovnává jak četnost jednotlivých postmodifikací, tak jejich kvalitativní stránku. Pozornost bude věnována též možnosti záměny jednotlivých druhů. Na závěr se autor bude zabývat syntaktickými funkcemi jmenných frází ve vztahu k postmodifikacím, které následují.

Klíčová slova

větná skladba, jmenná fráze, postmodifikace, vztažné výrazy, vedlejší věta vztažná, přístavek, polovětné vazby

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1. Introduction

The thesis is dedicated to the study of the clausal postmodification of a noun phrase in spoken and written English. Its intention is also to introduce a noun phrase as a part of a sentence structure. The author is also going to concentrate on its postmodification, solely expressed by a clause, in authentic spoken and written utterances.

The thesis will be divided into two main parts. The first is a theoretical part where the author will closely define a noun phrase and its syntactic functions portrayed within the sentence structure. Afterwards the attention will be paid to clausal postmodification. Various linguists took different approaches when regarded to this linguistic phenomenon. The thesis will mention them and the author will introduce her own categorization based on the theoretical knowledge. At first, finite forms will introduce *relative clauses*, which will be further dealt with in separate chapters according to their restrictiveness, transitional *nominal relative clauses*, and *appositive clauses*. Next, the non-finite forms will be described, namely *present participial*, *past participial* and *to infinitive clauses*. Eventually, a separate chapter will be devoted to *non-restrictive non-finite relative clauses* and *non-finite appositive clauses*.

The practical part of this work will contain three sections. In the first the previously mentioned classification will be applied to the randomly selected corpora of spoken and written English. Each clause type will be a subject matter of the separate chapter in order to analyse its quantitative and qualitative features thoroughly. The second will compare the choice of finite and non-finite clauses and will comment on the possibility of their substitution. The third area of interest will investigate the syntactic functions of the head nouns in terms of the impact they have on the way they are postmodified.

It is important to note that all literature sources written in Czech are translated by the author of this thesis. Example sentences were found in British National Corpus unless indicated otherwise.

2. Noun phrase

A “noun phrase”, often abbreviated to NP, is the essential unit of a sentence structure. It consists of an obligatory head accompanied by determiners and modifiers. (Biber 1999, p. 97) According to the head, a NP is divided into two major types: a noun-headed phrase (*the industrially advanced countries, a small wooden box that he owned, etc.*) and a pronoun-headed phrase (*you, the big one in town, those who take the trouble to register, etc.*). The structure of the noun-headed phrase can consist of four components out of which the head (*countries, box, etc.*) and determiner (*the, a, etc.*) are obligatory, whereas the premodifier (*industrially advanced, small wooden, etc.*) with postmodifier (*that he owned, etc.*) are optional. The use of brackets in following scheme indicates the optional components.

determiner + (premodifier) + head noun + (postmodifier)

While the noun-headed phrases require a determination, in pronoun-headed phrase it is an optional component.

(determiner) + (premodifier) + head noun + (postmodifier)

(Biber 1999, p. 574; Quirk 1985, p. 62, 1238, 1239)

Determiners, which belong to the closed word class (Kubrychtová 2000, p. 27), express whether the reference of the noun is definite (like *the*), indefinite (like *a/an*), partitive (like *some*) or universal (like *all*). (Quirk 1985, p. 64, 65) They can be realized by articles, demonstrative pronouns and possessive personal pronouns¹. (Close 1975, p. 4, 5)

On the other hand modifiers give further description or classification of the head. (Biber 1999, p. 97) There are various types of modification. The thesis author follows the Quirk's and Biber's approaches, which are united as far as the division of this modification according to its position in the NP into a premodification and postmodification, both of them shown above in the NP components scheme.

¹ For further reading about determiners see Biber 1999, p. 258, 259.

The premodifier precedes the head and postmodifier follows it. (Quirk 1985, p. 65; Biber 1999, p. 574,575) Biber also stated that: “Premodifiers and postmodifiers are frequently lacking; were they occur, they can usually be omitted without injuring the structure and basic meaning of the phrase.” (p. 240) Compare: *his expensive car* vs. *his car*; *her arrival to London* vs. *her arrival*. It is not the aim of this thesis to further write on the subtypes of premodification; thus, the following chapters will only be devoted to the classification of postmodifiers², namely clausal postmodifiers.

Before proceeding to the next chapter, there are other features of a NP which should not be ignored. Firstly, the focus will be on head varieties. Secondly, there will be comment on a multiple postmodification and complex NP. Finally, this chapter will be concerned with the syntactic functions of a NP within a sentence structure.

Head varieties

Not only nouns, but also pronouns can occur in such phrase head position, which was suggested above and which is shown on following examples [1 - 4]. However, Quirk states that noun heads are more common. (1985, p. 64). According to Biber and Huddleston, these nouns can be either common or proper. (Biber 1999, p. 97; Huddleston 2002, p. 328) [1, 2] Compare:

- | | |
|--|--------------------------------------|
| [1] <i>Stay in the house!</i> | (common noun) |
| [2] <i>The talk concerned Prague.</i> | (proper nouns) |
| [3] <i>She has just moved in.</i> | (pronoun - personal) |
| [4] <i>Anyone can achieve it.</i> | (pronoun – non-assertive indefinite) |

Close defines a proper noun: “a name of someone or something that is usually imagined as unique” [2] and a common noun: “a name given either to one example, or more, of a class of thing or to the class as a whole.” [5, 6, 7] (1975, p. 3)

- | | |
|--|-------------------------------|
| [5] <i>But finally I'm a citizen.</i> | (common noun – one example) |
| [6] <i>We became good friends.</i> | (common noun – more examples) |
| [7] <i>A friend is someone who'll be there for you.</i> | (common noun – a whole class) |

² Linguists classify a postmodification of the NP according to its completeness. The ones consisting of both subject and verb are referred to as clausal postmodifiers, whereas the incomplete structures stand for phrasal postmodifiers. (Čáňová 2000, p. 7)

While common nouns can be countable or uncountable (*cow* vs. *milk*) and of a definite or indefinite form (*the cow, the milk* vs. *a cow, - milk*), proper nouns lack both the distinction in number and definiteness (*Sue*, but not normally *a Sue, the Sue, Sues*). The examples are provided by Biber (1999, p. 241).

Proper nouns need no specification of number and definiteness, because they only name instances and do not denote classes (compare *Sue* vs. *a girl*). They are used in situations where the speaker and the addressee know which individual is referred to without any further specification. (Biber 1999, p. 242)

The instances can be personal names (*Smith, Edward*), geographical names (*France, the Elbe*), names of an object (*Ford* <a car>) or institution (*Parliament*). (Biber 1999, p. 245) These examples represent proper nouns with simple heads, i.e. a single noun. Furthermore, composite heads can occur (*Mr Smith, New York, the River Thames, the University of Sydney*)³.

The phrases with proper nouns are like phrases with common nouns in respect to their syntactic roles. (Biber 1999, p. 97) It will be of concern later in this chapter. Quirk, on the other hand, comments on proper nouns in connection to their occurrence with a restrictive and non-restrictive modification, which will be dealt thoroughly in the chapters 3.1.1.1 and 3.1.1.2 of this thesis. Quirk claims:

Proper nouns cannot have restrictive modification when they have the normal unique denotation. However, when the proper noun temporarily takes on features of a common noun, restrictive modification is possible: *the Springfield* that is in Illinois; *the Johnson* who wrote the dictionary. (1985, p. 1241)⁴

In another words, the proper nouns occur only with the non-restrictive clauses unless they are preceded by a determiner. Compare: *He decided to feature **John**, who was out of a job at the time*. vs. *The arm in question is part of **the John** who is said to possess it*. In the first example, the proper noun refers to bearer of this name; thus, it is in its primary function, but in the second example it may be glossed as “person called John”. (Huddleston 2002, p. 1060)

³ To read more about simple and composite proper noun heads see Huddleston 2002, p. 518, 519.

⁴ For further reading on proper nouns functioning as common nouns see Biber 1999, p. 247.

Moreover, there is also a restriction in occurrence of modification with non-assertive heads (*any person, anyone*) and nonspecific determiners (*like, any, every*). They both may have only a restrictive postmodifier. (Quirk 1985, p. 1241) E.g.: *The Church says that in the end **everything** which exists belongs to God.*

Complex noun phrase and multiple modification

Multiple pre- and postmodification can be attached to a head of the NP and thus form a complex phrase. See the examples provided by Biber: (*certain well organized prerequisites*, i.e.: premodifier + premodifier + head; *a study of intraspecific variability focused on developmental physiology*, i.e.: head + postmodifier + postmodifier). The order of its components is in agreement with general principles for the ordering of clause elements. (ibid., p. 575, 576) As such a complex NP is rather long, Biber claims that it can be split. (*The time was coming for me to leave Frisco or I would go crazy*) (Biber, 1999, p. 99)

Although the noun phrases vary both in a structure and complexity, they can all have a wide range of syntactic roles within the sentence.

Syntactic functions of a noun phrase

Quirk, Biber and Huddleston are united as far as syntactic roles concerned, though they vary a little in terminology. In the thesis the author will refer to particular syntactic roles as they are termed by Quirk and there will be terms also used by other linguists for clarification. In a sentence a noun phrase can stand for: (a) subject (*Emily came in with a tray of tea and she put it on the table.*) and object, namely (b) direct object (*Please send a stamped addressed envelope with all enquiries.*), or (c) indirect object (*He decided to send her a postcard.*). It may also be found as a type of complement: (d) subject complement, differently named – “subject predicative” by Biber and “predicative complement” by Huddleston (*He was a very bright boy and was doing so well in his studies. Later he became a commercial agent, and in 1804 was arrested for debt in Archangel.*) and (e) object complement, “object predicative” by Biber and “object predicate” by Huddleston, (*The law's supporters call it a victory for truth in advertising, which they predict will protect the market for authentic Indian crafts from cheap imported imitations. You could hardly call it an operation --.*). The main listing completes (f) adverbial function (*His girlfriend left the house with their two daughters*

last week.) Additionally, the NP can occur in an (g) apposition (*Mr. Brown, the neighbour, died last year.*) to another NP, in which case they both have the same syntactic function listed above (e.g. “*the neighbour*” is in apposition to “*Mr. Brown*” and they both function as a subject).

Up to now all the syntactic roles listed were linked to a NP where a noun (or possibly a pronoun) represents the head of the NP. However, if a noun is after a preposition, its syntactic role will be considered in regard of the prepositional phrase as a whole. The author distinguishes three functions: (h) postmodification of a NP (*He was popular as a man of the people who toured Mexico.*), (i) prepositional object (*We talked about the sizes and shapes of the leaves. Both methods rely on the accurate determination of the temperature and pressure of the gas.*), and (j) adverbial (*Well only because we'd seen it in the shop.*).

The NP may also function as: (j) premodifier of noun (*mother tongue*), and (k) premodifier in adjective and adverb phrase (*She could see trees over twenty century old; they returned home all right, but two weeks earlier than planned.*) (Quirk 1985, p. 60; Biber 1999, p. 99, 122; Huddleston 2002, p. 326, 327) Huddleston adds (l) vocative (*Thomas, you really shouldn't have!*) (2002, p. 327) As the thesis relates to noun phrases in terms of their postmodification, the syntactic functions [i, j, k and l] are considered irrelevant for this matter.

This last paragraph will deal with a NP in speech and writing. The Spoken English seems to be more strung together in a sequence. This is even more noticeable in informal contexts. Narratives prefer smaller units of information which built up gradually. On the contrary, a written form tends to be modified by a complex premodification often accompanied by post-head modifiers, which “enable user to define and specify things more precisely”. The heavy use of various postmodification allows a lot of information to be expressed within a NP. (Carter & McCarthy 2006, p. 331, 332)

The NP is defined for the thesis purposes. Therefore, the concept of the following chapters can regard closely means of the clausal postmodification.

3. Clausal postmodification of a noun phrase

A clause, which is describing the entity of a NP, consists of a subject, verb and possibly of other elements. Depending on the form of verb we distinguish either finite [1] or non-finite clauses [2, 3]. (Biber 1999, p. 120, 192) The subject of the finite clause is overt, i.e. expressed [1], whereas the subject in the non-finite clause can be either covert, i.e. hidden [2], or overt [3]. (Čáňová 200, p. 7) (Subjects are underlined and verbs are in bold.)

[1] *He had to sell the house (which) he **had inherited** from his parents.*

[2] *Mrs Bauwens, _____ **wearing** a black cloak over a grey suit, clutched the arm of her second husband --.* (realized by -ing clause)

[3] *These are organised by the WI for everyone **to enjoy**.* (realized by to infinitive)

3.1 Finite postmodifying forms

Quirk states that explicitness of a finite form is greater than explicitness of a form non-finite⁵. (1985, p. 1243) Greenbaum & Quirk further claim that the most explicit is a finite relative clause partly for the specifying ability of its relativizer⁶: “It is capable (a) of showing agreement with the head, and (b) of indicating its status as an element in the relative clause structure.” (1990, p. 366)

Nevertheless, it seems necessary to define the terminology to be used for the purposes of this chapter as the most important grammar books are not united. The author recognizes two types of relative clauses. One termed an “adjectival relative clause”, which functions as a syntactic adjective; thus, it modifies a NP. The second termed a “nominal relative clause”, which behaves as a syntactic noun. However, the third type of the relative clause also exists. It is a “sentential relative clause”⁷, which “does not function as a modifier of a noun phrase; its relative item refers anaphorically to a unit larger than a phrase, usually to a clause but sometimes even to a series of sentences.” (Quirk 1985, p. 1048) Therefore, it is not in agreement of this paper’s intention and will

⁵ The non-finite forms will be discussed closely in chapter 3.2 of this thesis.

⁶ This paper will define the term relativizer in the chapter 3.1.1.

⁷ To study sentential relative clauses see Quirk, p. 1118- 1120.

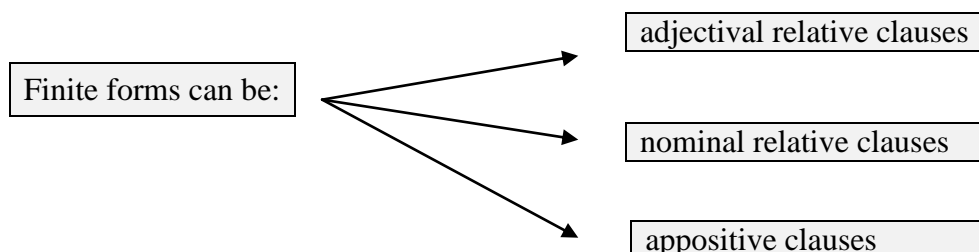
not be further commented on. In addition, since the “nominal relative clause” has its transitional features, the work treats them separately later in 3.1.2. Hence the term “relative clause” in the chapter 3.1.1 means “adjectival relative clause” unless said otherwise.

In order to stress the terminology to be used in the thesis and what it corresponds to, the following table gives a summary:

Terminology used:	Corresponding to:
“nominal relative clause”	“nominal relative clause” by Quirk, Dušková (subtype of relative clauses) “nominal relative clause” by Biber (subtype of nominal <i>wh</i> -clauses) “fused relative construction” by Huddleston (subtype of <i>wh</i> -complement clauses)
“adjectival relative clause”	“adjectival relative clause” by Quirk (subtype of relative clauses) “adnominal relative clause” by Dušková (subtype of relative clauses) “relative clause” by Huddleston (one of the main dependent clause types) “structural subtype of noun complementation” by Biber

Note that the table above is based on four grammar books considered by author as the main source: Quirk 1985, p. 1244, 1245; Biber 1999, p. 193, 195; Huddleston 2002, p. 1034; Dušková 2003, p. 611, 615.

Before the thesis will focus on relative clauses, finally, a basic division of the possible finite NP postmodification is to be introduced in the following diagram:



3.1.1 Relative clauses

At the very beginning it needs to be stressed again, that a “relative clause” discussed below is basically an “adjectival relative clause”, since a “nominal relative clause” is unique among relative clauses for the fact that it contains its antecedent (Quirk, 1985, p. 1244). Close defines the “antecedent” as a NP to which the relative clause relates. (1975, p. 51) This work treats nominal relative clauses separately in the chapter 3.1.2.

A relative clause postmodifies a NP; therefore, it adds some more information about the phrase – which was already suggested above. Dušková calls this function “attributive” (2003, p. 615) and Parrott even mentions that it is possible to term this type of clause an “attributive clause” (2000, p. 351). Quirk sees it just as a parallel with attributive adjectives. (1985, p. 1048) The clause is introduced by a relativizer that relates back to the antecedent. (Biber 1999, p. 195) There are 8 various relativizers possible to use, out of which seven *wh*-items (*who*, *whose*, *whom*, *which*, *where*, *when* and *why*), and one non-*wh*-item (*that*). (Biber 1999, p. 608) This grammarian also adds that the relativizer “can be sometimes omitted altogether” (ibid.) and he terms it the “zero relativizer”. (ibid.) See the examples:

[4] *I wish I had a friend **who'd** write to me.*

[5] *There are also others **whose** unrealized creativity only flowers in later life.*

[6] *But we do not only communicate with people with **whom** we share our personal lives.*

[7] *Lifestyle is a term **which** is often used but very rarely defined.*

[8] *School was the garden **where** children must grow and flourish.*

[9] *Yeah, it has to be on a day **when** I'm ready for it.*

[10] *This, incidentally, is another reason **why** the dinosaurs had to be big.*

[11] *Clare helped her into a black car **that** stood by the kerb with its door open.*

[12] *The first thing ___ she noticed was the car park⁸.*

[13] *This book, of **which** the author is a woman of eighty, is very amusing.*

(an example sentence by Close, p. 53)

⁸ A relative clause introduced by zero relativizer may be regarded to as a “bare relative clause”. (Baker 1995, p. 293)

The relativizers have two functions in a dependent clause. Firstly, they have a linking role – as a subordinator expressed by a pronoun (*who, whom, which, that*) [4, 6, 7, 11], a determiner (*whose, which*) [5, 13], or adverb (*when, where, why*) [8, 9, 10]; secondly, they have syntactic role as a clause element. (Biber 1999, p. 87, Dušková 2003, p. 611) The latter will be discussed in chapter 3.1.1.1 and 3.1.1.2 in a relation to restrictive and non-restrictive relative clauses.

The choice of the relativizer is influenced by a number of factors including (as just said) whether the clause has a restrictive or non-restrictive function, or whether the antecedent is of a personal or non-personal character (by some grammarians called animate or non-animate). (Biber 1999, p. 609; Quirk 1985, p. 1247) For examples see [14]. Biber mentions their distribution across registers⁹, especially on one side, *who, which* and *that* are particularly common, and on the other side, *why* is rather rare in all registers. (ibid., p. 609) Quirk goes even further and states that also a syntactic function and complexity of the sentence have their influence (ibid., p. 1248, 1252). While the restrictiveness and syntactic role will be commented on in 3.1.1.1 and 3.1.1.2., the following paragraphs deal with the gender concord at first, and then the postposing of the relative clause is mentioned.

Firstly, as far as the gender concord concerns, it is based on personal (i.e. human beings, creatures having human characteristics and sometimes pets) or non-personal character of the antecedent¹⁰ and it applies only to the *wh*-items. (Quirk 1985, p. 1245)

See the table:

<i>who(m)</i>	used after personal antecedent
<i>which</i>	used after non-personal antecedent
<i>whose</i>	!/? no gender marking (see below)

(Dušková 2003, p. 115)

[14] Compare: *Mark, who....., angels who....., our Max, who....vs. the dog which....., and Paris, which.....* Also note that *that* does not have any gender marking and can be used with both. (Quirk 1985, p. 1248)

⁹ Biber discusses the distribution of relativizers across registers in detail. (1985, p. 609 – 612)

¹⁰ Read more about exceptions in gender concord (Quirk 1985, p. 1245, 1246; Huddleston 2002, p. 1048, 1049)

When there is personal antecedent, the relativizer differs depending on whether its role is a subject (*the person **who** spoke to him*), an object (*the person **who/whom/**__ he met¹¹*), or prepositional complement (*the person **to whom** he spoke¹² or the person **who/whom/**__ he spoke **to***). (Quirk 1985, p. 1249)

Dušková claims that a relativizer *whose* has no gender marking (compared to an interrogative pronoun *whose*, which is used only with personal expressions. (2003, p. 115) Quirk states that the relativizer *whose* syntactically functions as a possessive determiner of the NP (1985, p. 1249); therefore, its syntactic role depends on the head. [15] *A father **whose son** was killed in a road accident has helped set up a support network...* and he, compared to Dušková, explains:

where the antecedent is non-personal, there is some tendency to avoid the use of *whose* (presumably because many regard it as the genitive only of the personal *who*), but avoidance involves stylistic difficulty. There is the stiffly formal and cumbersome *of which*: *The house the roof of which was damaged...* [...] Satisfactory alternatives can however be found, such as: *The house **that** had its roof damaged...* or *The house with the damaged roof...* (ibid., p. 1249)

Note that similarly as *of which*, an alternative *of whom* for a personal head noun may be used. (Collins 1992, p. 366, 367)

Secondly, Huddleston writes about possible positioning of the relative clause within the superordinate clause:

It is also possible, however, for the relative clause to occur in postposed position, at the end of the clause containing its antecedent.

[16] *A stranger came into the room who looked just like Uncle Oswald.*

[17] *Kim lent a book to Ed which contained all the information he needed.*

[18] *I met a man the other day who says he knows you.*

[19] *There was a fight reported in Monday's paper that put three people in hospital.*

This construction is most likely when the information content of the relative clause is greater than that of the material that would follow it in the matrix clause

¹¹ *Whom* is preferred in formal, whereas *who* in informal language, where a zero relativizer often occurs instead. (Quirk 1985, p. 1249)

¹² It appears rather formal when the preposition precedes the relativizer. *Whom* is obligatory here. (Quirk 1985, p. 1249)

[...]. It will generally be avoided if it would result in possible confusion as to what was the intended antecedent. Compare [16], for example, with *A man was talking to one of the check-out operators who looked just like Uncle Oswald*, where *one of the check-out operators* provide a more salient antecedent than *man*. (Huddleston 2002, p. 1066)

In terms of the choice of a relativizer, a gender neutral *that* cannot be used in order to avoid misunderstanding or nonsense in sentences such as [16, 17, 18]. (ibid., p. 1054) The *wh*-item is favoured. (Dušková 2003, p. 621)

Huddleston also claims that postposed relative clauses are mostly a restrictive type. Nevertheless, there are some non-restrictive exceptions mentioned by Huddleston (e.g. *Only the flower is used, which is not poisonous and is attached to the plant with a very fine stem*. – Huddleston’s example sentence) (ibid., p. 1066) Furthermore, with the split antecedents (which was introduced with a complex NP) only the postposed position is possible (e.g. *There’s a boy in Group B and a girl in Group E who have asked to be on the same team*. – Huddleston’s example sentence). (ibid., p. 1066)

In case that there are two or more independent relative clauses within the same sentence, Close recommends to begin each of them with its own relative pronoun (e.g. *He was a man whom all his friends admired and who won the respect even of his enemies*. – an example by Close, p. 55)

The next two chapters will be interested in two subtypes of a relative clause based on semantic properties. Linguists agree that the modification can be restrictive (i.e. necessary in order to define meaning of the NP), or non-restrictive (i.e. adding extra information which is not essentially needed as the antecedent has either been already identified or it is known). (Quirk 1985, p. 1239 - 1241; Biber 1999, p. 195, 602; Dušková 2003, p. 615) However, Huddleston employs different terminology. Restrictive relative clauses are called “integrated relatives” and non-restrictive relative clauses are classified as “supplementary relatives” along with sentential clauses. (2002, p. 1034, 1035) Compare on the author’s examples: *Lucy washed her father’s car which she borrowed last week*. – a restrictive clause; meaning that Lucy’s father can have more cars but she washed the car she had used. vs. *Lucy washed her father’s car, which she borrowed last week*. – a non-restrictive clause; meaning that Lucy’s father has a car and this car Lucy borrowed last week and washed afterwards.

3.1.1.1 Restrictive relative clauses

A restrictive clause is more common than the non-restrictive (Quirk 1985, p. 1245); therefore, it is treated first.

Its (just mentioned) importance for providing the antecedent with necessary identification is indicated both in pronunciation and writing. A relative clause is a part of one intonation unit with its superordinate clause - there is no pause in between. In written language it is not separated by comma either. (Biber 1999, p. 602; Dušková 2003, p. 616) It can be introduced by all above listed relativizers, though there are certain conditions under which they may be used. The author already commented on the choice of relativizer according to its antecedent, (whether it is personal or non-personal), and now the work will focus on syntactic functions of relativizers within the relative clause. The main examples are shown on Quirk's sentences (1985, p. 1248, 1249, 1251). He modified them in order to show possible substitution or omission of the relativizer. Such modification is in brackets.

The relativizers may function as (a) subject (S), (b) object (O), (c) prepositional complement (C_{prep}), (d) subject complement (C_S), or (e) adverbial (Adv). (ibid., p. 1248) They may be omitted unless they are in a position of S. (Leech 1991, p. 410) Relative clauses without the relativizer (i.e. with a zero relativizer) termed are juxtaposed clauses. Hence, juxtaposition is impossible if the relativizer is a S of the relative clause. The most common juxtaposition is the one where the relativizer is an O or Adv. (Dušková 2003, p. 616, 617)

Subject [20]

[20a] *They are delighted with the person (**who/that**) has been appointed.*

[20b] *They are delighted with the book (**that /which**) has just appeared.*

Who is favoured with a personal antecedent, [20a] (Quirk 1985, p. 1250, Biber 1999, p. 612) whereas, as Biber claims, *that* primarily occurs with a non-personal antecedent [20b] (1999, p. 613), with which Dušková agrees only partially. According to her *that* generally is more frequent only in spoken English while *which* prevails in a language written. (2003, p. 620)

There are two further restrictions connected with the antecedent. Both regard *that* as the only relativizer and concern it not only in the S role, but partially also in role of the O (where *that* is used along with zero relativizer). The first restriction applies when the antecedent is a non-personal determiner (*all, anything, everything, nothing, little, or much*) [20c] *All **that** matters is getting one over the trader.* The second considers *that* also more common when there is a superlative (*first, last, next, only*) in the antecedent. [20d] *Tweed said the first thing **that** came into his head.* (Quirk 1985, p. 1251; Close 1975, p. 53, 54) [21c] *It exceeds all **that/**___ one can imagine...* [21d] *the first thing **that/**___ I do at the beginning of the lesson is one sec.* Having just mentioned the specific feature of the O role that pertains also to the S, the author returns back to general examples and characteristic of the relativizer functioning as the O.

Object [21]

[21a] *They are delighted with the person (___/that/whom/who) we have appointed.*

[21b] *They are delighted with the book (___/that/which) we have appointed.*

In [21a] “*who* is informal as an object.” (Swan 1995, p. 488) Also the use of *whom* is rather rare. (Leech 1991, p. 411)

Prepositional complement [22]

[22a i] *People (___/that/who/whom) I speak to....*

[22a ii] *People (to whom¹³) I speak to....*

[22b i] *This is the knife (___/that/which) he was killed **with**.*

[22b ii] *This is the knife (**with which**) he was killed.*

([22b] is a modified example by Leech, p. 142)

As an O [21a] or C_{prep} [22a i] with personal antecedents, a zero relativizer or *that* is more common, probably, in order to avoid the decision between *who* and *whom*. (Quirk 1985, p. 1251) Moreover, “*whom* here would seem pedantic”. (ibid.) *That* and also a zero relativizer (a juxtaposition) require a final position of the preposition as in [22a i, 22b i]. (Dušková 2003, p. 621)

¹³ *Whom* is obligatory in this case due to the preceding position of the preposition. (Quirk 1985, p. 1249; Dušková 2003, p. 620)

Regardless the personal/non-personal antecedent, when a personal pronoun is not functioning as a S of a relative clause, the juxtaposition with zero relativizer primarily occurs. (Quirk 1985, p. 1252, Dušková 2003, p. 618) [21a, 21b, 22a i, 22b i] On the contrary, Quirk adds that in complex phrases or when clauses intervene between the antecedent and relativizer, *wh*-item is used rather than *that* or a zero relativizer. Quirk's example: "*I have interests outside my immediate work and its problems **which** I find satisfying.*" (1985, p. 1252)

Subject complement [23]

These relative clauses are rare and surprisingly grammarians' view of a relativizer functioning as C_s seems to be very diverse. On the one hand, Quirk claims:

When the relative pronoun functions as non-prepositional complement in the relative clause, the choice is limited to *which* for both personal and non-personal antecedents, in restrictive [...] and non-restrictive clauses. (1985, p. 1260)

[23a] *She is the perfect accountant (**which**) her predecessor was not.*

[23b] *This is not the type of modern house (**which**) my own is.*

On the other hand, Huddleston has completely different view, because according to him they are with non-*wh* item. (2002, p. 1045) His example is as follows:

[23c] *Harry is basically a fat man searching for a thin man **that** he once used to be.*

The latter appears to be more logical for the fact that using *which* with a personal antecedent feels less natural than *that* or a zero relativizer. Moreover, it is supported also by Collins. (1992, p. 364)

Adverbial [24]

The author of the thesis distinguishes four patterns where a relativizer functions as an Adv. They are primarily based on study of Quirk (1985, p. 1252 - 1255) and Biber (1999, p. 624).

antecedent	preposition + <i>whom/which</i>
------------	---------------------------------

[24a i] *He is the policeman (**at whom**) the burglar fired the gun.*

[24a ii] *That's the place (**in which**) she was born.*

[24a iii] *She arrived the day (**on which**) I was ill.*

A preposition and relativizer function together as an Adv. In formal English is predominantly used [24a] rather than the cases with a deferred preposition [24b]. Many prepositions are not employed in final positions at all. (Quirk 1985, p. 1252, 1253) [24e] *Pupils carry out and report on set practical work and a project, **during which** the teacher acts an adviser.*

antecedent	___/that/who/whom/which + preposition
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[24b i] *He is the policeman (___/that/who/whom) the burglar fired the gun **at**.*

[24b ii] *She arrived the day (___/that/which) I was ill **on**.*

If this and the last pattern are compared in terms of employing the zero relativizer (juxtaposition) and *that*, the use of a preposition is optional. On the other hand, *wh*-item in here requires presence of a preposition. (Quirk 1985, p. 1255, 1256) Although, Woods & McLeod mention that when regarding time relativizers, e. g. [24b ii], it is very unusual to use the *wh*-item with the preposition transferred at the end. The tendency is rather to treat such case in a way corresponding to the last pattern listed, i.e. as shown on the example [24d ii]. (1990, p. 228, 229)

antecedent	relative adverbial (<i>where, when, why</i>)
------------	--

[24c i] *That's the place (**where**) she was born.*

[24c ii] *She arrived the day (**when**) I was ill.*

[24c iii] *That's the reason¹⁴ (**why**) she spoke.*

They are variants to relativizers with prepositions for place adverbials (*where*), for time adverbials (*when*), and for reason/cause adverbials (*why*). (Quirk 1985, p. 1253) Therefore, an example [24a ii] corresponds to the sentence [24c i], and [24a iii] to [24c ii]. Quirk, however, explains that the example [24c iii] would equal to the sentence with a *for which* Adv and would have limited acceptability. (1985, p. 1254) He also comments on a tendency to use a *wh*-clause without antecedent (i.e. a nominal relative clause¹⁵) in order not to be tautologous. (ibid.) In that case

¹⁴ In order to denote cause or reason, the antecedent "reason" is the only word to be used. (Quirk 1985, p. 1255, Dušková 2003, p. 623, 624)

¹⁵ The nominal relative clause will be treated in the chapter 3.1.2

the sentences with the nominal relative clauses are as follows: *that's where she was born; she arrived when I was ill; that's why she spoke.*

As far as restrictions on the antecedent denoting place and time are concerned, they are usually the most generic nouns (e.g. *place, period, time, day*, etc.) (Quirk 1985, p. 1255) In addition Leech claims that after such nouns, the last pattern can apply too. (1991, p. 413)

antecedent	___/that + zero preposition
------------	-----------------------------

[24d i] *He is the policeman (___/that) the burglar fired the gun.*

[24d ii] *She arrived the day (___/that) I was ill.*

If the preposition is omitted altogether, which happens often with expressions of time, then in most cases the relativizer is left out too. (Quirk 1985, p. 1255, 1256) Thus, it is again juxtaposition. (Dušková 2003, p. 624)

Huddleston also mentions the adverbs *while, whence* and compounds of *where* + preposition (*whereat, whereby, wherefrom*, etc.), which may be applied as relativizers in an Adv function, though their occurrence is quite rare. (2002, p. 1050 - 1052)

To conclude this chapter, another two important things should be mentioned. The first does not regard the frequency of occurrence. A formal and informal point of view is to be commented on instead. As some sources suggest, a juxtaposed clause with a preposition is viewed as less formal; thus, in formal English the relativizer, especially *whom* or *which*, is expressed in a clause with a preposition. (Haines & Stewart 1996, p. 207; Collins 1992, p. 366) The second describes a close relationship between a relative clause and a cleft sentence, which is a construction with an introductory *it* that emphasizes a particular information by making it the complement (in following example it is an expression “strange”) which is linked by a form of the verb *be*. (Čáňová 2000, p. 72). E.g. *It was strange that he was prepared to pay out £150 million.* Here the similarity with relative clause is seen in the fronted element, expressed by the NP, followed by the rest of the sentence termed by Huddleston a “cleft relative clause”. Relative clauses and cleft relative clauses look alike, but they differ in function. (2002, p. 1035) A relative clause closer specifies its antecedent, whereas with a cleft

construction no specification is needed. It is used to give focus on the element followed by a cleft relative clause. The difference will be best indicated on Dušková's example sentence which may be interpreted in two ways. *It's the country that she likes best.* It is either a cleft sentence with the introductory "it" and emphasizing the NP "the country", meaning "she likes the country best", or a sentence containing a relative clause posmodifying the NP "the country". The latter means "this is the country that she likes best" and "it" has an anaphoric reference. (1999, p. 202, 203; 2002, p. 624, 625) The example sentence: *It was strange that he was prepared to pay out £150 million,* can be also seen as an "extraposed construction"¹⁶, i.e. where the sentence starts with an anticipatory/grammatical "it" and the subject is postponed at the end in order to be emphasized. (Čáňová 2000, p. 73) Here the communicative function is again to give emphasize. So to be able to interpret the sentence in the right way, the reader or hearer needs the context. As the thesis focuses only on ordinary relative clauses, the cleft sentences and extraposed phenomenon will not be dealt with.

3.1.1.2 Non-restrictive relative clauses

This postmodifier is an independent unit for its (above mentioned) characteristic, i.e. it is not required for its antecedent identification. (Biber 1999, p. 602) Therefore, this relationship resembles semantically to coordination of two sentences of the same level, which is shown on the following sentences. *Tom, who'll be off his backside at Roker Park, is passionate. = Tom is passionate and he'll be off his backside at Roker Park.* Linguists explain that a non-restrictive relative clause is also an independent tone unit in spoken English accompanied by a pause at the beginning and in written language separated by commas. (Quirk 1985, p. 1258; Biber 1999, p. 602; Dušková 2003, p. 616; Baker 1995, p. 333) Though, commas indicating a non-restrictive clause is not reliable rule. Occasionally, albeit the sentence syntax or meaning implies a non-restrictive relation, there is no punctuation. (Huddleston 2002, p. 1058)

¹⁶ The extraposed construction is treated as a "postponement" in a chapter dealing with presenting information. (Čáňová 2000, p. 67 – 73)

As non-restrictive clauses differ from restrictive ones in a number of respects apart from what was mentioned above, this chapter will describe them in terms of their relativizers and syntactic functions.

This type of clause is usually introduced by *wh*-items, apart from *why*, which is typical only for restrictive clauses (Huddleston 2002, p. 1059) *Who*, *whose*, *whom* and *which* are distributed in the same way as in a restrictive relationship. While the zero relativizer (i.e. juxtaposition) can not occur at all, *that*¹⁷ is rather rare. (Quirk 1985, p. 1257 - 1259) Compared to restrictive clauses there is less choice of possible relativizer to be used when it has a determinative function in front of a NP. In such case *which* is usually after a preposition and it precedes a general head noun, locative or temporal. See the example [25]. Quirk also comments on more frequent use of *where* or *when* rather than a preposition with *which*. See [26, 27] (ibid., p. 1259)

[25] *Under Dr. McLachlan's scheme an endowment of £1000 was gathered before 1875, in which year the charge was sanctioned.*

[26] *He moved to London, **where** for many years he regularly preached in a chapel in Bayswater.*

[27] *But the rivalry took on a ferocious tangibility in 1960, **when** Dundee visited Muirton Park needing a draw to clinch the league.*

The following part of the chapter will show the relativizers in non-restrictive relative clauses on Quirk's example sentences in their syntactic functions. Afterwards, the focus will be on some specific characteristic within the functions. The relativizers may occur as **subject**, **object**, **subject complement**, or **adverbial**. (Quirk 1985, p. 1257 – 1258)

Subject [28]

[28a] *I spoke to Dr Spolsky, (**who**) was unwilling to give further details.*

[28b] *This excellent book, (**which**) has only just been reviewed, was published a year ago.*

Object [29]

[29a] *I spoke to Dr Spolsky, (**whom/who**) I met after the inquest.*

[29b] *This excellent book, (**which**) Freda has only just received for review, was published a year ago.*

¹⁷ To read more about *that* introducing non-restrictive clauses see Quirk 1985, 1258 - 1259.

Subject complement [30]

[30a] *Anna is a vegetarian, (which) no one else is in our family.*

[30b] *She wants low-calorie food, (which) this vegetable curry certainly is.*

Adverbial [31]

Due to the limited choice of the relativizer, the adverbial function can be found only in the following patterns.

antecedent	preposition + whom/which
------------	---------------------------------

[31a i] *The hotel manager, (to whom) I spoke about my dissatisfaction, suggested I write to you.*

[31a ii] *This is a new type of word processor, (about which) there has been so much publicity.*

antecedent	whom/who/which + preposition
------------	-------------------------------------

[31b i] *The hotel manager, (who) I spoke about my dissatisfaction to, suggested I write to you.*

[31b ii] *The hotel manager, (whom) I spoke about my dissatisfaction to, suggested I write to you.*

[31b iii] *This is a new type of word processor, (which) there has been so much publicity about.*

Having listed the examples, the author needs to clarify a few details. Firstly, while *that* in a S role is preferred to *which* in restrictive relative clauses, in non-restrictive cases *that* occurs only rarely. (Biber 1999, p. 615) Secondly, concerning a role of C_S, the examples given correspond with the Quirk's approach to the relativizer choice mentioned with restrictive clauses. (1985, p. 1260) Thirdly, according to study of Haines & Stewart, using *whom* after a preposition, as in [31a i] is considered more formal than *who* with the preposition in the final position, as in [31b i]. (1996, p. 207) In addition, *whom* is almost always preferred to *who* in the O and Adv positions. (Biber 1999, p. 615)

At the end, it needs to be stressed again that especially proper nouns tend to be found in NPs with non-restrictive postmodification, which was said when the work dealt with NP heads.

3.1.2 Nominal relative clauses

The separate chapter of this thesis is devoted to nominal relative clauses. It was indicated above that they will be treated as a subtype of finite structures along with adjectival relative clauses and clausal apposition. Nominal relative clauses, sometimes termed also as “free relative clauses” as they stand alone (Baker 1995, p. 203), are a transitional category between relative and content clauses and linguists tend to classify them in various ways; thus, they give priority to their different properties. So before defining this type in detail, it is important to comment on conceptions of (for this thesis essential) grammar books¹⁸.

Although Quirk considers nominal relative clauses as a subtype of relative clauses, he states that they resemble to *wh*-interrogative clauses in a way that are both introduced by *wh*-item and for that reason he treats them among nominal dependent clauses. Furthermore, his decision is supported by the fact that they are like NPs, which can be seen in number concord with the verb of the sentence. To prove that Greenbaum & Quirk show the examples: “*Whatever book you see is yours to take.* vs. *Whatever books I have in the house are borrowed from the public library.*” (1990, p. 310) Next, they “share with NPs a wider range of syntactic functions than are available to other nominal clauses” (Quirk 1985, p. 1056), which will be discussed later in this chapter. Moreover, “they can be concrete as well as abstract and can refer even to persons.” (ibid.) This semantic point of view Dušková also mentions in terms of that nominal relative clauses represent the only type of nominal clause which may determine a real person or object, whereas actions, states, events, etc. are expressed by other nominal clauses. (2003, p. 613) She based her conception of nominal relative clauses on comparison with Czech grammar. Since they are integrated into superordinate clauses via a general antecedent, which is unexpressed, they are considered and treated as a subtype of relative clauses in her grammar. (Dušková 1999, p. 222) As far as Biber’s classification concerns, he deals with nominal relative clauses within a subset of nominal *wh*-clauses, hence he gives the priority to their similarity to the *wh*-interrogative clauses as Quirk does. Finally, Huddleston refers to fused

¹⁸ Nominal relative clauses treated by Quirk (1985, p. 1056 – 1061), Biber (1999, p. 193, 194), Huddleston (2002, p. 1035 – 1036, 1066 – 1079), and Dušková (2003, p. 611- 615).

relative constructions (here nominal relative clauses) as to a subtype of *wh*-complement clauses and he, unlike already mentioned grammarians, understands these constructions as NPs or prepositional phrases (PPs) themselves rather than clauses that has some characteristics of NPs. (2002, p. 1068, 1069)

Now that the concept of nominal relative clauses was clarified, it is vital to define them in detail. "A nominal relative clause is closely integrated with the main clause in which it is embedded. It cannot normally be left out without injuring the structure of the main clause." (Biber 1999, p. 194) They can be either introduced by a simple *wh*-item (*who*, *what*, *which*, *where*, *when*, *how*, *while*) or by *-ever* series (*whoever*, *whatever*, *whichever*, *wherever*, *whenever*, *however*). The gender contrast that is distinguished in adjectival relative clauses does not apply in the same way for the nominal relative ones. While personal and non-personal contrast is viewed in the first case between *who* vs. *which*, in here it is between *who* vs. *what*, and *which* tends to employ only the determinative function. Apart from the determiners, as in [33, 34, 37, 41], they can be expressed by pronouns, as in [32, 39, 40, 44], or adverbs [35, 36, 38, 42, 43]. (Quirk 1985, p. 1056).

[32] *Just marry **who** you fall in love with, as long as you're happy.*

[33] *We have to give **what** help we can.*

[34] *We wish to see **which** arms were proving to be of the greatest significance...*

[35] ***Where** Jenny lives is very much the smart side of town.*

[36] *That was **when** Kelly began arranging her funeral.*

[37] *That's **how** easy it is.*

[38] *His visits continued in subsequent years **while** he was in Cambridge building.*

[39] *I'd like to see **whoever** wins this.*

[40] *So I can say **whatever** I want to say.*

[41] ***Whichever** party is in power makes some but not a great deal of difference.*

[42] *Others would move on to **wherever** their skills were required to construct railways, roads or canals.*

[43] ***Whenever** they were founded and **however** they were organised, these reasons have now disappeared.*

The *wh*-item represents both the antecedent and relativizer; thus, it is merged with its antecedent. (Biber 1999, p.193) Therefore, the nominal relative clause can be

paraphrased by an ordinary adjectival relative clause with an antecedent (*person, anyone, thing, anything, everything, etc.*) and relativizer. E.g. the sentence [32] equals to: [32 i] *Just marry the person **that** you...* or [39] changes into: [39 i] *I'd like to see anyone **who** wins this.* A little difference between [32 i] and [38 i] is noticed by Dušková and Jacobs. They point out that *-ever* series, in contrast to the specific meaning of simple *wh*-items, may have the meaning nonspecific. Thus, while *who* [32] in means “someone who/some person who”, *whoever* in [39] implies “anyone who/everyone who”. (2003, p. 613, 614; 1995, p. 314) Dušková notes another two important things. First is that *what* is typically paraphrased by *that which* as can be shown here: [44] *Professor Vallar has not told us what he thinks.* vs. [44 i] *Professor Vallar has not told us **that** which he thinks.* (ibid) The second concerns the transitional category in which some nominal relative clauses introduced by adverbs correspond to clauses adverbial, as in [45] *That's where all white strip came from.* (ibid., p. 627)

Due to the fact that the *wh*-item includes both the antecedent and relativizer, the whole nominal relative clause applies syntactic functions within the sentence structure as well as the *wh*-item represents a syntactic role within the subordinate clause. With the latter the paper deals first. In a dependent clause the *wh*-item can serve as: (a) subject (*Because you'd have to go and see whoever's in charge.*), (b) direct object (*Show me what you can do.*), or various complements, namely: (c) subject complement (*Then she bought whatever it was.*), (d) object complement (*That's what yuppie flu does to you then is it?*) and (e) prepositional complement (*Wherever you go you need permission in writing from whoever has the right to grant it.*). Finally, it also functions as (f) adverbial (*He had been told where he was.*). (Quirk, 1985, p. 1057)

Then the whole embedded clause functions within its superordinate clause in the same way as are primary functions of a NP, which will be next point of the description. According to Dušková, the most frequent roles are an O and S, especially when introduced by *what*. (2003, p. 612) The following list of syntactic roles is provided again with example sentences for illustration. So the nominal relative clauses occur as: (a) subject (***Whoever it is** certainly likes to have fun.*), (b) direct object (*I eat **what I fancy**.*), (c) indirect object (*They gave **whoever asked a cup of coffee**.*), (d) subject complement (*But that was **where it began**.*), (e) prepositional object (*One can always*

object to what somebody else says), (f) adverbial (*So he stayed **where he was.***), or (g) postmodification of a NP (*Hijras venture out into the streets to demand money from whoever seems affluent enough.*) (ibid)

Next, it is important to comment on three specific factors concerning this type of clause. It is its similarity to a *wh*-interrogative clause, to pseudo-cleft sentence, and its occurrence in extraposition.

Firstly, since nominal relative clauses resemble *wh*-interrogative clauses, it is essential to avoid their misinterpretation and explain their distinguishing features. One is that a nominal relative clause functioning as a S can take both a singular and plural verb, e.g.: *What money I have is yours* vs. *What possessions I have are yours*, whereas the interrogative clause must occur only with a singular verb. Next, Quirk mentions the introductory words and he claims about the simple *wh*-item functioning as a C_{prep} that “a nominal relative clause requires the *wh*-word to be placed first and the preposition to be deferred”, as in: *Individuals cannot choose what they vote on.* The latter may have the preposition fronted shown in a modified example: *The vendors were asked in which area not to resell.* vs. *The vendors were asked which area not to resell in.* Then, more importantly, the compound *-ever* series is never used in interrogative clauses. Occurrence of *who*, *whom*, *which*, and *why*, on the other hand, seems to be restricted in nominal relative clauses, namely used just with verbs such as *choose*, *like*, *please*, *want* or *wish*. (Quirk 1985, p. 1059, 1060) Dušková adds that the whole *wh*-interrogative clause is understood to be either a S or O of the superordinate clause, i.e. its constituent, whereas in nominal relative clause it is only the covert antecedent that is merged with the relativizer and then just postmodified by the rest of the dependent clause. (2003, p. 613) Compare the example of a *wh*-interrogative clause: *I don't know why she did it.* where the question “Why she did it?” remains to be answered and a nominal relative clause: *This is why it is quite as useful in savoury as in sweet dishes.* where the information or reason may be known to both speaker and hearer. However some cases may be ambiguous: *They asked me what I knew*, where the interrogative interpretation would be: “They asked me, ‘What do you know?’” and the relative one would be: “They asked me about things that I knew.” (Quirk 1985, p. 1060, 1061)

Secondly, there is also a close resemblance to a so-called “pseudo-cleft” sentence that is similar in function to a cleft sentence mentioned in chapter 3.1.1.1. A S or C_S of a pseudo-cleft sentence expresses the information being emphasized and it is a clause structurally identical to a nominal relative clause introduced by a *wh*-word, especially *what*. (Dušková 2002, p. 538) E.g. *What is needed is more detailed analysis*. Here “*What is needed*” functions as a S, whereas the next example is modified in order to show C_S function. *More detailed analysis is what is needed*. In the same way as cleft sentences, also pseudo-cleft sentences are not understood as ordinary nominal relative clauses; therefore, the thesis will not comment on them.

Thirdly, nominal relative clauses may appear also in an extraposed construction, which was already described in the chapter 3.1.1.1. The extraposed constructions, e.g. *It didn't matter what he did*, or *It doesn't matter who wrote it*, again structurally resemble, in this case, nominal relative clauses, but they are to emphasize the new information at the end of the sentence and therefore, they will not be treated in the practical part of the thesis.

Nominal relative clause may have also a non-finite form, namely expressed by a *to* infinitive clause. This will be discussed closely in the chapter 3.2.1.3, which is concerning non-finite structures.

3.1.3 Appositive clause

The last category of finite clausal postmodification to be examined here devotes to appositive clauses, which seem to be identical to restrictive relative clauses as they share the same relativizers, yet they have a very different structure. Compare this appositive clause: [46] *The reason that you use hot air is to keep that combustion going at a good temperature*, to the clause relative: [47] *Another reason that was rather intriguing to scientists was that they could actually look at stars*. The most important differences will be described in this chapter. Firstly, an appositive clause presents a complete content of the head noun, whereas, as it was mentioned above, the relative clause either serves “to identify the reference of the head, or to add some descriptive information about that noun.” (Biber 1999, p. 644, 645) On the basis of this content identity it is possible to leave out either of the elements without changing the reference. Though, one element is usually more general than the other and understanding

the situation or context is needed. (Dušková 2003, p. 499) Therefore, shown on [46] the sentence “the reason is to keep that combustion going at a good temperature” corresponds to “that you use hot air is to keep that combustion going at a good temperature”. Secondly, the appositive clause is introduced by *that* which is not a clausal element but it is a conjunction, i.e. a subordinator, which cannot be omitted. Thirdly, there is no difference between a restrictive [48] and rather rare non-restrictive [49] appositive clause in terms of their subordinator. There is *that* in both cases. (Quirk 1985, p. 1260)

[48] *I am pleased that the idea that we should turn our prisons into workplaces is slowly beginning to take hold.*

[49] *I think it's a good idea, that we actually pass something to the people.*

Thus, as in [49] comma is followed by the conjunction *that*. Therefore, the non-restrictive apposition less resembles a non-restrictive relative clause which does not take *that*. (ibid., p. 1262) Also note that in a restrictive appositive clause, like [48], there is usually a tendency to use a definite article before the head noun. However, there may be some exceptions (*a, any* or no article) that occur with words referring to certainty, especially “*fact*”, etc.: [50] *A message that he would be late arrived by special delivery.* [51] *The union will resist any proposal that Mr Johnson should be dismissed.* [52] *Stories that the house was haunted angered the owner.* (Quirk 1985, p. 1261) Finally, the last difference mentioned will concern the fact that “a head of the NP must be a general abstract noun” such are the examples below and they are often “nominalised equivalents of verbs (*the claim* from “to claim”; *the suggestion* from “to suggest”, etc.) or adjectives (*possibility* from “possible”)” (Biber 1999, p. 648, 649)

Abstract nouns taking appositive clauses across registers listed by grammarians and ordered alphabetically:

<i>answer, assumption, assertion, belief, circumstance, claim, comment, conclusion, contention, conviction, desire, discovery, doubt, expectation, fact, fear, feeling, ground(s), hope, hypothesis, idea, implication, impression, indication, knowledge, news, notion, observation, opinion, perception, presumption, principle, probability, proposal, proposition, possibility, realisation/realization, reason, remark, reply,</i>
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report, requirement, result, rumour, sense, sign, statement, suggestion, suspicion, thesis, thought, view, wish, etc.

Regarding the heads, Biber states that “the combination ‘noun + *that*’ is ambiguous” as it may be sometimes introducing either an appositive clause or a relative clause. These nouns include less common heads taking appositive clauses and their examples are indicated in bold in the table above. As said by him, the heads that are most commonly occurring with an appositive clause (e.g. *possibility, doubt, impression, belief, etc.*) are almost never employed with a relative clause. (1999, p. 650, 651)

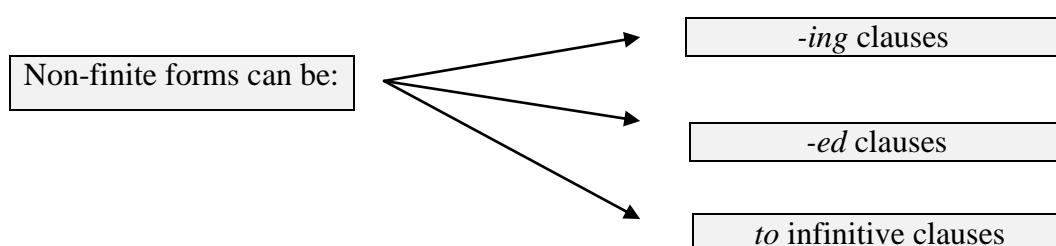
Special attention is to be paid to the head noun “*fact*”, which on the one hand frequently appears in appositive clauses [53] *The fact that I've achieved relative success at this club doesn't help me now*, and especially also in “extraposition” (which was already mentioned in the chapters 3.1.1.1 and 3.1.2). E.g. *It is a sad fact that most professionals do what interests them, rather than what most needs doing.* (Biber 1999, p. 651) These extraposed constructions structurally resemble the appositive clauses, but because of their different communicative function, as it was stated above, they will not be treated in the practical part of the thesis. On the other hand “*fact*” can be found also with relative clauses: *Tawell replied that he was short of money, a fact that was later found to be true.* (ibid) This ability of some head nouns to be followed by either an appositive or relative clause may occasionally lead to ambiguity that illustrates the example by Dušková's: *A report that he stole was ultimately sent to the police.* While in apposition “a report” is an abstraction followed by conjunction *that*, which means that the report was about his criminal act, “a report” in the relative clause means physical object that was stolen by him and *that* stands for a relativizer. (1999, p. 202, 203)

Closing this chapter, Biber states that apart from this *that*-clause, there is another major type of the noun complement clause (here appositive clause) called *to*-infinitive clause (*Joseph requested permission to travel to Washington.*) (1999, p. 645, 646) It belongs to non-finite forms and it will be treated along with a less common type (*of* + *-ing* clause) later in the chapter 3.2.3.

Having described finite clausal postmodification, the author will now focus on more compact and less explicit non-finite (NF) forms.

3.2 Non-finite postmodifying forms

This part of the thesis will deal with postmodification that is realized by clauses with a NF verb phrase and usually covert subject. The terminology differs when labelling such phrases, so the work will use the following: (a) -ing clauses for present participles, (b) -ed clauses for past participles and then (c) to infinitive clauses. Thus:



These NF forms can replace the finite relative and appositive clauses (Biber 1999, p. 630) and for that reason, the work will classify them as NF relative and appositive clauses. In addition, it seems to be important to mention that even NF clauses are restrictive or non-restrictive to the NP they refer ton, which was already clarified in relation to finite forms in chapter the 3.1.1.1 and 3.1.1.2. Firstly, the non-finite restrictive relative clauses will be discussed and then the differences will be shown regarding the non-restrictive reference. In next part the attention is going to be paid to both NF restrictive and non-restrictive appositive clauses. Note that as with finite forms, the structurally identical NF forms in cleft and in pseudo-cleft sentences will not be studied as well as extraposition of NF structures due to their different communicative function.

3.2.1 Restrictive relative clauses

3.2.1.1 -ing clauses

[54] *The author is not the operator but the person writing the report.*

[55] *The boys shouting the loudest are the winners.*

[56] *At its summit is a boulder with a hollow resembling the imprint of a man's foot.*

Relative *-ing* clauses always correspond to their finite forms in which relativizer functions as a subject. (Quirk 1985, p. 1263; Biber 1999, p. 630) Thus, the example [54] becomes equivalent to one of more explicit versions of the finite relative clause: ... *the person who will write / will be writing / writes / is writing / wrote / was writing the report*, and [55] equals to: *The boys who have shouted / who have been shouting the loudest are the winners*. – an example given by Close (1975, p. 93) showing also a correspondence with the perfective aspect in the relative clause. From what has just been said it is obvious that in *-ing* clauses the tense is not marked. It may be only interpreted according to the context. Quirk also emphasizes that:

-ing forms in postmodifying clauses should not be seen as abbreviated progressive forms in relative clauses. Stative verbs¹⁹, for instance, which cannot have progressive in the finite verb phrase, can appear in participial form. (1985, p. 1263)

In other words this means that example [56] is equivalent only to non-progressive (i.e. simple) tense forms: ...*a hollow which resembles / resembled the imprint of a man's foot*, (not “*is resembling / was resembling*” due the stative character of the verb. As Dušková notes, by using the *-ing* clause, the difference between a progressive and simple tense is neutralized. (2003, p. 581)

The aspectual distinction is also lost as in these NF structures the perfective aspect cannot usually be employed. Though, it is acceptable in case where the head noun is indefinite (Quirk 1985, p. 1264): *Default is made or unnecessary delay takes place in entering on the register the fact of any person having ceased to be a member*.

As suggested above, the antecedent corresponds to “the implicit subject of the NF clause”. And if there is no such relation expressed (e.g. *Reports that my colleague is writing will be discussed tomorrow*), it needs to be added that the *-ing* clause is used in passive instead: *Reports being written by my colleague will be discussed tomorrow*. (Quirk’s example) (1985, p. 1263) Therefore, the *-ing* clause may be active and passive.

Up till now, all *-ing* forms mentioned here were present participles, however, an *-ing* form postmodifying an abstract prepositional NP (i.e. a noun that followed by

¹⁹ To study stative verbs see Close 1975; p. 15.

a preposition) is regarded as to a gerund which due to its characteristics close to a noun may appear after a preposition.

[57] *The **chance of getting infected from a pint of blood** is less than 1 in a million.*

[58] *The **idea of sitting on a desert island** is sometimes very attractive.*

Dušková gives a list of such prepositional nouns:

*advantage of/in, anger at, **attempt** at, **capacity** for, certainty of, **chance** of, circumstance of, **desire** of, **disappointment** at, fact of, **fear** of, **honour** of, hope of, idea of, **intention** of, joy at, merit of/in, necessity of, need for, **pleasure** at/in, possibility of, probability of, likelihood of, problem of, question of, story of, rumour of, view of, **way** of, etc.*

and she points out that a *to* infinitive clause or finite appositive clause may alternate with a “preposition + gerund” postmodifying some of these nouns. (2003, p. 577, 578) The nouns taking to infinitive clause are in bold, whereas the nouns also occurring with an appositive clause are underlined. Thus, the example [57] alternates with: *The chance to get infected from a pint of blood is less than 1 in a million.* and [58] with: *The idea that I am sitting on a desert island is sometimes very attractive.*

3.2.1.2 -ed clauses

[59] *The only car (being) repaired by that mechanic is mine.*

[60] *It was snatched from her by a woman without heart or conscience, a woman driven by greed.*

[61] *“A promise given under duress is a misnomer, my son”.*

Again the same rule applies as *-ed* clauses correspond only with relative clauses which have the relativizer in the subject function and the antecedent is also identical with a NF clause implicit subject. (Quirk 1985, p. 1264, 1265) According to Collins, the past participle clause is used “to show that something has been produced or affected by an action”. (1992, p. 134) The example above was used by Greenbaum & Quirk and illustrates that *-ed* clauses can also indicate the progressive aspect. The sentence [59] equals to the more explicit forms of finite relative: *The only car that will be repaired / is (being) repaired / was (being) repaired by that mechanic is mine.* (1990, p. 373)

In contrast to *-ing* clauses, which are always linked to active voice, whose verbs only sometimes tend to match finite progressive aspect verbs, Biber claims that: “the verbs in *-ed* clauses correspond directly to the passive voice in finite clauses” (Biber 1999, p. 631) Therefore, [60] and [61] can be paraphrased only by the passive structures: “...., a woman who was driven by greed; ‘A promise which was given under duress is a misnomer, my son.’” And as Jacobs points out, the active voice refers to nonsense, e.g. the sentence [60] does not mean “a woman who drives”. (1995, p. 313) However, there is no *-ed* postmodifier possible in case of intransitive verbs, i.e. verbs taking no O²⁰, as in: *The wine, which arrived in a carafe, was a strong excellent vin ordinaire.* And as in *-ing* clauses, Quirk also adds that: “there is usually no perfective aspect in *-ed* clauses”. (1985, p. 1265) The finite relative clause: *The whole carpeting of the building which has been done was that the consultants come in look at colour schemes and say this is what to do,* would equal to partially acceptable: *The whole carpeting of the building having been done was that the consultants come in look at colour schemes and say this is what to do.*

3.2.1.3 *to* infinitive clauses

Collins says that a *to* infinitive clause is used after a NP to express that a person or thing should or can have something done. He also claims that: “A *to* infinitive clause is often put after nouns in order to show what the thing referred to is intended to do.” (1992, p. 133) Unlike both participle clauses, they correspond with finite relative clauses where the relativizer functions not only as (a) subject, which is in [62], but also as (b) object like in [63], (c) adverbial like in [64] and to limited degree (d) complement like in Quirk’s example [65]. (Quirk 1985, p. 1265, 1266) Thus, “the subject of an infinitive clause need not be the antecedent.” (Greenbaum & Quirk 1990, p. 373) Moreover, according to Biber in a non-subject case it can occur overt (i.e. expressed) by the *for*-device. This does not happen in a great majority of situations, though. Then such a subject can be understood from the context. (1999, p. 632, 633)

[62 a] *It is however twice as quick to erect with a friend to help you.* [‘who (can) help you’]

[62 b] *HOTECH 91, the technology exhibition for the industry, offers the solutions to help you run a better business.* [‘which (can) help you run a better business’]

²⁰ To read more about intransitive verbs, study Čáňová 2000, p. 18, 19, 25 - 27)

[63] *But she said, after a while, in a pause that was there (for her) to fill," I can't, Andrew.*" ['which she should fill in']

[64 a] *This will be an opportunity (for us) to give thanks to God for its tremendous work in preparing men and women for christian service at home and abroad.*

['when we (should) give thanks to God...']

[64 b] *Time (for teachers) to undertake research.* ['in which they (should) undertake research']

[65] *The thing (for you) to be these days is a systems analyst.*

['the thing that people will try to be these days is a systems analyst']

There is a less common possibility to present the content in a more formal way by introducing *to* infinitive clauses with relativizers. So e.g. the example [64 b] can be paraphrased as: *Time **when/in which** to undertake research.* Note that the preposition cannot be put at the end of the embedded clause and it cannot be left out. (Quirk 1985, p. 1266) On the contrary, Dušková mentions that (*of*) *how*, (*of*) *what* or (*as to*) *whether*, this time i.e. "question words", tend to be used after the head nouns such are: *idea*, *question*, *problem*, *discussion*, etc.

[66] *Young people have no idea **how** to present themselves.*

[67] *The question **whether** to continue training or not invariably depends on the expert.*

To infinitive clauses can occur both in active and passive voice. Their meaning may be identical or with a little difference. (Dušková 2003, p. 566) E.g. [68] *Radio producers have the best music to choose/to be chosen from to entertain their audiences.*

Another significant fact concerning *to* infinitive clauses is that they may have both modal and non-modal sense, as e.g. in [62, 64]. Quirk states that: "modal interpretation seems to be normal", only when "the antecedent corresponds to the object of the infinitive, the modal interpretation is the only possible one". (ibid., p. 1269) See the example [63] above.

It also has to be emphasized that *to* infinitive clause may be identical with the adverbial clause of purpose²¹, i.e. a dependent clause expressing the purpose of the activity stated in the superordinate clause. According to Dušková, it happens when the NF clause follows the O of the superordinate clause. The Dušková's example sentence:

²¹ To read about adverbial clauses of purpose see Dušková 2003, p. 636 – 368.

[69] *She wants someone to look after her*, can be interpreted as a NF noun postmodifier: “she needs someone who would look after her”, or as an adverbial clause of purpose: “she wants someone in order to look after her”. The ambiguity does not apply if the O of the superordinate clause equals to O of dependent clause. E.g. [70] *She wants someone to look after*. Here it is a noun postmodifier which means: “she needs somebody whom/who she can look after”. (2003, p. 564)

Before proceeding to the next part of the thesis, this chapter will discuss also NF *to* infinitive structures that stand for NF nominal relative clauses, which was indicated earlier when the paper dealt with their finite forms. Quirk claims that relativizers such as all the *-ever* series, *which*, *why* and determinative *what* are excluded from this type of clause. *Who*, *whom* and *what* do not take a S function, but otherwise they have the same functions as within finite forms. Thus, they can be: both (a) direct [71] and (b) indirect object [72], (c) subject complement [73], (d) object complement [74], (e) prepositional complement [75], and (f) adverbial [76]. In (b, c, d and e) the author used Quirk’s examples. (1985, p. 1058)

[71] *The immediate problem for parents is what to tell them*. [‘the thing to tell them’]

[72] *That’s whom/who to ask*. [‘the person to ask’]

[73] *That’s who to be*. [‘the role to be’]

[74] *Here’s what to call your dog*. [‘the name to call’]

[75] *This is what to season the rice with*. [‘the spice to season the rice with’]

[76] *This is where to be when the Bomb drops: *snug as you like**. [‘the place to be’]

Like a finite nominal relative clause, the non-finite also has a syntactic role within the superordinate sentence structure. Though, it seems to be restricted only to the functions of (a) subject complement [77] and (b) prepositional complement shown on Quirk’s sentence [78].

[77] *One problem, of course, is where to draw the line*.

[78] *The book is **on** how to use a computer*.

Finally, it should be said that most NF postmodifying clauses are restrictive and only few appear to have a non-restrictive reference. The latter will be described in the next chapter.

3.2.2 Non-restrictive relative clauses

Non-restrictive *-ing* and *-ed* clauses correspond, as in restrictive relation, only to relative clauses where the relativizer functions as a S. This time for *to* infinitive clauses such restriction is also applied. (Quirk 1985, p. 1270) These loosely integrated NF clauses are also marked off by comma in writing and may be found in initial (usually giving background information), medial (standing for parenthetical information), or final position (which is supplementary). (Biber 1999, 201)

[79] *The teacher, seeing what the problem was, drew the group together.*

[80] *The pub, built around 1600, was bought by a developer in 1988.*

[81] *This scholar, to be found daily in the British Museum, has devoted his life to the history of science.* (Quirk's example sentence)

Quirk explains that NF relative structures, e.g. [79], may be paraphrased not only by a finite relative clause: “the teacher, who saw what the problem was, drew ...”, but also by an adverbial clause of reason: “the teacher, because he/she saw what the problem was, drew ...”, time: “the teacher, when he/she saw what the problem was, drew ...”, or condition. “the teacher, if he/she saw what the problem was, drew...”. However, Greenbaum & Quirk point out that if the non-restrictive postmodification is moved to initial position, as shown again on the example [79]: “seeing what the problem was, the teacher drew the group together”, it can no longer be paraphrased by finite relative clause. (1990, p. 374) Therefore, it is to be seen only as an adverbial clause²². In the practical part of this paper, the author will only paraphrase the non-restrictive NF forms by relative clauses as they are a subject of investigation.

3.2.3 Non-finite appositive clauses

Appositive NF postmodification is most often realized by *to* infinitive clause both in restrictive [82] and non-restrictive [83] relation. Occasionally, *-ing* clause can occur too, [84]. (Quirk 1985, 1271) Note that the examples below are given by Quirk.

[82] *The appeal to give blood received strong support.* [‘that people (should) give blood’]

[83] *This last appeal, to come and visit him, was never sent.* [‘that we (could) come and visit’]

²² To read about adverbial clauses, see Čáňová 200, p. 50 – 55.

[84] *I'm looking for a job (of) driving cars.* ['a job as a driver']

The S of appositive clause is usually understood from the context, but it may also be “explicitly introduced by a prepositional device: *The appeal for/to Winifred to join...; any attempt by Harold to leave...*”. (Greenbaum & Quirk 1990, p. 374, 375)

Some *to* infinitive clauses functioning as apposition do not always have a corresponding finite appositive form. They may be paraphrased by (just mentioned) a less common *of* + *-ing* construction instead. The sentence [85] *He lost the ability to use his hands.* equals to *He lost the ability of using his hands.* (Quirk 1985, p. 1272)

4. Introduction to the practical part

The practical part of the thesis will provide results of the authentic spoken and written English language analysis on the basis of the theory introduced in the first part of the paper. The quantitative analysis is to provide comparison of frequency of clausal postmodification occurrences defined previously within these two domains, whereas the main purpose of the qualitative approach is to study some specific features of the language used and its possible substitution which may affect the communicative meaning. Furthermore, the noun phrases are studied on the basis of whether their syntactic function affects the way they are postmodified within these particular domains. For the subject of investigation, transcripts of spoken English and popular scientific magazine articles were chosen. They were selected randomly between May 2006 and December 2009. In order to provide relevant and sufficient amount of samples, the author decided to analyse a minimum of ten various items of text. Thus, any personal stereotypes should be avoided. There are seventeen transcripts out of which nine are from the BBC internet source and eight come from the British Council web pages. Both monologues and dialogues were included. As far as the written articles are concerned, there are ten different sources where BBC source provided three samples and seven were published by National Geographic. To be able to meet the requirement of sufficient number of samples, in most cases only extracts of the texts were employed. More importantly, for the purpose of the analysis each data corpus contains one hundred of occurrences falling into the categories defined in the theoretical part of the thesis. However, the character of data corpora may have effect on the findings as the spoken English may be partially edited and the written English bears features of a popular scientific style. Next two paragraphs will describe the data corpora in more detail.

The characteristic features of spoken language can be defined according to Crystal. He finds spoken language more natural and widespread. He states that it is important to know whether the audience is present or absent. (2001, p. 296) The analysed spoken data corpus consists of radio broadcasts that are both monologues (i.e. where only one participant is involved) and dialogues. The audience is present as the talks are devoted

to the audience – to a listener, who cannot interrupt the speech flow with his or her question; thus, it is vital that the utterances are clear and easy to understand. For this reason the analysed corpus of the spoken English possesses some features of edited discourse. Moreover, this can be also supported by the fact that the corpus lacks certain properties of a spontaneous talk, e.g.: false starts, stammering, repetition, or unfinished sentences. (ibid, p. 214) Their presence would make such broadcasts unprofessional. On the other hand, it needs to be pinpointed that the utterances are not samples of written English to be spoken. When the broadcaster is talking in complete sentences taking turns carefully with an interviewed person, it is to give a pleasant time to a listener. And therefore, the absence of some properties typical for the spoken mode of communication may result in some similarities with the written domain. As far as the written domain concerns, the analysed articles were selected from a popular scientific field of discourse in order to avoid properties typical of , for example, the administrative style and newspaper language. As Knittlová claims, the so called non-fiction (also can be classified as a report) has informative function aimed at as many readers as possible by employing widely used vocabulary, i.e. avoiding some specific terminology (2003, p. 136 – 138; 1995, p. 115). It tends to be impersonal, objective and descriptive, which means that there is a tendency to use relative clauses.

All texts are available in the appendices (appendix 4), where each example is highlighted and numbered as it appears in the text for reader's better orientation. The antecedent is in italics and its postmodification is underlined. Each phenomenon is classified according to the criteria mentioned in the theoretical part, which is indicated by a set of abbreviations put into brackets afterwards. The list of abbreviated expressions is available in appendices (appendix 1). The unified system of classification was employed in order to stay consistent. Though, it needs to be pinpointed that not all the features analysed in each phenomenon will be relevant for further description. More information about the origin of the data used in corpus is available in the section concerning bibliography.

As it was suggested above, the first part of the practical part of the thesis concerns various types of clausal postmodification. It gives general overview of occurrences with a comment on quantitative features. Then, in the second part the attention will be

paid to possible ways of paraphrasing the structures. Furthermore, relativizers introducing postmodifying relative clauses will be analysed in terms of their choice and impacts when they are substituted. The third part is devoted to the study of the antecedents which are divided according to their syntactic roles and the author is interested in any patterns within the spoken and written means of communication. To do so, graphs and tables will be employed. The graphs will be used mostly in case of comparison. The tables will be used when giving a summary or when dealing with certain noun phrases introducing clausal postmodification. Before dealing with any results, the hypothesis will be stated. The author supposes that written English will provide greater frequency of examples since such form tends to be more condensed. For the very same reason it is expected to find there more non-finite structures than in the spoken language. However, the character of the corpora mentioned above also leads to a presumption that there may be certain similarities between the domains.

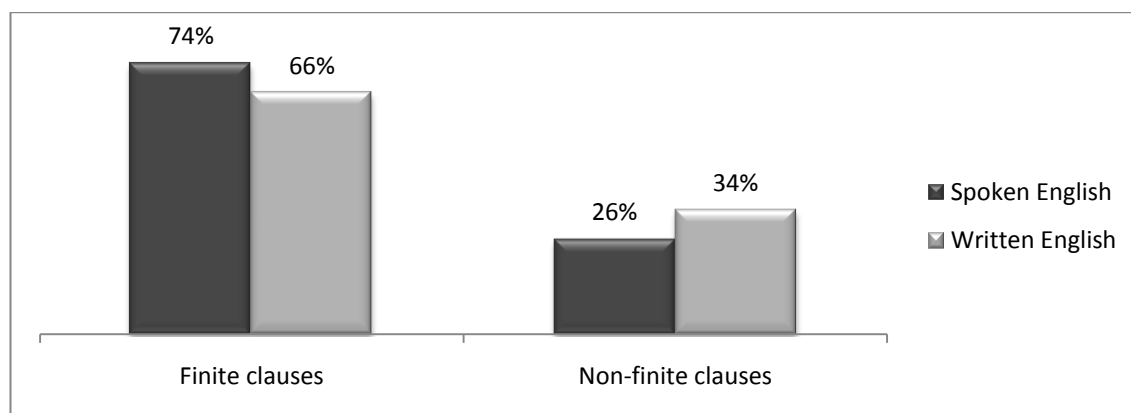
The first chapter gives information about all types of clausal postmodification identified in the corpora.

4.1 Types of clausal postmodification

Even though there is a higher number of finite clauses in both spoken (74 out of all 100 analysed instances, i.e. 74 % of clauses) and written English (66 instances, i.e. 66 % of clauses), the data corpus confirms the tendency stated above by the author that written English tends to be more condensed; thus, the non-finite structures are more frequent than they are in the spoken domain (26 % in spoken English vs. 34 % in the written texts). This finding can be also supported by the fact that the spoken corpus, which contains one hundred postmodifying clauses, takes 6025 words, whereas the written one - of the same content - has only 5010 words. In other words, the chosen samples of spoken English possess about 20, 26 % more words. However, it needs to be added that the finite structures prevail and it is due to the fact that they are more explicit (see chapter 3.1); therefore, the meaning is easier to convey and it helps to prevent ambiguity and misinterpretation, which is important for the corpora purposes.

Graph 1:

Frequency of occurrence of finite and non-finite clauses in the domains chosen



The following chapters 4.1.1 and 4.1.2 are devoted to the finite and non-finite clauses separately.

4.1.1 Finite postmodifying clauses

Firstly, the aim of this chapter is to inform about the frequency of the occurrence of the examined finite postmodifying clauses within the given two domains. As the table 1 shows, all types of finite clauses occur in the data corpora. The finite forms representing 74 % of all clauses identified in the spoken and 66 % in the written language are divided into subcategories with their proportional percentage.

Table 1: Frequency of occurrence of finite clause subtypes

	Spoken English		Written English	
	instances		instances	
<i>Adjectival relative clauses (r + non-r)</i>	39 + 10	66,22 %	37 + 9	69,70 %
<i>Nominal relative clauses</i>	20	27,03 %	13	19,70 %
<i>Appositive clauses</i>	5	6,76 %	7	10,60 %
Σ	74	100 %	66	100 %

To summarize it, there was a similarity discovered regarding the proportion of the subgroups. In both corpora the adjectival clauses occur more often by virtue of the fact that nominal relative clauses are rather unique, which Quirk claims in his

work (1985, p. 1244) and also the appositive clauses tend to be less frequent as they are limited to occurrence only with abstract nouns. Now, coming to the second aim of this chapter, a more detailed discussion devoted to each subcategory will follow.

4.1.1.1 Adjectival relative clauses

As said above, there were 49 occurrences of finite adjectival relative clauses in spoken English and 46 occurrences in written English. Regarding to their restrictive and non-restrictive use, the restrictive clauses occur in the majority of cases, namely in 39 instances in the former and 37 instances in the latter, as opposed to the non-restrictive clauses being only in 10 and 9 cases. In other words, similarly about 80 % of all adjectival relative clauses in both corpora are expressed by postmodification in the restrictive mode. E.g.: (45) *And is it really the solution that everyone is looking for, or needs?* The specifying and closely defining use of a relative clause is more common as it is often important to narrow the reference of the postmodified antecedent. On the other hand, the non-restrictive relation is limited to the fact that the antecedent needs to be specific enough and so its postmodification is only additional information which can be omitted without any effect on the meaning. Thus, the relative clause is not vital for the recipient to be able to understand the reference correctly. E.g.: (162) *Farrah, who concealed a sharp brain and quick wit behind the pouffed-up hair, told...* This example shows that the antecedent is expressed by the proper noun “Farrah” and it is obvious from the context that there is only one person called Farrah mentioned. The postmodifying information “who concealed a sharp brain and quick wit behind the pouffed-up hair” is extra and could be omitted. (also see the chapter 3.1.1.2 and [25 - 31]) The antecedents were studied and put into the table 2 below.

Table 2: The List of antecedents postmodified by non-restrictive relative clauses

Proper nouns	(21) <i>Ken Livingstone</i> , (33) <i>Devil May Care</i> , (39) <i>Centre Court</i> , (83) <i>of All the President’s Men</i> , (84) <i>Apocalypse Now</i> , (88) <i>such as Gandhi</i> , (99) <i>such as Erasmus</i> , (124) <i>A. callidryas eggs</i> , (146) <i>according to Museum Victoria</i> , (155) <i>of Michael Jackson</i> , (162)	13
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	<i>Farrah, (179, 180) with Mark Moffett;</i>	
Pronouns and other nouns (common, abstract)	(19) <i>his critics</i> (“his” refers to “Boris Johnson’s”), (22) <i>for his introduction of the congestion charge</i> (“his” refers to “Ken Livingstone”), (93) <i>the company’s bonus system</i> (there is only one bonus system in the company), (102) <i>this appalling horror of the 1960s</i> (refers to one particular situation), (136) <i>deforestation</i> (i.e. the whole process of deforestation), (176) <i>Spear’s recent troubled tour of Australia</i> (refers to one particular tour);	6

According to the table above, it can be confirmed that the non-restrictive relative clauses occurred only as additional information with antecedents expressed either by proper nouns (in the majority of cases, i.e. 68,42 %) or by NPs that are understood in the context as unique (in 31,58 % of occurrences). Having commented on restrictive and non-restrictive relation, the author proceeds to the next subject of investigation concerning the choice of relativizers.

Table 3: Frequency of occurrence of relativizers

	Spoken English		Written English	
	instances (r / non-r)		instances (r / non-r)	
<i>who</i>	13 / 2	30,61 %	8 / 3	23,91 %
<i>whom</i>	0 / 0		1 / 0	2,17 %
<i>which</i>	3 / 7	20,41 %	6 / 3	19,57 %
<i>that</i>	12 / 0	24,49 %	15 / 0	32,61 %
<i>whose /of which</i>	1 / 0	2,04 %	1 / 1	4,35 %
<i>when</i>	1 / 0	2,04 %	0 / 1	2,17 %
<i>where</i>	2 / 1	6,12 %	3 / 1	8,69 %
<i>zero</i>	7 / 0	14,29 %	3 / 0	6,52 %
Σ	39 / 10	100 %	37 / 9	100 %

Biber states that: “There is a complex set of interrelated factors influencing the choice among relativizers.” He also adds that *who*, *which*, and *that* are particularly common across registers. (1999, p. 609) The corpora containing a randomly selected wide range of topics show that the postmodified antecedents were mostly non-personal (factually concerning the adjectival relative clauses 67,35 % were non-personal, i.e. 33 instances out of 49, in the spoken and 71,74 %, i.e. 33 instances out of 46, in the written language) as opposed to personal (32,65 % and 28,26 %). In other words the examined texts tend to be impersonal.

Though, the relativizer *who* is assuredly preferred to *that* when it is in a S function referring to personal antecedent, see the example [20a] and compare to e.g. (161) *from the pulchritudinous babes who carried the story*. Here the relativizer refers to the noun “babes”. *Who* is uniquely ascribed to the role of relativizing personal head nouns found in the text with three following exceptions. There are two instances where *whose* (the only possible) was used as a determiner in order to express possessive case referring to a personal antecedent, compare [15] and (86) *In 1967 Guess Who’s Coming to Dinner, a comedy about a white couple whose daughter brings home a black fiancé...*, i.e. “a daughter of a white couple”, (180) *with Mark Moffett, ... and whose groundbreaking photography of ants focuses in this issue on army ants*, i.e. “Mark Moffett’s groundbreaking photography of ants”. And there is also *whom* that occurred once in (159) *a reclusive multi-millionaire whom the women had never met*, where its syntactic function is also non-subjective, namely an O, and for that reason *who* would be rather colloquial in this place; thus, inappropriate for the rather formal informative purpose which both domains require. A zero relativizer and *that* are, however, relevant alternatives which could be employed: “a reclusive multi-millionaire ___/that the women had never met”. Concerning the syntactic functions of the relativizer *who*, it occurs only as a S in all cases (counted in the table 3). In addition, Biber states that the relativizer *that* referring to a personal NPs is frequently found in a language of conversation (1999, p. 613). There is no such instance found in the examined spoken English and the main reason for it may be that the samples are intended for being broadcasted; hence, they cannot be seen as a spontaneous flow of conversation. Even so, *that* can usually alter *who* relativizer. The table 4 provides a list of instances where it is and where it is not possible to do so.

Table 4: *That* and its potential alternation with *who* in the subjective syntactic function

	Spoken English		Written English	
	list of instances	total	list of instances	total
<i>that</i> can substitute <i>who</i>	(7), (13), (40), (41), (42), (69), (70), (72), (76), (89), (95), (98)	12	(112), (154), (161), (186), (188), (190), (191)	7
<i>that</i> cannot substitute <i>who</i> as the postmodifying clause is non-restrictive	(19), (21)	2	(155), (162), (179)	3
<i>that</i> cannot substitute <i>who</i> as it would cause ambiguity	(8)	1	(139)	1
Σ		15		11

For instance the example (161) would be: “from the pulchritudinous babes that carried the story”. The meaning is conveyed without any change caused by an alternative choice of the relative pronoun. On the contrary, there have occurred two situations where *who* is the only option to be used. The first results from the fact that *that* cannot be applied with non-restrictive postmodification (see the chapter 3.1.1.2) and in the second the ambiguity in reference would arise. E.g.: (8) *Greg Twitcher is Vice President of Visa UK who commissioned a survey...* Only due to the usage of *who* it can be clear that it was the Vice President who commissioned the survey not the Visa UK.

Having mentioned *whose* as a means of expressing possessive case with a personal antecedent (see chapter 3.1.1), the author found an example of its non-personal counterpart of *which*: (149) *Mammalodon belongs to the same family as Janjucetus hunderi, fossils of which were also found in 25 million-year-old Oligocene rocks near Torquay in Victoria, where “Janjucetus hunderi” refers to an animal, thus a non-personal head noun. Note that the example could have the word order rearranged: *Janjucetus hunderi, of which fossils were also found in 25 million-year-old Oligocene rocks near Torquay in Victoria.**

Spoken and written English were also studied in order to be compared with Dušková’s statement concerning the postmodified non-personal antecedent where *that* prevails in spoken English, whereas *which* domains the written form (see chapter 3.1.1.1).

The author observes that *that* occurs more often in both corpora, which confirms Biber's point of view claiming that the relativizer *that* is preferred regardless the spoken or written utterance, see [20b], (ibid.). So *that* is more frequent in the corpora, even though it may not occur in non-restrictive use where the latter is used instead (see chapter 3.1.1.2). Therefore, the study proceeded further. It can be said that both *that* and *which* are flexible in their use, in the sense of the syntactic role they can perform and the meaning they convey. (Biber 1999, p. 611) Regarding the restrictive use, they are interchangeable in terms of grammar; only stylistic preferences may apply. The range of syntactic functions was mapped and the results introduced in the table 5 below.

Table 5:

List of syntactic functions of the relativizers *that* and *which* across the corpora

		Spoken English		Written English	
syntactic function		instances r	instances non-r	instances r	instances non-r
<i>that</i>	<i>S</i>	9	-	14	-
	<i>O</i>	3	-	0	-
	<i>Adv</i>	0	-	1	-
	Σ	12	-	15	-
<i>which</i>	<i>S</i>	3	6	6	3
	<i>O</i>	0	1	0	0
	<i>Adv</i>	0	0	0	0
	Σ	3	7	6	3

Having had to focus only on adjectival relative clauses in a restrictive relation, since the fact that *that* cannot be applied in non-restrictive clause, the author compared the syntactic roles performed by both relativizers. It was discovered that the clauses which are introduced by *that* or *which* have the relativizer mainly in the function of a *S*, which is the reason why *that* occurs more often than *which*, i.e. 80 % in the spoken and 95 % in the written corpus. It is primarily preferred over *which* in this situation.

Next it can be said that the use of the zero relativizer is rather moderate (see again the table 3). It is partially due to the fact that juxtaposition is possible only in restrictive relation and partially that it is limited to a non-subjective syntactic role

of the relativizer; see the examples [21, 22, and 24b] and compare to e.g. (17) *the expression Renee uses at the end of the extract*, where the zero relativizer functions as an O, or (97) *the most obvious way universities can help develop a global workforce*, where the omitted subordinator is an Adv. Moreover, as Biber claims, its use has a more informal flavour and is preferred in conversation (1999, p. 612). The slight similarity was discovered in the analysis as far as the moderate use concerns. The spoken corpus contains 17,95 % of all relativizers in restrictive adjectival relative clauses and written corpus has only 8,11 %, which, however, implies that even though spoken samples appear to be rather formal, they still contain the juxtaposition more frequently than it is in the written form. It should also be pinpointed that a zero relativizer can always be substituted by a clause with expressed relativizer of an appropriate form. E.g.: (17) would be: “the expression **which/that** Renee uses at the end of the extract”, and (97) would be: “the most obvious way **in which** the universities can help develop a global workforce”.

In contrast to all previously mentioned relativizers, the relative adverbials are restricted only to one specific syntactic role, they are exclusively functioning as adverbs; therefore, they tend to occur rarer (Biber 1999, p. 612). To illustrate this all adjectival relative clauses were examined and the result proves the claim. In spoken English there are 8,16 % (2,04 % + 6,12 % - displayed in the table 3) and in written English 10,87 % (2,17 % + 8,69 %) of adverbials in postmodifying clauses expressed by relative adverbials. *Where* is by far the most common one. In addition, while *where* and *when* appeared in the texts, e.g. (71) *there have been cases where people have claimed discrimination*, (102) *I had witnessed this appalling horror of the 1960s, when everything was thrown away*, the relativizer *why* do not occur in either corpus at all.

The theoretical part introduces various patterns regarding the adverbial syntactic function of a relativizer in restrictive, see examples [24a - d] and non-restrictive, see examples [25, 27, 31a, b] adjectival relative clauses. The table 6 below will show the occurrence of the relativizers functioning as adverbs in order to discover the preferences among the patterns which were introduced beforehand in the theoretical part (see the chapter 3.1.1.1 and 3.1.1.2).

Table 6: The choice of relativizers functioning as an adverb

Relativizer functioning as an Adv		Spoken English		Written English	
		instances		instances	
<i>Relative adverbs</i>	<i>where</i>	3	80 %	4	71 %
	<i>when</i>	1		1	
<i>Other relativizers</i>	<i>that</i>	0	20 %	1	29 %
	<i>zero</i>	1		1	
Σ		5		7	

The use of relative adverbials definitely prevails regardless the restrictive or non-restrictive use. E.g. (117) *We live in a nation where states have enacted legislation permitting asthmatic children to carry their inhalers to school.* (176) *Several of the stories also related to Spears's recent troubled tour of Australia, where it was reported fans had walked out of a concert in Perth because of her lip-synching.* However, the choice is not eliminating the other patterns. It is possible to apply one (or possibly more) from the remaining possibilities with all clauses that are introduced by relative adverb. For example similarly as [24a], the instance (117) may alter to: “We live in a nation **in which** states have enacted legislation permitting asthmatic children to carry their inhalers to school”. Or here *when* in (66) alters to: “We have come a long way since those days **in which** employers were allowed to discriminate against job candidates...”. Having studied all the instances, the author discovered that the following patterns, for example, shown in [24b ii], where the preposition is transferred at the end, or [24d], where the relativizer is *that* and the preposition is omitted altogether, cannot be used to substitute the relative adverbs as the postmodifying clauses appear to be rather long and the whole sentences would be incomprehensible. See e.g.: (117).

The table 7 bellow lists all the antecedents that occurred with relative adverbs and it indicates the fact that they refer to a place or time.

Table 7:

A list of NPs of which postmodification was introduced by a relative adverb

where	(39) <i>Centre Court</i> , (71) <i>cases</i> , (78) <i>cases in families</i> , (116) <i>remote areas of South America or Africa</i> , (117) <i>in a nation</i> , (163) <i>in an age</i> , (176) <i>Spears's recent troubled tour of Australia</i>
when	(66) <i>since those days</i> , (102) <i>this appalling horror of the 1960s</i>

4.1.1.2 Nominal relative clauses

There were altogether 27,03 % (i.e. 20 instances) in the spoken and 19,70 % (13 instances) in the written corpus. As the nominal relative clauses can be introduced not only by a simple *wh*-item, but also by *-ever* series, the author studied the occurrence of the integrated introductory items in order to map any tendencies typical for the spoken and written language. The table 8 gives the information about the findings resulted from the analyses.

Table 8:

The frequency of occurrence of the relativizers identified as a part of nominal relative clause

	Spoken English		Written English	
	Instances		instances	
<i>what</i>	16	80 %	6	46,15 %
<i>where</i>	2	10 %	3	23,08 %
<i>how</i>	1	5 %	3	23,08 %
<i>whatever</i>	1	5 %	1	7,69 %
Σ	20	100 %	13	100 %

The relativizers *who*, *which*, *when*, *while*, *whoever*, *whichever*, *wherever*, *whenever*, and *however* did not occur at all in the examined corpora. Due to high occurrence of the relativizers which are uniquely ascribed to non-personal gender, explicitly *what*,

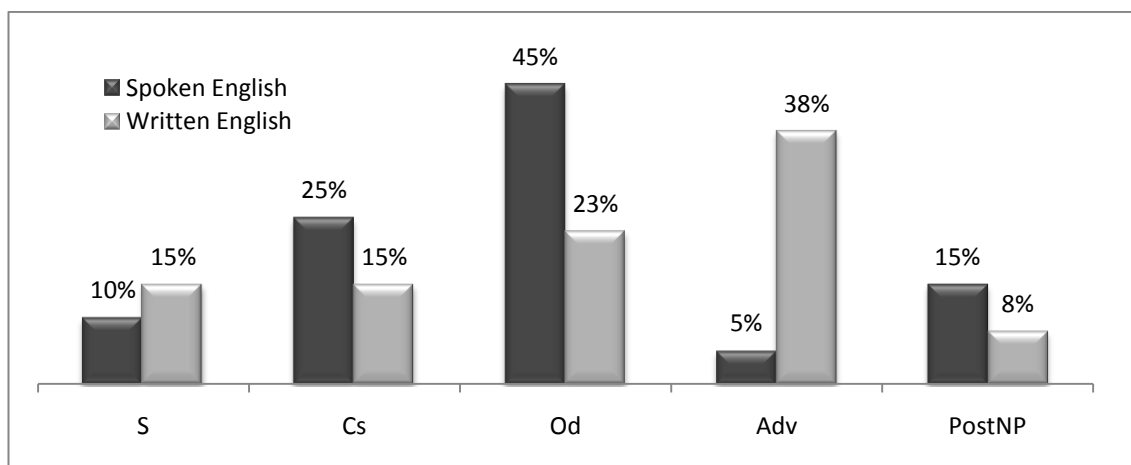
on the contrary to *who* and *whoever*, it can be confirmed again that the character of both corpora is predominantly impersonal. This was already announced when commenting on adjectival relative clauses in the chapter 4.1.1.1. More interesting is the comparison between *what* vs. *whatever*. As it was mentioned in the theoretical part, the simple *wh*-item has a specific meaning, whereas the *-ever* series tends to be non-specific, see the chapter 3.1.2 and examples [32] and [39]. There was one instance in each corpus found where the indefinite and broader meaning appeared: (23) **Whatever happens**, given Boris Johnson's colourful past, it is unlikely that the next four years will be dull. (172) *The Daily Star* later reported in October that sales of squirrel meat soared after a new Spears biography included claims the star's family would eat **whatever father Jamie could hunt**. The former case means “anything that happens” and the latter case can be substituted with “anything that father Jamie could hunt”. While the (23) cannot alternate with *what* without affecting the meaning, the *what* may be employed in (172) with hardly any impact on the content of the message conveyed. The author supposes that it is owing to the modality expressed in the dependent clause by the verb “could”.

The remaining clauses, i.e. with a specific reference expressed by *what*, are numerous in the texts, especially in the spoken domain (16 instances). They can be divided into two groups. The first includes five nominal relative clauses, where the alternation of *what* and *whatever* is possible with almost no impact on the meaning. E.g.: (20) *In the same year his criticism of a healthy eating campaign also made headlines, when he said parents should be able to feed children **what they like** healthy or not*. Read all the remaining examples: (31, 43, 91, and 121). The second group is much plentiful: (11, 16, 30, 37, 50, 52, 54 – 56, 68, 77, 87, 108, 109, 126, 137, and 197), which represents 77 % of all nominal relative clauses introduced by *what*. They are significant for inability to use less specific variety. E.g.: (16) *And as you'll hear, this is **what impressed Renee** when she first read the script for the film*.

Furthermore, the spoken and written English data corpus was investigated in terms of what syntactic function these embedded clauses portray. The graph 2 shows the results. The numbers in per cent are rounded.

Graph 2:

The syntactic functions of nominal relative clauses within the superordinate structures



The syntactic functions of nominal relative clauses vary. While in spoken English the most frequent is an O function, in written English the Adv role is dominant, which, on the contrary, happens to be insignificant for the spoken corpus. The author assumes that the distribution of nominal relative clauses is influenced by a subject matter range; therefore, the findings may change if different samples of spoken and written data were selected.

4.1.1.3 Appositive clauses

As it was mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, the appositive clauses are limited only to the occurrence with abstract nouns. E.g.: (175) *The star quashed rumours that she was pregnant with a third child*. In order to compare their frequency related to the spoken and written domain, the findings show that this type of postmodification appears slightly more often in written style than in a language of conversation. Compare 10,60 % vs. 6,76 %. Such result can be supported by the claim that appositive clauses are preferred in writing rather than conversation. (Biber 1999, p. 650) Next, the table 9 will provide a list of all NPs that occurred with appositive clauses.

Table 9: List of antecedents postmodified by appositive clauses

1	(29) <i>no surprise</i> , (35) <i>some speculation</i> , (53) <i>no sign</i> , (101) <i>no warning</i> , (114) <i>Prince Charles's conviction</i> , (147) <i>to the conclusion</i> , (167) <i>the reason</i> , (174) <i>allegations</i> , (175) <i>rumours</i> , (199) <i>an emphasis</i>
2	(25), (75) <i>the fact</i>

According to the table above, all head nouns are abstract. It is also important to comment on the fact that they all employ a restrictive relation within the sentence structure. *That* appeared in the role of subordinator also in all cases with one following exception: (25) *Arguably, it is the fact she is such a class act*. This case is an example of an unrestrained approach to respecting of the grammatical rules while speaking. Even though, the spoken data corpus tends to lack the features typical for a spontaneous utterance, this ungrammatical phenomenon does not prevent the meaning to be conveyed, thus it is acceptable.

4.1.2 Non-finite postmodifying clauses

This chapter is to give information about the frequency of the occurrence of the non-finite postmodifying clauses examined within the domains and closely describe their characteristics. The table 10 shows percentage of each non-finite form present in the spoken and written English corpus.

Table 10: Frequency of occurrence of non-finite clause subtypes

	Spoken English		Written English	
	instances		instances	
<i>-ing</i> clauses (-ing + -ing (g))	9 + 5	53,85 %	11 + 2	38,23 %
<i>-ed</i> clauses	6	23,08 %	14	41,18 %
<i>to</i> infinitive clauses	6	23,08 %	7	20,59 %
Σ	26	100 %	34	100 %

The non-finite clauses occurred in an overall minority. The spoken data corpus contains the most often *-ing* clauses (53,85%) out of all non-finite structures, whereas in written form the *-ed* clauses prevail (41,18%). This implies that the participle clauses are more frequent than *to* infinitive clauses. Moreover, the spoken means of communication seems to use especially active voice, whereas the written form tends to apply passive structures more frequently. They also appear subjectless throughout the data corpus (see the chapter 3 and [2, 3]). The author assumes that the reason for the non-finite use and thus the clause with covert subject is in all cases due to the fact they can be understood from the text, e.g. (28) *16 ambitious individuals competing for a job with electronics tycoon Sir Alan Sugar*, i.e. “individuals who are competing”, (67) *Companies have a lot more to consider*, i.e. “that they should consider”, or general subject is implied, as in (92) *we launched a whole new integrated management system aimed at improving cash flow*, i.e. “which we aimed at”. The following paragraphs describe each type of non-finite clause in more detail.

4.1.2.1 *-ing* clauses

All the *-ing* clauses in spoken English are nearly from 2/3 expressed by a present participle clause, i.e. in 9 cases, and 1/3, i.e. 5 occurrences, are gerund forms that are following a preposition, e.g.: (90) *The course opened my eyes to a different way of looking at a company's financial health*,). They were defined in the theoretical part (see the chapter 3.2.1.1) and supported with the example [57, 58]. The *-ing* gerund form is also required after a preposition in 2 instances in the written corpus, which is only a small fraction in the whole subgroup, e.g. (107) *with the aim of helping the community take root in a familiar atmosphere*. Therefore, it was found out that they are rather rare in both corpora. They happened to be more frequent in spoken English; nevertheless, the difference is not so significant in the small scale research and in such circumstances it, for that reason, can be understood as a similarity. The table 10 gives the list of the prepositional nouns identified in the text.

Table 10: Prepositional nouns

1	<i>(10) attitudes to, (32) experience of, (64) change in, (94) goal of, (107) aim of</i>
2	<i>(90, 105) way of</i>

From the table 10 it is possible to conclude that even though all the prepositional nouns occurred only once, apart from the expression *way of*, which was twice in the corpora, it is only due to the limited length of the text and a few such occurrences identified. They all confirm the claim mentioned in the theoretical part as they were classified as nouns of abstract quality. They also seem to be appropriate in terms of the text characteristics. Dušková even lists *way of* among her examples (see the chapter 3.2.1.1). Moreover, she pinpoints that such clauses may alternate with an infinitive clause or with finite appositive clause. Here only the former can be employed and it is possible in almost all such occurrences (in 5 out of 6), e.g.: (32) “Some are clearly motivated by the promise of a six-figure salary and some claim they want the experience to work with a successful businessman such as Sir Alan.” (64) “Should we be looking for alternative forms of energy or a more fundamental change to reduce the amount of energy we use?” Having changed the structure, the author confirms that the meaning remains the same. However, in case of the occurrence (10) neither alternative is suitable. The way to paraphrase it may be a finite relative clause: “We decided that the average collection period was way too long, and set a goal that is reducing it to 35 days.”

The remaining and more numerous subcategory of *-ing* clauses represents present participle clauses, which (likewise the *-ed* clauses) occur only as an alternative to a finite clause with a relativizer in a subject function. (See [54] and its equivalent finite form afterwards) The clauses display almost a comparable frequency of occurrence. It is 34,62 % (i.e. 9 instances) in spoken English, where the use is non-restrictive in 2 cases; therefore, these clauses are marked off by commas, e.g. (49) *Each one is built to order, depending on exactly what the client wants.* It means that the information “depending on exactly what the client wants” is additional

and can be left out without an impact on the meaning conveyed. If a product is built to order, it is understood that the order is taken according to the clients wish. Compared to both the restrictive and non-restrictive use in the spoken corpus, there were identified 32,35 % (i.e. 11 instances) in written English and all of them were in the restrictive relation with only one exception, (129). Compare the non-restrictive clause mentioned above, i.e. (49), to the restrictive one, e.g.: (120) *There are websites and support groups for parents homeschooling their severely allergic children*. Here it is important to define “parents” closer in order to understand that the websites and support groups are not for any parents, but they are for the parents who are homeschooling their severely allergic children.

Quirk pinpoints that the perfective aspect may appear in present participle clauses and it usually follows indefinite antecedents (1985, p. 1264). However, they seem to be used only rarely and there was no such tendency employed in the corpora. All the forms were classified as non-perfective. All instances have also an active verb form; therefore, they correspond to the implicit subject of the non-finite clause and the passive is not required. As the examined corpora do not even provide any *-ing* clause where a stative verb is used, it is impossible to study the possible finite alternatives with a progressive verb phrase.

4.1.2.2 *-ed* clauses

The subjective function of the relativizer in a finite relative structure paraphrasing all past participle clauses needs to be emphasized again. Compare the example of a non-finite form from the corpus paraphrased by an adjectival relative clause. (106) *And so just over a decade ago, on 400 acres (162 hectares) owned by the Duchy of Cornwall since the 14th century, ground was broken for a new village.* vs. “And so just over a decade ago, on 400 acres (162 hectares) **that have been owned** by the Duchy of Cornwall since the 14th century, ground was broken for a new village.” The inserted relativizer expressing a S and a finite verb form were put in bold. Moreover, here again the restrictive use is more frequent. The spoken corpus includes one instance in non-restrictive relation, (46) *We’re a small family company, founded by my grandfather,* whereas the written corpus has instances two, (36), (193), i.e. 16,67 % vs. 14,29 % out

of all *-ed* clauses examined. The amount of these clauses found in the corpora is rather insignificant for drawing conclusions. It can be just said that their occurrence is rare. More interesting, though, is a comparison of finite postmodifying relative clauses in passive voice and their counterparts, non-finite *-ed* clauses. This will be a subject of further study introduced in the next chapter 4.2.

4.1.2.3 *to* infinitive clauses

To infinitive clauses examined are all classified in a restrictive relation to their superordinate clauses. There are also no examples with overtly expressed S. Regarding syntactic functions of an unexpressed relativizer, the *to* infinitive clauses are more flexible than participle clauses, which require a S function exclusively. The possible relativizer distribution with the frequency is given in the table 11.

Table 11: Syntactic functions that would be expressed by relativizers if employed

	Spoken English			Written English		
	instances	(<i>their list</i>)	%	instances	(<i>their list</i>)	%
S	2	(26), (57)	40	4	(119), (132), (137), (138)	57
O	3	(6), (9), (67)	60	0		
C	0			0		
Adv	0			3	(104), (111), (141)	33
Σ	5		100	7		100

The table shows that a subjective function occurred in both domains, 40 % vs. 57 %. Regarding the non-subjective role, in spoken English there was 60 % of all instances in an objective role, and in written English there was 33 % in a role of an adverb. Compare (67) *Companies have a lot more to consider than a person's skin colour or a person's gender*, i.e. “a lot more which we (should) consider”, where “which” functions as the O, vs. (111) *There are no front gardens to hide behind and ...*, i.e. “no front gardens where people (can) hide behind”; thus, there is the adverbial role expressed by a relative adverb “where”. This finding is rather interesting for the following reason. From the table 6 it has been revealed that the written corpus contains 7 finite clauses where the relativizer functions as an adverb. In addition, there are 3 more instances of a non-finite form where the relativizer would be an adverb

indicated in table 11. In contrast, the spoken utterances have 5 instances and all of them are finite. In other words, this proves the fact that when writing there is intention to express the meaning in a more condensed way.

Furthermore, even though it is possible to express the usually covert relativizer in *to* infinitive clauses under certain condition, it was discovered that no such situation appeared. This can be due to the fact that the presence of a relativizer is unusual and also the character of the data studied does not require a high degree of formality.

Note that there are 6 *to* infinitive clauses altogether found in a language of conversation. However, one cannot be included into table 11 above as it is a NF appositive clause. See chapter 3.2.3 and compare the example [82] to (73) *And Mr. Griffin, tell me ... how many people actually go through with their threats to sue a company for discrimination?*

It should also be commented on other characteristics of *to* infinitive clauses examined, namely their voice and modality they express. Firstly, it can be said that active voice was found in all cases with one exception: (26) *Susan is perhaps the most unlikely star to be discovered of late.* The passive verb form here is required and would be also employed in the corresponding relative clause: “star that has been discovered of late”. Secondly, the *to* infinitive clauses that were subject of investigation can all be interpreted both in modal (i.e. using modal auxiliary verb “can”, “could” or “should”) and non-modal way. Compare the modal and non-modal interpretation of the examples already mentioned above, (67) and (111).

Finally, the last aspect to be studied is that this type of postmodification, which is used to give descriptive information about the antecedent it modifies, is structurally similar to an adverbial clause of purpose. Such case occurs when the antecedent functions as an O and when the relativizer absent. It is sometimes quite difficult to distinguish as both interpretations are possible. There were found 3 instances in the spoken utterances, (6, 67, 73) and 2 instances in the written language, (137) and (138), which is: *The rest of the world isn't waiting for the United States to show the way.* Here the “to show the way” can mean either “for the United States that will show the way” or “the rest of the world isn’t waiting for the United States in order to show them the way”.

These clauses with ambiguity in their meaning were included into analysis; thus they are considered as NF relative clauses.

At the very end of this chapter, it needs to be explained that in the practical part the author commented on all types of a clausal postmodification that appeared in the data corpora. The clauses such are an infinitival nominal relative clause, see the examples [71 - 76], or *-ing* appositive clause, see example [84], were absent and therefore, not included in the analysis.

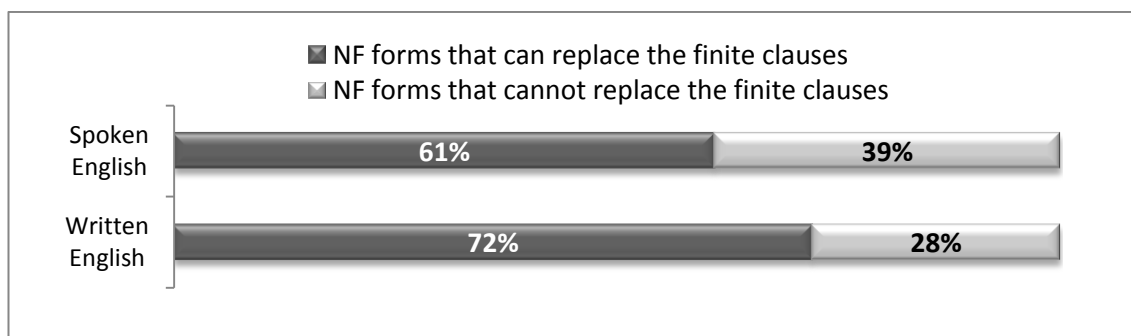
4.2 Finite vs. non-finite clauses in the spoken and written mode of communication

Having commented on various types of clausal postmodification and its specific features, the author decided to focus her analysis on the choice of finite vs. non-finite forms and compare the spoken and written mode of communication from this aspect. To do so, this chapter includes the following stages. Firstly, it was investigated to what extent there was a possibility to choose between finite and non-finite structures to convey a particular meaning. Secondly, the author was interested which forms prevailed in terms of the style characteristic for the two means of communication. Thirdly, if there was only one alternative acceptable, the reasons for inability to alter the forms will be provided.

In order to discover to what extent the analysed corpora tend to use finite relative clauses or non-finite structures, i.e. tend to be primarily explicit vs. condensed, the author decided to study, on the one hand, finite adjectival relative clauses in terms of their flexibility, especially whether they can be substituted by non-finite structures, which is shown in the graph 3. The numbers are provided in per cent and are rounded. On the other hand, the non-finite clauses, namely *-ing* clauses, *-ed* clauses and *to* infinitive clauses, were analysed in terms whether they can alternate with the finite counterparts. The findings within both spoken and written English were then compared. The list of finite (table A, B) and non-finite (table C) instances classified according to these criteria is provided in the appendices of this work (concretely the appendix 2).

Graph 3:

The extent of finite adjectival relative clause substitution with a non-finite form



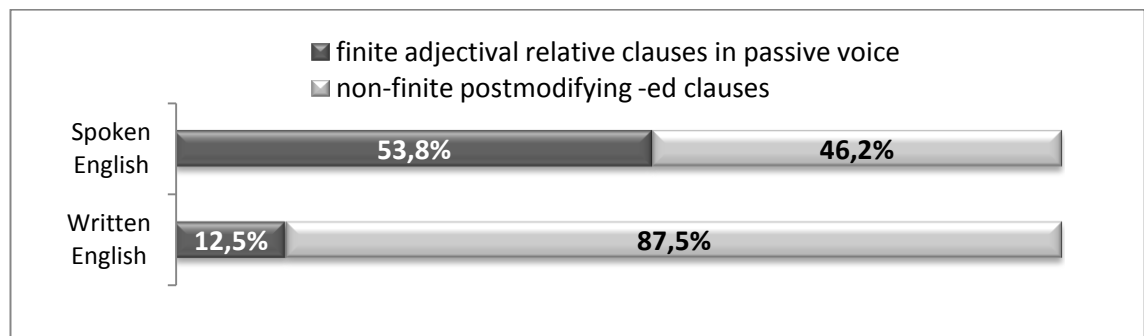
According to the graph above, it was discovered that the majority of finite clauses, i.e. 61 % (30 instances) in spoken and 72 % (33 instances) in written English, can be replaced by their non-finite counterparts. E.g. a finite clause: (76) *When I was at school there was only one boy in the class who had an inhaler*, could be expressed by a non-finite *-ing* clause: “one boy in the class having an inhaler”. Or a finite clause: (130) *Reacting to a lack of oxygen "is clearly an ancient survival response that's preserved in many egg-laying vertebrates*, could be changed to *-ed* non-finite clause: “an ancient survival response preserved in many egg-laying vertebrates”, as well as (189) *I realized it was something I would buy my daughter today*, can be expressed by *to* infinitive clause: “something to buy my daughter today”. Compare with a clause where the alternation is not possible: (116) *There are remote areas of South America or Africa, for example, where allergies are virtually nonexistent*. Such case occurred in 39 % (19 instances) of the spoken and in 28 % (13 instances) of the written utterances. Reasons why some clauses are not possible to substitute will be provided later in this chapter along with all the cases.

As it was suggested above, all non-finite clauses, namely 26 instances in spoken and 34 instances found in written corpus, were also studied and they all can be substituted by finite clauses with no exception at all. As it was said previously, present participle clauses are restricted to finite adjectival relative clauses in active voice, whereas past participle clauses to adjectival relative clauses in passive voice. See the examples in chapters 4.1.2.1, 4.1.2.2, and 4.1.2.3.

Due to rather small overall amount of clauses examined, i.e. only 49 instances in spoken and 46 instances of adjectival relative clauses in written corpus, it can be said that the difference between spoken and written corpus, displayed in the graph 3, can be considered as less conclusive; therefore, further study of greater amount of samples would be advisable in order to gain more reliable data. However, even these less numerous corpora show surprising fact that written means of communication includes more finite clauses which are possible to express in a non-finite way than the spoken language. This implies that in the selected written data corpus a higher degree of explicitness is rather often of greater importance than condensed structures, which are often applied. Such finding leads the author to investigate further. The use of passive voice and *-ed* clauses will be commented on since rather various distribution has been discovered.

The tendency to express the written utterances in more condensed way was not proved in study with a focus on how many finite clauses were employed in cases where non-finite clauses were also possible. However, if the focus is narrowed only to passive voice compared to its past participle counterparts, the graph 4 shows clear differences.

Graph 4: Finite clauses in passive voice vs. NF *-ed* clauses



In the spoken corpus almost balanced distribution is displayed in the graph (i.e. 7 F instances vs. 6 NF instances), while from the written corpus it is clear that there is a tendency to use the non-finite *-ed* structures (which are in 14 out of 16 instances). In other words, there is a strong preference for the past participle clauses instead of relative clause; thus, from this aspect the written language is distinct from the analysed spoken utterances. The reason for this preference is stated by Biber, who claims that this tendency is a result of economy, since *-ed* clauses convey essentially

the same meaning as their finite relative counterparts, they only use fewer words (1999, p. 632).

Now the author will proceed to the second stage of this chapter where all the replaceable finite forms along with the non-finite clauses are put in the table 12 in order to prove or disprove if the written form tends to be more condensed in this aspect compared to the spoken utterances.

Table 12: Rate of the finite clauses that can be altered to NF forms and NF clauses

	Spoken English		Written English	
	instances	rate	instances	rate
<i>F clauses that can be also expressed in a NF way</i>	30	54 %	33	49 %
<i>NF clauses</i>	26	46 %	34	51 %
Σ	56	100 %	67	100 %

According to this table, there is a slight tendency that when there is a possibility to employ whatever option (F or NF), the spoken domain has slightly greater share represented by F forms, whereas the written domain more likely tends to apply NF forms. The difference is, however, rather minor, which is due to the character of the corpora, which was described at the beginning of the practical part.

Finally, the end of this chapter is devoted to the specific causes why some finite clauses were not possible to be changed into less explicit and more economic NF forms. In the corpora there occurred six various reasons. To see all the examples, search for the table B in the appendix 2, where all the instances are divided according to particular reasons. The first is when a relativizer of a finite clause functions as an adverb. E.g. (77) ...*there have been cases where people have claimed discrimination*. Since NF clauses lack a presence of a relativizer, the substitution of a F clause like in just mentioned example (77) would cause a lost of indispensable relation; thus, the message would become a nonsense. This case appeared frequently compared to all reasons in both corpora, in spoken English there were found 5 cases and in written corpus 7; therefore, it is mentioned first and foremost. The second reason discovered is that

the relativizer functions as an O. In these cases the possible alternative is only limited to occurrence as a *to* infinitive clause, which factually has not been suitable either. E.g. (17) *As you listen, try to catch the expression Renee uses at the end of the extract to describe how she couldn't wait to start work on the film.* Moreover, this case cannot be modified even in the following way: “the expression used at the end of the extract by Renee” as the communicative function would be changed. In the example (17) “Renee” represents the theme, whereas the phrase “by Renee” would express the rheme²³. Thus, a NF passive construction with an agent at the end is not considered to be a possible means of substitution. There were altogether 10 instances in spoken and 2 instances in written corpus. The third reason concerns ambiguity which may occur when using the non-finite structure. E.g. (8) *Greg Twitcher is Vice President of Visa UK who commissioned a survey to look into our attitudes to queuing.* The alternative would be as follows: “Greg Twitcher is Vice President of Visa UK commissioning a survey to look into our attitudes to queuing”. From the *-ing* clause it is not clear if the survey is commissioned by Greg Twitcher or by Visa UK. The next prevention of a NF structure usage becomes when a relativizer of a F clause expresses a possessive case, which again cannot be omitted without injuring the meaning. E.g. (86) *In 1967 Guess Who's Coming to Dinner, a comedy about a white couple whose daughter brings home a black fiancé....* The fifth reason which occurred was presence of a complex verb phrase, namely the only case found contained a modal verb “would” followed by “have” and a past participle: (160) *Townsend referred to his employees as angels, a term that would never have got past the PC police in the 21st Century.* Here the lost of modality used with a perfective aspect would unable the writer to express that “the term” was not possible to get past the PC police in the 21st Century but it happened. Compare to the NF perfective structure: “a term never having got past.., i.e. it has not ever got past. Thus, it is impossible to apply an appropriate NF alternative. The sixth and the last reason why it is not desired to apply a non-finite use of postmodifying clause is the choice of a verb used in the finite clause. E.g. (51) *The advice, then, is to find the market that suits your company.* The verb “suit” describes a state and it is not employed in NF form.

²³ To read more about theme and rheme, see Quirk 1990, p. 397, 398.

4.3 The occurrence of clausal postmodification regarding the syntactic functions of head nouns

The aim of this chapter is to give information about postmodifying clauses in terms of the syntactic roles portrayed by their head nouns. All the noun-depending clauses were divided according to their antecedent function. The totals of occurrences as well as numbers in per cent are provided in the table D, which is available in the appendices of this thesis (the appendix 3). The percentage indicates a proportion of particular clause types following NPs of each syntactic function. The author tried to discover any patterns characteristic for spoken and written utterances in English. The results of this survey became a subject matter of this chapter. However, it needs to be emphasized that the focus is put on interesting aspects that emerged. The first part concerns the placement of a modifying clause within the sentence structure. The second part comments an overall clausal distribution with each syntactic function. The third part of this chapter is devoted to specific aspects that are somehow remarkable within the corpora analysed.

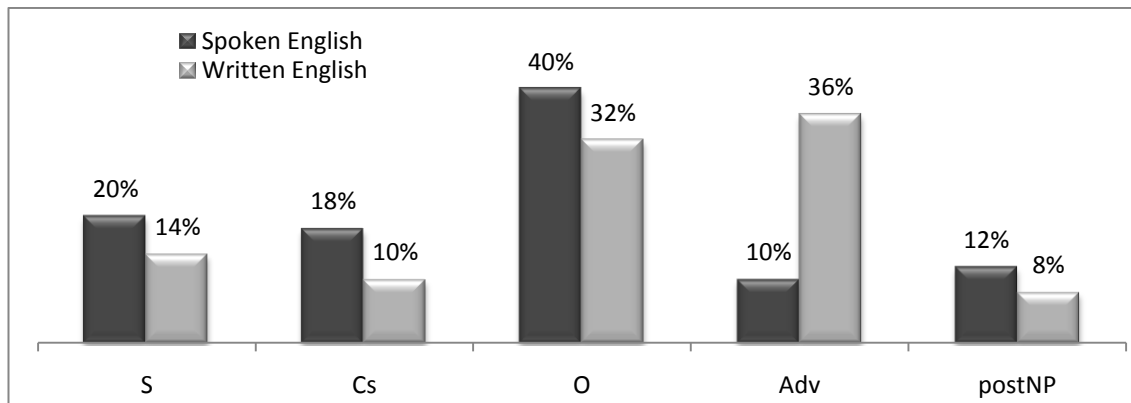
Firstly, an important distinction is between the heads functioning as a subject within the superordinate clause and the heads in a non-subject role, especially in an object and adverbial position. There were 20 occurrences in the spoken and 14 occurrences in the written corpus of head nouns functioning as a subject as opposed to 80 and 86 occurrences in non-subjective roles, such as a subject complement, object, adverbial, and postmodification of a noun phrase. This can be explained by Biber's claim in which he pinpoints that there is a tendency of a relative postmodification not to modify subjective head nouns. It is because "relative clauses with subject head disrupt the matrix clause". (1999, p. 632) This can sometimes cause that the utterance becomes less comprehensible, especially if the dependent clauses is long. In order to prevent such case, it is more sensible to use the economical form; thus a NF structure, e.g. (61) *Actually, you might be interested to hear that **some of the wind farms built in Scotland** have actually become tourist attractions!* The embedded content does not make it difficult to follow the message of the superordinate clause. Besides, the non-subjective postmodification is preferred since the end weight principle is kept (ibid.) Compare examples of clauses where the antecedent functions as a subject complement: (47) *Plus, coffee is **something***

that's drunk all over the world, in pretty much every culture, an object: (51) *The advice, then, is to find **the market that suits your company***, an adverbial: (66) *We have come a long way **since those days when employers were allowed to discriminate against job candidates**, just because of their race or their sex*, or a postmodification of a NP: (150) *Clearly the seas off southern Australia were a cradle for the evolution of **a variety of tiny, weird whales that seem to have lived nowhere else***. As it was said, the greater non-subjective postmodification prevails in both corpora. However, the investigation also reveals the fact opposite to Biber's statement claiming that in subject postmodification a finite relative clause occurs rarely. (1999, p. 623) Here, it was the most numerous type of postmodification. To be precise 60 % of all subject postmodifying instances in the spoken language and 42,86 % in the written form were adjectival relative clauses. E.g.: (59) *The problem my party has with this wind farm is that we're not convinced that it's a worthwhile project*. Here the hearer or reader must process the whole postmodification before reaching the main verb of the superordinate clause. It was discovered, though, that since the postmodification was always short and simple, all the cases were even so comprehensible and the finite forms can be, therefore, employed. To read more examples, look for the table D in the appendix 3.

Next, it should be said that according to the data investigated, the written means of communication consists of a wider variety of a clausal modification than it was classified in a spoken language. Monologues and dialogues seem to be limited in a choice. The most significant is the fact that spoken data corpus lacks *-ed* and *to* infinitive clauses after adverbials and furthermore there is no NF form following the postmodification of a NP. On the other hand, the objective head nouns represent the most varied spoken category, even though no finite appositive clause appeared. There are 17 instances of adjectival relative clauses, 8 instances of nominal relative clauses, 7 instances of *-ing*, 3 of *-ed*, and 4 of *to* infinitive clauses. It is the most numerous syntactic function. In order to give complete summary about occurrences, in spoken English the author defined 40 % of dependent clauses which referred to object role. Then subjects are modified in 20 % of cases. In contrast, the written mode of communication contains 36 % of clauses following the adverbials and in 32 % a clause developed objects. See the graph 5.

Graph 5:

Percentage of postmodifying clauses divided according to the syntactic functions



This graph also shows that while the adverbial head nouns are the most frequent in written English this same syntactic function represents the least frequent category in spoken utterances, i.e. 10%. In general, though, the adverbial role together with the role of object must often form a dominant subset as they are not limited either by disturbing a sentence structure, or by an occurrence only with copula verbs (as it is with a Cs), and not even by choice of vocabulary (as it is with a postNP). Then, there is a content, which influences frequency and amount of instances of these two the least limited syntactic functions. Compare 10 % vs. 36 % of the adverbials occurrence.

Finally, the focus is on some interesting features. It should be pointed that the adjectival relative clauses represent the biggest share with all syntactic elements. They portray 66,67 % of all modifying clauses in a postNP (the spoken corpus), but they are just 37,50 % in an O role (the written corpus), which is also the greatest share, but significantly smaller compared to elsewhere. It is due to the fact that here the other types of postmodification take a more considerable share, (see the table D). E.g.: there are 5 appositive clauses, which equals to all such clauses found in the spoken data corpus, i.e. after a S, Cs, Adv, and postNP. On the contrary, the nominal relative clauses occurred distinctively more often in a spoken, especially as objects (in 8 instances). E.g.: (37) *The rise in industrial output confirms what factory owners have been saying for some time now,...* The rest findings seem to have similar character when compared across corpora; therefore, they are not to be mentioned.

5. Conclusion

This work dealt with the occurrence of various types of the clausal postmodification of a noun phrase in spoken and written English. The main aim was to discover tendencies typical for the particular mode of communication. The author intended to gain these findings when comparing two corpora of randomly selected samples. This matter was studied theoretically first. The work began with the detailed description of a noun phrase from the point of view of its form and more importantly its syntactic functions. In the following chapters the focus was aimed at various types of the clausal postmodification. Since several most significant grammar books slightly differ in a conception of this linguistic phenomenon, the author decided to introduce her own classification, which is based on books considered to be the key sources. They include Quirk's *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language*, Biber's *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*, Huddleston's *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language*, and Dušková's *Mluvnice současné angličtiny na pozadí češtiny*. The postmodification was subclassified into finite and non-finite clauses. As regards the adjectival relative clauses, they were also referred to as relative clauses since they vary only from nominal relative clauses. This type of relative clauses was treated separately on the same level of hierarchy with the (adjectival) relative clauses and it was always labelled with the term "nominal" for the fact that it is a transitional category bearing properties of not only relative, but also nominal clauses. The third and the last subset of more explicit finite structures were appositive clauses that seemingly resemble relative clauses, though they are distinct in structure. The non-finite postmodification included *-ing* clauses, *-ed* clauses, and *to* infinitive clauses functioning either in a relative or appositive reference. The later was limited only to a *to* infinitive clause or partially an *-ing* form.

The aim of the second, practical part was to analyse the corpora on the basis of the theory discussed previously. The writing was composed into three sections. First and foremost, each postmodifying type of clause was dealt with in a separate chapter for the sake of clarity. The quantitative and qualitative aspects were investigated here thoroughly. It was discovered that in both corpora the explicitness of utterances is

essential. Therefore, the finite clauses prevail over the non-finite forms, i.e. 74 % of all occurrences were classified as finite clauses in spoken English and 66 % in written English. The full finite way of developing a noun phrase prevented the ambiguity and misinterpretation which would have harmed the desired professional level of quality that should be performed. The samples of spoken English needed to be easy to comprehend owing to the fact that they were to be broadcasted; thus, they were aimed at a listener who was not physically present and could not contribute to the conversation. Similarly, the written English corpus also gave a priority to more explicit rather than an entirely condensed and economical approach. However, having compared the data, it was also found out that the written language appeared to be slightly more condensed than the spoken utterances from the following viewpoints. Firstly, the corpus contained slightly higher number of non-finite clauses than it was identified in the spoken language (34 % vs. 26 %). Secondly, in general the postmodification occurred more frequently – because of the fact the spoken corpus was larger for exactly 20,26 %, (5010 vs. 6025 words). In order to describe postmodification in a greater detail, the author can say that both corpora similarly possessed the highest number of adjectival relative clauses, in about 80 % of restrictive reference. It was because this was the least restricted variety; see the table 1 of the chapter 4.1.1. A certain limitation appears, for example, when there was merged antecedent with an introductory relative item, which is typical for nominal relative clauses and thus they were rather unique. A limitation also happened with appositive clauses since they required only abstract head nouns and in case of the non-restrictive relation the reference always had to be specific enough.

Regarding the choice of a relativizer used in adjectival relative clauses, the study showed another similarity which was that in both corpora *who* was utterly preferred to *that* when referring to, in these corpora the less numerous, personal antecedents. Even so, *that* could alter *who* relativizer in most cases unless the dependent clause was non-restrictive, or unless the ambiguity occurred, as it would have been in a couple of instances. When the non-personal antecedents were analysed, again similarity occurred comparing the corpora. The clauses which were introduced by *that* or *which* had the relativizer mainly in the function of a S, which was according to Biber the reason why *that* occurred more often than *which*, i.e. 80 % in the spoken and 95 %

in the written corpus. This always applied with one exception – in the non-restrictive use *which* was the only choice. As far as the use of other relativizers concerned, zero relativizers were employed more often in the spoken than written language and relative adverbs were usually employed in both corpora if it was to express an adverbial role.

From studying the other two types of finite clauses the author can say the following general outcome. The syntactic roles the nominal relative clauses occurred in were influenced only by the topics portrayed. More importantly, it was found out that it depended on the context whether a simple *wh*-item or *-ever* series was used to introduce such clause. Their exchangeability was usually impossible unless the need to distinguish specific and non-specific reference may be ignored. Then, the appositive clauses were slightly more typical for written mode of communication; though in both corpora the occurrence is moderate (6,76 % vs. 10,60 %).

The author also drew a conclusion relating to the non-finite clauses. While in the spoken data corpus the majority of non-finite structures were *-ing* clauses, in the written corpus the *-ed* clauses prevailed. In other words, spoken means of communication seems to use especially an active voice, whereas the written form tends to apply passive structures in non-finite clauses. The *to* infinitive clauses were mostly in active voice and they can be all both in modal and non-modal way interpreted. As they are never limited to subjective function of a covertly expressed relativizer; apart from just mentioned function of a subject, the author identified them also in a role of the object in the spoken corpus and a role of the adverbial in the written corpus. Furthermore, it was pinpointed that under some circumstances the *to* infinitive clauses were identical to adverbial clauses of purpose and the potential interpretation was provided.

Afterwards, the choice of finite and non-finite clauses was compared and studied whether there was a possibility of substitution. The tendency to express the written utterances in more condensed way was not proved when the study focused on how many finite forms in corpora were employed in cases where non-finite clauses could have been used instead. However, when the focus was narrowed to finite passive clauses and their *-ed* counterparts, in the spoken means of communication the distribution was balanced, whereas in the written language the preference was for the condensed non-finite clauses. Subsequently, an overall comparison of instances

which can take either finite or non-finite clause showed that the spoken domain had a slightly greater share presented by finite forms, whereas the written domain applied non-finite forms more instead.

Finally, syntactic functions of the head nouns were discussed in terms of the postmodification that follows. The outcome had three sections. Firstly, it can be said that the non-subjective postmodification prevailed in both corpora (80 out of 100 instances in spoken and 86 of the same amount in written English followed the non-subjective head noun). In case of the subjective postmodification, short finite as well as non-finite forms were identified. Generally, the written means of communication possessed a wider variety of postmodification than it was classified in the spoken corpus. Secondly, the head nouns functioning as objects and adverbials portrayed a dominant category from the point of view that there were the fewest restrictions preventing the occurrence of postmodification. Thirdly, the adjectival relative clauses represented the greatest subset of each syntactic function.

To conclude, the findings are in agreement with the general hypothesis stated at the beginning of the practical part presuming rather economical and more non-finite way of expressing ideas in the written corpus. However, the study was carried in a smaller scale of samples, which also needs to be taken in account and for more precise details further study should be performed.

Resumé

Diplomová práce se zabývá jmennými frázemi z hlediska jejich větné postmodifikace v autentické mluvené a psané angličtině. Snaží se nalézt typické znaky pro uvedené způsoby komunikace na základě porovnání dvou souborů textů sestavených náhodným výběrem mluvených monologů a dialogů určených pro rozhlasové vysílání a sbírkou populárně naučných článků. Práce je rozdělena na část teoretickou, která jednotlivé druhy postmodifikace definuje, a část praktickou, jež díky předešlé části oba korpusy analyzuje a porovnává.

První kapitola teoretické části je věnována popisu jmenné fráze spolu s výčtem jejích syntaktických funkcí v rámci větné skladby. V této souvislosti se následující kapitoly dále soustředí na postmodifikaci této fráze, zprvu finitními a následně nefinitními vztažnými větami a přístavky. Tato oblast lingvistiky je odborníky zpracována různými způsoby, a proto se autorka rozhodla vytvořit si své vlastní rozdělení. Za tímto účelem čerpala ze čtyř publikací, které považuje za stěžejní pro svou práci: *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* od R. Quirka, *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* od D. Bibra, *The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* od R. Huddlestona, *Mluvnice současné angličtiny na pozadí češtiny* L. Duškové.

Jak již bylo naznačeno, postmodifikace se dělí na finitní a nefinitní. Do skupiny finitních vět byly zařazeny adjektivní vztažné věty, substantivní vztažné věty a přístavky. Adjektivní vztažné věty jsou dále děleny na podkapitoly popisující znaky restriktivního a nerestriktivního vztahu k rozvíjené jmenné frázi. O těchto větách se často v práci píše pouze jako o vztažných větách, protože se liší pouze od vět vztažných substantivních, které jsou vždy uváděny celým jménem. Jedná se o přechodný typ vedlejší věty nesoucí znaky jak vět vztažných, tak vět obsahových. Tady se autorka zabývá nejen vztažnými výrazy, jež postmodifikaci uvozují, ale také uvádí, jaké syntaktické funkce celá rozvíjející věta může vyjadřovat v rámci jí nadřazené větné skladby. Práce pokračuje vysvětlením nefinitních polovětných vazeb. Patří sem *-ing* vazba, *-ed* vazba a *to* infinitivní vazba. Fungují jako nefinitní vztažné věty, nebo v případě *to* infinitivu a *-ing* vazby mohou také zastávat roli přístavku.

I tady se vysvětluje rozdíl mezi vztahem restriktivním a nerestriktivním k jmenné frázi.

V praktické části se na základě teorie z předešlé části vybrané korpusy analyzují a porovnávají. Celé je to uspořádáno do tří částí.

Nejdříve jsou jednotlivé druhy postmodifikace popisovány samostatně v podkapitolách. Zde nejprve větné a poté polovětné tvary autorka analyzovala kvantitativně a kvalitativně, což znamená, že je uvedena jejich četnost výskytu a jsou zmíněny znaky typické pro daný jev. Bylo zjištěno, že v obou souborech textů je podstatná jednoznačnost projevu, protože finitní tvary jsou častější. Tento způsob formulace je snadněji pochopitelný a eliminuje se možnost nesprávné interpretace. Na druhou stranu bylo zjištěno, že psaný jazyk má tendenci být zestručněný pomocí polovětných vazeb, kterých je v něm 34 %, zatím co v mluveném projevu je jich 26 %. Toto tvrzení lze též podpořit faktem, že mluvená angličtina obsahuje o 20,26 % více slov než psaná, tudíž v psaném projevu se postmodifikace používá častěji. Adjektivní vztažné věty představují v obou případech nejpočetnější skupinu výskytů a to z 80 % v restriktivním vztahu. Je to proto, že ostatní typy postmodifikací jsou nějakým způsobem limitovány. U substantivní vztažné věty je to sloučení jmenné fráze se vztažným výrazem, u přístavku je to jeho závislost pouze na abstraktní frázi a jakákoliv nerestriktivní věta rozvíjí jen vlastní jména nebo jména jinak dostatečně vymezená.

V kapitole zabývající se vztažnými větami byla pozornost věnována vztažným výrazům, kterými se tyto postmodifikace uvozují. Výskyty jsou členěny vzhledem k možným antecedentům (jmenným frázím) a syntaktické funkci, kterou plní. Výsledky byly porovnány a bylo například zjištěno, že v obou korpusech vztažný výraz *who* je upřednostňován před *that*, když následuje po osobním antecedentu. Naopak u neosobního antecedentu se *that* objevuje častěji než *which* a to i přes to, že v nerestriktivních větách je výběr eliminován pouze na *which*. Tato a jiná zjištění byla odůvodněna spolu s analýzou, zda je možné v jednotlivých výskytech vztažný výraz nahradit jiným výrazem a zjištěním, co brání tomu, že některý výraz nahradit nelze.

Substantivní vztažné věty jsou vedle vztažných vět podskupina minoritní (27,03 % tohoto gramatického jevu bylo nalezeno v mluvené angličtině a 19,70 % v psané). Věty byly rozebrány nejprve z pohledu vztažného výrazu, jenž je sloučený s antecedentem. Bylo zjištěno, že ve většině případů nelze nahradit takzvaný jednoduchý *wh*-item za sloučeninu s *-ever*, protože nelze opomenout fakt, že *wh*-item odkazuje na věc specifickou, kdežto složenina s *-ever* je naopak značí obecný význam.

Stejně jako předchozí druh postmodifikace i přístavek patří mezi nepočetnou skupinu. Rozbor uvádí soupis jmenných frází, aby poukázal na jejich abstraktnost, a dále z výzkumu vyplývá, že přístavky jsou častější v psaném anglickém jazyce (6,76 % vs. 10,60 %).

Od vět finitních záměr analýzy přešel na věty nefinitní. Nejprve byla porovnána obecně jejich četnost, z čehož vyplývá, že v mluveném projevu bylo nejvíce *-ing* vazeb a v psaném projevu převažovaly trpné *-ed* vazby. Polovětné *-ing* vazby zahrnují nejen přítomná participia, která odpovídají vztažným větám v činném rodě, ale také gerundia, jež následují po jmenné frázi s předložkou. Práce uvádí možné způsoby jejich záměny za jiný druh postmodifikace. Podobně jsou zpracovány *-ed* vazby, které představují zestručněnou vztažnou větu v trpném rodě. *To* infinitivní věty jsou zkoumány jednak z hlediska syntaktické funkce jejich nevyjádřeného vztažného výrazu, protože není limitován jako u *-ing* a *-ed* vazeb pouze na roli podmětu, a jednak z hlediska rodu a modalit, kterou vyjadřují. Téměř všechny věty tohoto typu byly v rodě činném a je možno je interpretovat pomocí modálního slovesa i bez něj. Zajímavostí je, že za určitých podmínek, konkrétně je-li tento typ polovětné vazby závislý na předmětu věty nadřazené a má-li nevyjádřený vztažný výraz, dochází k podobnosti s příslovečnými větami vyjadřujícími účel. Příklady těchto vět byly vyjmenovány a oba jejich způsoby výkladu byly popsány.

V další části se autorka soustředí na porovnání mluveného projevu s psaným z hlediska použití finitních a nefinitních tvarů. Zkoumá různými metodami, do jaké míry jsou vzorky psaného jazyka zestručněné použitím nefinitních vazeb tam, kde je to významově a gramaticky možné. Nejprve bylo zjištěno, že většinu finitních vět (v psaném projevu dokonce větší množství než v mluveném) je možno vyjádřit formou nefinitní. Toto zjištění nepotvrzuje předpoklad, že v psaném jazyce je

tendence vyjádřit se pomocí stručné polovětné vazby, je-li to možné. Dále se práce zaměřila pouze na vztažné věty v trpném rodě, které porovnála s *-ed* vazbami. V tomto případě je zřetelně vidět, že zatímco v mluvené angličtině je poměr užití těchto vět téměř v rovnováze, v psané angličtině jasně převládají věty nefinitní, tudíž z tohoto pohledu lze říci, že při vyjadřování trpného rodu v psaném slově dochází často k užití stručnější polovětné vazby v porovnání s projevem mluveným. Následně práce porovnála obě domény poměrem všech nefinitních vět a finitních, jež by mohly být vyjádřeny nefinitně, což ukázalo jen malou tendenci použití spíše finitních vět v mluvené angličtině a naopak nefinitních vět v psané angličtině.

Poslední oblastí, kterou práce popisuje, je výskyt postmodifikací v souvislosti se syntaktickými funkcemi jmenných frází. Snaží se nalézt vzorce obecně platící pro výskyt postmodifikací ve vztahu k jednotlivým syntaktickým funkcím. Nejdříve se práce zabývá postmodifikací podmětu nadřazené věty, kterou porovnává s ostatními syntaktickými rolemi. Je méně častá oproti skupině obsahující komplement podmětu, předmět, příslovečné určení a postmodifikace podstatného jména, jež se ve větě neobjevují na předních pozicích a nenarušují větnou skladbu. Postmodifikace podmětu se tedy objevila sporadicky, i když v analyzovaných textech měla kromě tvarů nefinitních i tvary finitní. Vždy se ale jednalo o rozvíjející informaci stručnou a nenarušující smysluplnost kontextu. Dále pak bylo zjištěno, že předmětná spolu s příslovečnou syntaktickou rolí antecedentu představují skupinu s nejmenším omezením výskytu postmodifikace. Rovněž bylo podotknuto, že adjektivní vztažné věty představují největší podskupinu všech postmodifikací zastoupených v každé funkci a v obou korpusech.

Závěr práce obsahuje zobecněný popis jednotlivých kapitol diplomové práce spolu s celkovým shrnutím výsledků praktické části. Oba soubory textů mluveného i psaného anglického jazyka jsou zařazeny v přílohách.

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act - active voice vs. **pass** - passive voice

prog - progressive aspect vs. **non-prog** - non-progressive aspect

perf - perfective aspect vs. **non-perf** - non-perfective aspect

m - modal sense vs. **non-m** - non-modal sense

Syntactic functions

S - subject

O - object

O_d - direct object

O_i - indirect object

O_{prep} - prepositional object

C_s - subject complement

C_o - object complement

C_{prep} - prepositional complement

Adv - adverbial

App - apposition

det - determiner

postNP - postmodification of a NP

Appendix 2

Table A

List of F clauses divided according to their NF counterparts they correspond to

	Spoken English		Written English	
	list of instances	total	list of instances	total
<i>F clauses corresponding to -ing structures</i>	(2), (7), (13), (19), (36), (38), (40) , (41), (42), (69) , (70), (72) , (76) ²⁴ , (79), (81), (82), (83), (84), (88), (89), (95), (98), (99), (100)	24	(123), (125), (131), (133), (136), (139), (143), (145), (146), (148), (150), (151), (152), (153), (154) , (155), (156), (161), (162), (166), (181), (182), (186), (188), (190), (191), (194), (195)	28
<i>F clauses corresponding to -ed structures</i>	(3), (18), (22), (33), (47), (74),	6	(124), (130), (198)	3
<i>F clauses corresponding to to infinitive structures</i>	(76) ¹	1	(112), (189)	2
Σ	30 i.e. 61 % of all F clauses are replaceable by NF clauses		33 i.e. 72 % of all F clauses are replaceable by NF clauses	

When the corresponding form of the *-ing* clause requires a perfective aspect, the number of such postmodification is put in bold.

Table B

List of F clauses that cannot be substituted by NF clauses

(They are divided according to reasons that prevent the substitution.)

Reason	Spoken English		Written English	
	list of instances	total	list of instances	total
<i>rlvz = Adv</i>	(39), (66), (71), (78), (97)	5	(102), (116), (117), (163), (164), (176), (187)	7

²⁴ This instance can be modified either to an *-ing* clause or *to* infinitive clause. It is, however, counted only once in the total summary.

<i>rlvz = O</i>	(1), (4), (12), (14), (17), (45), (58), (59), (65) (93),	10	(159), (173)	2
<i>ambiguity</i>	(8), (21)	2	(179)	1
<i>rlvz expresses a possessive case</i>	(86)	1	(149), (180)	2
<i>complex grammar</i>		0	(160)	1
<i>choice of a verb</i>	(51)	1		0
		19		13
	i.e. 39 % of all F clauses cannot be replaced by NF form		i.e. 28 % of all F clauses cannot be replaced by NF form	

Table C: List of NF clauses that can be replaced by full F clauses

	Spoken English		Written English	
	list of instances	total	list of instances	total
<i>-ing clauses corresponding to F structures in active voice</i>	(6), (10), (24), (27), (28), (32), (49), (63), (64), (80), (85), (90), (94), (96)	14	(105), (107), (110), (113), (118), (120), (129), (140), (142), (170), (171), (177), (178)	13
<i>-ed clauses corresponding to F structures in passive voice</i>	(15), (34), (46), (48), (61), (92)	6	(104), (106), (115), (135), (145), (158), (165), (168), (169), (184), (185), (192), (193), (200)	14
<i>to infinitive clauses corresponding to F structures</i>	(7), (9), (26), (57), (67), (73)	6	(103), (111), (119), (132), (137), (138), (141)	7
Σ		26		34
	i.e. 100 % of all NF clauses can be replaced by F clauses		i.e. 100 % of all NF clauses can be replaced by F clauses	

When the corresponding form of a F clause is in a passive voice, the number of such postmodification is put in bold.

Appendix 3

Table D: Clausal postmodification according to syntactic function of the head noun

		Spoken English		Written English	
		instances		instances	
S	<i>AR</i>	12	60 %	6	42,86 %
	<i>NR</i>	2	10 %	2	14,28 %
	<i>App</i>	2	10 %	1	7,14 %
	<i>-ing</i>	3	15 %	1	7,14 %
	<i>-ed</i>	1	5 %	3	21,43 %
	<i>inf</i>	0		1	7,14 %
	Σ	20		14	
C_s	<i>AR</i>	8	44,44 %	5	50 %
	<i>NR</i>	5	27,78 %	2	20 %
	<i>App</i>	1	5,56 %	0	
	<i>-ing</i>	0		1	10 %
	<i>-ed</i>	2	11,11 %	1	10 %
	<i>inf</i>	2	11,11 %	1	10 %
	Σ	18		10	
O	<i>AR</i>	17	42,50 %	12	37,50 %
	<i>NR</i>	8	22,50 %	3	9,38 %
	<i>App</i>	0		5	15,63 %
	<i>-ing</i>	7	17,50 %	5	15,63 %
	<i>-ed</i>	3	7,50 %	4	12,50 %
	<i>inf</i>	4	10,00%	3	9,38 %
	Σ	40		32	
Adv	<i>AR</i>	4	40 %	18	50,00 %
	<i>NR</i>	1	10 %	5	13,89 %
	<i>App</i>	1	10 %	1	2,78 %
	<i>-ing</i>	4	40%	5	13,89 %
	<i>-ed</i>	0		5	13,89 %
	<i>inf</i>	0		2	5,56 %
	Σ	10		36	
postNP	<i>AR</i>	8	66,66 %	5	62,25 %
	<i>NR</i>	3	25,00 %	1	12,50%
	<i>App</i>	1	8,33 %	0	
	<i>-ing</i>	0		1	12,50 %
	<i>-ed</i>	0		1	12,50 %
	<i>inf</i>	0		0	
	Σ	12		8	

Appendix 4

Spoken English corpus

London Life - queuing

- Callum:** Hello, I'm Callum Robertson and this is London Life. Today's programme is about a very British habit, or **something that we always think** is very British. (*PP* → *NP*: *Adv, p, non-prs/ cl.*: *F, AR, r, rlvz: that = O*) And that is the topic of queuing. Waiting in a line to pay for something, to go somewhere or to do something.
- (1)
- The topic came to mind while I was waiting in a queue in the supermarket to buy my lunch. It was **a very long queue that went all the way along one aisle and round the back of the shop**. (*NP*: *C_s, cn, non-prs/ cl.*: *F, AR, r, rlvz: that = S*) I wouldn't normally wait in such a long queue but I know at this particular supermarket at this particular time of day they have a lot of staff at the check-outs and the queue moves very quickly.
- (2)
- While I was waiting I thought how calm, patient and polite the people in the queue were and that is **something that is often experienced in Britain and not always in other places**. (*NP*: *C_s, p, non-prs/ cl.*: *F_p, AR, r, rlvz: that = S*) I remember once **in a country that I won't name** I was at an airport waiting to check in. (*PP* → *NP*: *Adv, cn, non-prs/ cl.*: *F, AR, r, rlvz: that = O*) I arrived early and there was **a short queue waiting for the check-in to open** (*NP*: *S_{notional}, cn, non-prs/ cl.*: *NF, ing, r, act, non-perf*), (*PP* → *NP*: *O_{prep}, an, non-prs/ cl.*: *NF, inf, r, act, m*). I was the second or third person in the queue and gradually a line of passengers arrived behind me. I was glad I had arrived early as the queue then was very long. However, as soon as the check-in opened there was a mad rush and **all the people who had been behind me** pushed forward (*NP*: *S, cn, prs/ cl.*: *F, AR, r, rlvz: who = S*) all wanting to check-in at the same time. I ended up more or less at the back of the queue.
- (3)
- (4)
- (5 - 6)
- (7)
- The British are traditionally much better organised when it comes to queuing although a recent survey has revealed that our attitudes to queuing are changing and particularly in London we are getting less patient.
- (8 - 10)
- Greg Twitcher is **Vice President of Visa UK who commissioned a survey to look into our attitudes to queuing**. (*NP*: *C_s, pn, prs/ cl.*: *F, AR, r, rlvz: who = S*), (*NP*: *O_d, cn, non-prs/ cl.*: *NF, inf, r, act, m*), (*NP*: *O_d, an_{prep}, non-prs/cl.*: *NF, ing(g), r*) What reasons does he give for our changing attitudes?
- Greg Twitcher:** Well I think it's probably down to the fact that our everyday lives have changed and I think **what it is** (*cl.*: *F, NR = O_d, what = O*) is that our lives are so busy and there are so many more options available to us now we just think, well why in the is day and age should I queue.
- (11)

- Callum:** Greg thinks that our attitudes are changing because our lives are changing. We are much busier in our lives now and we have more options to get ***the things we want***. (NP: *O_d, cn, non-prs/ cl.:* F, AR, r, rlvz: zero = O) He uses the expression 'in this day and age', 'in this day and age'. 'Why in this day and age should I queue?' This expression means in this modern world with all its technology.

to be continued...

Renee Zellweger plays 'Miss Potter'

Amber: Hello, I'm Amber, and you're listening to bbclearningenglish.com. In Entertainment today, we listen to an interview with the Oscar-winning actress, Renee Zellweger. She talks about her new film 'Miss Potter'.

'Miss Potter' tells the life story of Beatrix Potter - one of the most famous writers of children's books ever! Her best-loved book, 'The Tale of Peter Rabbit', has sold more than 40 million copies worldwide since it was first published in 1902!

- (13) 'Miss Potter' reveals **a determined woman who struggled for the right to an independent life and to find a publisher for her books**. (NP: *O_d, cn, prs/ cl.:* F, AR, r, rlvz: *who* = S) She was also an active conservationist (she worked to protect the natural environment) and she used **the money she made from her books** (NP: *O_d, cn, non-prs/ cl.:* F, AR, r, rlvz: zero = O) to buy 14 farms and 4,000 acres of land in the beautiful Lake District in the north of England - and she left this **to an organisation called the National Trust** when she died. (PP → NP: *O_i, cn, non-prs/ cl.:* NF, ed, r, non-prog, non-perf)
- (14) to take part in, the film. As you listen, try to catch **the expression Renee uses at the end of the extract** (NP: *O_d, an, non-prs/ cl.:* F, AR, r, rlvz: zero = O) to describe how she couldn't wait to start work on the film.
- (15) to describe how she couldn't wait to start work on the film.
- (16) Quite a life story! And as you'll hear, this is **what impressed Renee** (*cl.:* F, NR = C_s, *what* = S) when she first read the script for the film. It made her want 'to participate in',
- (17) to describe how she couldn't wait to start work on the film.

- Renee Zellweger:** 'This is a beautiful story and I would love to participate in this – love to. And after I read it, it was very, very hard to believe that this was this woman's life experience and that it was not fiction. I couldn't believe it, and then, of course, I couldn't believe that someone was going to make **a film that was so simply told and beautiful and not sensationalised at all** (NP: *O_d, cn, non-prs/ cl.:* F_p, AR, r, rlvz: *that* = S), and yet, it was still so compelling and emotional. I was beside myself to get started and to dig into it and to learn more.'

to be continued....

London's new Mayor Boris Johnson

London has a new mayor, after its citizens voted in the Conservative Party candidate Boris Johnson, ahead of Labour's Ken Livingstone. Well-known for his wild blonde hair, his self-deprecating humour and his reputation for gaffes and blunders, Mr Johnson has been a colourful figure in British politics for many years.

- (19) While few doubted his energy and charisma, Boris Johnson's narrow victory has surprised **his critics, who questioned whether he was a serious enough politician to win.** (NP: *O_d, cn, prs/ cl.: F, AR, non-r, rlvz: who = S*)

- His remarks have often caused controversy, such as when in 2006 he had to apologise to the entire country of Papua New Guinea after suggesting it was known for "cannibalism". In the same year his criticism of a healthy eating campaign also made headlines, when he said parents should be able to feed children **what they like** (*cl.: F, NR = O_d, what = O*), healthy or not.
- (20)

But bumbling Boris has always had an ambitious streak; when he was asked as a child what he wanted to be when he grew up, he said "the world king".

- (21) He now replaces **Ken Livingstone, who had been London's mayor since 2000.** (NP: *O_d, pn, prs/ cl.: F, AR, non-r, rlvz: who = S*) Left-wing "Red Ken" will be remembered ***for*** his role in helping London win the 2012 Olympic Games, as well as ***his introduction of the congestion charge, which is widely thought to have reduced traffic in the capital.*** (PP → NP: *O_{prep}, an, non-prs/ cl.: F_p, AR, non-r, rlvz: which = S*)
- (22)

So will Boris Johnson's victory mean a change of direction for London over the next four years? He promises to be tough on crime and anti-social behaviour, and to work to help to bring together Londoners of different ethnic backgrounds.

- (23) **Whatever happens** (*cl.: F, NR = S, whatever = S*), given Boris Johnson's colourful past, it is unlikely that the next four years will be dull.

Susan Boyle: unlikely superstar?

- Less than a few weeks ago Susan Boyle was a virtual unknown. However, since auditioning for Britain's Got Talent, a televised talent competition, she has experienced a stratospheric rise to fame. A YouTube video of her audition has been watched ***by more than 26 million people, making it one of the most watched videos on the internet in recent times.*** (PP → NP: *Adv, cn, non-prs/ cl.: NF, ing, r, act, non-perf*) It is undeniable that technology such as YouTube, Facebook and Twitter has helped to spread the word about Susan's performance.
- (24)

- (25) So just what is it about Susan that the people find so fascinating? Arguably, it is ***the fact she is such a class act***. (NP: C_s, an, non-prs/ cl.: F, App, r, sub: -) However, many have suggested that her biggest appeal lies in her unassuming persona. Susan's persona and appearance have been somewhat controversial and the initial reaction to her audition has made many people question whether they are guilty of judging a book by its cover. With her plain Jane, middle-aged looks and her no-nonsense approach to life,
- (26) Susan is perhaps ***the most unlikely star to be discovered of late***. (NP: C_s, cn, prs/ cl.: NF, inf, r, pass, both m & non-m)

- Commenting on her rise to fame, Max Clifford, a renowned PR guru, said that the
- (27) massive public interest in her is partly ***due to people having to challenge their own assumptions and prejudices***. (PP → NP: Adv, cn, prs/ cl.: NF, ing, r, act, non-perf)

So what's next for Susan? For the moment, she is preparing for her next appearance on Britain's Got Talent and she is the odds-on favourite to win.

Looking forward, with talk of record contracts and celebrity duets, it is very likely that we'll soon be seeing a Susan Boyle album in the charts!

The Apprentice: you're fired!

- One of Britain's most popular reality TV programmes has returned to our screens for a
- (28) fifth series. The Apprentice sees ***16 ambitious individuals competing for a job with electronics tycoon Sir Alan Sugar***. (NP: O_d, cn, prs/ cl.: NF, ing, r, act, non-perf)
- (29) With endless talk of credit-crunches, redundancies and cut-backs, it may come as ***no surprise that thousands of plucky hopefuls applied for the show***. (PP → NP: Adv, an, non-prs/ cl.: F, App, r, sub: that) The chosen 16 will compete in a series of business tasks and do their best to escape elimination. Not one of them wants to hear the fateful words: you're fired.

- It should also be noted that this year's budding apprentices are not going to be allowed to forget the grim economic climate quite so easily. At the launch of this year's TV show, Sir Alan announced that some episodes have been "specifically made towards recognition
- (30) of ***what difficult times we are in***". (cl.: F, NR = postNP, what = det_{Adv}) The tasks will as usual be gruelling tests of business acumen, team-working and leadership skill. They will also make for some hilarious viewing. British viewers will be shaking their heads in disbelief at the crazy decisions of the wannabe apprentices.

But perhaps the most entertaining feature of the show will be watching the hopefuls squirm and squabble in the boardroom. It is here they will have to explain just why they have failed each task so badly.

- (31) **What drives people to take part in the show** is difficult to say. (*cl.: F, NR = S, what = S*) Some are clearly motivated by the promise of a six-figure salary and some claim they want **the experience of working with a successful businessman such as Sir Alan**. (*NP: O_d, an_{prep}, non-prs/ cl.: NF, ing(g), r*) One thing is for sure, the contestants will all gain some level of celebrity. The show is a regular ratings winner.

And to date, there has been one big winner and that is the show's creator, Mark Burnett. Originating in the US, The Apprentice's winning format has been copied all over the world and with the hype surrounding this latest series; it looks as though the show will have success for many years to come.

Bond is back

- (33) Fans of James Bond have been thrilled with the release of the new Bond book **Devil May Care, which was published on 28th May 2008**. (*PP → NP: App = postNP, an, non-prs/ cl.: F_p, AR, non-r, rlvz: which = S*) Ian Fleming was the creator of the fictional character James Bond 007 and wrote 14 Bond books during his lifetime, including some of the very well-known ones, such as Casino Royale, Diamonds are Forever and Goldfinger.

Ian Fleming died in 1964 but the legacy of Bond carries on. Sebastian Faulks, a reputable novelist, was commissioned to write the latest Bond book.

- (34) Faulks is not **an author known for writing thrillers** (*NP: C_s, cn, prs/ cl.: NF, ed, r, non-prog, non-perf*), so there was **some speculation that he would struggle to write a Bond novel successfully**. (*NP: S_{notional}, an, non-prs/ cl.: F, App, r, sub: that*) A review in the British newspaper, the Guardian, said, "The book, though, is a smart and enjoyable act of literary resurrection. Amongst the now 33 post-Fleming Bonds, this must surely compete with Kingsley Amis's for the title of the best".

Devil May Care is set in 1967 during the Cold War and it is said that Bond will once again travel between continents, appearing at exotic locations and in some of the world's most thrilling cities.

It's fair to say that James Bond has become a household name and remains a huge influence within the thriller genre through his films.

- (36) It's a double bonus for Bond fans as the new Bond film will be released later this year. The name of the new film is Quantum of Solace*, **a very confusing title which makes people scratch their heads**. (*NP: App = C_s, cn, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: which = S*) Daniel Craig has been the latest James Bond and will star again in Quantum of Solace. The new film is the sequel to the 2006 film Casino Royale. Craig said he felt Casino Royale was "a walk in the park" compared to Quantum of Solace.

China's economy is growing

- (37) China's economy has recovered earlier and more strongly than any other. This latest data is further evidence of that trend. The rise in industrial output confirms **what factory owners have been saying for some time now**, (*cl.: F, NR = O_d, what = O*) that customers have been restocking their inventories and confidence is returning.

There are still question marks though over the stability of the recovery. The property sector is showing signs of overheating. The government this week announced measures to try to cool it. At the same time officials decided to extend tax subsidies for purchases of small vehicles and appliances suggesting that some here still believe Chinese manufacturers need government support.

- (38) Growth was strongest in heavy industries such as coal, steel, power generation and automobiles. Consumer prices rose in November for the first time since February. But the rise was small and probably reflected higher food prices caused **by early snowstorms which destroyed crops**. (*PP → NP: Adv, cn, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: which = S*)

Chris Hogg, BBC News, Beijing

Wimbledon 2009 gets underway

- (39) The oldest and most traditional of tennis tournaments has had a facelift. They still use grass courts, players must continue to wear white, and the middle Sunday remains a rest day. But at least **Centre Court, where most of the big matches take place**, will be sheltered from the worst of the British weather. (*NP: S, pn, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, non-r, rlvz: where = Adv*) The organisers have spent millions of dollars building a retractable roof. So no more damp dismal days for fans and players on the main show court.

- (40) The innovation has been welcomed by the leading players. Roger Federer will be hoping for an uninterrupted run towards a record breaking 15th Grand Slam title. His task has been made easier by the withdrawal **of the man who wrestled the Wimbledon title from him 12 months ago in an epic final**. (*PP → NP: postNP cn, prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: who = S*) Rafael Nadal's dodgy knees have stopped him from taking part. Britain's obsession with finding a men's champion for the first time in 73 years rests on the shoulders of Andy Murray. He's ranked number three in the world and is considered to have a genuine chance.

The names on top of women's tennis keep changing through retirement, injury or loss of form. The two constants are the Williams sisters. Few people are looking beyond either Venus or Serena to add another trophy to their glittering collection.

Alex Capstick, BBC

Kenya bees save elephants

It's not mice that scare elephants but creatures much much smaller. (FX - BEES)

This is the gentle buzz of bees in the English countryside but the angry buzz of their fiercer cousins in Kenya is such that it terrifies the giant beasts.

- (41) Lucy King, *a zoologist who led a study by Save the Elephant group* (NP: App = S, cn, prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: who = S), says that nearly all the elephants exposed to a recording
- (42) of bees immediately ran away, in contrast *to those who heard a recording of background static*. (PP → NP: postNP, p, prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: who = S) With the bees,
- (43) they stopped *what they were doing* (cl.: F, NR = O_d, what = O), turned to the speaker
- (44) from *where the buzzing was coming* (cl.: F, NR = Adv, where = Adv) and turned their heads from side to side trying to locate the noise. Their trunks were all up in the air until one of them signalled a retreat and they all fled.

Lucy King says angry residents in Kenya have been known to shoot at elephants when they trample their crops. Building electric fences wasn't practical so her group decided to test a Kenyan folktale about bees to save the elephants instead.

Going global: a solution for everyone?

Presenter: The much talked about 'global market' is seen by nearly everyone in the business community today as being the only market. We know that advances in technology mean you could be offering your products and services to people in Brighton, Beijing or Buenos Aires at the same time.

- (45) But is it really that easy? And is it really *the solution that everyone is looking for*, or needs? (NP: C_s, an, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: that = O)

We talk to three very different companies about their very different experiences of trying to go global.

- (46) **Nicola Melizzano of Caffè Perfetto (NM):** I didn't think it was for us at all... We're *a small family company, founded by my grandfather*. (NP: C_s, cn, non-prs/ cl.: NF, ed, non-r, non-prog, non-perf) We produce small amounts of high quality coffee, and supply mostly to bars – we don't do much in the way of direct retail at all.

Presenter: Yet things changed very quickly for this small company after an unexpected offer.

NM: The local chamber of commerce had invited a group of Japanese investors to the area. They saw our factory, tasted our product – and wanted to buy as much of it as we could produce!

P: This was followed up by a trip to Japan.

NM: It was great, people loved our coffee –mostly (I think!) because of the retro 50s style packaging...! The Japanese contacts just grew and grew, and now we export all over south east Asia, and we're moving into China too. Two years ago, we didn't even have a website!

P: Nicola admits he's been in the right place at the right time.

(47) **NM:** There's been a worldwide growth in coffee sales over the last ten years, it's a really fashionable thing to drink, all these coffee chains. Plus, coffee is **something that's drunk all over the world, in pretty much every culture**. (NP: *C_s, p, non-prs/ cl.: F_p, AR, r, rlvz: that = S*) I think luck helped us as much as the changing global situation.

(48) **P:** 'Going global' happened in a completely different way for AKZ Engineering, **a medium sized company based in the English midlands**. (NP: *App = O_d, cn, non-prs/ cl.: NF, ed, r, non-prog, non-perf*) Derek Chalmers (DC), their MD explains.

DC: In the mid1990s things were looking bad for us. The global recession hit badly, many other firms round here were closing down or shipping out to China. We were forced to downsize, but then saw the changing situation as an opportunity, rather than a threat. We concentrated on our strengths – manufacturing small size metal objects, anything from paper clips to staples up to parts for computers and televisions. Using web technologies, we managed to expand our turnover by around 300%, and now we export to Europe principally, but also the Americas and south east Asia, even...

P: A success story, then. Our third guest, however, has a different story to tell...

(49) **HZ:** I'm Heike Zweibel, and I design lighting systems – though I prefer to think of them as 'light sculptures.' They're more like art objects. Each one is built **to order, depending**
(50) **on exactly what the client wants**. (PP → NP: *Adv, cn, non-prs/ cl.: NF, ing, non-r, act, non-perf*) (*cl.: F, NR = O_d, what = O*) I only employ one or two assistants, depending on how busy I am, because I prefer to do all the work myself. I'm not really interested in 'going global' – I have enough work for myself, I make enough money...I could expand, but wouldn't want to compromise the quality of the work.

P: So you'd never go global?

HZ: Well, no, I wouldn't say that exactly...I have a great website, and that leads to orders from the United States, or – more recently – Russia, a lot. I design, perhaps, two or three systems every year for overseas clients...so I don't really know if that counts as 'global' or not!

- (51) **P:** The advice, then, is to find *the market that suits your company* (NP: O_d , cn , $non-prs/$ cl.: F , AR , r , $rlvz$: $that = S$) – whether it’s on your doorstep, or the other side of the planet!

Property markets – dialog between David and his sister, Jackie.

Jackie: So, David, you and Simon have finally bought a flat together. What a surprise!

David: Yes. It seemed like the best idea. We aren’t getting any younger and neither of us have got a pension to speak of.

Jackie: Well, property is a safer bet than any formal pension. Property prices are always on the up. I suppose you can’t really go wrong.

- (52) **David:** Yeah, that’s what we thought. (cl. F , $NR = C_s$, $what = O$) Then there’s the rent issue. Prices in south London are crazy. We’ve been paying around a thousand pounds a month rent for years. The mortgage repayments are just a little more. So we thought, why not invest in our own future instead of the future of our landlady? (laughter) So we took the plunge. It’s only a small flat but it’s great to be home owners at last. We’re on the first rung of the property ladder now. It feels great a bit scary though.

Jackie: Well I’m glad you’re thinking about your future. I don’t know whether it’s a good time to buy, though.

Surely property prices just can’t carry on going up and up? The bubble will have to burst at some point. Wouldn’t it have been better to wait a bit?

David: Jackie, stop worrying. You’re worse than Mum. We have looked into this carefully. Simon knows more than me because he works in banking. There’s no evidence that prices will fall. There was a report in The Economist the other day and it said that house prices are at an all time record high just about everywhere the UK and the rest of

- (53) Europe, the States, New Zealand and there’s *no sign that the trend is going to change*. (NP: $S_{notional}$, an , $non-prs/$ cl.: F , App , r , sub : $that$)

Jackie: Yes, but –

- (54) **David:** (*interrupts*) we do know what we’re doing (cl.: F , $NR = O_d$, $what = O$), you
(55) know. Rate increases are what we really need to worry about. (cl.: F , $NR = C_s$, $what = O$)

Jackie: Rates?

David: Yeah, apparently when household debt increases and more people borrow money to buy a home, there is a tendency for rates to increase. But we’ve taken care of that. Our

mortgage insurance protects us because it's locked into a long term low rates so we won't be affected by a rise in rates.

Jackie: Sounds like you've thought of everything (*laughing*)

- (56) **David:** Yeah, well, you know what Simon is like. (*cl.: F, NR = O_{ib}, what = C_s*) He's got a
(57) good head for figures and he isn't one to take risks. (*NP: C_s, p, prs/ cl.: NF, inf, r, act, both m & non-m*)

Jackie: And how is Simon? I thought he'd be with you today.

David: Oh he's fine really excited in fact. He couldn't make it today. He's busy organising our flat warming party. He's got all the recipe books out. We were thinking of a week Saturday.

Wind power farms – a radio programme in which politicians are talking about possible energy source.

P = Presenter (male); A (male politician); B (female politician) = guests

P: The next question comes from a listener in Sheffield, a Mrs Thompson, and she asks 'Do the guests think wind farms are the answer to our energy needs for the future?' Now, if you haven't been following the story this is obviously a reference to the government's plans to build a huge wind farm in a national park. Alan, as a member of the government, surely you support this plan.

A: Well, firstly, you've got your facts slightly wrong there – the proposed wind farm is not in a national park!

P: Well, it's certainly very close

- A:** But I think the main point here is that we have to do something. We don't want to have to say to our children in twenty, thirty years time, 'Well the oil has run out and we haven't really made any plans'. Wind power offers a very real source of alternative, renewable
(58) energy and I think that the effect these wind farms will have on the landscape is a price well worth paying. (*NP: S, an, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: zero = O*)

P: Barbara?

- (59) **B:** A very passionate speech Alan but you're only telling half the story. Of course no-one would say that we shouldn't look for alternative sources of renewable energy. *The*

problem my party has with this wind farm is that we're not convinced that it's a worthwhile project. (NP: S, an, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: zero = O) It's expensive to build, it's a blot on the landscape in one of the most beautiful parts of the country and, most importantly, there's no proof it will provide as much power as the government promise it will. Our argument -

A: It will provide enough energy to power 1500 homes for a year.

B: - if the wind blows! That's precisely the problem. It's unreliable and -

(60) **A:** You see, this is **where we can't win!** (cl. F, NR = C_s, where = Adv) This wind farm is planned for the windiest area in the country and you say it'll ruin the countryside.

(61) Actually, you might be interested to hear that **some of the wind farms built in Scotland** have actually become tourist attractions! (NP: S, cn, non-prs/ cl.: NF, ed, r, non-prog, non-perf)

(62) **B:** I think you'll find that those are offshore wind farms – in the sea around the Scottish coast. We're in favour of those – they're much more reliable in terms of **how windy it is**, (cl. F, NR = postNP, how = det(C_s)) they're much less intrusive – they don't destroy the countryside, but they cost three times more to build than onshore wind farms. We think the government wants to talk about alternative, sustainable energy sources, but they don't really want to spend money on it.

A: Nonsense. If you'd read our plans you'd see -

(63) **P:** Well, I'll interrupt you there, Alan, with another question. An email from a listener says, "This wind farm will reduce carbon dioxide emissions by 178,000 tonnes a year. **A single jumbo jet flying to Miami and back each day** releases the equivalent of 520,000 tonnes of carbon dioxide a year. (NP: S, cn, non-prs/ cl.: NF, ing, r, act, non-perf) Should

(64) we be looking for alternative forms of energy or **a more fundamental change in reducing**

(65) **the amount of energy we use?"** (NP: O_d, an_{prep}, non-prs/ cl.: NF, ing (g), r), (PP → NP: postNP, an, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: zero = O) Alan?

Discrimination

Mr Griffin, a Human Resources expert, talking about discrimination in the workplace

Radio interviewer: Tell me, Mr. Griffin, are diversity risks really still an issue? Aren't companies these days dealing with diversity?

(66) **Alan Griffin:** Oh, yes, they are very much an issue. ... We have come a long way **since those days when employers were allowed to discriminate against job candidates** just because of their race or their sex. (PP → NP: Adv, cn, non-prs/ cl.: F_p, AR, r, rlvz: when = Adv) The trouble is ... the boundaries of diversity and discrimination are

(67) widening. Companies have ***a lot more to consider*** than a person's skin colour or a person's gender. (NP: *O_d, p, non-prs/ cl.: NF, inf, r, act, m*)

(68) **Radio interviewer:** So ... can you give listeners an example of ***what kind of things you are referring to*** here? (cl.: *F, NR = postNP, what = det_(o)*)

(69) **Alan Griffin:** Okay ... let's see well, one growing area of discrimination is ageism. In 1998, companies in the United States had to pay out more than fifty-five million dollars ***to employers who had filed age related discrimination complaints against their companies***. (NP: *O_i, cn, prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: who = S*) That's a lot of money.

Radio interviewer: Phew ... so how should companies protect themselves from this kind of thing?

Alan Griffin: Well, first of all they should think carefully about their recruitment policies and then they should take out insurance to cover themselves.

Radio interviewer: Isn't that expensive? ... for the companies, I mean.

Alan Griffin: No, not as expensive as you might think. These days most small and medium sized organisations take out EPLI ... that's Employment Practices Liability Insurance. The cost of the insurance has fallen over the years and if a company isn't covered and loses a discrimination case ... well, let's just say this is the cheaper option!

Radio interviewer: You've mentioned ageism as a growing concern ... but what other kinds of diversity should managers be aware of?

(70) **Alan Griffin:** Well ... you'd probably be surprised to hear about some ... discrimination against single people, against married parents, ***against people who are too tall, too short, too heavy ...*** (PP → NP: *postNP, cn, prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: who = S*)

Radio interviewer: Really...

(71) **Alan Griffin:** Oh, yes. Security firms are a good example here. They typically state that their employees need to be over or under a certain height or weight. They claim it's necessary for the job but there have been ***cases where people have claimed discrimination***. (NP: *S_{notional}, cn, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: where = Adv*)

Radio interviewer: And won't?

Alan Griffin: Sometimes yes. Then there are people with a criminal background. Employers used to feel justified in turning away job applicants just because they'd been in trouble with the law.

Radio interviewer: Isn't that still the case?

(72) **Alan Griffin:** No not exactly. The law states that employers can only reject a job applicant with a criminal record ... if the crime bears a direct relation to the job in question. So somebody who has served a sentence for ... let's say stealing cars ... would be alright in a job as a kitchen porter. (NP: S, p, prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: who = S)

(73) **Radio interviewer:** And Mr. Griffin, tell me how many people actually go through with their threats to sue a company for discrimination? (NP: O_d, an, non-prs/ cl.: NF, inf (App), r)

(74) **Alan Griffin:** Well I haven't got the latest figures for the UK but in the United States the Equal Opportunities Commission receive around eighty five thousand complaints every year ... and that figure is rising. Race and sex account for most of the complaints that are filed but age discrimination is on the increase too. (NP: O_d, cn, non-prs/ cl.: F_p, AR, r, rlvz: that = S)

Radio interviewer: So ... any words of advice for risk managers?

Alan Griffin: Well ... first of all make sure that you have adequate insurance. Then address the issues of diversity from within the organisation. Get the employees involved. Celebrate the differences and try to build up a reputation as a fair employer. And remember it is worth investing time and effort in addressing these issues because statistics have shown that you're much more likely to be sued by an employee than a third party.

Allergies

- a radio interviewer (R) talking to Dr Michael Peterson (Dr) about the rise in the number of people suffering from allergies.

(75) **R:** Dr Peterson. You've just published an article about allergies and the fact that they're on the rise. (PP → NP: postNP, an, non-prs/ cl.: F, App, r, sub: that)

Dr: Yes, that's right.

R: So. First of all, what kind of allergies are we talking about? Hayfever? Asthma?

Dr: All allergies really. An allergy is a physical reaction to a substance. That reaction can be sneezing, an itching, sore eyes, feeling sick, a rash of some kind – like eczema – or breathing difficulties – like asthma.

R: And are allergies on the rise?

(76) **Dr:** Oh yes. Absolutely. There's no doubt about that. When I was at school there was only one boy in the class who had an inhaler. (NP: S_{notional}, cn, prs/ cl.: F, AR, r,

rlvz: who = S) Now – thirty years later – more than half the kids in my daughter’s class have them.

R: So, why the great increase? Is it our fault?

Dr: Sometimes, yes. Either directly or indirectly. Our lifestyles have changed a lot, starting from birth. It’s a well known fact that bottle-fed babies are more likely to develop allergies than breastfed babies – yet fewer mothers breastfeed because they simply don’t have the time or because of practicalities – like wanting to share the feeding with a partner.

Then – when our children are toddlers we smother everything in disinfectant and destroy all traces of germs.

R: But surely that’s a good thing?

Dr: No, it’s not. Germs are good. Too much cleanliness is bad. Think back to when we were children. We used to make mud pies, splash about in dirty puddles, put all sorts of things into our mouths ...

R: So are you saying we aren’t allowing our children’s immune systems to develop?

(77) **Dr:** Yes, that’s exactly what I’m saying. (*cl.: F, NR = C_s, what = O*) Our obsessions with cleanliness have gone too far. We need to expose our children to germs so that their defence mechanisms have a chance to develop and get stronger. If they aren’t exposed there’s a danger that they’ll develop allergies and food intolerances later on.

R: What about genes? Aren’t some allergies genetic?

Dr: Yes and no. (laughter) The jury is still out on that one. Allergy problems do run in the family but we don’t understand why. Scientists have identified cases in families where there’s been some kind of genetic mutation which affects the immune system in some way. (*NP: O_d, an, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: where = Adv*) (*NP: S_{notional}, an, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: which = S*)

(80) This might result in members of a family being more prone to allergies (*NP: O_d, cn, prs/ cl.: NF, ing, r, act, non-perf*) – but not necessarily the same allergies. So Dad might be allergic to milk products while one child gets hay fever and another develops an allergy to some sort of skin cream.

R: And this doesn’t explain why there has been such an increase in allergies over the past ten years or so.

Dr: No. It doesn’t.

R: So what has changed?

Dr: Lifestyles in a nutshell: Mobile phone use, all technology really. Stress levels are considerably higher than they used to be. We're exposed to more chemicals and toxic substances: diesel fumes, pesticides. **One type of allergy that has risen considerably** is food intolerance. (*NP: S, an, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: that = S*) In some places an allergy to soya is very common. This is probably because soya is present in so many food products these days and our bodies haven't had time to adjust to this change. We don't eat in the same way as we used to. Seasonal food is a thing of the past. Now everything is available all year round.

R: So. To sum up? Why are allergies on the rise?

Dr: Well, if we're summing up I'll keep it brief. Too much bottle-feeding, an obsession with cleanliness, too few germs and too many convenience foods, too little fresh fruit and veg and an abuse of out-of-season food all-year-round, too many vaccinations and altogether far too much stress.

R: Dr. Peterson. Thank you very much for coming to the studio today. If viewers would like to read Dr. Peterson's report they can write in to ...

A lecture about cinema and politics

You may have heard recently about what is being called the return of political cinema, following recent releases such as Munich and The Constant Gardener. So today I'm going to look at what political cinema is, and a little overview of the history of political film-making in Hollywood.

(82) First of all, what do I mean by political cinema, or political films? To me, the terms refer to **films that make people aware of political or social situations**. (*NP: O_{cb}, cn, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: that = S*) To give a recent example, the film Hotel Rwanda caused many people take notice of the political situation in Rwanda for perhaps the first time. The dramatic imagery of film can often be far more powerful than news reports.

(83) For many, the heyday of political filmmaking was the 1970s. Watergate, the Vietnam War, and mainstream actors with social consciences such as Jane Fonda, Robert Redford
(84) and Warren Beatty, made for a number of political films. Think **of All the President's Men, which detailed the scale of corruption in Watergate**, or **Apocalypse Now, which graphically portrayed the horror of the Vietnam War**. (*PP → NP: O_{prep}, pn, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, non-r, rlvz: which = S*), (*PP → NP: O_{prep}, pn, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, non-r, rlvz: which = S*)

- Political film-making didn't start in the seventies, though. Back in the 1940s and 50s
- (85) Hollywood produced *films detailing social problems such as unemployment and alcoholism*. (NP: *O_d*, *cn*, *non-prs/ cl.*: NF, *ing*, *r*, *act*, *non-perf*) In 1967 Guess Who's
- (86) Coming to Dinner, a comedy *about a white couple whose daughter brings home a*
- (87) *black fiancé* (PP → NP: *postNP*, *cn*, *prs/ cl.*: F, AR, *r*, *rlvz*: *whose = det_(S)*) covered *what was then pretty much a taboo subject* (*cl.*: F, NR = *O_d*, *what = S*), that of interracial relationships.

- As I said, the seventies saw a sudden increase in political films, which carried on to some
- (88) extent into the eighties, with the release of films *such as Gandhi, which won eight Oscars*, (PP → NP: *App = postNP*, *pn*, *non-prs/ cl.*: F, AR, *non-r*, *rlvz*: *which = S*) and
- (89) Cry Freedom, another Attenborough film, this time about Steve Biko, *a South African activist who died in police custody*. (NP: *App = postNP*, *cn*, *prs/ cl.*: F, AR, *r*, *rlvz*: *who = S*)

The nineties is not generally seen as a good decade for political cinema. Schindler's List, Spielberg's powerful film about the holocaust, stands out, as does Malcolm X, a biography of the black American activist. Which brings us to the present decade, and the so-called revival... (fade out)

Financial management – a chief financial officer

Presenter: Now to continue our look at executive education, and its role in financial management, we have with us today Richard Manors, Chief financial officer of North London Concrete. Richard, you went on a financial management course a couple of years ago. What effect has that had on your approach to management of the company?

- Richard:** It completely changed the way I looked at measuring business performance. Before I went on the course I, like many people in finance, saw profit indicators as the
- (90) most important measures of performance. The course opened my eyes *to a different way of looking at a company's financial health*, (PP → NP: *Adv*, *an_{prep}*, *non-prs/ cl.*: NF, *ing(g)*, *r*) by looking at cash flow return on investment.

Presenter: How does that work in practice?

- Richard:** You have to look at how the company's cash is deployed. If you don't know the cost of a product, you're not really in control of your company. And you need to know
- (91) *what's happening to cash flow in the company*. (*cl.*: F, NR = *O*, *what = S*) When you've analysed all this you can take action to improve performance. At North

- (92) London Concrete we launched *a whole new integrated management system aimed at improving cash flow*. (NP: *O_d*, *an*, *non-prs/ cl.*: *NF*, *ed*, *r*, *non-prog*, *non-perf*) We
- (93) decided to tie *the company's bonus system, which all our fulltime employees are entitled to*, (NP: *O_d*, *an*, *non-prs/ cl.*: *F*, *AR*, *non-r*, *rlvz*: *which = O*) to freeing up cash flow.

- When we analysed company cash flow, we discovered that a lot of our cash was tied up in outstanding receivables, so the first target I set was to reduce receivables collection. We
- (94) decided that the average collection period was way too long, and set *a goal of reducing it to 35 days*. (NP: *O_d*, *an_{prep}*, *non-prs/ cl.*: *NF*, *ing(g)*, *r*) To achieve this both the finance and sales departments had to work towards the goal, finance working on collections and
- (95) the sales department targeting *customers who paid on time*. (NP: *O_d*, *cn*, *prs/ cl.*: *F*, *AR*, *r*, *rlvz*: *who = S*) When they reached the goal, both teams got their bonuses. Now we have less company cash tied up in receivables and payables, and the company's cash flow situation is much healthier.

Presenter: So you would say that attending that course has had a very positive effect on both you and your company.

Richard: Yes, I feel that I'm really in the driver's seat now. I know how the company is doing and can see how to improve performance (fade out).

Global workforce development – a part of a talk about global workforce development

- (96) *One of the biggest challenges facing employers and educators today* is the rapid advance of globalisation. (NP: *S*, *an*, *non-prs/ cl.*: *NF*, *ing*, *r*, *act*, *non-perf*) The marketplace is no longer national or regional, but extends to all corners of the world, and this requires a global ready workforce. Universities have a large part to play in preparing students for the twenty-first century labour market by promoting international educational experiences.
- (97) *The most obvious way universities can help develop a global workforce* is by encouraging students to study abroad as part of their course. (NP: *S*, *an*, *non-prs/ cl.*: *F*,
- (98) *AR*, *r*, *rlvz*: *zero = Adv*) *Students who have experienced another culture firsthand* are more likely to be global ready when they graduate. (NP: *S*, *cn*, *prs/ cl.*: *F*, *AR*, *r*, *rlvz*: *who = S*)
- (99) There are, of course, well established international undergraduate student exchange schemes, *such as Erasmus, which operates within Europe* (NP: *App = C_s*, *an*, *non-prs/ cl.*: *F*, *AR*, *non-r*, *rlvz*: *which = S*), and *the exchange partnerships that exist between universities around the world*. (NP: *C_s*, *an*, *non-prs/ cl.*: *F*, *AR*, *r*, *rlvz*: *that = S*) The Fulbright program in the US enables graduate students to study and conduct research abroad. We need to expand and add to such schemes, to enable many more students to study abroad.

Word count: 6025

Written English corpus

Prince Charles Not Your Typical Radical – by Sandy Mitchell

Few royal landlords did much more than spend the profits from the Duchy of Cornwall, until Charles became a man on a mission.

- (101) Prince Charles gave *no warning* that he was about to abandon his usual restraint. (NP: *O_d*, *an*, *non-prs/ cl.*: *F*, *App*, *r*, *sub*: *that*) He simply began slicing the air with his hands as his voice rose in frustration: "I had witnessed *this appalling horror of the 1960s*, when everything was thrown away, denigrated, abandoned. (NP: *O_d*, *an*, *non-prs/ cl.*: *F*, *AR*, *non-r*, *rlvz*: *when* = *Adv*) I watched as woods were cut down, hedges uprooted, wonderful old buildings knocked down. I minded dreadfully.

"My whole aim was to repair the damage, to heal the wounds, as it were, of the countryside." Calmer now, his voice falling to its usual hoarse whisper, he settled back in the silk armchair, smoothing his flawless blue suit. Meanwhile, the uniformed footman at Clarence House, the prince's London mansion, went about his business, sliding in and out of the drawing room.

- One day Prince Charles, now 57, will be crowned king (his mother is already 80). Judging from the way he has handled his inheritance so far - more than 135,000 acres (54,633 hectares) *of mostly rural land known as the Duchy of Cornwall* (PP → NP: *postNP*, *cn*, *non-prs/ cl.*: *NF*, *ed*, *r*, *non-prog*, *non-perf*) - the country may be in for some surprises. He (103) has used this private little kingdom *as a place to test solutions to the problems of modernity*, for the prince believes, fervently, that life in both town and country has gone awry. (PP → NP: *Adv*, *cn*, *non-prs/ cl.*: *NF*, *inf*, *r*, *act*, *both m & non-m*) (104)

- "All my life," the prince said, "I have tried to break conventional moulds because I think they are mistaken. The only way I could do it was through the duchy, to show there was (105) *an alternative way of looking at things*." (NP: *C_s*, *an_{prep}*, *non-prs/ cl.*: *NF*, *ing* (*g*), *r*)

- And so just over a decade ago, *on 400 acres* (162 hectares) owned by the Duchy of Cornwall since the 14th century, ground was broken for a new village. (PP → NP: *Adv*, *cn*, *non-prs/ cl.*: *NF*, *ed*, *r*, *non-prog*, *non-perf*) Situated on the western edge of Dorchester, a Roman-era market town in the lush county of Dorset, Poundbury is Prince Charles's dream made real, his answer to the "unadulterated ugliness and mediocrity" of typical housing estates and the "heartlessness of so much urban planning."

- With more than 650 houses now completed and another 1,600 to be built over the next 15 years, Poundbury's architecture borrows from the quaint cottages found in Dorset and doffs its hat to grander 18th-century houses in Dorchester. All the buildings are faced with time-tested local materials, such as honey-coloured ham stone, *with the aim of helping the community take root in a familiar atmosphere*. (PP → NP: *Adv*, *an_{prep}*, *non-prs/ cl.*: *NF*, *ing* (*g*), *r*) (107)

- (108) "**What I was trying to do,**" (cl.: F, NR = S, what = O) the prince said, "was remind people about the pointlessness of throwing away all the knowledge and experience and wisdom - wisdom - of **what had gone before.**" (cl.: F, NR = postNP, what = S)

- (110) Clare Jenkins, a former chairperson of the Poundbury residents' association, lives with her husband, Mike, and their two young sons ***in an upmarket, four-bedroom, classically styled house looking toward the Iron Age hill fort of Maiden Castle.*** (PP → NP: Adv, cn, non-prs/ cl.: NF, ing, r, act, non-perf) She and Mike started an IT-support company in a workshop within yards of the house. "I can walk to work," she said. "The kids can walk or cycle across the fields to school. However they have done the urban planning, it appears to have worked. There are no huge main roads. You walk to the local shop rather than drive to the big supermarket. There are ***no front gardens to hide behind*** and no big back gardens (NP: S_{notional}, cn, non-prs/ cl.: NF, inf, r, act, both m & non-m), so when the kids want to play, you go out to the fields and bump into more people. It makes a very different sense of community."
- (111)

Unlike the conventional developments the prince so despises, Poundbury follows a design of almost unnerving boldness despite its cosy old-world atmosphere. Dotted with offices and several inconspicuous factories, it is densely packed, enabling many residents to walk to work, and its tight lanes and snaking avenues are meant to baffle motorists. "If you design with the pedestrian at the centre, not the car," the prince said, "then you tend automatically to produce a more liveable community."

- Looking at the pretty facades of Poundbury's houses, you would never guess that as many
- (112) as one in three is earmarked ***for people who can't afford open-market rents or***
- (113-114) ***purchase prices - reflecting Prince Charles's conviction that strong neighbourhoods can best be fostered by mimicking the social and economic mix of a traditional village.*** (PP → NP: O_{prep}, cn, prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: who = S), (NP: O_d, cn, non-prs/ cl.: NF, ing, r, act, non-perf), (NP: O_d, an, non-prs/ cl.: F, App, r, sub: that)

to be continued....

Allergies: A Modern Epidemic – by Judith Newman

Millions suffer from them, and thousands die each year. The rising incidence of allergies is nothing to sneeze at.

to be continued...

- The U.S. is not the only country with high allergy rates. In the U.K. more than 20 percent of the population has active allergies. New Zealand, Australia, Ireland, and the U.K. have the highest prevalence of asthma in the world. Allergies, like obesity, are essentially an
- (115) epidemic of modernity. As countries become more industrialized, ***the percentage of***

- population afflicted** tends to grow higher. (NP: S, cn, non-prs/ cl.: NF, ed, r, non-prog, non-perf) There are **remote areas of South America or Africa**, for example, **where allergies are virtually nonexistent**. (NP: S_{notional}, cn, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: where = Adv)

At first glance the problem of allergies seems simple, and for most of us the solution is simple too: a handy drug like Zyrtec or Atrovent to treat the symptoms.

- (117-118) But maybe it's not so simple. We live **in a nation where states have enacted legislation permitting asthmatic children to carry their inhalers to school (one in 13 must do so)**. (PP → NP: Adv, cn, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: where = Adv), (NP: O_d, an, non-prs/ cl.: NF, ing, r, act, non-perf) A federal labelling law mandates manufacturers clearly state in plain English whether major allergens—peanuts, soy, shell fish, eggs, wheat, milk, fish, and tree nuts—are ingredients in any product. And Americans spend billions of dollars annually **on antihistamines to treat the symptoms of allergies**. (PP → NP: Adv, cn, non-prs/ cl.: NF, inf, r, act, both m & non-m)

- Those of us over 40 don't remember having so much as a conversation about food allergies in school. Today 6 percent of young children have food allergies - and the number of those with potentially fatal peanut allergy doubled between 1997 and 2002. Children like Cameron sit at special tables at lunchtime; there are websites and support groups **for parents homeschooling their severely allergic children**. (PP → NP: Adv, cn, prs/ cl.: NF, ing, r, act, non-perf)

- Still, most allergies seem relatively innocuous. And it's true that more people believe they have allergies than actually do. For example, the gas and stomach pain of lactose intolerance? Not an allergy. But the rise in allergies is real. On a global level we need to better understand **what's happening**. (cl.: F, NR = O_d, what = S)
- (121) Here's **how an allergy unfolds** (cl.: F, NR = C_s, how = Adv): One day, a body is exposed to a protein **in something that seems perfectly harmless** (PP → NP: Adv, p, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: that = S) - the wheat flour, say, in a home-baked muffin. But for some unclear reason, the body looks at the protein and sees Trouble. There will be no symptoms at first, but the body is remembering - and planning.

to be continued.....

Tree Frogs - Born on the run, hiding in plain sight – by Jennifer S. Holland

They look like spilled candy, these tropical frogs with the red eyes and outsize orange feet. You'll be tempted to scoop one up and cup it in your hands. But let it go, because the red-eyed tree frog's life is an extraordinary journey.

It's the wet season, and a Central American rain forest hums with life. Chock, chock, chock, the love song of *Agalychnis callidryas* plays in overlapping notes around a pond. The frogs have left their tree canopy home to mate; males wrestle one another for territory, then pile on females, vying to fertilize their eggs. The females wander all night, bush to bush, leaf to leaf, stacked with one or even two suitors, in search of good spots over water for spreading their jelly-encased eggs. The next morning, hundreds of shiny clutches, each housing up to a hundred frogs-to-be, smudge the landscape —and attract predators.

- (124) *A. callidryas* eggs, **which are laid throughout the rainy season**, make easy prey. (NP: S, pn, non-prs/ cl.: F_p, AR, non-r, rlvz: which = S)
 (125) They hang exposed for six days **in sacs that shimmy wetly at the slightest disturbance**. (PP → NP: Adv, cn, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: that = S) Snakes attack entire clutches, and wasps pluck out and carry off single squirming embryos. In all, the two predators take well over half the eggs. Related frog species such as *A. saltator* may be less vulnerable because while they breed less often, they breed explosively, producing so many eggs at once that snakes and wasps barely make a dent.

But here's the elegant twist: *A. callidryas* embryos have evolved a safety net. If attacked, they can hatch within seconds, and up to two days prematurely, dropping to safety in the

- (126) water below. And **what most astonishes scientists** (cl.: F, NR = S, what = S) is that the animals can distinguish a predator's attack from a shiver of wind or a wash of rain through
 (127) the vibrations in the egg jelly. Embryos judge whether the threat is real by **how often the**
 (128) **vibrations come** (cl.: F, NR = Adv, how = det_(Adv)) and **how long they last**. (cl.: F, NR = Adv, how = det_(Adv)) The eggs even react differently to different assailants.

- (129) *Boston University biologist Karen Warkentin*, **working at the Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute in Panama**, assaulted tree frog eggs with various forces to study their reactions. (NP: S, pn, prs/ cl.: NF, ing, non-r, act, non-perf) "We had a window on the embryos' minds and could ask them questions: Is this scary? Can you discriminate between this and that?" Fantastically, they could. It turns out that when a snake bites into a gooey mass, all the embryos try to wiggle free. A wasp's more focused attack prompts only neighbouring eggs to hatch. And a rainstorm triggers nothing at all.

All the *Agalychnis* species Warkentin and collaborator Ivan Gomez-Mestre have studied so far also hatch early if the eggs are submerged - as when an egg-heavy leaf falls into a

- (130) pond - which can drown the embryos. Reacting to a lack of oxygen "is clearly **an ancient survival response that's preserved in many egg-laying vertebrates**," (NP: C_s, an, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: that = S) says Gomez-Mestre. But premature hatching under predatory threat wasn't known until Warkentin observed it. Now, other scientists report the behaviour in various amphibians, a spider, and a fish, suggesting that the ability has evolved independently many times. But how the embryos sense danger and make their Houdini-like escape is still a mystery.

What happens to the embryos after the fall? No pocket of rain forest is benign, and having squeezed from egg membrane into waiting pond and dropped to the bottom, the premature tadpoles face new threats: invertebrates such as shrimp and giant water bugs, and, at some sites, fish. But many endure and complete their development, in coming weeks sprouting legs and growing the lung power they'll need on land. A gantlet of new predators awaits them there - large spiders, birds, snakes - but the fittest survive yet again to master another novel environment, climbing to safety in the tall trees.

- Creative biology aside, the red-eyed tree frog, of the thousands of known frog species, is singular in charm. Nearly 200 million years of evolution has crafted **a creature that grows vibrant and bold** (NP: *O_d*, *cn*, *non-prs/ cl.*: *F*, *AR*, *r*, *rlvz*: *that = S*), a beautiful tree nymph - the literal meaning of the Latin *callidryas* - but also **a clown content to walk across another's head, foot to eyeball**. (NP: *O_d*, *cn*, *non-prs/ cl.*: *NF*, *inf*, *r*, *act*, *both m & non-m*) **With a broad smile that opens into a night predator's maw** (PP → NP: *Adv*, *cn*, *non-prs/ cl.*: *F*, *AR*, *r*, *rlvz*: *that = S*), it tags insects with a sticky lick and swallows them whole. Blinking its big eyes helps force the prey down. Toes tipped with grippy pads fan from those gangly limbs; the reach is expansive, and each step seems to follow a long, hard thought. As a frog sleeps away the midday heat, its hunkered-down form hardly seems like flesh - bulbous eyes cloaked, glistening body pressed to leaf, a dewdrop vanished against the green.

Energy Conservation - It Starts at Home – by Peter Miller

to be continued...

- (134) Will it make any difference? That's **what we really wanted to know**. (*cl.*: *F*, *NR = C_s*, *what = O*) Our low carbon diet had shown us that, with little or no hardship and no major cash outlays, we could cut day-to-day emissions of CO₂ in half—mainly by wasting less energy at home and on the highway. (135) **Similar efforts in office buildings, shopping malls, and factories throughout the nation, combined with incentives and efficiency standards**, could halt further increases in U.S. emissions. (NP: *S*, *an*, *non-prs/ cl.*: *NF*, *ed*, *non-r*, *non-prog*, *non-perf*)

That won't be enough by itself, though. The world will still suffer severe disruptions unless humanity reduces emissions sharply - and they've risen 30 percent since 1990. As much as 80 percent of new energy demand in the next decade is projected to come from China, India, and other developing nations. China is building the equivalent of two midsize coal-fired power plants a week, and by 2007 its CO₂ output surpassed that of the U.S. Putting the brakes on global emissions will be more difficult than curbing CO₂ in the United States, because the economies of developing nations are growing faster. But it begins the same way: By focusing on better insulation in houses, more efficient lights in offices, better gas mileage in cars, and smarter processes in industry. The potential exists, as McKinsey reported last year, to cut the growth of global emissions in half.

- Yet efficiency, in the end, can only take us so far. To get the deeper reductions we need, as Tim Flannery advised - 80 percent by 2050 (or even 100 percent, as he now advocates) - we must replace fossil fuels faster with renewable energy from wind farms, solar plants, geothermal facilities, and biofuels. We must slow **deforestation, which is an additional source of greenhouse gases**. (NP: *O_d, an, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, non-r, rlvz: which = S*)
- (136) And we must develop **technologies to capture and bury carbon dioxide from existing power plants**. (NP: *O_d, an, non-prs/ cl.: NF, inf, r, act, both m & non-m*) Efficiency can buy us time - perhaps as much as two decades - to figure out *how* to remove carbon from the world's diet.
- (137) The rest of the world isn't waiting **for the United States to show the way**. (PP→NP: *O_{prep}, pn, non-prs/ cl.: NF, inf, r, act, both m & non-m*) Sweden has pioneered carbon-neutral houses, Germany affordable solar power, Japan fuel-efficient cars, the Netherlands prosperous cities filled with bicycles. Do Americans have the will to match such efforts?
- (138) Maybe so, said R. James Woolsey, **former director of the CIA who sees a powerful, if unlikely, new alliance forming behind energy efficiency**. (NP: *App = S, pn, prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: who = S*), (NP: *O_d, an, non-prs/ cl.: NF, ing, r, act, non-perf*) "Some people are in favour of it because it's **a way to make money** (NP: *C_s, an, non-prs/ cl.: NF, inf, r, act, both m & non-m*), some because they're worried about terrorism or global warming, some because they think it's their religious duty," he said. "But it's all coming together, and politicians are starting to notice. I call it a growing coalition between the tree huggers, the do-gooders, the sobbusters, the cheap hawks, the evangelicals, the utility shareholders, the mom-and-pop drivers, and Willie Nelson."
- (139)
- (140)
- (141)

- This movement starts at home with the changing of a light bulb, the opening of a window, a walk to the bus, or a bike ride to the post office. PJ and I did it for only a month, but I can see **the low carbon diet becoming a habit**. (NP: *O_d, an, non-prs/ cl.: NF, ing, r, act, non-perf*)
- (142)

"What do we have to lose?" PJ said.

Ancient whale sucked mud for food

An ancient "dwarf" whale appears to have fed by sucking small animals out of the seafloor mud with its short snout and tongue, experts say.

- Researchers say the 25 million-year-old fossil is related to today's blue whales - the largest animals on Earth. The ancient animal's mud slurping may have been a precursor to the filter feeding seen in modern baleen whales. These whales strain huge quantities of tiny marine animals **through specialised "combs" which take the place of teeth**. (PP→NP: *Adv, cn, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: which = S*)
- (143)

- The research is published in the Zoological Journal of the Linnean Society. The fossilised remains of the primitive baleen whale *Mammalodon colliveri* were discovered near
- (144) Torquay, in Victoria, Australia. This animal still had teeth; it had not yet evolved *the*
- (145) **baleen plates - used for filter-feeding - which characterise present-day baleen whales.** (NP: *O_{ds}, cn, non-prs/ cl.:* NF, ed, r, non-prog, non-perf), (PP → NP: *O_{prep}, an, non-prs/ cl.:* F, AR, r, rlvz: *which = S*) Although *Mammalodon* was discovered in 1932 and named
- (146) in 1939, it has not been widely studied, **according to Museum Victoria, which holds specimens of this group.** (PP → NP: *Adv, pn, non-prs/ cl.:* F, AR, non-r, rlvz: *which = S*)
- The study's author, Dr Erich Fitzgerald from Museum Victoria, said that his study of the
- (147) fossil led him **to the conclusion that Mammalodon was a bottom-feeding mud-sucker.** (PP → NP: *Adv, an, non-prs/ cl.:* F, App, r, sub: *that*)

Splinter group

The idea would support Charles Darwin's observation about whale evolution in his seminal book *On the Origin of Species*.

In it, Darwin speculated that some of the earliest baleen whales may have been suction feeders - and that this served as a precursor to the filter feeding of today's giants of the deep.

- Mammalodon had a total body length of about 3m. But it appears to have been a bizarre evolutionary "splinter group" **from the evolutionary lineage which later led to the 30m-long blue whale.** (PP → NP: *Adv, an, non-prs/ cl.:* F, AR, r, rlvz: *which = S*)

It was effectively a dwarf whale; the research suggests that *Mammalodon* may have evolved into a relatively tiny form from larger ancestors.

- (149) *Mammalodon* belongs to the same family *as Janjucetus hunderi*, **fossils of which were also found in 25 million-year-old Oligocene rocks near Torquay in Victoria.** (PP → NP: *Adv, pn, non-prs/ cl.:* *F_p, AR, r, rlvz: of which = det_{possessive}*) This family appears to be unique to south-east Australia.
- (150) "Clearly the seas off southern Australia were a cradle for the evolution *of a variety of tiny, weird whales that seem to have lived nowhere else,*" said Dr Fitzgerald. (PP → NP: *postNP, cn, non-prs/ cl.:* F, AR, r, rlvz: *that = S*)
- (151) **The baleen plates which allow today's baleen whales to filter their food from water** (NP: *S, cn, non-prs/ cl.:* F, AR, r, rlvz: *which = S*) distinguish this group from the toothed
- (152) whales - **a group which includes beaked whales and dolphins.** (NP: *App = C_{prep}, cn, non-prs/ cl.:* F, AR, r, rlvz: *which = S*)

- (153) Baleen whales are *a taxonomical group which includes not only the majestic blue whale, but also the right whales, fin whales and humpbacks* (NP: C_s, cn, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: *which = S*), to name but a few.

In appreciation: Farrah Fawcett

- (154) *Remembering those who died in 2009* (NP: O_d, p, prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: *who = S*)
- (155) Farrah Fawcett's death in June was eclipsed by that of *Michael Jackson, who died hours later*. (PP → NP: *postNP, pn, prs/ cl.: F, AR, non-r, rlvz: who = S*) She was the style icon for generations of women, says Sasha Wilkins, executive style editor of Wall Street Journal magazine.

The Jennifer Anniston of her day, Farrah Fawcett became the female icon of a generation. To appreciate her influence on 1970s style, pick up any family photo album from around that time.

- At least half the women inside will be wearing high-waisted denim flares, with a tight
(156) bra-less T-shirt crowned *by "the Farrah" - a confection of sun-kissed, flicked, feathered and layered bouffant hair that looked natural* (NP: App = Adv, cn, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: *that = S*), but owed its volume to a strafing of industrial quantities of hairspray.

The key to the appeal of her wholesome good looks was its unthreatening obtainability. To men she was the girl next door, the apogee of natural, unaffected beauty. To women she represented an achievable, relaxed image.

- It's difficult for children that came of age in the Nineties to understand the appeal of unadorned, unmanipulated beauty. To them Charlie's Angels doesn't automatically mean Farrah and her cast mates, Jacqueline and Kate, but instead Cameron, Lucy and Drew.
(157) *Where we had Farrah and her hair*, they had Demi and her plastic surgery. (cl.: F, NR = Adv, *where = Adv*)

But the Seventies was a very different time. Until Farrah and her fellow Charlie's Angels blazed on to British television screens, female British TV icons were terribly posh: Dame Diana Rigg, Joanna Lumley, Honor Blackman. Fantasy figures, sure, but no everyday bloke honestly thought he would have stood a chance. The Angels became the popular antidote to the previously prevailing stylish but unapproachable female.

No gadgets, just babes.

- Charlie's Angels first appeared in 1976 as a TV movie. Farrah, along with Kate Jackson
(158) and Jaclyn Smith, played sassy private investigators *for a detective agency run by*
(159) *Charles Townsend* (PP → NP: Adv, an, non-prs/ cl.: NF, ed, r, non-prog, non-perf), a

reclusive multi-millionaire whom the women had never met. (NP: App = Adv, cn, prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: whom = O)

- (160) Townsend referred to his employees as angels, *a term that would never have got past the PC police in the 21st Century.* (NP: App = Adv, cn, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: that = S)

The movie was so successful that a series was promptly commissioned, and TV history was made.

Given the nature of our multi-media, multichannel viewing experience nowadays, it's easy to forget the vast impact of television in the 1970s. A show like Charlie's Angels dominated the television landscape and became the cultural reference for an entire decade.

- It's no wonder Farrah and her cast mates became international superstars - they WERE the show. The Charlie's Angels of the Seventies is a reflection of a less sophisticated time. No technology, no CGI, no go-go-gadgets to distract the viewer *from the pulchritudinous babes who carried the story.* (PP → NP: Adv, cn, prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: who = S)

- (162) *Farrah, who concealed a sharp brain and quick wit behind the pouffed-up hair,* (NP: S, pn, prs/ cl.: F, AR, non-r, rlvz: who = S) told TV Guide in a 1977 interview: "When the show was number three, I thought it was our acting. When we got to be number one, I decided it could only be because none of us wears a bra."

- (163) The real key to Farrah's resonance with men and with women was her styling. *In an age where the celebrity stylist was yet to make its mark* (PP → NP: Adv, an, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: where = Adv), Farrah was just herself. With her wide, ultra-white toothy grin, fluffy hair, jeans and sneakers she was the epitome of Californian wholesomeness. The open-necked, rolled sleeved gingham shirts, waisted jumpsuits and silky slip dresses looked simple and uncontrived.

The hair was a different matter. Men may have been taken in by its artless bounce, but women knew better: the Farrah took time to achieve: "I'd curl, pin, curl, pin. And when it was done, I took the pins out, turned the hair upside down and brushed it out so you wouldn't have a 'set' look," her hairdresser Allen Edwards told a journalist.

But it was the poster that made Farrah into a global sensation. She was already well-known as a model before landing Charlie's Angels, and the poster, a collaboration between Fawcett and the photographer, was shot at her home before she was cast on the show.

- The success of Charlie's Angels sent sales of the poster into the millions. It's been estimated that it sold as many as 12 million copies, and Farrah received a royalty on each one. She was paid \$5,000 (£3,123) per episode *for the one season she appeared on the*

show (PP → NP: Adv, an, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: zero = Adv), but is believed to have racked up over \$400,000 (£249,801) in poster royalties.

- (165) Farrah did her own make-up, wore her own swimsuit, picked out six frames *from the 40 rolls of film shot on the day* (PP → NP: Adv, cn, non-prs/ cl.: NF, ed, r, non-prog, non-perf), marking out as her favourite *the image that finally became the poster*. (NP: O_d, cn, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: that = S), She knew how to market herself. "*The reason that the all-American boy prefers beauty to brains* is that he can see better than he can think." (NP: S, an, non-prs/ cl.: F, App, r, sub: that)

When Farah Fawcett died this year, the dreams of the Seventies died with her.

Britney Spears recalls top 75 'absurd' stories of 2009

- (168) Singer Britney Spears has hit back at the gossip columns, listing *the top 75 "most ridiculous" or "patently absurd" stories written about her in 2009*. (NP: O_d, an, non-prs/ cl.: NF, ed, r, non-prog, non-perf)
- (169) Published on her website, The Year in BS said there were *more than 13,000 stories written about the 28-year-old*. (NP: C_s, an, non-prs/ cl.: NF, ed, r, non-prog, non-perf)
- (170) The list includes various reports of new boyfriends, emotional breakdowns and *one claiming her family was once so poor they ate squirrels*. (NP: O_d, p, non-prs/ cl.: NF, ing, r, act, non-perf)
- (171) At number one was a story *about Spears dating choreographer Sandip Soparrkar*. (PP → NP: postNP, pn, prs/ cl.: NF, ing, r, act, non-perf)

In January, the Daily Mirror reported Spears was dating Soparrkar and that she had hosted a private New Year's Eve party to introduce him to her friends and parents.

'Factually inaccurate'

- The Daily Star later reported in October that sales of squirrel meat soared after a new (172) Spears biography included claims the star's family would eat *whatever father Jamie could hunt*. (cl. F, NR = O_d, whatever = O)
- (173) "We ranked *the ones we believe were the most ridiculous*," the post on the website said. (NP: O_d, p, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: zero = O_d)

"Either because they were factually inaccurate, because they reported the patently absurd, or because we believe they are simply offensive to the sensibilities."

- The list culled mostly from US and British websites, celebrity magazines and tabloid newspapers, also included **allegations that she was being drugged by her father** (NP: *O_d, an, non-prs/ cl.: F, App, r, sub: that*) and supposed demands for stripper poles in her room at London's Dorchester Hotel to help her keep in shape.
- (175) The star quashed **rumours that she was pregnant with a third child** (NP: *O_d, an, non-prs/ cl.: F, App, r, sub: that*), was addicted to gardening and under orders from her father to read the Bible every day to keep her "on the straight and narrow".
- (176) Several of the stories also related to **Spears's recent troubled tour of Australia, where it was reported fans had walked out of a concert in Perth because of her lip-synching.** (NP: *O_d, cn, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, non-r, rlvz: where = Adv*)

Army Ants: Inside the Ranks - by Mark W. Moffett

- (177) In Japanese the word "ant" is intricately written by linking two characters: **one meaning**
- (178) **"insect"** (NP: *App = Adv, p, non-prs/ cl.: NF, ing, r, act, non-perf*), **the other meaning** **"loyalty."** (NP: *App = Adv, p, non-prs/ cl.: NF, ing, r, act, non-perf*) Altruistic and cooperative toward one another, nestmates readily go to war to preserve their colony. Renowned biologist and lifelong ant observer Edward O. Wilson introduces our new occasional series on these highly social creatures.

Ants are our co-rulers of the land. An estimated ten thousand trillion strong worldwide, they weigh very roughly the same as all of humanity. They abound everywhere except on icy mountain peaks and around the Poles. From underground to treetops, they serve as the chief predators of insects and other invertebrates and the principal scavengers of small dead bodies. Although their 12,000 known species compose only about 1.4 percent of the world's insect species, their share of the collective body weight is easily ten times greater.

- I was first drawn to these remarkable creatures almost 70 years ago as a boy in Washington, D.C. Inspired by the tales of Frank Buck and other wildlife adventurers, I launched my own expeditions from our family apartment into the "jungles" of Rock Creek Park. Ants especially intrigued me because of an article by William M. Mann in the August 1934 National Geographic: "Stalking Ants, Savage and Civilized." Mann was also director of the National Zoo, hence doubly my hero. The myrmecological lineage
- (179) continued decades later **with Mark Moffett, who earned a Ph.D. under my direction at**
- (180) **Harvard** and **whose groundbreaking photography of ants focuses in this issue on army ants.** (PP → NP: *Adv, pn, prs/ cl.: F, AR, non-r, rlvz: who = S*), (PP → NP: *Adv, pn, prs/ cl.: F, AR, non-r, rlvz: whose = det_(S)*)

- Ants are important for more than their ubiquity and environmental impact. They also exhibit social behaviour as exotic as any we may ever hope to find on another planet. For
- (181) most of each year colonies consist only of females: **queens that reproduce for the**
- (182) **colony** (NP: *App = O_d, cn, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: that = S*) and **infertile workers**

- that conduct all the labour.** (NP: App = *O_d*, cn, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: that = S)
 Males are bred and kept for short periods, exclusively for the insemination of virgin queens. The communication systems of ants are radically nonhuman. **Where we use sound and sight** (cl.: F, NR = Adv, where = Adv), they depend primarily on pheromones, (184-185) **chemicals secreted by individuals and smelled or tasted by nestmates.** (NP: App = *O_d*, cn, non-prs/ cl.: NF, ed, r, non-prog, non-perf), (NP: App = *O_d*, cn, non-prs/ cl.: NF, ed, r, non-prog, non-perf), (NP: App, cn, non-prs/ cl.: NF, ed, r, non-prog, non-perf) Since the brain of an ant weighs less than one-millionth as much as a human brain, it is not surprising that a given species produces just ten to twenty signals. Unlike human language, these messages are entirely instinctual.

to be continued....

Every Shoe Tells a Story – by Cathy Newman

to be continued....

Baby's Shoes

- The shoes of the dead have a life all their own. When Elizabeth Semmelhack, curator at the Bata Shoe Museum in Toronto, first examined the brown leather 16th-century baby's shoe from the Netherlands, she had a revelation. "It was my epiphany shoe," she says. "I understood that I would never escape the wearer." Meaning she understood that the shoe was more than an object. A shoe - like a hat, or, to lesser extent, a glove - keeps the shape (186-187) of and can conjure **the person who owned it in a way that few possessions can.** (NP: *O_d*, cn, prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: who = S), (PP → NP: Adv, an, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: that = Adv) "When I held this baby's shoe, I thought to myself, Who was **the kid who owned** (188) **this?** (NP: *C_s*, cn, prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: who = S) I realized it was **something I would** (189) **buy my daughter today.**" (NP: *C_s*, p, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: zero = O)

Child's Shoes

- Among other shoes in the collections of the Bata Shoe Museum in Toronto are a pair of bronzed child's shoes, and when asked why they were there (kitsch in a museum?), Elizabeth Semmelhack, museum curator, hesitates, puzzled herself. "Let's look," she says, lifting the identifying tag. She pales. "I see now," she says and gently replaces them on (190) the shelf. "They are the shoes **of a child who perished in Auschwitz.**" (PP → NP: postNP, cn, prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: who = S)

Bespoke Man's Lace-up

- (191) It is said that **the men who belong to Olga Berluti's Swann Club** (NP: S, cn, prs/ cl.: F, (192) AR, r, rlvz: who = S) polish their shoes **with Venetian linen dipped in Dom Pérignon** (PP → NP: Adv, pn, non-prs/ cl.: NF, ed, r, non-prog, non-perf) and expose them to the light of the full moon, but that is false. It is the quarter moon that is important, Berluti explains: "The moon gives transparency to leather. The sun burns; the moon burnishes."

- (193) More *about the Swann Club* (named for the protagonist of Proust's Remembrance of Things Past) later. (PP → NP: postNP, pn, non-prs/ cl.: NF, ed, non-r, non-prog, non-perf) For now, know that Olga Berluti is the creative director of, and designs handmade, exorbitantly expensive men's shoes for, the company that bears her family name. (PP → NP: postNP, cn, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: that = S)

Olga Berluti loves men's feet - a passion, not a fetish, she says. The passion began with her convent schooling in Italy. A long corridor led to the chapel and a 14th-century statue of Christ. "I would approach the altar," she remembers. "The nailed feet of Christ were exactly on the same level as my eyes. I stared and stared. I said to myself: "When I am older, I will remove the nails. I will relieve the suffering of men's feet."

to be continued...

Stonehenge: If the Stones Could Speak – by Caroline Alexander

to be continued...

- (195) Rounding out this story is *an old local belief, still potent today, that attributes healing powers to springs arising in the Preseli hills*. (NP: C_S, an, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: that = S) The sum of these two traditions posits Stonehenge as a kind of Lourdes of the prehistoric world. Among colleagues this healing theory has received a mixed, but cautiously interested, reception. "I mean, it's plausible," one expert said. Until further evidence comes to light, then, the trail returns to where it began (cl.: F, NR = O_d, where = Adv), with only the most basic of hard facts: People had found something special in the Preseli hills and transported this to southern England.
- (196) AT THE TIME the bluestones arrived on what is now Salisbury Plain (cl.: F, NR = Adv, what = S), the old-growth forest had been cleared for centuries into open grassland. If brought by river, the stones would have been dragged from the willow-and-sedge-lined banks of the Avon up to the site. Decoratively stippled, grooved and smoothed, the stones were erected in pairs to form a double arc and were perhaps also yoked *by lintels that have since fallen away*. (PP → NP: Adv, cn, non-prs/ cl.: F, AR, r, rlvz: that = S)
- (197) The old earthworks were now refashioned to highlight the northeast entrance, thus confirming the import of the monument's alignment with the solstices - *an emphasis that perhaps reflected beliefs about the meaning of the stones in their location at Preseli, or perhaps the new beliefs of a changing age*. (NP: App = O_d, an, non-prs/ cl.: F, App, r, sub: that) At some later date the giant sarsens of hard sandstone were dragged in from the Marlborough Downs, 20 to 30 miles away. Although subsequent ages would fiddle with the internal design, the erection of the sarsens - the great broad-shouldered guardians of the smaller stones from Wales - bestowed on Stonehenge its enduring aura of unassailable assurance. Mystifying as it is to us, there is no mistaking the confident purposefulness of its massive, monumental features.

(200) Studies conducted by Michael Allen, an expert in environmental archaeology, demonstrate that throughout the long period of Stonehenge's construction, people of the area carried on with the mundane tasks of their lives. Charcoal remains, ***pollens of weeds associated with crops*** (NP: S, cn, non-prs/ cl.: NF, ed, r, non-prog, non-perf), and, most valuably, snail shells - which can be matched to different habitats - show that the Stonehenge landscape was cleared, grazed, and farmed.

to be continued...

Word count: 5010