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Analysis of Ellipsis in Administrative and Journalistic Style

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

Cílem bakalářské práce je analyzovat výskyt elipsy v anglických textech různých žánrů. Na základě studia odborné lingvistické literatury studentka nejprve popíše jednotlivé typy elipsy a jejich funkce ve větě. Pro účely analýzy si zvolí několik textů dvou odlišných stylů a bude zkoumat výskyt jednotlivých typů elipsy s ohledem na jejich funkci. Výsledky kvantitativního a kvalitativního rozboru bude poté interpretovat v kontextu stylistických charakteristik těchto textů a s ohledem na jejich účinek na čtenáře/posluchače.

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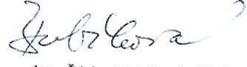
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Annotation

This bachelor thesis deals with ellipsis and its occurrence in administrative and journalistic style. The paper consists of two parts, the theoretical part and the analysis. In the theoretical part, ellipsis will be defined and classified in terms of recoverability type of ellipsis and its position within a construction. Moreover, the attention will be also drawn to ellipsed sentence elements and their possible combinations. The analytical part subsequently studies the types and frequency of ellipsis identified within the administrative and journalistic style. The task of the analysis is to find out which type of ellipsis is preferred in the particular style.

Keywords

ellipsis, grammatical cohesion, coordination, administrative style, journalistic style

Název

Analýza výskytu elipsy v administrativním a žurnalistickém stylu

Anotace

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá elipsou a jejím výskytem v administrativním a žurnalistickém stylu. V teoretické části je elipsa definována a dále rozdělena podle kontextu, ze kterého byla obnovena. Následně je elipsa charakterizována s ohledem na vynechané větné členy a jejich možné kombinace. Analytická část se zabývá typy a frekvencí elips administrativního a žurnalistického stylu. Úkolem analýzy bude zjistit, který z typů elipsy je preferován v daném stylu.

Klíčová slova

elipsa, gramatická koheze, koordinace, administrativní styl, žurnalistický styl

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1 Introduction

The aim of this bachelor thesis is to identify and analyse occurrences of ellipsis in administrative and journalistic style. As regards the structure of the thesis, it is divided into two main parts – the theoretical part and the analysis.

At the beginning of the theoretical part, general terms, namely *cohesion*, *cohesive ties* and *coherence*, will be defined to introduce the following chapter *Classification of cohesion*. Halliday and Hasan (1976) in their detailed study on cohesion *Cohesion in English* divided cohesion into grammatical cohesion and lexical cohesion. However, for the purposes of this thesis, only grammatical cohesion will be dealt with in more detail.

Consequently, close attention will be paid to defining *ellipsis* and its classification in terms of recoverability and position of ellipsis within a construction. Recoverability type of ellipsis concerns three different sources from which ellipsis can be retrieved – *textual ellipsis*, *situational ellipsis* and *structural ellipsis*. Textual type of ellipsis will be followed by a subchapter called *Ellipsis in coordination*, dealing with possible interpretations of such structures. As regards positional type of ellipsis, one may come across *initial*, *medial* and *final* ellipsis.

Lastly, the reader will be informed about the particular ellipted sentence elements and their possible combinations.

The first chapter of the analysis will provide the reader with the general information about the corpus and methodology. Then, the occurrences of all types of ellipsis within both administrative and journalistic style will be investigated and compared. For this comparison, five texts of each style of approximately the same length were selected. As concerns administrative style, texts were excerpted from the official British government documents. Excerpts from the journalistic style were chosen from the online version of the British newspaper *The Guardian*. The corpus will be available in the chapter called *Appendices*. Finally, the outcomes of the analysis will be compared and commented upon thoroughly in the chapter called *Results summary*.

2 Cohesion and cohesive ties, coherence

Since this bachelor thesis deals with ellipsis, at least general facts about ‘cohesion’ should be given to provide the reader with some background information.

Cohesion in English by Halliday and Hasan (1976), a detailed study focusing chiefly on cohesion, will be the main source to explain the crucial terms regarding this and the following chapter. Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 8) claim that cohesion is a “semantic relation between an element in the text and some other element that is crucial to the interpretation of it.” Having mentioned the relation, Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 3) state that a term for one occurrence of a pair of cohesively related items is called a ‘tie’. In other words, cohesion is realized through cohesive devices called ‘ties’. “The term itself implies a relation: you cannot have a tie without two members, and the members cannot appear in a tie unless there is a relation between them.” (Halliday and Hasan, 1989, p. 73)

Cohesion and cohesive ties play an important role within discourse. “The use of various cohesive ties to explicitly link together all the propositions results in cohesion of that text.” *Wash and core six cooking apples. Put them into a fireproof dish.* (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, p. 2) It is supposed that *them* in the second sentence refers back to *six cooking apples* in the first sentence and therefore cohesive relation is established. Halliday and Hasan (1976, p.4) also add that when interpreting a sentence in a cohesive text, it is necessary to look at the surrounding sentences as well.

Before the attention will be paid to ‘coherence,’ there is a need to state that “cohesion does not concern what a text means; it concerns how the text is constructed as a semantic edifice.” (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, p. 26) Unlike cohesion, McCarthy (1991, p. 26) sees coherence as the “feelings that a text hangs together, that it makes sense, and it is not just a jumble of sentences.” In other words, cohesion concerns mainly the structure within sentence connections whilst coherence focuses more on semantic unity. McCarthy (1991, p. 26) also considers cohesion to be a part of coherence despite the fact that their realization is not strictly dependent on each other.

3 Classification of grammatical cohesion

As has been already stated, cohesion is a device relating elements into the unit so that a meaningful text is realised. However, to identify the way of realizing cohesion a single instance of cohesion needs to be classified.

Referring back to the example mentioned above: *Wash and core six cooking apples. Put them into a fireproof dish.* (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, p. 2), the relation between *six cooking apples* and *them* demonstrates a tie. As Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 4) suggest, there are different forms that cohesion takes and “is expressed partly through the grammar and partly through the vocabulary.” Therefore, two types of cohesion can be distinguished – *grammatical cohesion* and *lexical cohesion*.

Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 4) aver that grammatical cohesion includes *reference*, *substitution* and *ellipsis*. These devices, as Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 145) suggest, are forms of presupposition identifying something by referring it to something that is already known and thus all three significantly contribute to cohesion within the text. They involve various structures and grammatical words that have little lexical meaning. On the other hand, lexical cohesion involves “relations between vocabulary items in texts”. (McCarthy, 1991, p.65) However, the fuzzy boundaries between the particular types of ties should be taken into consideration. Halliday and Hasan (1976), for instance, consider *conjunction*, another type of cohesion, to be on the borderline of grammatical and lexical cohesion.

For the purposes of this thesis, only grammatical cohesion will be examined in more detail.

3.1 Reference

‘Reference’ is a grammatical cohesive tie that is used when one item refers to another item in the same text. Items realizing reference are personals, demonstratives and comparatives and, as Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 32) put it, these expressions have “the semantic property of definiteness, or specificity which can be achieved by reference to the context of situation.”

“Since the relationship is on the semantic level, the reference item is no way constrained to match the grammatical class of the items it refers to.” (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, p. 2)

To put it simply, reference is a semantic relation between two referential items that share the same meaning. Although considered as a type of grammatical cohesion, the importance

of semantic relationship between a reference and a referent has to be stressed as both items share the same meaning.

The example of reference can be found in the following text. *George was the best runner in our school, and so everyone expected that he would win the prize.* (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 864) The reference item is realized through the personal pronoun *he* directly linked to the referent *George*. The personal pronoun *he* is definite and signals the particular individual whose identity is a feature of the environment. (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, p. 306) As has been already stated, it is important to highlight the fact that both referential items hold different grammatical properties. Their relationship is, however, on the semantic level.

3.2 Substitution

Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 88) claim that ‘substitution’ is the replacement of one item by another one. Items used to avoid unnecessary repetition in the text are called substitutes and occur in the nominal, verbal and clausal form. In contrast to reference, substitution is a relation in the wording rather than in the meaning and “has no connection with specifying or identifying a particular referent; it is quite neutral in this regard.” (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, p. 314) *Bill got a first prize this year, and I got one last year.* (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 863) The example illustrates the relation between *a first prize* substituted by the nominal item *one* in the second clause. However, when realizing the relation in wording, what needs to be pointed out is that the meaning of the substitute item *one* does not refer to the same substituted item *a first prize* in the first clause. There are actually two different prizes.

3.3 Ellipsis

Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 317) consider ‘ellipsis’ to be semantically very similar to substitution which could be defined as “explicit ellipsis.” According to Hurford (1994, p. 71), ellipsis means “leaving out” or “omitting”. Words, phrases and whole clauses can be omitted by ellipsis provided the meaning of the sentence remains the same. Therefore, as Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 142) put it, ellipsis is simply “substitution by zero”. However, as the theory of ellipsis will be treated thoroughly in the following chapters, this brief account presents just the most general features of ellipsis.

4 Definition of ellipsis

As has been already stated in the previous chapter, ellipsis is classified as grammatical cohesion and means ‘leaving out’ or ‘omitting’. Therefore, ellipsis “can be thought of as a ‘zero’ tie because the tie is not actually said.” (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973, p. 266) Quirk and Greenbaum (1973, p. 266) suggest that when the tie is omitted in speech, it is often marked by an intonation break. However, if the ellipsis, for instance, results in the linking of two lexical verbs, intonation and punctuation marking may be absent. (Hatch, 2000, p. 225)

Even though various definitions of ellipsis can be found, there are no significant differences among them in terms of the meaning. In general, keywords highlighting the main function of ellipsis might be – *omission, leaving out* or *a zero tie*. Quirk et al. (1985, p. 883), for instance, describe ellipsis “more strictly as ‘grammatical omission’, in contrast to other kinds of omission in language,” such as aphaeresis or clipping.

McCarthy (1991, p. 43) characterizes ellipsis to be “the omission of elements normally required by the grammar which the speaker/writer assumes are obvious from the context and therefore need not be raised”. Another way of saying this is that using ellipsis depends not only on grammatical rules but also on the knowledge of the context and the way the speaker/writer perceives the situation in order to use ellipsis accurately.

Nevertheless, to interpret elliptical constructions correctly, the full form must be recoverable. (Greenbaum and Quirk, 1990, p. 255) In other words, to differentiate ellipsis from other kind of omission, it is important to emphasise the principle of recoverability, which means that the actual word(s) whose meaning is understood or implied must be recoverable. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 884)

Quirk et al. (1985) specify several criteria which ellipsis must satisfy. The first criterion presents *precise recoverability*. “This means that in a context where no ambiguity of reference arises, there is no doubt as to what words are to be supplied”. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 884) Another criterion concerns the elliptical construction which is *grammatically defective*. It explains “why some normally obligatory element of a grammatical sentence is lacking”. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 885) The third criterion distinguishes between the comparative constructions of the formal and informal language. It highlights the fact that when inserting the ellipsed word back into the sentence, the meaning has to remain the same. The last two criteria are closely related. The first criterion considers textual recoverability as the surest

guarantee of ellipsis. Dependent on the former, the second criterion concerns the ellipped words which are present in the text in exactly the same form. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 885)

Although stated all the necessary criteria for realizing ellipsis, Quirk et al. (1985, p. 888) admit that the application of them “may be loosely ranged on a gradient extending from the strictness form of ellipsis to semantic implication” and the boundaries of ellipsis cannot be easily defined.

5 Classification of ellipsis

The approach regarding the classification of ellipsis taken by grammarians seems to have only minor differences. Quirk et al. (1985), in examining instances of ellipsis, distinguish three major factors: *recoverability type*, *formal type* and *functional type*. Making a comparison with Greenbaum and Quirk (1990), one finds out that both grammarians share the same attitude when distinguishing recoverability types of ellipsis. As regards formal type, Quirk et al. (1985, p. 893) and Greenbaum and Quirk (1990, p. 262) classify “three categories of ellipsis according to where the ellipsis occurs within a construction” – *initial*, *medial* and *final* position of ellipsis. Functional type, as Quirk et al. (1985, p. 892) suggest, examines the relation of the antecedent construction to the elliptical construction in respect of its possible omission in coordinate, comparative and other types of constructions. The following subchapters will, therefore, characterize ellipsis in terms of recoverability point of view and comment on occurrences of ellipsis within coordinative constructions since their interpretation might very often cause ambiguity. The last subchapter will briefly comment on ellipsis according to the position within a construction.

5.1 Recoverability types of ellipsis

This paper has already discussed the term of recoverability in the chapter regarding the definition of ellipsis. Recoverability was defined as the possibility to insert the ellipted word back into the sentence. According to Quirk et al. (1985, p. 861), “the full form of what has been reduced is generally recoverable from context.” There are various sources from which what has been reduced can be recovered. Quirk et al. (1985, p. 861) consider *textual recoverability* to be the most important type of recoverability from the grammatical point of view when “the full form is recoverable from a neighbouring part of the text.” *Situational recoverability* and *structural recoverability* are, as Quirk et al. (1985, p. 861) put it, “lesser kinds of recoverability, which do not contribute directly to cohesion of text.” The former is dependent on extralinguistic situation whilst the latter emphasises knowledge of the grammatical structure.

5.1.1 Textual ellipsis

According to Greenbaum and Quirk (1990, p.263), “in textual ellipsis, the interpretation depends on what is said or written in the linguistic context.” Greenbaum and Quirk (1990, p.

263) distinguish two kinds of textual ellipsis “according to the relative position of the ellipsis and its antecedent” – *anaphoric ellipsis* and *cataphoric ellipsis*. Quirk et al. (1985) consider the former to be the dominant type of textual ellipsis. In anaphoric ellipsis, to be able to recognize what the retrievable item is, it depends on what comes before. *I’m happy if you are (happy)*. (Greenbaum and Quirk, 1990, p. 263) The sentence represents anaphoric ellipsis with the antecedent *happy* preceding the ellipted element *happy*.

Cataphoric ellipsis, on the other hand, occurs in a “clause which is subordinate in relation to the clause in which the antecedent occurs.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 895) The ellipsis depends on what comes after, as one may see in the following example. *Don’t ask me why (the stone has been moved), but the stone has been moved*. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 895)

Textual ellipsis occurs in coordinate clauses, comparative clauses, question-answer sequences and other contexts where adjacent clauses are related in form and meaning. (Biber et al., 1999, p. 156) For the purposes of the analytical part of the thesis, coordinate constructions will be discussed in the following paragraphs since it is sometimes not apparent to what extent is ellipsis involved within coordination. Therefore, strict criteria will be in this regard set to avoid possible difficulties in the analysis.

5.1.1.1 Ellipsis in coordination

Some grammarians, such as Huddleston (1993), take the view that coordination is always marked by the presence of one or more coordinators. Therefore, cases like: *I came, I saw, I conquered* are excluded. (Huddleston, 1993, p. 381) However, the thesis will in this regard follow Quirk and Greenbaum’s (1973, p. 253) or Dušková’s (2003, p. 513) point of view which says that coordination may be either marked by a coordinator – *syndetic coordination* or joined without a link – *asyndetic coordination*.

Coordination can occur at almost any place in constituent structure at different levels – coordination of clauses, verb phrases, noun phrases, nouns, etc. The lower the level, the less repetition there is. *They shot her father and they shot her mother*. – coordination of clauses. *They shot her father and mother*. – coordination of nouns. (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002, p. 1334) As Huddleston and Pullum (2002, p. 1334) suggest, different levels may differ in meaning and, in general, lower-level of coordination indicates a closer association between coordinates. Therefore, the word-level coordination *They shot her father and mother* is perfectly natural since the association between one’s father and one’s mother is very close. In general, the analytical part of the thesis will be inclined towards coordination at word level

if any ambiguous structure occurs. Nevertheless, it is very common to observe ellipsis within expressions joined by coordinators *and* and *or* to avoid repetition. Apart from central coordinators *and* and *or*, *but* is another coordinator which, however, differs in some respects and is used only to link adjective phrases and adverb phrases. (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973, p. 267)

As has been already implied, problems might arise in the description of coordinative constructions because not all cases should be regarded as elliptical. For instance, an obvious example is given by Huddleston (1993, p. 387) in the following sentence. *Ed and Liz are an amiable pair*. The semantic predicate *an amiable pair* applies to a set containing two members rather than to an individual. Thus, a clause coordination *Ed is an amiable pair and Liz is an amiable pair* would be nonsensical. Quirk et al. (1985, p. 953) in this regard state that “when phrases linked by *and* function in the clause, they may express *combinatory* or *segregatory* meaning.” The former might be applied to Huddleston’s (1993, p. 387) example. *Ed and Liz are an amiable pair*. The coordination should not be paraphrased in terms of coordinated clauses because “the conjoins function in combination with respect to the rest of the clause.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 953) Conversely, segregatory phrase coordination is possible to be paraphrased by clause coordination. *John and Mary know the answer. John knows the answer, and Mary knows the answer*. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 954) Quirk et al. (1985, p. 954) warn that many conjoint noun phrases are ambiguous between combinatory and segregatory interpretation. If such an ambiguous case arises in the analysis, the coordination will be treated at the lowest level. Therefore, *John and Mary* will be regarded as conjoint noun phrases.

When heads of noun phrase preceded by determiners are conjoined, as Quirk et al. (1985, p. 965) suggest, the determiner is often omitted, “resulting in a coordination at word level rather than at phrase level, with two nouns sharing a single determiner.” Thus, the analysis would consider the coordination *a knife and fork* non-elliptical.

When pre-modifiers are coordinated, there may be ambiguity “according to whether the construction is understood to be segregatory.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 960) For instance, the following sentence illustrates both combinatory and segregatory meaning. *He specializes in selling old and valuable books*. There might be books which are old and valuable – combinatory meaning, or books which are old and books which are valuable – segregatory meaning. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 960) Quirk et al. (1985, p. 960) add that when the coordinated

modifiers denote “mutually exclusive properties,” only the segregatory meaning is possible, as in *old (furniture) and new furniture*. Conversely, if *and* is possible to be replaced by asyndetic coordination, it is a sign of combinatory meaning. *Honest, clever students always succeed*. There is no ellipsis involved, for the normal interpretation, in the subject *honest and clever students* since the same students are both honest and clever. (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973, p. 268) In the analytical part of the paper, ambiguous structures will be classified as non-elliptical.

Furthermore, Quirk and Greenbaum (1973, p. 270) state that it is common “for a pre-modifier realized in the first conjoin of a noun phrase to be ellipted in subsequent conjoins.” Dušková (2003, p. 514), for instance, mentions that the coordination in *They sell home-grown fruit and vegetables* is more likely to be interpreted as *home-grown fruit and home-grown vegetables* than *home-grown fruit and vegetables*. In contrast, another case introduces coordination in which only one conjoin is modified. *Hard work and talent do not necessarily ensure success*. The second conjoin does not have ellipsis since *hard talent* is nonsensical. (Dušková, 2003, p. 514) However, as Dušková (2003, p. 514) warns, there are cases in which it is not evident whether the ellipsis was applied or not, as can be observed in the following sentence. *He showed great courage and ingenuity*. There are two possible interpretations as to what extent the premodifier is applied – *great courage and ingenuity* or *great courage and great ingenuity*. In analysis, such an ambiguous case will be regarded as non-elliptical, though different interpretations might be commented upon.

According to Quirk et al. (1985, p. 961), “coordinated post-modifiers, like coordinated pre-modifiers, afford the possibility of either a segregatory or a combinatory interpretation of *and*.” The following sentence implies combinatory interpretation since, as Quirk et al. put it (1985, p. 962), “if a phrase containing modifiers coordinated by *and* has a singular countable noun head, only one interpretation, the combinatory one, is possible.” *The bus for the Houses of Parliament and Westminster Abbey leaves from this point*. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 961) Ambiguity might, however, arise when the phrase is in the plural form: *the buses for the Houses of Parliament and (for) Westminster Abbey*. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 961) The buses might go both to the Houses of Parliament and to Westminster Abbey or there is/are the bus(es) for the Houses of Parliament and bus(es) for Westminster Abbey. Quirk et al. (1985, p. 961) add that if the second preposition in examples such as these is omitted, “so that the coordination becomes one of prepositional complements rather than of prepositional phrases,” a combinatory meaning is favoured. But if the preposition is

repeated, a segregatory meaning is more probable. Hence the following sentences, as Quirk et al. (1985, p. 962) suggest, have different interpretations. *Elsa Grahams's books on reptiles and amphibians* – probably combinatory. *Elsa Grahams's books on reptiles and on amphibians* – almost certainly segregatory. In case of ambiguous interpretation in the analysis, combinatory interpretation with no ellipsis involved will be preferred.

If there are two or more verbs or predicates in coordination, it is usually not clear how much ellipsis one should postulate, as might be examined in the following sentence. *Ed came in and sat down.* (Huddleston, 1993, p. 386) Huddleston (1993, p. 386) suggests that it might be considered as a clause with the predicate filled by a coordination or a coordination of clauses, the second derived by ellipsis from *Ed sat down*. As is suggested by Dušková (2003, p. 513), if verbs or predicates are supposed to express two or more separate processes, they are regarded as coordinated clauses. *He had a shower and (he) went to bed.* On the other hand, verbs or predicates may also refer to the same action or to the contrasting actions. *He repels and attracts people at the same time.* (Dušková, 2003, p. 513), In that case, the clause is comprised of the predicate filled by coordination and ellipsis is not applied. Quirk and Greenbaum (1973, p. 267) provide another example illustrating this phenomenon. *Did Peter tell lies and hurt his friends?* The sentence implies that Peter hurt his friends as a result of telling lies and, therefore, no ellipsis is applied. Dušková (2003, p. 513), however, claims that there is no exact borderline between these approaches. Therefore, the analytical part of the thesis will conform to Dušková's attitude and in case of presence of verbs or predicates indicating different processes, the construction will be considered non-elliptical. It is also possible to regard the auxiliary or auxiliaries within coordination preceding the predication as ellipted. *John should clean the shed and Peter (should) mow the lawn.* (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973, p. 262)

5.1.2 Situational ellipsis

Apart from dependency on the linguistic context, ellipsis may also depend on “knowledge of a precise extralinguistic context.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 895) To put it simply, information may not be easily interpreted without knowledge of the specific situation shared by communicators. *Get it?* (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 895) The sentence can illustrate two possible interpretations. Firstly, it can be understood as *Did you get it? - Did you get the letter?* In another situation, the sentence can mean *Do you get it? – Do you understand?* (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 895) In other words, the meaning of ellipted items can differ according

to the situation in which a speaker/writer occurs. Carter et al. (2000) consider situational ellipsis to be involved mainly in spoken English.

Typically, situational ellipsis can be found at the initial position of a construction and especially a subject and/or an operator is omitted, e.g. *(Do you) Want something?* (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 896) Ellipsis of subject occurs usually in the form of a personal pronoun, where, as Carter et al. (2000, p. 182) put it, “it is obvious that the speaker will remain unambiguous.” Other personal pronouns might be dummy *it*, as in *(It) Looks like rain.*, or anticipatory *it*. *(It) Serves you right.* (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 897) Existential *there* can also be the form of omission in the elliptical construction, e.g. *(There) Ought to be some coffee in the pot.* (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 897) However, situational ellipsis is sometimes final as well. This case can be observed in the following example. *How could you?* (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 895) Other cases of situational ellipsis tend to occur in idiomatic expressions such as ellipsis of an article or preposition. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 897)

5.1.3 Structural ellipsis

According to Quirk et al. (1985, p. 900), “there is no clear dividing line between situational ellipsis and structural ellipsis.” However, the latter can be identified purely on the basis of grammatical knowledge rather than on a situation and is confined to written style.

Quirk et al. (1985, p. 900) illustrate structural ellipses by using the zero conjunction *that* which can be seen in the following example. *I believe (that) you are mistaken.* (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 900)

Further examples are provided by the common omission of determiners, pronouns, operators, and other closed-class words in block language, for instance headlines, book titles, notices, lecture notes, diaries or telegrams. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 900)

Quirk et al. (1985, p. 900) consider structural ellipsis and initial situational ellipsis, which is characteristic of familiar spoken English, to be very similar. “Both styles of ellipsis function as devices of economy, through the omission of items of little informational value.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 900)

5.2 Positional categories of ellipsis

In addition to recoverability types of ellipsis, a position of ellipsis within a sentence will be commented upon. According to Quirk et al. (1985, p. 893), elliptical constructions are divided into three main categories distinguishing *initial ellipsis*, *medial ellipsis* and *final ellipsis*.

In initial ellipsis initial elements of a construction are omitted. These are usually a subject and operator. *He will come later, if (he comes) at all.* (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 893) The *if*-clause illustrates an example of initial ellipsis. Other words that can be left out at the beginning of a sentence include articles and determiners, possessives or auxiliary verbs. (Carter et al., 2000, p. 164)

On the contrary, in final ellipsis final elements, such as predication, are ellipted. *I have eaten more than you (have eaten).* (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 893) The example of the comparative clause shows the final position of the ellipted element.

Quirk et al. (1985, p. 893) suggest that a category of medial ellipsis can also be distinguished where only medial elements of a unit are omitted. However, ellipsis which is definitely medial can be found in rather restricted circumstances. Medial ellipsis can be considered as “a structural illusion which results from looking at too large a constituent in the sentence.” Therefore, medial ellipsis can often be treated as a special case of either initial or final ellipsis. (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 893)

6 Ellipsis of major clause elements

Having mentioned ellipsis from the recoverability and positional point of view, the focus should be laid now on syntactic function of particular ellipted sentence elements.

6.1 Ellipsis of subject

As already presented, ellipsis of subject, from the positional point of view, can be found at the initial position of a construction. Biber et al. (1999, p. 1048) state that ellipsis of subject is not a rarity, especially in conversation and, as Carter et al. (2000, p. 182) put it, it frequently involves the omission of personal subjects, where it is obvious that the speaker will remain unambiguous, as one may see in the following example. *Do you know the woman at the end of our road, right? (She) Takes me to school every day.* (Biber et al., 1999, p. 158) According to Quirk and Greenbaum (1973, p. 261), ellipsis of subject very often occurs in coordinated clauses where both subjects are supposed to be identical, as indicated in the example. *Peter ate a cheese sandwich and (Peter) drank a glass of beer.* “As is usual for ellipsis in coordination, the realized items are in the first clause and the ellipsis is in subsequent clauses.” (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973, p. 261)

Ellipsis of subject can also occur in the form of dummy pronoun *it* or existential *there*, as in the following examples. *(It) Doesn't matter. (There) Should be a screwdriver on the bench.* (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002, p. 1540)

If subjects and auxiliaries are identical, ellipsis of both is very common. *Mary has washed the dishes, (Mary has) dried them, and (Mary has) put them into the cupboard.* In subordinate clauses, ellipsis of the subject with auxiliaries is generally not allowed. (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973, p. 261) Quirk et al. (1985, p. 898) add that if the subject plus operator is ellipted in interrogative sentences, “the resulting elliptical sentence begins with a subject complement or an adjunct.” *(Are you) Happy?* Quirk and Greenbaum (1973, p. 262) aver that one may also come across ellipsis of subject together with lexical verb. *She will work today, and (she) may (work) tomorrow.*

6.2 Ellipsis of verb phrase

As mentioned in Biber et al. (1999, p. 99), verb phrases contain a lexical or primary verb as head or main verb, either alone or accompanied by one or more auxiliaries.

The ellipsed element, as Quirk and Greenbaum (1973, p. 262) aver, can be either the lexical verb only, which is less common, *I work in a factory and my brother (works) on a farm.*, or the verb phrase. *Yesterday John was given a railway set and Sue (was given) a doll.* The ellipsed form of the auxiliary or lexical verb, as might be observed in the first example, can sometimes vary from the realized form if one of them is 3rd person singular present. (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973, p. 262)

One may come across a verb phrase omitted together with a subject complement. *John was the winner in 1971, and Bob (was the winner) in 1972.* Ellipsis of a verb phrase/lexical verb plus a direct object might be also observed. *Peter is playing football for his school and Paul (is playing football) for his club.* – ellipsis of verb phrase and direct object. *John will meet my family tonight and (John) will (meet my family) again tomorrow.* – ellipsis of lexical verb plus direct object. (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973, p. 262)

6.3 Ellipsis of direct object

Following certain restrictions, ellipsis of a direct object can also be applied. A direct object alone can be ellipsed on condition that the items are realized in the last clause. *George opened (the door) and (George) closed the door.* (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973, p. 264) The example demonstrates the possibility of combining ellipsis of direct object and subject as well.

6.4 Ellipsis of subject complement

Ellipsis of subject complement is possible under similar conditions. A subject complement alone can be ellipsed on the assumption that a verb in the last clause is other than *be* and realized items must be present in the last clause, as one may see in *George was (angry), and Bob certainly seemed, angry.* (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973, p. 264) Nonetheless, Quirk and Greenbaum (1973, p. 264) consider using the substitute *so* in the second clause to be more common than applying the ellipsis, as in *George was angry, and Bob certainly seemed so.*

However, “when the verb in the last clause is *be*, the realized items can be either in the first clause or in the last clause.” *Bob seemed angry, and George certainly was (angry). John has recently become (a very hardworking student), and his brother always was, a very hardworking student.* (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973, p. 264)

6.5 Ellipsis of adverbial

“It is often more satisfactory to say that the scope of the adverbial is extended to subsequent clauses than to say that it is ellipted.” (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973, p. 264) This particularly involves adverbials positioned initially. *Unfortunately, John is not at home and Sally is too busy to see you.* The adverbial *unfortunately* “appears to apply to a combination of the circumstances described in the two clauses rather than separately to each circumstance.” (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973, p. 265)

Quirk and Greenbaum (1973, p. 265) state that adverbials which are common to have extended scope are conjuncts, disjuncts and adjuncts of viewpoint, time, and place. If these adverbials occur in the initial position, they are usually interpreted as implying an extension of scope to subsequent coordinated clauses. Adverbials can be also found in the middle of the clause or at the end of any but the last clause. If so, they apply only to the clause in which they actually appear. *Joan is perhaps shopping and the children are at school.* The following example demonstrates the final position of the adverbial. *Joan is shopping, perhaps, and the children are at school.* “However, if there is an ellipsis that links the two clauses more closely, the scope of the adverbial is extended to the second clause:” *Mary is perhaps inside the supermarket and John outside.* (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973, p. 265)

Nonetheless, adverbials are occasionally ellipted in the form of process adjuncts which are realized in the last clause. *Bill drinks (sparingly), and Peter smokes, sparingly.* Quirk and Greenbaum (1973, p. 265) add that in case there is no comma or intonation break, the scope of the adjunct affects only the second clause. *Mary spoke and John answered rudely.*

Moreover, Swan (2001, p. 175) describes another example in which ellipsis of adverbial is used cataphorically. *We drove (across America), rode (across America), flew (across America) and walked across America.* One may observe ellipsis of subject too.

6.6 Ellipsis of auxiliary

According to Quirk and Greenbaum (1973, p. 262), ellipsis of auxiliary can appear in coordinated clauses as well as ellipsis of subject. “If the subjects of coordinated clauses are different, there may be ellipsis of an identical auxiliary.” *John must have been playing football and Mary (must have been) doing her homework.* (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973, p. 262) As one may see in the example, even more than one auxiliary can be ellipted.

An auxiliary can also be omitted in closed interrogatives. (*Has*) *Anyone seen my glasses?* (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002 p. 1541) Moreover, medial omission of the operator in wh-questions is also possible. *Where you going?* However, “this is characteristic of casual speech, but is often felt to be nonstandard in its written form.” (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 899)

6.7 Ellipsis of head of noun phrase and of prepositional complement

As was already mentioned, the head of a noun phrase can also be found as an ellipsed element. Noun phrases are usually found conjoined and within the noun phrase there may be ellipsis of the head. For instance, in *Old (men) and young men were invited.* (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973, p. 268) Ellipsis of the head can also occur with modifiers other than adjectives. *He has workers from Ireland and (workers) from France in his factory.* In the example, the head noun is post-modified by the prepositional phrase whilst one may also find the head pre-modified by numerals. *I think there were two (Prime Ministers) or three Prime Ministers who were assassinated, but I forget which.* However, if phrasal coordination with numerals expresses approximation, such as *one or two reasons, a bottle or two*, no ellipsis can be applied. (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973, p. 269)

Nevertheless, ellipsis of the head noun is not limited to coordination only. *He prefers Dutch cheese to Danish (cheese).* (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973, p. 266)

Ellipsis of complement of a prepositional phrase is possible to apply if the realized complement is in the second clause. *Bob is bored with (music), but Peter enjoys, music.* (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973, p. 266)

6.8 Ellipsis of preposition

If the two or more prepositions are identical, then those subsequent to the first might be ellipsed. (Quirk and Greenbaum, 1973, p. 271-272) Greenbaum and Quirk (1990, p. 257) aver that the preposition occurring in the text only once can be omitted too. However, as one may observe in the following example, the ellipsed preposition is confined to informal language. *We're staying there (for) another three weeks.*

6.9 Ellipsis of conjunction

In addition to above-mentioned sentential elements, Quirk and Greenbaum (1973, p. 272) suggest that ellipsis of conjunction is also feasible to be applied on condition that two or more

conjunctions are identical. *If I can find the letter and (if) you are interested in it, I'll let you have it.* Greenbaum and Quirk (1990, p. 257) also mention the ellipsis of the conjunction *that* and its possible interpretation based on knowledge of the grammatical structure. *I believe (that) you are mistaken.*

7 Introduction to the analysis

This chapter will introduce the analytical part of the paper, including the description of the corpus and the methodology of the analysis. The aim of this research is to analyse and compare occurrences of ellipsis in administrative and journalistic style.

7.1 Corpus description

The corpus for the analysis, as has been suggested, consists of two different styles – administrative style and journalistic style. Each style contains five different texts of approximately the same length. As concerns administrative style, texts were excerpted from the official British government documents. Excerpts from the journalistic style were chosen from the online version of the British newspaper *The Guardian*. The corpus covers a variety of topics, including economy, education, lifestyle, health, etc and can be found in the chapter called *Appendices*.

Before moving to the description of the methodology, at least general information about administrative and journalistic style will be briefly commented on.

Administrative style might be compared to legal documents investigated by Crystal and Davy (1969, p. 194). It is a form of language which is “about as far removed as possible from informal spontaneous conversation” and covers a wide range of topics. (Crystal and Davy, 1969, p. 194) Administrative style is often consisted of very complex sentences capable of standing alone. The formal linkage to be found between the long and self-sufficient sentences is mostly the repetition of lexical items. (Crystal and Davy, 1969, p. 202) In the clause structure, as in the sentence structure, there is a tendency to length and complexity. Another striking characteristic is that written administrative style is highly nominal. Moreover, within nominal groups, there is a very marked preference for post-modification. (Crystal and Davy, 1969, p. 204)

Crystal and Davy (1969, p. 173) find the language of newspaper reporting as a very general label and, as they put it, “everything that happens to be printed in a newspaper or magazine or written by a journalist is not going to be linguistically homogeneous.” Crystal and Davy (1969, p. 179-186), in their investigation, observed some common features of journalistic style, including frequent use of inverted commas in a variety of functions, the use of dashes, for instance to give the parenthetical phrase a greater independence, presence of complex

pre- and post-modification or high occurrence of adverbials. The sentence-linkage occurs frequently by means of the definite article, the demonstrative and personal pronouns or by a means of backward-reference. To present a certain number of facts within a limited space, the need for clarity and the avoidance of ambiguity is the matter of great importance.

7.2 Methodology

The aim of this paper is to find out and state what particular ellipses are typical for any of the examined styles. To achieve this aim, data for analysis were selected on the basis of the information from the theoretical part of the thesis.

Each text is labelled according to the style and order – administrative style (AS), journalistic style (JS). Thus, for example the third text of the journalistic style is marked JS 3. As regards marking the ellipted items, similarly to the theoretical part, each instance of ellipsis is found within a round, numbered bracket followed by a further classification including syntactic function of elliped element and recoverability type of ellipsis, as can be seen in the following example. *Someone told me (that)² Conj: structural it was a large historical mansion in Kent.* In case of textual type of ellipsis, both anaphoric and cataphoric reference will be taken into consideration. Numbering of every occurrence of ellipsis is always from 1 to the number of ellipsis involved in the text. Thus, when referring to the particular instance of ellipsis in the analysis, the label, for instance, AS 4: 7 marks the seventh ellipsis of the fourth text of administrative style.

To decide on what has been ellipted can sometimes cause obstacles, as might observed in the following sentence. *Highways were springing up around Beijing like thick noodles oozing from the ground, with complicated U-turns and roundabouts.* (JS 2) It is not evident whether the premodifier *complicated* applies only to the first conjoin *U-turns* or whether the subsequent conjoin involves ellipsis of the premodifier *complicated U-turns and (complicated) roundabouts*. The attitude towards such examples has been already indicated in the chapter concerning ellipsis in coordination. Therefore, such ambiguous structures will be treated at word-level coordination and classified as non-elliptical.

'5-a-day' intake of fruit and vegetables (AS 1) is another case which is worth mentioning. To resolve whether both conjoins are preceded by a preposition, one should consider its possible combinatory or segregatory interpretation. In this case, combinatory meaning with no

ellipsis included was preferred since it is meant to be five portions of fruit and vegetables in total, not five portions of each.

One more comment should be made here regarding verbs or predicates in coordination. If they indicate separate processes then, as can be observed in the following sentence, they are regarded as coordinate clauses. *She returned to the Daily Telegraph in 1967 and (she)¹⁹ S: textual, anaphoric was posted to China in 1973, remaining in Asia for the rest of her days.* (JS 1: 19) On the contrary, when verbs or predicates express the same or contrasting actions, the clause is comprised of the predicate filled by coordination and ellipsis is not applied. *He's just incredibly busy and likes doing his theatre.* (JS 5) The sentence would therefore suggest that he is busy due to his involvement in the theatre.

To conclude, more such examples were found when analysing the texts and of course not all the variants of their possible interpretation were taken into account. For this reason, any ambiguous structure was treated at word-level coordination and considered as non-elliptical.

8 Analysis

The intention of this chapter is to explore all occurrences of ellipsis, define them in terms of ellipited sentence elements and classify them according to the recoverability point of view.

Both styles are analysed separately according to the above-mentioned criteria. The results of the research are presented in a table in descending order and followed by a detailed description supported by examples from the corpus. The first column of the table characterizes the particular type of ellipsis whereas the second column mentions the frequency of ellipsis. The last column expresses the data from the middle column as percentage.

Further in the chapter *Results summary*, the major examined data of each style are compared with respect to their types and occurrences.

8.1 Analysis of administrative style

The overall number of ellipses found within the administrative texts comprises 85 cases. The rate of occurrences was approximately 17 instances per 1000 words, which is rather low in view of the fact that the corpus was quite extensive. This fact might be ascribed to the high incidence of coordinate constructions in which it was not apparent whether the ellipsis was included or not. Therefore, such ambiguous cases were considered non-elliptical and were not included in the data. These structures will be commented on later in the analysis. The most striking feature of these results is that nearly the same number of ellipsis (87 cases) was identified in journalistic style.

Out of 64 textual ellipses, 36 instances (42%) were used anaphorically and 28 instances (33%) were used cataphorically. With reference to the theoretical part of the thesis, these results might be found compelling since anaphoric ellipsis is considered to be the dominant type. The large proportion of cataphoric ellipsis (14 cases) was comprised of head of noun phrase within coordination. Surprisingly, a lot of instances of structural ellipsis were found. Altogether, there were 21 cases of structural ellipsis (25%).

The most frequently occurring types of ellipsis are demonstrated in *Table 1*.

Table 1: Ellipsis in administrative style

Type of ellipsis	Frequency of occurrences	Ratio (%)
Ellipsis of head of noun phrase	15	17,6
Ellipsis of conjunction	11	12,9
Ellipsis of infinitive marker	11	12,9
Ellipsis of pre-modifier	9	10,6
Ellipsis of prepositional phrase	9	10,6
Ellipsis of preposition	8	9,4
Ellipsis of direct object	6	7,0
Ellipsis of prepositional complement	5	5,8
Ellipsis of noun phrase	4	4,7
Ellipsis of subject	3	3,5
Ellipsis of determiner	3	3,5

The last type of ellipsis which accounted slightly over 1% is not involved in *Table 1* due to its rare occurrence. Nevertheless, it will be commented on further in the paper. The same approach applies to the analysis of journalistic style.

8.2 Analysis of journalistic style

As stated in the previous chapter, 87 cases of ellipsis were identified in journalistic texts, which were of about the same length as the administrative texts. Therefore, the rate of occurrences is in round figures the same.

Contrary to the administrative style, the majority of textual ellipsis were anaphoric (47 cases = 54%), whereas only a few examples of cataphoric ellipsis (4 cases = 5%) were identified. Interestingly, quite a high occurrence of structural ellipsis (35 cases = 40%) was found. One case of situational ellipsis (1%) was also observed.

Similarly, the main types of ellipsis are displayed in *Table 2*.

Table 2: Ellipsis in journalistic style

Type of ellipsis	Frequency of occurrences	Ratio (%)
Ellipsis of conjunction	27	31,0
Ellipsis of subject	14	16,1
Ellipsis of preposition	13	14,9
Ellipsis of direct object	7	8,0
Ellipsis of head of noun phrase	6	6,9
Ellipsis of subject + verb phrase	5	5,8
Ellipsis of pre-modifier	3	3,5
Ellipsis of auxiliary	3	3,5
Ellipsis of infinitive marker	2	2,3
Ellipsis of subject + auxiliary	2	2,3

8.3 Analysis of ellipted sentence elements

At first the two analysed styles will be compared in respect of ellipted items described in the theoretical part of the thesis. Other types of ellipsis, which were not included in the thesis, will be commented on afterwards.

8.3.1 Ellipsis of subject

Ellipsis of subject was observed frequently in journalistic style (14 cases = 16,1 %), whereas in the administrative texts only 3 cases (3,5 %) were identified as ellipsis of subject. All the examples have in common the fact that the subject was ellipted anaphorically and occurred within coordinated clauses.

The subject was identified in different forms. In most cases the ellipted subject was observed in the form of a personal pronoun (12 cases). *She returned to the Daily Telegraph in 1967 and (she) was posted to China in 1973, remaining in Asia for the rest of her days.* (JS 1: 19) There were 11 cases in journalistic style and only 1 in administrative style.

The category of relative pronouns in the function of ellipted subjects was also traced. There were two occurrences in the journalistic texts and one occurrence in the administrative texts.

The attack on Kim, who suddenly fell ill at the airport and (who) died on the way to hospital, was over in five seconds, Malaysian newspaper the New Strait Times (NST) reported on Thursday. (JS 4: 6)

However, ellipted subjects were not only pronouns, but also nouns. Ellipsis of proper noun (1 case) was encountered in journalistic style only. *Gold will cast the young Han Solo in the spinoff origin film (will it be Taron Egerton? “I don’t think (that) we have a new Han Solo yet. Not today”)* and *(Gold) knows what really happens to Jon Snow.* (JS 5: 10)

The last case of ellipsis was identified in the form of a noun phrase. *Such a definition would exclude fruit juices from being classed as added sugar ... but (such a definition) would capture de-ionised juices ...* (AS 1: 10)

As far as density of ellipsis of subject is concerned, it is evident that it was more frequently represented in the journalistic texts. This might be because in the journalistic texts, specifically in JS 1, there were more sentences consisting of coordinated clauses with the same subjects which could be ellipted. Both styles included approximately the same number of cases which were regarded as a clause with the predicate filled by coordination because they expressed the same or contrasting action or consequence. *He’s just incredibly busy and likes doing his theatre.* (JS 5) The sentence implies that the person is busy because of the theatre. Such cases were not considered elliptical and were therefore excluded from the data.

Subject was frequently ellipted on its own, however, it was also omitted in combination with other sentence elements, namely auxiliary and verb phrase. All of them appeared in journalistic style only. 2 instances (2,3 %) of ellipsis of subject and auxiliary were identified. Ellipsis of subject and verb phrase was more common with 5 cases (5,8 %).

8.3.2 Ellipsis of verb phrase

Ellipsis solely of verb phrase, with only one case (1,2 %) in journalistic style, was not a very common phenomenon. *Her birthday was given as 11 February 1992, and (her) place of birth (was given) as Serang, Indonesia.* (JS 4:3)

Ellipsis of verb phrase was, however, detected more frequently in combination with ellipsis of other sentence elements. As already mentioned in the previous subchapter, ellipsis of subject together with verb phrase was identified in 5 cases. Other combinations which

included ellipsis of verb phrase and adverbial phrase or ellipsis of verb phrase and subject created an insignificant minority. The latter is regarded as the only case which was recovered situationally. *“That’s great. (That’s) Greater than United States, (am I) right?” my mother said, drawing her conclusions from her Maoist education of the 1960s.* (JS 2: 9)

8.3.3 Ellipsis of direct object

Ellipsis of direct object is another type of ellipsis that was presented in the theoretical part. When the administrative texts are taken into consideration, out of 6 occurrences (7 %) of ellipsis of direct object 4 were observed in the form of a relative pronoun functioning as direct object. These cases were classified as structural ellipsis. *We find that FSM pupils living in the same neighbourhood and with similar GCSE attainment as non-FSM pupils have marked differences in the post-16 choices (which/that) they make that cannot be explained by inequalities in institutional availability.* (AS 2: 1) This phenomenon was not described in the theoretical part of the paper, though it was the most common form of ellipsis of direct object in the analysis. The same form was also discovered in 5 out of 7 ellipses (8 %) in journalistic style. The remaining 2 cases of each style were textual types of ellipsis. *Game of Thrones fans are hoping to find out on Monday whether Jon Snow is really dead. Nina Gold, keeper of some of the most valuable secrets in showbusiness, already knows (whether John Snow is really dead).* (JS 5: 2) The complement clause *whether John Snow is really dead* is recovered anaphorically from the preceding clause. Though Quirk (1973, p. 264) suggests that a direct object alone can be ellipsed on condition that the items are realized in the last clause, the preceding sentence indicates the opposite.

8.3.4 Ellipsis of subject complement

Ellipsis of subject complement, which was encountered only once in the journalistic texts, is considered an insignificant minority. *... and we suddenly thought (that) Gwendoline would be great and she was (great).* (JS 5: 19) When the administrative texts are taken into consideration, no instance of ellipsis of subject complement was traced.

8.3.5 Ellipsis of auxiliary

Similarly, another category of ellipsis, namely ellipsis of auxiliary, was discovered only in journalistic style. With 3 observed instances, it accounts for 3,5 % of all types of ellipsis.

Out of 3 cases 1 was identified as textual and the remaining occurrences of ellipsis were classified as structural. *In 1963, while working in Beirut for the Guardian, she wrote that Philby, who (was) working for the Observer in the same city, was missing and (was) suspected of defecting to Russia.* (JS 1: 6, 7) The first ellipsis of auxiliary *be* is classified as structural whereas the second one illustrates textual type of ellipsis of auxiliary in coordinated clauses.

8.3.6 Ellipsis of head of noun phrase

As concerns the administrative texts, ellipsis of head of noun phrase is, with 15 occurrences (17,6 %), the most frequently identified type. Out of overall number of ellipsis only one was classified as anaphoric and 14 as cataphoric. *These include agave nectar, new fruit sugars such as coconut (sugar) and date sugar and panela or unrefined whole cane sugar.* (AS 1: 12) All cases, apart from the anaphoric one, were observed within noun-phrase coordination.

Regarding journalistic style, ellipsis of head of noun phrase was observed 6 times (6,9 %) and does not belong among the most frequent types of ellipsis. When the reference is taken into account, 3 cases were ellipsed anaphorically and the remaining half was cataphoric. *Living there had become a visual (torture) and logistical torture.* (JS 2: 1) Similarly to administrative style, all cataphoric cases of ellipsis were discovered in noun-phrase coordination.

The outcomes of the analysis of ellipsis of head of noun phrase were mostly grounded in the chapter called *Ellipsis in coordination* in which ambiguous structures are treated thoroughly in order that such cases can be classified easily. If any ambiguity arises when considering the structure of coordination, it is usually regarded as non-elliptical. *... there is evidence that there is a highly unusual excess of leukaemia and NHL cases among children and young adults in Seascale, ...* (AS 3) It is not evident whether there is ellipsis of head of a noun phrase in *leukaemia (cases) and NHL cases*, or whether only one conjoin is modified. Thus, the structure is classified as coordination of nouns and no ellipsis is identified. Such ambiguous cases were found in both styles with approximately the same number of occurrences, 8 instances in administrative style and 9 in journalistic style. There were, however, a few cases in which it was evident that no ellipsis was involved, as in *happy and confident children* (AS 4). The coordination is regarded non-elliptical since *happy*

children and confident children would refer to two separate groups of children, which appears nonsensical when the context is taken into account.

8.3.7 Ellipsis of prepositional complement

Ellipsis of prepositional complement was discovered only in administrative style and occurred in 5 cases (5,8 %). As already stated in the theoretical part of the thesis, ellipsis of complement of a prepositional phrase is possible to apply if the realized complement is in the second clause. (Quirk, 1973, p. 266) The analysis confirmed Quirk's statement because all cases were ellipted cataphorically. ... *21 cases of cancer were identified in young people who were diagnosed with (cancer), or died of, cancer during 1954–2001 ...* (AS 3: 3)

8.3.8 Ellipsis of preposition

Despite the fact that ellipsis of preposition was found among the most common types of ellipsis, it was not described thoroughly in the theoretical part of the paper. In detail, it occurred 8 times (9,4 %) in administrative style and 13 times (14,9 %) in journalistic style. As concerns the type of reference, all cases of ellipsis of preposition in the journalistic texts were ellipted anaphorically.

Regarding administrative style, out of 8 cases 5 were ellipted anaphorically whilst 3 were identified as structural ellipsis. Prepositions which were omitted anaphorically in both styles were found only when noun phrases within one clause were coordinated. ... *that these are limited to 5% of total energy intake for adults and (for) children over the age of two years.* (AS 1: 13) It must be admitted that there were a few cases which were difficult to be analysed since their interpretation was ambiguous. *There were 47 responses about dilutables and cordials.* (AS 1) One might suggest that there were 47 responses about dilutables and 47 responses about cordials. On the contrary, 47 responses can relate both dilutables and cordials. This sentence might be compared to the following case, which has already appeared in the theoretical part of the thesis. *The buses for the Houses of Parliament and (for) Westminster Abbey.* (Quirk et al., 1985, p. 961) According to Quirk et al. (1985, p. 961), if the second preposition is omitted, "so that the coordination becomes one of prepositional complements rather than of prepositional phrases," a combinatory meaning is favoured. Therefore, such cases were treated as non-elliptical.

Structural types of ellipsis were all observed in the same form accompanied by ellipsis of determiner, which is illustrated in the following sentence. *In this cohort, 9% of non-FSM students drop-out of the education system at (the) age (of) 16 ...* (AS 2: 3)

8.3.9 Ellipsis of conjunction

Ellipsis of conjunction is the last type of ellipsis that is presented in the theoretical part. When the figures are taken into consideration, 11 cases (12,9 %) of ellipsis of conjunction were traced in the administrative texts and 27 cases (31 %) in the journalistic texts. Therefore, ellipsis of conjunction might be considered, especially in journalistic style, one of the most frequently occurring types of ellipsis. All cases were found in the form of a conjunction *that*.

The results were compared with occurrences of conjunction *that* which were not ellipted in the texts. It showed a striking contrast between the styles. While administrative style included 62 occurrences of conjunction *that*, which accounts approximately for 85 % of all cases of both elliptical and non-elliptical structural conjunction *that*, journalistic style involved quite a similar number of occurrences of elliptical (27 cases = 52 %) and non-elliptical conjunction (25 cases = 48 %).

8.4 Ellipsis of other items

The following occurrences of ellipsis were not described in the theoretical part, though the research identified their increased incidence in the corpus.

8.4.1 Ellipsis of pre-modifier

Ellipsis of pre-modifier is one of them. Even though it was not included in the chapter devoted to ellipsis of major clause elements, ellipsis of pre-modifier was treated thoroughly within the chapter concerning ellipsis in coordination. In the analysis, each instance was ellipted anaphorically within coordination, which confirms Quirk's (1973, p. 270) claim that a pre-modifier realized in the first conjoin of a noun phrase can be ellipted in subsequent conjoins.

However, as was already suggested in the same chapter, not all cases were regarded as elliptical. These cases, in which only one conjoin is modified, would involve *complicated*

U-turns and roundabouts (JS 2), *practical problems and difficulties* (JS 2), *completely great and amazing* (JS 3), etc. The last instance illustrates pre-modification of the adjective.

Nevertheless, in administrative style, ellipsis of pre-modifier within noun-phrase coordination was found commonly in 9 occurrences (10,6 %) while only 3 cases were classified as non-elliptical. On the contrary, as concerns journalistic style, occurrences of ellipsis of pre-modifier (3 cases = 3,5 %) were as frequent as those which were regarded as non-elliptical.

8.4.2 Ellipsis of infinitive marker

Another frequently occurring type of ellipsis, which was not included in the theoretical part of the paper, was ellipsis of infinitive marker. When the comparison of the styles is focused on, it might be said that ellipsis of infinitive marker is more typical for administrative style (11 cases = 12,9 %) than for journalistic style (2 cases = 2,3 %). However, all cases were ellipted anaphorically. *COMARE was asked to investigate and (to) report, which resulted in its second report.* (AS 3: 12)

Though one might suggest that ellipsis might be extended to a larger construction, the analysis did not take such cases into consideration. *COMARE was asked to investigate and (COMARE was asked to) report, which resulted in its second report.*

8.4.3 Ellipsis of prepositional phrase

Ellipsis of prepositional phrase was with 9 cases (10,6 %) quite a common phenomenon in administrative style. On the contrary, as far as journalistic style is concerned, there was no instance of ellipsis of prepositional phrase at all despite the fact that ellipsis of preposition was observed quite frequently in the journalistic texts. As concerns the type of reference, out of 9 occurrences 4 were ellipted anaphorically and 5 cataphorically. *10% of respondents disagreed with the definition of added sugar, 51% (of respondents) agreed ...* (AS 1: 1) Apart from the one case, ellipsis of prepositional phrase functioned as post-modification.

8.4.4 Ellipsis of noun phrase

Less frequently occurring types of ellipsis which were not mentioned in the theoretical part of the thesis are ellipsis of noun phrase (4 cases = 4,7 %) and ellipsis of determiner (3 = 3,5). Both categories were identified in administrative style. As far as ellipsis of noun phrase is

concerned, all cases were ellipted cataphorically and in most instances appeared within noun-phrase coordination. *All the known pathways of exposure to man from both external (radiation sources) and internal radiation sources, including sea-to-land transfer, were examined.* (AS 3: 8)

8.4.5 Ellipsis of determiner

Each occurrence of ellipsis of determiner was found in the form of a definite article *the* accompanied by a preposition *of*. ... *drop out of education at (the) age (of) 16 ...* (AS 2: 12) Since only one instance of ellipsis of determiner was found in journalistic style, it will not be commented on.

9 Results summary

To conclude the findings discovered in the analysis, it can be said that textual ellipsis, accounted for 64 cases (75 %) of which 28 occurrences were regarded cataphoric, is a typical feature of administrative style. The incidence of cataphoric reference was surprisingly high despite the assumption that anaphoric reference is a dominant type. One might say that it is due to an increased occurrence of ellipsis of head of noun phrase which was mostly ellipted cataphorically. Structural ellipsis was also frequent with 21 cases (25 %). This was caused mainly by ellipsis of conjunction *that* or ellipsis of preposition.

Conversely, in the journalistic texts, anaphoric ellipsis was with 47 cases (55%) a predominant type while only 4 occurrences (5 %) were ellipted cataphorically. In addition to anaphoric ellipsis, structural ellipsis was another frequently occurring type with 35 instances (39%) out of which ellipsis of conjunction *that* (27 cases) created a majority. Only one instance of situational ellipsis occurred in journalistic style.

As concerns ellipted sentence elements, five most frequently traced categories of ellipsis will be commented on. Administrative style was characterized mainly by ellipsis of head of noun phrase (15 cases = 17,6 %). The number of occurrences of ellipsis could have been higher if ambiguous structures were included in the data. Nevertheless, frequently occurring type of ellipsis of head of noun phrase might be closely connected to the nominal feature of the administrative style as was suggested by Crystal and Davy (1969, p. 204). In view of the fact that administrative style is considered very complex, it would be extremely difficult for the reader to follow the text with no ellipsis of head of noun phrase applied.

Another common category was structural ellipsis of conjunction *that* with 11 occurrences (12,9 %). Ellipsis of infinitive marker shared the same number of incidence. It was found within coordination of verb phrases which indicates a tendency to length and complexity of the text, as was mentioned in the description of the corpus.

Both ellipsis of pre-modifier and ellipsis of prepositional phrase were identified in 9 instances (10,6 %) The outcomes of the analysis show that ellipsis of pre-modifier was slightly more common than ellipsis of post-modifier which was observed in 8 out of 9 instances of ellipsis of prepositional phrase. Though Crystal and Davy (1969, p. 204) state that post-modification is characteristic for administrative style, ellipsis of pre-modifier together with non-elliptical cases of pre-modifier created a significant majority. The function of this phenomenon might

be considered the same as with ellipsis of head of noun phrase. It contributes to the reduced complexity of the text and thus makes the text easier to read.

As far as journalistic style is concerned, the most significant category of ellipsis was conjunction *that* which accounted for 27 instances (31 %). However, when considering both elliptical and non-elliptical incidence of conjunction *that*, the overall number was prevailing more in administrative style (73 cases) than in journalistic style (52 cases).

Less frequent, but still common, was ellipsis of subject. Each case was ellipted anaphorically within clause coordination. Ellipsis of subject appeared primarily in the form of a personal pronoun (11 out of 14 cases). Since the content of journalistic texts very often referred to one particular person, constant repetition of personal pronouns without ellipsis being applied would be for a reader disturbing. For instance, JS 1 included 7 occurrences of ellipsis of subject in the form of a personal pronoun *she*.

Ellipsis of preposition shared nearly the same number of occurrences (13 cases = 14,9 %). Both ellipsis of subject and ellipsis of preposition were sometimes difficult to deal with since they occurred within coordination. Therefore, criteria concerning combinatory and segregatory meanings, which were set at the beginning of the paper, were followed.

Less common category observed in 7 cases (8 %) was ellipsis of direct object. 5 out of 7 cases of ellipsis of direct object were discovered in the form of a relative pronoun, though this phenomenon was not described in the theoretical part of the paper. When reference is introduced, one instance of anaphoric ellipsis was observed, even though it was stated that direct object can be ellipted on condition that the items are realized in the last clause.

In comparison with administrative style, ellipsis of head of noun phrase was not included among the frequently occurring types of ellipsis in journalistic style. It was identified only in 6 cases (6,9 %).

It is of great importance to mention that the number of occurrences of ellipsis could have been even higher if the criteria concerning ellipsis within coordination were set at the different level. Therefore, the incidence of ellipsis throughout the texts might be considered sparse.

10 Conclusion

This bachelor thesis was concerned with analysis of occurrence of ellipsis in the administrative and journalistic style. The theoretical background was provided to carry out the quantitative analysis of the findings and to comment on the major types of ellipsis.

The theoretical part initially focuses on the description of general terms which are closely connected to ellipsis – *cohesion*, *cohesive ties* and *coherence*. Following chapters were dedicated to ellipsis as such. After defining ellipsis, special attention was given to its classification. Ellipsis was divided from two different points of view – recoverability type of ellipsis and positional type of ellipsis.

As regards recoverability, ellipsis is classified according to the context from which the omitted elements are recovered – *textual ellipsis*, *situational ellipsis* and *structural ellipsis*. One might very often come across textual ellipsis within coordination. The analysis of such cases is complicated at times. Therefore, this phenomenon received considerable attention in the subsequent subchapter called *Ellipsis in coordination*.

Positional type of ellipsis might be classified into three categories according to the position of the ellipsed items – *initial ellipsis*, *medial ellipsis* and *final ellipsis*.

The last chapter of the theoretical part focused on syntactic function of particular ellipsed sentence elements and their possible combinations. All the types of ellipsis described in the theoretical part were later examined in the analysis.

At the beginning of the analytical part, a note was devoted to the description of the corpus and methodology. The analysis was carried out on texts of two different styles – administrative style and journalistic style. Each style consisted of 5 texts of approximately the same length.

The intention of the analysis was to find out and state what particular ellipses are typical for the examined styles. All occurrences of ellipsis were defined according the criteria introduced in the theoretical part of the paper.

As concerns the two analysed texts, it can be said that the overall number of ellipsis found within both of them was almost the same. The administrative texts included 85 ellipses and journalistic texts 87 ellipses, which is approximately 17 cases of ellipsis per 1000 words.

Regarding recoverability types of ellipsis, textual ellipsis was a predominant type for both styles. Interestingly, the incidence of cataphoric ellipsis within administrative style was considerably high, though elements ellipted anaphorically were in the theoretical part described as prevailing. The remaining cases were identified as structural types of ellipsis.

As was already mentioned, textual ellipsis was common for journalistic style as well. However, the striking difference between the styles was that cataphoric ellipsis proved to be untypical of journalistic style as only few cases were examined. What should be also highlighted is the fact that structural ellipsis occurred frequently. Situational ellipsis created an insignificant minority.

With regard to the major types of ellipted sentence elements, ellipted categories were almost the same but they differed in terms of their incidence. The most frequently occurring type within administrative style, ellipsis of head of noun phrase, was not considered typical of the journalistic texts. Ellipsis of conjunction, however, was observed commonly in both styles. Each instance was identified as ellipsis of conjunction *that*. Other frequent types of ellipsis in administrative style, which were seldom in journalistic style, included ellipsis of infinitive marker, ellipsis of pre-modifier or ellipsis of prepositional phrase. Conversely, while ellipsis of subject and ellipsis of preposition were common for the journalistic texts, only a few of them were discovered in administrative style.

Despite the extent of the texts, the overall number of ellipsis was considerably low. Such low numbers were caused chiefly by the fact that ellipsis within coordination might involve a lot of possible elliptical variants that affect many elements within a clause. On that account, such cases were dealt with according to the criteria which were set in the theoretical part of the thesis in order that only one interpretation was included in the data. The selected ambiguous cases were, however, commented upon as well.

To summarise, the findings led to the conclusion that there were several differences between administrative and journalistic style concerning recoverability types of ellipsis. As far as ellipted sentence elements are concerned, the particular categories within both styles were almost the same but they differed in the number of occurrence. The main conclusions, however, can hardly be stated as the data involved 172 ellipses only. Therefore, a further investigation is needed to reach some more relevant findings. Moreover, since ellipsis within coordination was a common phenomenon, it would be interesting to focus on such cases

and, if ambiguous structures arise, treat them at different levels and consider their possible interpretations thoroughly.

11 Resumé

Tato bakalářská práce se zabývá výskytem elipsy v administrativním a žurnalistickém stylu. Cílem práce je zejména zjištění četnosti jednotlivých typů elips v daných stylech a jejich následné okomentování a porovnání. Co se týče formálního dělení bakalářské práce, skládá se ze dvou hlavních částí – teoretické části a praktické části (analýza).

V první kapitole je čtenář seznámen s termíny, které s elipsou úzce souvisí. Těmito termíny jsou *koheze*, *kohezní vazby* a *koherence*. Koherence je jakýmsi kritériem pro smysluplný text. Naopak koheze je charakterizována jako jazykový prostředek zajišťující návaznost či provázanost jednotlivých částí textu. Tento prostředek pojí dva na sobě závislé elementy tvořící kohezní vazbu, která může být gramatická nebo lexikální.

Druhá kapitola pojednává o již zmíněné gramatické a lexikální kohezi. S ohledem na cíl práce je však důraz kladen pouze na kohezi gramatickou, do níž elipsa spadá. Mimo jiné se kapitola zabývá dalšími prostředky gramatické koheze, jako jsou reference či substituce.

Třetí kapitola je věnována elipse jako takové. Uvedené definice elipsy se zdají být téměř shodné. Elipsa je používána především k zestručnění textu, podobně jako jiné druhy výpustek, a je popsána například jako vynechání slov či frází, jejichž význam je odvoditelný z kontextu. A právě tento kontext tvoří základ klasifikace elipsy uvedené v následující kapitole.

Jak již bylo zmíněno, elipsa může být rozdělena podle kontextu, ze kterého byla vynechaná slova či fráze obnoveny. Elipsa se podle tohoto kritéria dělí na *textovou elipsu*, *systémovou elipsu* a *situační elipsu*.

Co se týče textové elipsy, významnou roli hraje lingvistický kontext, ze kterého je možné vynechané elementy určit. Většinou se tento kontext pojí s okolní částí textu. V souvislosti s textovou elipsou lze rozlišit *elipsu anaforickou* a *elipsu kataforickou*, podle vzájemné pozice elipsy a realizovaného elementu. V případě, že realizovaný člen předchází výpustku, jde o elipsu anaforickou. Pokud se však realizovaný člen nachází až v následujícím textu, jedná se o elipsu kataforickou. Anaforická elipsa se, ve srovnání s elipsou kataforickou, vyskytuje mnohem častěji.

Textová elipsa se velmi často nachází ve větách s koordinací. Interpretace těchto struktur bývá často problematická. U některých výskytů totiž není zcela zřejmé, do jaké míry byla elipsa aplikována. Tomuto jevu je proto věnována celá podkapitola, ve které jsou zahrnuta kritéria rozhodující o tom, zda se jedná o konstrukci s elipsou nebo bez elipsy. Tato podkapitola vytváří podstatnou část práce, o kterou se opírá téměř celá analýza.

Situační elipsa závisí na znalosti konkrétní situace, bez které by sdílená informace byla jen stěží vyložena. Velice často se nachází v mluvené angličtině. Tento typ elipsy se ve větší míře vztahuje na počáteční části věty, konkrétněji na podmět samotný nebo ve spojení s pomocným slovesem.

V případě elipsy systémové jsou vynechané části závislé spíše na znalosti gramatiky. Týká se především psaného projevu. Elipsa tohoto typu zahrnuje slova s nízkou informační hodnotou, jakými jsou členy nebo zájmena. Typickým příkladem systémové elipsy je považována elipsa spojky *that*.

Elipsa může být dále rozdělena podle toho, v jaké části dané konstrukce se vyskytuje. Pokud se elipsa nachází na počátku věty, jde o *elipsu iniciální*. Naopak *finální elipsa*, jak z názvu vyplývá, postihuje elementy koncové, jako jsou například predikace. *Mediální elipsa* se vyskytuje mezi iniciální a finální elipsou.

Poslední kapitola teoretické části se zaměřuje na jednotlivé elipsy větných členů a jejich případné kombinace, které jsou jednotlivě popsány v oddělených podkapitolách.

Šestá kapitola je již součástí analytické části práce. V úvodu je stručně popsán cíl analýzy a korpus dat. Cílem analýzy je zjistit, jaký typ elips se v daných stylech vyskytuje nejpočetněji. Jako zdroj dat byly vybrány různé texty stylu administrativního a žurnalistického. Pro administrativní styl byly použity texty oficiálních dokumentů britské vlády. Pro analýzu žurnalistického stylu byly vybrány texty britských novin *The Guardian*. Každý styl obsahoval 5 textů přibližně stejné délky. Čtenář je dále seznámen s metodami, které byly aplikovány za účelem dosažení cílů. Před samotnou analýzou byly oba styly stručně charakterizovány.

Sedmá kapitola prezentuje výsledky analýzy. Co se týče četnosti, oba styly obsahovaly téměř stejný počet elips. Avšak vzhledem k rozsahu analyzovaných textů, jejich výskyt nebyl až tak častý.

Administrativní text zahrnoval celkově 85 výskytů elips, z nichž většinu (64 elips) tvořila elipsa textová. Je nutno podotknout, že kataforická reference byla detekována ve 28 případech, což tvoří poměrně vysoké číslo s ohledem na to, že nepatří mezi často se vyskytující případy. Zbylých 21 elips bylo identifikováno jako systémových.

Překvapivě, žurnalistický styl obsahoval téměř stejný počet detekovaných elips (87) jako styl administrativní. Na rozdíl však od stylu administrativního, žurnalistické texty obsahovaly poměrně menší počet kataforické reference (4 výskyty) ve srovnání s referencí anaforickou (47 případů). Poměrně častý byl i výskyt elipsy systémové, 35 výskytů. Situační elipsa byla nalezena pouze jednou.

Poté, co se v praktické části představí číselné údaje obou stylů, dochází k porovnávání elips jednotlivých větných členů. Nejčastěji detekovaná elipsa administrativního stylu byla elipsa řídicího členu nominální fráze, a to v 15 případech (17,6 %). Vzhledem k tomu, že se převážná většina tohoto typu elips vyskytovala v koordinaci nominálních frází, mnoho z nich do analýzy nebylo zahrnuto z důvodu nejednoznačné interpretace.

Často se také vyskytovala elipsa spojky *that* (11 případů). Mnohem početnější však bylo zastoupení spojky *that*, která v textu vypuštěna nebyla, a to přes 60 výskytů. Neméně častá byla i elipsa částice *to*.

Elipsa spojky *that* se stala typickým znakem žurnalistického stylu. V porovnání se stylem administrativním se vyskytovala daleko častěji (27 případů), naopak bylo detekováno méně spojek *that*, které v textu vynechány nebyly.

Další elipsou typickou pro žurnalistický styl byla elipsa podmětu. Oproti jejímu sporadickému zastoupení ve stylu administrativním byla elipsa podmětu se 14 výskyty druhým nejčastěji identifikovaným fenoménem. Ve většině z nich se podmět vyskytoval ve formě osobního zájmena.

Za zmínku také stojí elipsa předložky, která s 13 případy tvořila téměř 15 % celkového počtu elips v žurnalistickém stylu.

Vzhledem k tomu, že se v obou stylech vyskytovalo přibližně stejné číslo elips, porovnání četnosti výskytu elipsy vyšlo pro oba styly stejně, a to 17 výskytů na 1000 slov. Za tak nízké číslo může, mimo jiné, i fakt, že se v textu vyskytovalo mnoho konstrukcí s koordinací, které byly analyzovány jako nejednoznačné. Tudíž nebyly zahrnuty do výsledků analýzy.

Aby bylo možné určit jednoznačnější závěry, bylo by potřeba navýšit rozsah textů obou stylů. Za úvahu by stálo i začlenění různých interpretací nejednoznačných výskytů elips ve větách s koordinací do výsledků analýzy.

Osmá kapitola se podrobně zabývá výsledky analýzy, zatímco kapitola devátá shrnuje jak teoretickou, tak praktickou část práce.

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13 Appendices

13.1 List of abbreviations

S – subject

VP – verb phrase

Aux – auxiliary

Cs – subject complement

Od – direct object

Conj – conjunction

D – determiner

NP – noun phrase

H of NP – head of noun phrase

Prep – preposition

Prep Ph – prepositional phrase

Cp – prepositional complement

Adv Ph – adverbial phrase

PreM – pre-modifier

Inf. marker – infinitive marker

13.2 Appendix AS 1

Soft drinks within the scope of the levy

The consultation asked for views on whether the scope of the levy, and the administration arrangements were sufficiently robust. Respondents made clear across all questions in this section that in order for the levy to be robust there must be legal certainty, proper guidance and effective monitoring to prevent avoidance.

Definition of added sugar

There were 81 responses to whether the proposed definition of added sugar was sufficient, nine responses to whether the definition could be improved and 46 responses to whether the Fruit Juices and Fruit Nectars (England) Regulations 2013 provided a reasonable reference point to ensure that fruit juice products are excluded from the definition of added sugars. Although many replies amalgamated their answers, 10% of respondents disagreed with the definition of added sugar, 51% (of respondents)¹ Prep Ph: textual, anaphoric agreed (with the definition of added sugar)² Od: textual, anaphoric and 39% (of respondents)³ Prep Ph: textual, anaphoric both agreed (with the definition of added sugar)⁴ Od: textual, anaphoric and thought (that)⁵ Conj: structural the proposal should go further. On the inclusion of the regulations as a reference point for excluding fruit juice, 78% of respondents agreed and 22% (of respondents)⁶ Prep Ph: textual, anaphoric disagreed.

Several responses said that added sugars are already defined in EU legislation (Regulation (EC) No 1924/2006) as “added mono- (saccharides)⁷ H of NP: textual, cataphoric or (added)⁸ PreM: textual, anaphoric disaccharides or any other food used for its sweetening properties” and that this provides a better basis for the levy definition than that set out in the consultation. Such a definition would exclude fruit juices from being classed as added sugar (because they are used for flavour and not just (for)⁹ Prep: textual, anaphoric sweetness) but (such a definition)¹⁰ S: textual, anaphoric would capture de-ionised juices (which only provide sweetness). The definition would also capture novel bulk sweeteners such as agave nectar, but the levy legislation should specifically state that intense (artificial) sweeteners are not in scope. This would in turn create consistency with labelling regulations. Several responses said (that)¹¹ Conj: structural the levy should go further to include all sweeteners, as they still have the effect of raising blood sugar, whilst others questioned the inclusion of sweetening ingredients which some people consider “healthier alternatives” to sugar, and which could cause confusion. These include agave

nectar, new fruit sugars such as coconut (sugar)¹² H of NP: textual, cataphoric and date sugar and panela or unrefined whole cane sugar.

Many of those who disagree with definition of added sugars, and the treatment of fruit juices, point out that the Scientific Advisory Committee on Nutrition (SACN) defines ‘free sugars’ to include sugars from fruit juices, and recommends that these are limited to 5% of total energy intake for adults and (for)¹³ Prep: textual, anaphoric children over the age of two years. Therefore respondents who disagreed with the approach tended to be of the view that the definition of added sugars for the levy should mirror the SACN definition of ‘free sugars’.

Others noted that fruit juices and vegetable juices can still contribute towards an individual’s recommended ‘5-a-day’ intake of fruit and vegetables, and that it is therefore justifiable that pure fruit (juices)¹⁴ H of NP: textual, cataphoric and (pure)¹⁵ PreM: textual, anaphoric vegetable juices should not be counted as added sugars when used in soft drinks. Twenty responses highlighted the Public Health England recommendation that pure fruit juice consumption should be limited to a portion of no more than 150 millilitres per day.

Several respondents commented that the exemption for fruit juices does not go far enough and that, in its current form, it unfairly discriminates against certain fruits, distorting competition. In particular these respondents argued that blackcurrants need sugar to be palatable due to the astringent taste. They have a high vitamin content compared to other fruit juices and should be exempt on the grounds of their health benefits.

A number of responses noted that there is a risk that excluding fruit juices from the levy may result in i) an increase in the use of fruit juices as soft drink sweeteners by manufacturers, ii) an increase in consumption of fruit juices by children and therefore iii) no net reduction in sugar consumption among children. Some respondents were concerned that products like de-ionised fruit juice would not be counted as added sugars under this definition.

It was a common theme amongst all respondents that the government should monitor behaviour closely in this part of the market to ensure that manufacturers are not able to identify and (to)¹⁶ inf. marker: textual, anaphoric exploit loopholes which might run contrary to the spirit of the legislation.

Government response

The government notes that most of the respondents agreed that the proposed definition captures the calorific sugar ingredients used in soft drinks.

We acknowledge that there are differing definitions of ‘sugars’ and (of)¹⁷ Prep: textual, anaphoric ‘added sugars’ in use, and (we)¹⁸ S: textual, anaphoric welcome respondents’ suggestions on the most appropriate reference point in existing legislation. We have considered these responses carefully in advance of publishing draft primary legislation, and we will seek further comments on specific provisions when we publish detailed secondary legislation in draft during 2017.

The government recognises some respondents’ concerns that excluding fruit juices from the definition of added sugar in the levy differs from the definition of ‘free sugars’ proposed in the SACN report, and we acknowledge the need for monitoring of producer (behaviour)¹⁹ H of NP: textual, cataphoric and consumer behaviour once the levy is implemented to ensure overall sugar levels fall.

The primary aim of the SDIL is to encourage producers to remove added sugar from soft drinks. It therefore remains consistent with the policy intent that ‘no added sugar’ drinks which may contain a mixture of fruit (juice)²⁰ H of NP: textual, cataphoric and vegetable juice ingredients, often with water and sweeteners, should not be bought within scope of the levy. The proposed approach should achieve this.

We also note that a similar approach is needed for the natural sugars occurring in milk when milk is mixed with other liquids to form a drink, and we have brought forward draft legislation which looks to achieve this aim.

Dilutables

There were 47 responses about dilutables and cordials. 86% of responses thought that taxing dilutables (at diluted volumes)²¹ Prep Ph: textual, cataphoric and cordials at diluted volumes would cause problems versus 14% (of responses)²² Prep Ph: textual, anaphoric who thought (that)²³ Conj: structural there would be no problems.

The majority of responses cited concerns that the approach would be open to abuse and would need careful monitoring to ensure (that)²⁴ Conj: structural manufacturers do not simply change their recommended dilution ratios in order to avoid the levy. Others suggested ongoing

monitoring of consumption of dilutables to ensure that consumers do not compensate for any reduction in sugar by increasing the volume of the concentrate.

13.3 Appendix AS 2

Social inequalities in post-16 routes

Students eligible for free school meals (FSM) live in more urban areas, which gives them greater choice of post-16 institution and marginally greater access to 6th form colleges. We find that FSM pupils living in the same neighbourhood and with similar GCSE attainment as non-FSM pupils have marked differences in the post-16 choices (which/that)¹ Od: structural they make that cannot be explained by inequalities in institutional availability.

In this cohort, 9% of non-FSM students drop-out of the education system at (the)² D: structural age (of)³ Prep: structural 16 compared to 16% of FSM students. This is, of course, largely related to GCSE attainment. But we estimate (that)⁴ Conj: structural over a third of this participation gap results from differences in choices made by students with identical opportunities open to them. We estimate (that)⁵ Conj: structural these choices are also responsible for about a third of the gap in entry to a sixth form environment (i.e. school sixth form, sixth form college or independent school).

There are FSM gaps in the proportions studying at least level 2 qualifications (58% versus 78%), level 3 qualifications (40% versus 66%) and 3 A levels (47% versus 21%). We estimate that 24%, (of these gaps)⁶ Prep Ph: textual, cataphoric 26% (of these gaps)⁷ Prep Ph: textual, cataphoric and 35% of these gaps, respectively, arises from choices made by students living in the same neighbourhoods with approximately the same GCSE attainment.

There are also marked FSM differences in higher education routes. Just 24% of FSM pupils attend HE versus 42% of non-FSM pupils, with over a quarter of this participation gap arising from students within the same neighbourhood with the same GCSE attainment. We estimate that as much as half the FSM gap in Russell Group attendance (at 2% for FSM versus 10% for non-FSM) could be removed if we were able to equalise university access between pupils living in the same neighbourhoods and with similar GCSE attainment.

Gender inequalities in post-16 routes

Male (pupils)⁸ H of NP: textual, cataphoric and female pupils generally face similar choice sets but take slightly different post-16 routes as a result of both differences in age 16 achievement and choices made by students with the same achievement levels. Boys are more likely to drop out of education altogether at (the)⁹ D: structural age (of)¹⁰ Prep: structural 16 (9% versus 11%), but about

half of this participation gap arises from choices by gender of students with the same GCSE attainment.

Girls are more likely to take at least level 2 qualifications (81% versus 70%), level 3 qualifications (68% versus 58%) and 3 A levels (48% versus 39%). But while differences in rates studying for at least level 2 qualifications are largely explained by choice, the differences in rates studying A levels are almost all explained by gender differences in GCSE attainment.

Girls are more likely than boys to attend HE (44% versus 36%) both because they have higher GCSE attainment and because they have higher attendance for a given level of GCSE attainment. The latter contributes about a third of this gender gap. The pattern for elite Russell Group attendance is quite different because, although girls are slightly more likely to attend over (a given level of GCSE attainment)¹¹ Cp: textual, cataphoric (10% versus 9%), they are less likely (with 17% lower odds) than boys to attend for a given level of GCSE attainment.

Ethnic inequalities in post-16 routes

Students of minority ethnic backgrounds – measured here using six broad ethnic groupings – have lower propensities to drop out of education at (the)¹² D: structural age (of)¹³ Prep: structural 16, compared to the White British population (for whom 10% leave). This rate is the smallest for the Indian group at just 3%, both because they are higher attaining at GCSE and because they make different choices compared to White British students living in the same neighbourhoods with similar attainment. It is lower at just 7% for black students and 8% for Pakistani (students)¹⁴ H of NP: textual, cataphoric and Bangladeshi students, despite having lower GCSE attainment.

The white other (ethnic groups)¹⁵ NP: textual, cataphoric and other ethnic groups are more similar to the White British group, most likely because these categorisations mask wide variation in educational choices. Nevertheless, all ethnic minority groups are much more likely than the White British group to attend a school sixth form or sixth form college, even accounting for prior attainment and neighbourhood. They are also more likely to take level 2 qualifications, level 3 qualifications and 3 A levels.

All ethnic minority groups have much higher university participation: the rates for the black (group)¹⁶ H of NP: textual, cataphoric, Indian (group)¹⁷ H of NP: textual, cataphoric and Pakistani/Bangladeshi group are 57%, 72% and 53%, respectively, compared to 36% for the White British

population. However, only the Indian ethnic group is markedly more likely to attend a Russell Group university, compared to White British pupils with similar GCSE attainment living in the same neighbourhoods.

Post-16 outcomes where there are few school sixth form places available

There are 20 places in England where there is almost no opportunity for students to attend school sixth forms because they do not exist due to historic local authority level organisational decisions. We match the neighbourhoods in these areas to similar neighbourhoods elsewhere in England that have school sixth forms. This allows us to estimate the impact of living in an area where all students must proceed to a sixth form college or further education college. We find that living in an area with no sixth form college has no overall effect on levels of post-16 participation, but it does affect the types of courses that students study. There are significantly lower percentages of pupils studying at least 2 level qualifications (73.5% versus 75.5%), at least level 3 qualifications (59.9% versus 63.0%) and at least level 3 academic qualifications (40.0 versus 43.2%).

The largest impacts are for those in the middle prior attainment group who are much less likely to study for 3 A levels. This may be because sixth form colleges serve a smaller community of students than do school sixth forms, leaving greater numbers of middle attainers to attend general FE colleges.

Higher prior attainment students have a five percentage point lower take-up of at least 2 facilitating A-levels and lower rates studying for at least one science (A level)¹⁸ NP: textual, cataphoric or (one)¹⁹ PreM: textual, anaphoric maths A level. One possible explanation is that sixth form colleges are able to provide a wider range of A-levels, increasing the chances that they study less traditional subjects. We also find (that)²⁰ Conj: structural this higher attaining group is slightly less likely to attend higher education (2 percentage points) or a Russell Group university (1 percentage points).

13.4 Appendix AS 3

Introduction

Sellafield

1.3 Sellafield was the first site where it had been suggested that radioactive discharges were associated with local levels of childhood cancer. This hypothesis was examined by the Black Advisory Group in 1984 and by COMARE in 1986 and (in)¹ Prep: textual, anaphoric 1996 with no conclusive evidence of an association being found between radiation doses received from discharges and childhood cancer incidence (Black, 1984; COMARE, 1986, 1996). Historically, Sellafield is the nuclear site in the UK with the largest of all radioactive discharge levels, which peaked in the 1970s and (which)² S: textual, anaphoric have since declined to the much lower current levels.

1.4 While the tenth and fourteenth COMARE reports found that there is, in general, no evidence for an excess incidence of cancer in young people living in areas around nuclear installations in Great Britain, there is evidence that there is a highly unusual excess of leukaemia and NHL cases among children and young adults in Seascale, a coastal village about 3 km to the south of the Sellafield nuclear installation in west Cumbria, England.

1.5 In the seventh COMARE report, 21 cases of cancer were identified in young people who were diagnosed with, (cancer)³ Cp: textual, cataphoric or died of, cancer during 1954–2001 while 0–24 years of age and who were either born and/or diagnosed while resident in Seascale (COMARE, 2002). Seven of these were of acute lymphoblastic leukaemia (ALL), which in the eleventh report showed general ‘spatial’ (clustering)⁴ H of NP: textual, cataphoric and ‘space–time’ clustering throughout Great Britain to an extent that was greater than could be expected by chance alone. Of the remaining cases, two (cases)⁵ H of NP: textual, anaphoric were of myeloid leukaemia and five (cases were)⁶ H of NP + VP: textual, anaphoric of non-Hodgkin lymphoma (NHL), which the second report noted was similar in some forms to ALL, so 14 (cases of cancer)⁷ NP: textual, cataphoric (two-thirds) of the 21 cases of cancer were cases of leukaemia and NHL. The findings of the eleventh report are consistent with the proposition that at least part of the Seascale excess can be attributed to risk factors widespread in Great Britain and which tend to show some degree of clustering. Of the other cancers associated with Seascale, some (such as Wilms’ tumour) have also exhibited a tendency to spatially cluster at the national level (COMARE, 2006).

1.6 As discussed in the fourth and seventh reports, there is, at present, no generally accepted explanation for the increased incidence of leukaemia and NHL among young people in Seascale. It seems most unlikely to be simply attributable to exposure to radiation from radioactive discharges because the doses are so low, and it has been suggested that the excess risk may be largely or wholly due to the effects of an infectious agent (or agents) introduced by exceptional rural population mixing.

1.7 COMARE re-examined the radiation-induced excess risk from radioactive discharges, in considerable depth, in its fourth report. All the known pathways of exposure to man from both external (radiation sources)⁸ NP: textual, cataphoric and internal radiation sources, including sea-to-land transfer, were examined. The risks to different stages of human development from the embryo and foetus to the adult, and also the risks to different tissues, were considered. The analyses incorporated as many of the variables that could introduce uncertainty in the dose calculations for which data were available. The possibility of radioactive objects and (radioactive)⁹ PreM: textual, anaphoric particles discovered on the beaches of (Seascale)¹⁰ Cp: textual, cataphoric, and around, Seascale contributing to the exposure of (the public)¹¹ Cp: textual, cataphoric, and risks to, the public was also considered, and is covered in more detail in Chapter 5 (paragraph 5.7).

1.8 In its fourth report, COMARE also looked at other possible hypotheses that could explain the excess: these ranged from an investigation of the nonradioactive chemicals used and discharged from the Sellafield site, to the presence of untreated sewage on beaches. It was concluded that the excess of childhood leukaemia and NHL in the Sellafield area (largely located in the local village of Seascale), when examined in the context of the national distribution of these diseases, was highly unusual, that it persisted for some tens of years and that it was unlikely to be due solely to chance. However, COMARE found that, given the present state of knowledge, no one factor could account for the observed increase in the level of disease. It could not be ruled out that infection, at least in part, had some causal association with the excess and some interaction between different factors could also not be excluded.

1.9 During its enquiry concerning the area around Sellafield, the Black Advisory Group had requested information about the incidence of childhood leukaemia around Dounreay, the only other nuclear installation in the UK where large-scale nuclear fuel reprocessing was carried out.

1.10 At that time, the available data did not suggest any evidence of an increase in leukaemia around this site. However, a further analysis (Heasman et al, 1986), prompted by the public enquiry into a proposed new reprocessing plant, suggested an elevated incidence of leukaemia in young people in the nearby town of Thurso.

1.11 COMARE was asked to investigate and (to)¹² inf. marker: textual, anaphoric report, which resulted in its second report. Six cases of leukaemia among people aged up to 25 years living within 25 km of Dounreay during the period 1968–1984 were identified, which was about double the number expected from Scottish national rates, but the excess was not statistically significant. However, the cases were concentrated within 12.5 km of Dounreay during 1979–1984. The radioactive discharge levels from the site were considerably lower than those from Sellafield and there was no excess of other types of childhood cancer in the area.

1.12 Some of the conclusions on the possible health effects from radioactive materials released from the Dounreay site were re-examined when radioactive particles were found on the Dounreay foreshore (COMARE/RWMAC, 1995) and on a local beach, Sandside Bay (COMARE, 1999). No causal link between the levels of radioactivity in the general environment and that of childhood cancer in the local area could be found. A further study (Black et al, 1994) showed that there was an increased level of leukaemia in this area, of borderline significance, in the years 1985–1991.

13.5 Appendix AS 4

Views on what works in supporting children's learning and (children's)¹ PreM: textual, anaphoric development

Setting staff placed the personal (development)² H of NP, textual, cataphoric, social (development)³ H of NP, textual, cataphoric and emotional development at the heart of their practice. Strategies identified as effective in supporting this development included staff modelling prosocial behaviour; small group activities that supported children to work together, (to)⁴ inf. marker: textual, anaphoric share and (to)⁵ inf. marker: textual, anaphoric take turns; a consistent approach to behaviour management and using snacks and mealtimes as an opportunity to foster prosocial behaviour.

Fostering happy and confident children was a primary goal. Warm and positive relationships between staff and children; consistency and routine; and strong relationships with parents were all viewed as features of good practice that supported wellbeing. Encouraging children to do things for themselves; involving them in decision making and supporting them to find their own solutions to conflicts were elements of good practice felt to encourage self-regulation and independence.

To support early language development and communication, settings prioritised creating a 'language rich' environment through the use of songs, nursery rhymes, stories and providing time for adult/child (interaction)⁶ H of NP: textual, cataphoric and peer to peer interaction. High quality adult/child interactions were viewed as essential, as was encouraging home learning and the quality of parent/child interactions through activities and reading at home.

To support cognitive development and (to)⁷ inf. marker: textual, anaphoric instil a lifelong love of learning, strategies included taking a child-led approach, ensuring access to a wide range of resources that were age appropriate; using visual aids to support learning; and providing an environment with age appropriate furniture and (age appropriate)⁸ PreM: textual, anaphoric equipment. Staff with the professional knowledge and skill to support this learning underpinned this good practice.

Supporting transition

Features of good practice thought by staff and parents to support transitions into settings included carrying out home visits; gathering information from parents about the child; and working in partnership with other settings to gather relevant information and (to)⁹ inf. marker:

textual, anaphoric support the child with the transition. Setting visits; gradually increasing the time (that/which)¹⁰ Od: structural children attended; matching activities to children's interests; and providing consistency and routine were strategies felt to help children to settle. Setting staff also felt (that)¹¹ Conj: structural they had a role to play in supporting parents with the transition and that it was important to be proactive in keeping parents informed about how the child was settling in.

In settings which catered for children from babies to pre-school, strategies had been put in place to facilitate smooth transitions within settings. Gradually introducing the child to the new room, and taking a flexible approach to the allocation of a new key person (changing this if the child bonded with a particular member of staff) were thought to be features of good practice. Underpinning this was the view that transition should be carried out at the child's pace and that it was important to build in flexibility to any arrangement. Consulting parents, keeping them informed of the process and sharing information effectively between staff through transition meetings were also important features.

Good practice in relation to supporting transitions to school included effective information sharing with schools through transition reports, school visits to settings, and consulting parents on the information that was being shared. Taking children to visit their new school, and building on-going relationships with local schools were features of good practice that were felt to help children make the transition smoothly. Setting staff also described putting in place activities to prepare children for the move, such as activities to encourage greater independence.

Management and leadership

Leadership

Effective leadership was felt to be essential to good practice in early years. Managers and staff reflected that effective leaders in early years were those that had a clear vision for the setting; valued and fostered team working; had good professional knowledge; engaged effectively with the wider early years sector; sought continuous improvement; fostered good relationships with parents; had strong organisational skills and delegated effectively; prioritised staff continuing professional development (CPD) and embedded clear systems and (clear)¹² PreM: textual, anaphoric processes.

Communication

Communication between staff was viewed as important because it underpinned many other aspects of good practice including curriculum planning, assessment and monitoring, and effective relationships with parents. Staff valued formal channels for information sharing including regular staff meetings, but also stressed the value of regular informal communication. Staff Facebook pages, information boards and informal catch-ups were all valued as ways in which staff could keep each other informed. Open plan environments were particularly highlighted as a feature that helped this informal communication.

Evaluation

Ongoing evaluation of setting practice was considered a hallmark of good practice because it ensured (that)¹³ Conj: structural practice was constantly being reviewed and refined. Observations of setting practice by both senior managers and ‘peer to peer’ were seen as an effective evaluation tool, both to assess how well activities were meeting the needs of children, and to evaluate staff practice. Audits of children’s progress records and the setting environment were also used, as were internal self-evaluation reflection sheets and internal inspections.

Partnership working and sources of advice

To support good practice, settings sought to work in partnership and (to)¹⁴ inf. marker: textual, anaphoric access advice and guidance from a range of sources. Local Authorities were felt to play an important role in this by co-ordinating early years clusters; running conferences; delivering training and providing packages of support to settings that were judged by Ofsted as inadequate or requiring improvement, as well as offering advice and guidance on SEND and safeguarding. Ofsted were also identified as a source of support as were specialist services including speech and language therapists, psychologists, physiotherapists and occupational therapists.

Some Local Authority and setting staff reflected that reductions in funding to Local Authorities had led to cuts in the services (which/that)¹⁵ Od: structural they were able to offer and consequently partnership working between settings was becoming increasingly important. Good practice included visits and information sharing with other settings, and working in partnership with Children’s Centres including sharing facilities, and seeking advice and guidance from their early years specialist teachers.

Recruitment of staff

High quality staff were viewed as the foundation for good practice, but recruitment was viewed as challenging largely because pay levels across the sector were felt to be low. When recruiting staff, settings looked for a range of qualities including a good understanding of child development and the EYFS; high quality interactions with children; enthusiasm for early education; and an ability to communicate with (parents)¹⁶ Cp: textual, cataphoric and (to)¹⁷ inf. marker: textual, anaphoric engage parents effectively.

Case study staff recognised the importance of qualifications. In settings that employed a qualified teacher, staff felt (that)¹⁸ Conj: structural this added an additional focus on teaching and learning and improved the quality of curriculum planning and assessment. Experience was also highly valued, and careful consideration was given to the mix of staff within settings to ensure that less experienced staff were supported by more experienced colleagues. Soft skills including warmth, empathy, an enjoyment of working with children and good communication skills were also qualities (which/that)¹⁹ Od: structural settings looked for.

Some case study settings chose to operate at staff/child ratios higher than statutory requirements because they felt (that)²⁰ Conj: structural this increased the quality of their provision by giving staff more time to spend with each child. In other case study settings, it was financially unviable to operate at ratios higher than statutory requirements.

Appendix AS 5

This report has presented the findings from an independent evaluation of the Mental Health Services and Schools Link Pilot Projects, drawing upon evidence from quantitative (data)¹ NP: textual, cataphoric and qualitative data collection and analysis carried out between October 2015 and November 2016. In the previous chapters, we looked at how the pilots were designed and developed, the role of the joint planning workshops and the lessons learned from implementation. We then went on to consider the evidence for the impacts and outcomes from the pilot programme and the prospects for ensuring their sustainability.

In this final chapter, we draw together the main findings from the report and conclude upon whether the programme achieved its original aims and (original)² PreM: textual, anaphoric objectives. We end with some key messages for the potential future development of the pilot models.

Overall achievements

The pilot programme gave the opportunity for 22 local areas to examine how best to strengthen joint working between schools and specialist NHS CYPMHS, to improve schools' identification and capability regarding mental health issues and (to)³ inf. marker: textual, anaphoric improve local knowledge and referral pathways to specialist services. Overall, the evaluation indicates that the pilots were largely successful in meeting these aims. A wide range of local models were set up and implemented, and a wealth of learning was generated by the programme within a challenging timescale.

Effectiveness of programme implementation were funded to test joint working arrangements on a controlled scale, focusing primarily on the links between specialist NHS CYPMHS and a group of (usually 10) schools. By starting small and targeting the resources in this way, the objective was to 'accelerate' the learning. Although there were delays with getting staff in post at the start of the pilot programme, this model was generally well suited to the timescales for the pilot. It meant that NHS CYPMHS were able to work rapidly to identify schools' needs, and to monitor and (to)⁴ inf. marker: textual, anaphoric adjust time and resources accordingly. Many of the areas used the opportunity to test elements of a model that might be workable on a larger scale, although it was generally accepted that the pilot arrangements were exceptional.

The original 'single point of contact' concept was subject to a wide variety of interpretations. Some areas had a single named worker in NHS CYPMHS working with their counterpart in

school(s), while others assigned time from multiple workers, and others still stopped short of a ‘SPOC’ model altogether, instead offering a central point of access to specialist support. These variations were driven in part by capacity issues – some areas were unwilling to commit to a level of resource that would be unsustainable beyond the pilot programme. However, different objectives also exerted an influence. Whereas some pilots thought it important to provide a ‘hands-on’ role to transfer knowledge to schools through staff training, support and consultation and direct work with young people, others focused on improving communication channels and referral pathways and undertook lighter-touch work in individual schools. Concerns were expressed in some areas about creating expectations and a dependency on external specialist support that there was no commitment to sustain in the longer term.

The workshops and CASCADE framework provided an important role in kick-starting the pilots, and the independent facilitation was welcomed in many areas. It was generally acknowledged that the initial workshops suffered from a lack of available planning time and that this prevented more active participation by strategic leaders from local CYPMHS networks in their preparation. It was also evident that the needs of local stakeholders varied quite considerably between areas, as did their prior level of joint working. Nonetheless, nearly all pilot areas were fully engaged by the time the second workshops took place. The CASCADE framework provided a valuable benchmarking tool, and the workshops helped to focus decision-making and to push local stakeholders to set meaningful objectives. The subsequent national learning events were welcomed by the pilot sites and highlighted a real demand for sharing practices and experiences.

Overall, there is some evidence that the pilots had more impact where pre-existing arrangements were less well developed in terms of communication between schools and NHS CYPMHS at the start of the pilot programme, a willingness to engage in a meaningful two-way learning process, and a supportive framework and senior management backing to protect the time that was needed for staff to attend training and (to)⁵ inf. marker: textual, anaphoric engage in ongoing joint working. The benefits were often less apparent where the schools and NHS CYPMHS reported high levels of pre-existing contact, or where the joint working model represented less of a departure from established working arrangements. It was comparatively rare for schools or (for)⁶ Prep: textual, anaphoric NHS CYPMHS to hold an overall negative perception of their local pilot, but there were a few exceptional cases where schools’

expectations for training were mismatched, or where levels of contact time were felt to have been insufficient to meet schools' needs.

Impacts and outcomes

Together, the surveys and qualitative interviews provide convincing evidence that the pilot programme achieved many of the intended primary outcome measures.

There were strong and statistically significant outcomes relating to improvements in schools' knowledge (of mental health issues)⁷ Prep Ph: textual, cataphoric and (schools')⁸ PreM: textual, anaphoric awareness of mental health issues, understanding of referral routes and confidence in supporting children and young people among the school lead contacts. It is promising that these outcomes were also reported by the wider group of school-based professionals responding to the 'whole school' survey. This provides an indication that the models developed for the pilot had some success in cascading knowledge and awareness beyond the gate-keepers within each school. The qualitative research further underlined that the extra support provided by the NHS CYPMHS worker – particularly through direct support and consultation as well as training – was often hugely reassuring to school staff and helped to reduce anxiety and frustration at managing mental health issues that they felt ill equipped to deal with. In the best examples, the pilots were reported to have played an important role in building capacity for preventative work, although it usually required an investment in face-to-face contact time between NHS CYPMHS and school staff to affect these changes.

There was also clear evidence that the pilot programme contributed towards improvements in the frequency (of communication)⁹ Prep Ph: textual, cataphoric and quality of communication between schools and NHS CYPMHS within many of the pilot areas, although school-based mental health specialists nevertheless remained the 'go to' source of expertise for most schools at the end of the programme. Improvements in communication were achieved through a combination of the initial joint planning workshops and the ongoing lead contact arrangements. School staff consistently reported finding it easier to contact specialist NHS CYPMHS when they needed to and greater satisfaction with the quality of feedback provided. This closer communication was widely considered to have resulted in improvements to the quality of referrals from schools to NHS CYPMHS, although there was no evidence that the pilot had impacted upon overall numbers of referrals to specialist NHS CYPMHS.

The outcomes were slightly less pronounced regarding changes to whole school policies, resources and staffing within the pilot schools, although this would largely seem to reflect the timescales for the pilot programme, with school-level ‘systems changes’ anticipated to occur further down the line.

13.6 Appendix JS 1

Celebrated war reporter Clare Hollingworth dies aged 105.

Journalist and author who was the first to report the outbreak of the second world war dies in Hong Kong

Clare Hollingworth, the British foreign correspondent who has died aged 105, was just three days into her first journalism job when she landed the biggest scoop of her career.

Aged 27 and newly-hired by the Daily Telegraph, she was dispatched to Poland in August 1939 where she witnessed Nazi tanks gathering in their hundreds at the German-Polish border.

Her front page report, which ran without a byline, was headlined “1,000 tanks massed on Polish border. Ten divisions reported ready for swift strike” and broke the news of the outbreak of the second world war. It also heralded the start of an extraordinary career that saw Hollingworth report on many of the biggest stories of the 20th century.

Her death was confirmed on Tuesday in a short family statement on the Facebook page Celebrate Clare Hollingworth. It read: “We are sad to announce that after an illustrious career spanning a century of news, celebrated war correspondent Clare Hollingworth died this evening in Hong Kong.”

Hong Kong had been Hollingworth’s home since the 1980s, following a globe-trotting career for many newspapers including the Guardian, during which she bore witness to horrors in Vietnam, (in)¹ Prep: textual, anaphoric Algeria, (in)² Prep: textual, anaphoric the Middle East, (in)³ Prep: textual, anaphoric India and (in)⁴ Prep: textual, anaphoric Pakistan. She also reported on the cultural revolution in China, and (she)⁵ S: textual, anaphoric was credited with the first and last interviews with the shah of Iran.

Her impressive postwar scoops included the fact that Kim Philby was the so-called “third man’ in the Cambridge spy ring alongside Donald Maclean and Guy Burgess. In 1963, while working in Beirut for the Guardian, she wrote that Philby, who (was)⁶ Aux: structural working for the Observer in the same city, was missing and (was)⁷ Aux: textual, anaphoric suspected of defecting to Russia.

She was bitterly disappointed when the Guardian, fearing a libel suit, put the story on hold for three months. When it was published, other papers picked it up. Shortly afterwards the government admitted (that)⁸ Conj: structural it believed (that)⁹ Conj: structural Philby had indeed fled to Russia.

Born in Leicester in 1911 and raised on a farm, Hollingworth attended domestic science college at her father's insistence before going to work as secretary to the League of Nations organiser in Worcester. She won a scholarship to the School of Slavonic Studies at London University, and then (she)¹⁰ S: textual, anaphoric attended Zagreb university to study Croatian.

As a young political activist she began working for a charity in Europe that helped save thousands of refugees from the Nazis. She booked a Christmas holiday to Kitzbuhel in Austria in 1938, but instead (she)¹¹ S: textual, anaphoric carried out reconnaissance in the ski resort, acquiring a Nazi-approved visa that would allow her to work for the British Committee for Refugees from Czechoslovakia.

Sent to Katowice, she led an operation to help refugees get visas to come to Britain. Archives suggest (that)¹² Conj: structural she helped between 2,000 and 3,000 people get to the UK, but her work was shut down in July 1939, with letters from M15 suggesting (that)¹³ Conj: structural there were complaints from those in the corridors of power that "undesirables" such as Germans, Jews and communists were arriving in Britain with visas she had signed.

Back in London, she "ran into" the editor of the Daily Telegraph and convinced him to send her back to Poland as a stringer. Once there, she borrowed a diplomat's car and (she)¹⁴ S: textual, anaphoric drove into German-held territory, where she saw tanks, artillery and armoured cars.

She would later say that the British embassy in Warsaw was so disbelieving of her account that she was forced to hold her telephone receiver out of her hotel window in Katowice for the diplomat to hear the Wehrmacht for himself.

Of her scoop, she told the Telegraph in 2009: "I broke the story when I was very, very young. I went there to look after the refugees, the blind, the deaf and the dumb. While I was there, the war suddenly came into being"

After the Russian army entered Poland, she moved to Bucharest and (she)¹⁵ S: textual, anaphoric worked for the Daily Express. She later covered the Middle East for the Economist and (for)¹⁶

Prep: textual, anaphoric the Observer, then (she)¹⁷ S: textual, anaphoric moved to Paris for the Guardian, and from there (she moved)¹⁸ S + VP: textual, anaphoric to Beirut. She returned to the Daily Telegraph in 1967 and (she)¹⁹ S: textual, anaphoric was posted to China in 1973, remaining in Asia for the rest of her days.

She narrowly escaped death in 1946 when a bomb blast destroyed the King David Hotel in Jerusalem, killing almost 100 people. She was just 300 yards away.

Hollingworth married twice, to the writer Vandeleur Robinson and then to the Times journalist Geoffrey Hoare, who gave her a stepdaughter. She dismissed the idea of having children of her own, preferring to devote herself to work. She was the author of five books drawing on her extraordinary experiences.

She once said of her career: “When I was very small, in world war one, I used to hear people talk about the battles, and I did become extremely interested in warfare. I’m not brave, I just enjoy it.”

“She kept no family photographs or children’s drawings,” her great nephew Patrick Garrett, the author of *Of Fortune and War: Clare Hollingworth, First of the Female War Correspondents*, once wrote. “Her entire life has been defined by her work. To her, breaking news is all that really matters.”

She was a celebrated member of the Foreign Correspondent’s Club (FCC) in Hong Kong, having her own corner table which she used to visit almost daily. The FCC president, Tara Joseph, said: “Clare had a remarkable career as a foreign correspondent, beginning with the scoop of the century when she reported the start of world war two.” A wake will be held at the club in her honour.

Her latter years were blighted by poor sight, limited mobility and failing memory to the extent that she appeared to believe (that)²⁰ Conj: structural she was only one phone call away from her next foreign assignment, and (she was)²¹ S + VP: textual, anaphoric still ensured (that)²² Conj: structural her passport was kept up to date in the event of a commission. She was also embroiled in legal action over her life savings.

Hollingworth received the James Cameron award for journalism in 1994 and a lifetime achievement award at the What the Papers Say awards in 1999.

13.7 Appendix JS 2

By the time I reached my late 20s, I was desperately looking for a way out of Beijing. From 2001 onwards, the city was consumed by preparations for the 2008 Olympics. Every bus route had to be redirected. Every building was covered in scaffolding. Highways were springing up around Beijing like thick noodles oozing from the ground, with complicated U-turns and roundabouts. The city was surrounded by a moonscape of construction sites. Living there had become a visual (torture)¹ H of NP: textual, cataphoric and logistical torture. For me, as a writer and film-maker, it was also becoming impossible artistically, with increasing restraints placed on my work.

The opportunity to leave came sooner than I could have hoped. I heard that the Chevening scholarship and the British Council were looking for talent in China. I had never heard of Chevening. Someone told me (that)² Conj: structural it was a large historical mansion in Kent. My mind was instantly filled with images from *The Forsyte Saga* – one of the most-watched English television programmes on the Chinese internet. The wealthy housewives of Beijing in particular loved the fancy houses and rich people dressed in elegant costumes riding about on white horses. So I applied as a film-maker.

Eight months later, after many stressful exams, the British Council in Beijing called me in. “Congratulations! You are one of three people in China this year who’ve won the scholarship! You beat 500 other candidates!” The English lady brought me a cup of tea with a big smile. She also handed me back my passport with a UK visa in it.

When I told my parents the news, they were rather surprised, but (they)³ S: textual, anaphoric both thought (that)⁴ Conj: structural it sounded like a great opportunity. “Your father says (that)⁵ Conj: structural he is very proud of you!” my mother said. “All your years of studying now make sense.” Then she added: “You said (that)⁶ Conj: structural the scholarship is from England. Do you mean Great Britain?”

“Yes. (I mean)⁷ S + VP: textual, anaphoric Great Britain,” I confirmed.

“That’s great. (That’s)⁸ S + VP: textual, anaphoric Greater than United States, (am I)⁹ VP + S: situational right?” my mother said, drawing her conclusions from her Maoist education of the 1960s. But I knew that she had no idea about either Britain or America. The only thing she knew about

those countries was that they were in the west. “You should take a rice cooker with you. I heard that westerners don’t use rice cookers.”

I remember very well the day I left China. It was 1 April, and the Beijing sandstorm season had begun. I dragged my luggage towards the subway, choking in the sandy soup. This was my chance to escape the world I had grown up in. But that world was trying one last time to keep me.

“I will be walking under a gentle and moist English sky soon,” I said to myself. “It nurtures rather than hinders its inhabitants. I will breathe in the purest Atlantic sea air and (I will)^{10 S+} Aux: textual, anaphoric live on an island called Britain.” All this was destined to be nothing more than a memory.

When I arrived at Heathrow, there was no one to pick me up, and all I had was a reservation letter for a student hostel near Marylebone station in central London. Dragging my luggage, I jumped into a taxi. As I looked out at the streets through the rain-drenched window of the taxi, it smelled damp and soggy. The air clung to my cheeks. The sky was dim and the city drew a low and squat outline against the horizon: not very impressive.

We travelled slowly, through unfamiliar, traffic-jammed streets. Everything felt threatening: the policemen moving about the street corner with their hands resting on their truncheons, long queues of grey-faced people at bus stops but no one (was)¹¹ Aux: structural talking, fire engines shooting through the traffic with howling sirens.

I realised that I knew nothing about this country at all. I had planted myself in alien soil. And, most of all, my only tool of communication was a jumble of half-grammatically-correct sentences. In China I had learned that the population of Britain was equal to that of my little province, Zhejiang. Perhaps it was true, since the streets didn’t look that grand, especially the motorways, which were even uglier than the ones in China. Everything was one size smaller, or even two. Still, here I was. As the Chinese say, *ruxiang suisu* – once in the village, you must follow their customs.

Before I left China, I was desperately looking for something: freedom, the chance to live as an individual with dignity. This was impossible in my home country. But I was also blindly looking for something connected to the west, something non-ideological, something imaginative and romantic. But as I walked along the London streets, trying to save every

penny for buses or food, I lost sight of my previous vision. London seemed no more spiritually fulfilling than home. Instead, I was faced with a world of practical problems and difficulties. Perhaps I was looking for great writers to meet or (for)¹² Prep: textual, anaphoric great books to read, but I could barely decipher a paragraph of English.

Still, in my naive mind, I was convinced (that)¹³ Conj: structural I would find an artistic movement to be part of, something like the Beat generation or the Dadaists of the old Europe. But all I encountered were angry teenagers who screamed at me as they passed on their stolen bikes and (who)¹⁴ S: textual, anaphoric grabbed my bag – they were the most frightening group (which/that)¹⁵ Od: structural I had ever met in my life. Before I came to England, I thought (that)¹⁶ Conj: structural all British teenagers attended elite boarding schools such as Eton, spoke posh and wore perfect black suits. It was a stupid assumption, no doubt. But all I had to go on were the English period dramas that showed rich people in plush mansions, as if that was how everyone lived in England.

In the evenings, I hid my long hair in my coat and (I)¹⁷ S: textual, anaphoric walked along the graffiti-smearred streets and piss-drenched alleyways, passing beggars with their dogs, and I asked myself: “So is this what the rich west is really like?” If that was the case, I wanted to cry. (I wanted to)¹⁸ S + Aux: textual, anaphoric Cry for my own stupid illusions. What an idiot I was. Now I realised (that)¹⁹ Conj: structural there had been some truth to my own country’s communist education: the west was not milk and honey.

13.8 Appendix JS 3

Was there ever a time when so few people controlled so much wealth?

Two things are clear: radical new ways of getting rich have been invented, and things have probably never been this unequal since before the second world war

Oxfam’s latest report claims that income inequality has reached a new global extreme, exceeding even its predictions from the previous year. The figures behind this claim are striking – just 62 individuals now hold the same wealth as the bottom half of humanity, compared with 80 (individuals)¹ H of NP: textual, anaphoric in 2014 and 388 (individuals)² H of NP: textual, anaphoric in 2010. It appears that not only have the global elite weathered the financial crisis, but their fortunes have collectively improved.

Our objections to inequality, the report notes, are not driven simply by a desire to improve our own material standard of living. Rising inequality is one of the surest signs of the failure of economic growth to make things better for us all. The accompanying decline in the income shares of the bottom 50% since 2010 suggests that although governments across the world have been quick to tout their role in bringing about a global “recovery”, the rewards of that recovery have been very selectively spread.

It would be foolish to pretend (that)³ Conj: structural wealth inequality is a product of the liberal capitalism of the past couple of hundred years. Peppered throughout recorded history are examples of exceptional wealth deriving from the spoils of empire and warfare – the Roman emperor Caesar Augustus is thought to have controlled the equivalent of \$4.6tn – one-fifth of the total wealth of the empire. The richest man in history, according to Time magazine was Mansa Musa, the king of Timbuktu, who ruled from 1280 to 1337 when his kingdom was the biggest producer of gold in the world. His wealth, says Time, is beyond calculation: [he was] “richer than anyone could describe”.

Historical figures show how important military (force)⁴ H of NP: textual, cataphoric and legal force was for wealth accumulation, from the lands of Genghis Khan in the 13th century (once the largest empire in history), to the Chinese emperor Shenzong, who possessed up to 30% of global GDP at the height of his power in the 11th century.

Wealth accumulation in noncapitalistic societies was often predicated on forced seizure – a process known as “primitive accumulation”. The most famous instance was the English enclosure movement of the 18th and 19th centuries, which paved the way for the expansion of many great landed estates.

But is inequality inevitable in human society? In the late 19th century, evolutionary anthropologists such as Henry Maine and Lewis Morgan suggested that the human societies of their time may have evolved from less complex forms of clan-based societies into more complex class-based societies.

And in 2009 Elinor Ostrom was awarded the Nobel prize for her work on “common-pool” systems – societies in which resources were pooled for the good of the community, (which is)⁵ S + VP: structural in ways often at odds with our modern conception of private property.

Ostrom’s work demonstrated that, where conditions were favourable, these systems, such as fisheries, irrigation systems, common grazing and forests, thrived. Discussion continues today as to whether these forms of social organisation were widespread throughout much of human history and whether our more “unequal” forms of modern society may have evolved from this egalitarian base.

The jury is also very much out on the question of whether human societies have always been capitalist. While many argue that certain features of capitalist societies were present throughout all of human history (Adam Smith’s famous statement on the human propensity to “truck, barter, and trade”), the institutions that together make up modern capitalism were not (present throughout all of human history)⁶ VP + Adv Ph: textual, anaphoric .

In the feudal societies of the Middle Ages for example, the ability of any individual to accumulate material wealth was largely constrained by the amount of “things” (which/that)⁷ Od: structural they could reasonably possess. While there were forms of credit and developed money systems, there were nonetheless some “absolute” limits on what one could physically amass (usually depending on direct coercion).

Today the accumulation of wealth does not depend solely on material goods, or claims on real assets such as property, means of production such as industrial plant and infrastructure – or indeed people (in the US during slave-owning days the possession of slaves constituted a sizeable portion of one’s capital).

The economist Thomas Piketty points out that much wealth in classical literature seems to derive from rent-generating property in the hands of a limited number of people. But today, our fractional reserve banking systems mean that much of our money supply does not exist in physical form. Paper money is just a small portion of a bank's balance sheet, with liabilities in the form of debt constituting much of the remainder.

One of the chief innovations of the last century, and indeed one of the key culprits involved in rising inequality identified by Oxfam, is the growth of an industry of tradable intangible assets in the form of financial instruments. Indeed, deregulation of the financial industry has been one of the most significant processes feeding into rising inequality in recent years.

The years after the Great Depression of the 1930s were also ones of regulatory reform. The US Glass-Steagall Act of 1933 kept commercial (banking)⁸ H of NP: textual, cataphoric and investment banking largely separate, while tight controls were maintained on foreign transactions in many European countries.

But much of this was swept away during the late 20th century. Before the financial crisis, the repackaging of high-risk mortgages and their subsequent trading on financial markets offered an ideal opportunity for capital-endowed investors to make sizable profits while ultimately hedging the immediate risk on to homeowners.

Little is today beyond the reach of investment markets, from mortgages to carbon emissions, to speculation on the future performances of companies. Whether or not the world has ever been as unequal before, we can at least say that the opportunities for wealth accumulation today are radically different from those of the past.

Part of the problem in establishing precisely whether the world has ever been as unequal is that we simply lack the data. The best estimates derive from the World Top Incomes study, the earliest of which for the UK dates to 1918. On this basis at least – where data can be compared between countries and where methods of calculation are standardised – we can say that things have scarcely been this unequal since before the second world war.

13.9 Appendix JS 4

Two more suspects have been detained in connection with the death of the North Korean dictator's estranged half-brother, Kim Jong-nam, as further details emerged of his final moments in Kuala Lumpur airport.

A female suspect identified from CCTV footage at the airport and a Malaysian man thought by police to be her boyfriend were arrested on Thursday.

The Malaysian inspector general said (that)¹ Conj: structural the female suspect had been identified as Siti Aishah, an Indonesian national. Her birthday was given as 11 February 1992, and (her)² D: textual, anaphoric place of birth (was given)³ VP: textual, anaphoric as Serang, Indonesia. It is not clear if her passport was genuine. Police said (that)⁴ Conj: structural the Malaysian man provided information that led to her arrest.

On Wednesday police arrested a 28-year-old woman, whose Vietnamese passport bore the name Doan Thi Huong. She too had been positively identified from CCTV footage and (she)⁵ S: textual, anaphoric was alone at the time of her arrest, the inspector general said. Still photos from the video, confirmed as authentic by police, showed a woman in a skirt and long-sleeved white T-shirt with "LOL" emblazoned on it.

Malaysian police have reportedly been granted permission to remand both women in custody for seven days.

Kim died after apparently being killed with a fast-acting poison as he prepared to board a flight to his home in Macau on Monday morning. The attack on Kim, who suddenly fell ill at the airport and (who)⁶ S: textual, anaphoric died on the way to hospital, was over in five seconds, Malaysian newspaper the New Strait Times (NST) reported on Thursday.

Citing CCTV footage, the paper said (that)⁷ Conj: structural Kim was standing in a small crowd near a self check-in counter when one of the alleged attackers stood in front of him to distract him, while another (attacker)⁸ H of NP: textual, anaphoric locked him in a chokehold and administered the substance that appears to have killed him.

According to the paper, CCTV appeared to show the suspect who poisoned Kim walking briskly towards a taxi stand wearing a dark-coloured glove on her left hand. When footage picked her up again at the stand, the glove had gone.

Kim was taken to an airport clinic after seeking help for a headache at an information counter, nurses at the airport said. Footage showed Kim with his eyes shut, grimacing in pain at the clinic, NST said.

An autopsy was completed late on Wednesday, but the results have not been released.

Police said (that)⁹ Conj: structural they were seeking “a few” other suspects in connection with the killing, but declined to say how many were being sought, or their nationalities.

The death has set off a torrent of speculation over whether Kim Jong-un dispatched a hit squad to kill his estranged older sibling, possibly as retribution for criticisms (which/that)¹⁰ Od: structural his elder brother made against his leadership in interviews with the Japanese journalist Yoji Gomi in 2012.

It has also focused attention on the apparent lengths to which North Korea will go to ensure the regime’s stability.

According to Malaysian media reports, North Korean officials spent hours trying to persuade Malaysia not to conduct an autopsy and for Kim’s body to be handed over to Pyongyang.

Malaysia refused the request, since North Korea did not submit a formal protest, according to Abdul Samah Mat, a senior Malaysian police official. Authorities did however confirm that the body was that of Kim Jong-nam and would be taken to North Korea after the autopsy.

While Pyongyang has made no official comment on Kim’s death, it has not attempted to conceal its interest in his fate. On Wednesday, it sent a black Jaguar car with diplomatic number plates and (diplomatic)¹¹ PreM: textual, anaphoric flags to the mortuary at the Kuala Lumpur hospital where the autopsy was conducted.

Kim Jong-un’s five-year rule of North Korea has been marked by purges and executions of people perceived as a threat to his leadership.

The highest-profile victim was his uncle, Jang Song-thaek, who was executed on treason charges in late 2013. Jang, once considered his nephew's most trusted adviser, was also believed to have been close to Kim Jong-nam, whom he had helped raise.

Kim Jong-nam attempted to lead an unremarkable life with his family in Macau, according to exchanges with Gomi.

“Because I was educated in the west, I was able to enjoy freedom from early age and I still love being free,” he told Gomi, whose book on Kim was published in 2012. “The reason I visit Macau so often is because it's the most free and liberal place near China, where my family lives.”

Kim Byung-kee, a South Korean MP, said (that)¹² Conj: structural intelligence services had told him (that)¹³ Conj: structural Kim Jong-un professed to “hate” his half-brother, whom he feared could one day play a role in overthrowing his regime.

The spy agency has also made unverified claims that North Korea had spent five years attempting to kill Kim Jong-nam.

It cited a “genuine” attempt in 2012 after Kim Jong-nam described his sibling as “just a nominal figure”, and lambasted the country's hereditary transfer of power as a “joke to the outside world”.

“The Kim Jong-un regime will not last long,” he told Gomi. “Without reforms, North Korea will collapse, and when such changes take place, the regime will collapse.”

He is reported to have written to Kim Jong-un after the 2012 assassination attempt in which he pleaded with his brother to assure his safety and that of his family.

The letter said: “I hope (that)¹⁴ Conj: structural you cancel the order for the punishment of me and my family. We have nowhere to go, nowhere to hide, and we know that the only way to escape is committing suicide.”

Kim Jong-nam may have succeeded his father, Kim Jong-il, had he not embarrassed the regime in May 2001 with an attempt to enter Japan on a faked Dominican Republic passport.

Kim, accompanied by his wife, another woman believed to be a nanny, and his four-year-old son, were attempting to visit Tokyo Disneyland. They were sent back to North Korea via Beijing, but the incident appeared to end any hopes (which/that)¹⁵ Od: structural Kim had of succeeding his father.

13.10 Appendix JS 5

Nina Gold reveals the secrets of her job, how she tackles diversity, and her joy at the success of John Boyega and (of)¹ Prep: textual, anaphoric Daisy Ridley

Game of Thrones fans are hoping to find out on Monday whether Jon Snow is really dead. Nina Gold, keeper of some of the most valuable secrets in showbusiness, already knows (whether John Snow is really dead).² Od: textual, anaphoric

The casting director on Game of Thrones, (on)³ Prep: textual, anaphoric Star Wars and (on)⁴ Prep: textual, anaphoric Wolf Hall, Gold is the unseen force behind a string of hit TV shows and (hit)⁵ PreM: textual, anaphoric films.

Casting directors are among the most powerful figures in TV and film, able to make (careers)⁶ Od: textual, cataphoric or (to)⁷ inf. marker: textual, anaphoric break careers, but their world remains a secretive one (albeit not quite as closed as the Faith Militant).

Everyone knows what directors do, most people know what producers do, but how casting directors operate is a little more opaque.

“It’s a bit of a mystery to me,” laughs Gold. “It’s quite an ineffable sort of thing. It’s a lot about instinct and feeling, combined with analysis of people’s qualities and (people’s)⁸ PreM: textual, anaphoric essences, and somehow marrying them up with the needs of the character.”

Bafta will attempt to put that right on Sunday when Gold becomes the first casting director to receive one of its special prizes at the academy’s TV craft awards.

It recognises Gold’s involvement in an extraordinary number of hits in film (The Imitation Game, The Martian, The Theory of Everything) and on TV (London Spy, The Fall, Netflix’s forthcoming royal epic, The Crown).

The role is rarely recognised in TV or film awards on either side of the Atlantic. “It’s incredibly unfair isn’t it?” she says. “It’s the undefinable nature of what one is doing that is the problem, I guess.”

It was Gold who made household names out of John Boyega and Daisy Ridley, the young stars who play Finn and Ray in JJ Abrams’s Star Wars sequel, The Force Awakens.

Gold will cast the young Han Solo in the spinoff origin film (will it be Taron Egerton? “I don’t think (that)⁹ Conj: structural we have a new Han Solo yet. Not today”) and (Gold)¹⁰ S: textual, anaphoric knows what really happens to Jon Snow. Wasn’t Kit Harington’s long hair a dead giveaway?

“It could just be for Doctor Faustus [in which Harington is starring on the London stage],” says Gold. “He could be back in it with no hair. Anything could happen.”

She is “incredibly proud” of Boyega and (of)¹¹ Prep: textual, anaphoric his co-star Ridley. “Boy did they rise to the occasion,” she says. “It’s an incredible achievement for two young actors to get into it and just (to)¹² inf. marker: textual, anaphoric own it the way (which/that)¹³ Od: structural they did.”

Gold says (that)¹⁴ Conj: structural it was a “pinch yourself” moment to be involved in the rebooted sci-fi saga, and (it)¹⁵ S: textual, anaphoric happened to first meet Abrams on Star Wars Day (4 May). “It was all completely great and amazing,” she adds.

She also cast the first ever female villain in the Star Wars franchise, with Gwendoline Christie (Game of Thrones’ Brienne of Tarth) as chrome-clad stormtrooper Captain Phasma in the new film.

Asked if when she cast Christie she was making a statement about gender bias in TV and film, Gold says: “To be honest that wasn’t a moment ... we were just trying to think of somebody who would be good in the part.

“I think (that)¹⁶ Conj: structural everyone had assumed (that)¹⁷ Conj: structural it would be a man and we suddenly thought (that)¹⁸ Conj: structural Gwendoline would be great and she was (great).¹⁹ Cs: textual, anaphoric They were completely open to it and hopefully it will go further.

“There are some instances when you say, ‘why does this character have to be a man?’, and if there’s not a really good reason then one should try to keep an open mind,” she adds. “You can’t always get people to take you up on it.”

Diversity, or rather the lack of it, has increasingly become a focus of industry attention, not least the number of high profile roles going to public school-educated stars such as Benedict Cumberbatch, Eddie Redmayne and Damian Lewis. Gold has cast all three of them, in The

Imitation Game, (in)²⁰ Prep: textual, anaphoric Theory of Everything and (in)²¹ Prep: textual, anaphoric Wolf Hall respectively.

“These things go in little phases, probably. On British TV we have a lot of period stuff which brings questions of class into play,” says Gold.

“The top British male actors of today, Dominic West, Eddie Redmayne, Benedict Cumberbatch and Damian Lewis are all Eton or Harrow. But then you’ve also got Tom Hardy, Michael Fassbender – not English but we want him to be – and James McAvoy, they’re not that and they are also right up there and incredibly brilliant.

“A few years ago it was Gary Oldman and Tim Roth and those people. I don’t know if it’s as massively significant as it’s cracked up to be.”

Game of Thrones has also been criticised for its lack of diversity.

“I think (that)²² Conj: structural we have cast Game of Thrones in the way that is true to the source material,” is Gold’s response. “The books are very detailed about each family and the way they look and their individual cultures and dynasties.”

On the broader issue of black, Asian and minority ethnic representation across the industry, Gold says: “There is still a lot to be done but I do think it is changing. It has to start with the writing, which is becoming more diverse and open to diverse casting. Things are shifting.”

Gold cast her first project at Cambridge University when she was asked to find a bunch of friends with leather jackets to star in an AC/DC video.

“I thought ‘this is absolutely brilliant and what I want to do’, and one thing led to another,” she recalls. “I didn’t really have any plans, I was very immature at the time. I still haven’t got any plans past the end of this conversation.”

She went on to become a regular collaborator with film and TV veteran Mike Leigh and (with)²³ Prep: textual, anaphoric King’s Speech director Tom Hooper.

Wolf Hall leads the nominations for next month’s Bafta TV awards with four, including a best actor nod for its Oscar-winning star, Mark Rylance. But it took a while to convince the former

Globe artistic director to come on board the BBC2 show co-starring Claire Foy and Damian Lewis, and directed by Peter Kosminsky.

“We had been trying to get Mark Rylance to do it for about two years and eventually he said yes,” Gold says. “He’s just incredibly busy and likes doing his theatre. These are big decisions and his life is booked up very far ahead.”