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**USE OF SUBORDINATE CLAUSES
IN THE NEWSPAPER *THE IRISH TIMES***

**PAKĀRTOJUMA PALĪGTEIKUMU LIETOJUMS
LAIKRAKSTĀ *THE IRISH TIMES***

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ANOTĀCIJA

Sintakse un pakārtojuma palīgteikumi ir pētīti dažādos diskursos, taču ir veikti tikai pāris pētījumi šajā jomā laikrakstā *The Irish Times*. Tāpēc šī pētījuma mērķis bija analizēt pakārtojuma palīgteikumu minētajā laikrakstā, noteikt to visbiežāk sastopamo atrašanās pozīciju teikumā un noskaidrot kādi pakārtojuma palīgteikumu veidi ir atrodami iepriekšminētajā laikrakstā. Šī pētījuma rezultāti atklāj, ka lielākajā daļā gadījumu pakārtojuma palīgteikumi atradās teikuma vidū vai beigās, taču tika atklāti tikai daži gadījumi, kad pakārtojuma palīgteikums atradās teikuma sākumā. Turklāt, vislielākais skaits piemēru finīta formā bija apzīmējoši, lai gan apstākļa pakārtojuma palīgteikumi finīta formā arī veidoja ievērojamu skaitu gadījumu. Mazākā skaitā piemēru tika atklāti nominālie pakārtojuma palīgteikumi finīta formā, bet korpuss neietvēra nevienu gadījumu ar salīdzinājuma pakārtojuma palīgteikumu finīta formā.

Atslēgvārdi: pakārtojuma palīgteikumi, pakārtojuma palīgteikumu novietojums teikumā, pakārtojuma palīgteikumu veidi, *The Irish Times*, diskursa analīze.

ABSTRACT

Syntax and subordinate clauses have been studied in various discourses; however, little has been done regarding the newspaper *The Irish Times*. Therefore, the aim of this research was to analyse the use subordinate clauses in the newspaper, determine their most common positions in a sentence and to find out what types of subordinate clauses appear in the articles of the previously mentioned newspaper. The results of this research reveal that in most of the cases subordinate clauses were either positioned medially or at the end of its superordinate clause; only a few instances of an initial subordinate clause were detected in the selected newspaper articles. In addition, the largest number of finite subordinate clauses were relative; however, adverbial finite clauses also accounted a significant number of instances. Finite nominal subordinate clauses were detected in less examples and the corpus did not contain any instances of finite comparative subordinate clauses.

Key words: subordinate clauses, positions of subordinate clauses in a sentence, types of subordinate clauses, *The Irish Times*, discourse analysis.

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INTRODUCTION

The theme of the present paper is 'Use of Subordinate Clauses in the Newspaper *The Irish Times*'. As the name suggests, this research explores newspaper discourse and the use of subordinate clauses in it.

Several scholars stress the reason for investigating the field of media discourse to a further extent and the motive for investigating it so widely nowadays. For instance, Matheson emphasises that discourse analysis of media provides us with important information which 'allows us to describe and assess this sharing of meaning in close detail, it analyses which representations of the social world predominate and it analyses how meaning is made differently in different media texts' (Matheson, 2005:1).

O' Keeffe stresses other aspects why researchers are interested in exploring media discourse. According to her, discourse analysts are curious to investigate this field because media discourse is recorded and newspapers, radio stations, as well as television programmes are nowadays available online (2012:441).

This wide availability of the material is also one of the main reasons why media discourse is presently investigated so extensively. However, Matheson (2005) highlights the importance of the analysis of media discourse in a slightly different way; he considers that it is essential to explore the types of media interactions media content provides and the meaning in distinct media texts. The theories mentioned above concern both spoken and written media discourse; however, this paper focuses on written media discourse and newspapers in particular.

The newspaper *The Irish Times* belongs to the media discourse; however no research has been done regarding the previously mentioned newspaper. Several researches have been done regarding the use of subordinate clauses in various areas, for instance Rafajlovičová (2012) has researched and compared the role and occurrence of dependent clauses in different text types.

The newspaper *The Irish Times* is not investigated so extensively; therefore, **the aim** of this bachelor thesis is to analyse the use of subordinate clauses in the mentioned newspaper.

In order to attain the aim, the following **research questions** were stated:

1. What are the most common positions of subordinate clauses in a sentence?
2. What types of subordinate clauses (according to their syntactic functions) are used in the articles of the newspaper *The Irish Times*?

In order to carry out the research, several **enabling objectives** were proposed:

1. to read and analyse the theoretical literature on newspaper discourse, genre, sentences, types and positions of sentences, types of clauses and subordinate clauses in particular;
2. to analyse the use of subordinate clauses in the newspaper *The Irish Times*;
3. to draw relevant conclusions.

The **research method** used for the theoretical part was literature review. This part of the research paper is based on theories by a number of authors, such as Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S., Leech, G., Svartvik, J. (1985), Stubbs, Leech and Short, van Dijk (1988), Greenbaum (1996), Biber et al. (1999), Howarth (2000), Thornborrow and Wareing (1998), Swales, Hodge and Kress (1988), Hyland (2004), Reah (2002), Bhatia (2004), Mills (2004), Bednarek (2007), Bednarek and Caple (2012), Cortina-Borja and Chappas (2006) and Busá (2014), Pape and Featherstone (2005) Carter and McCarthy (2006), Greenbaum and Nelson (2002). Moreover, discourse analysis is used for the empirical part of the research. The empirical part investigates the use of subordinate clauses in the corpus which consists of 30 articles from the newspaper *The Irish Times* published in April, 2017.

Chapter 1 encompasses literature review, which includes theories on newspaper discourse and genre. This chapter includes several subchapters which the concept of discourse, the concept of genre and newspaper discourse to a greater detail. Chapter 2 includes theories on sentences in general, types of sentences, clause relationships and types of subordinate clauses as well as their subordinators. In addition, chapter 3 contains the description of the methodology used for the analysis, the texts analysed, as well as an overview of the data obtained from the analysis which are substantiated with examples and figures.

1 DISCOURSE AND GENRE

This chapter explores newspaper discourse and genre. It is necessary to explore the concept of discourse in general before considering newspaper discourse as such. This subchapter explores theories by such authors as van Dijk (1988), Thornborrow and Wareing (1998), Mills (2004), Howarth (2000), Stubbs, Leech and Short, Bhatia (2004).

In addition, the second subchapter, which examines the concept of genre, is based on theories by Swales, Hodge and Kress (1988), Hyland (2004) and Bhatia (2004).

As this research analyses newspaper discourse and the newspaper 'The Irish Times' in particular, the third subchapter investigates newspaper discourse, as well as its main features and characteristics which are proposed by several scholars. This subchapter examines theories by Cotter (2001), O'Keeffe (2012), Matheson (2005), Reah (2002), Bednarek (2007), Bednarek and Caple (2012), Cortina-Borja and Chappas (2006), Busá (2014) as well as Pape and Featherstone (2005).

1.1 The concept of discourse

Newspaper discourse is a part of the whole concept of discourse; therefore, discourse as such should be investigated to a greater extent.

The Routledge Dictionary of Language and Linguistics states that discourse is a 'generic term for various types of text' (1998). *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics* state that *discourse* is 'a general term for examples of language use, i.e. language which has been produced as the result of an act of communication' (2010). In addition, *The Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar* also provides a definition which mentions that *discourse* can involve both spoken and written communication. The dictionary defines the concept of *discourse* as 'a connected stretch of language, usually bigger than a sentence, and particularly viewed as interaction between speakers, or between a writer and reader(s)' (2014:123).

The Routledge Dictionary of Language and Linguistics provides a concise summary of how the concept of *discourse* has developed over the time and how it initially has been used by several scholars

the term has been used with various differences in meaning: connected speech (Harris, 1952), the product of an interactive process in a sociocultural context (Pike, 1954), performance (versus 'text' as a representation of the formal grammatical structure of discourse) (Van Dijk, 1974), talk (versus written prose or 'text') (Cicourel, 1975), conversational interaction (Coulthard, 1977), 'language in context across all forms and modes' (Tannen, 1981), and process (versus product or 'text') (Brown and Yule, 1983) (*The Routledge Dictionary of Language and Linguistics*, 1998).

Earlier scholars point out different features of *text* and *discourse*. Stubbs (1983) states that ‘text and discourse are more or less synonymous, but text may be written, while a discourse is spoken, a text may be non-interactive, whereas a discourse is interactive [...] a text may be short or long, whereas a discourse implies a certain length’ (as cited in Hawthorn, 1992:189). Also, he adds that a *text* must have a surface cohesion, while a *discourse* must have a deeper coherence (ibid.).

Leech and Short have a similar view on the concept of discourse, and they point out the same differences between *discourse* and *text*. According to Leech and Short, *discourse* can be defined as ‘linguistic communication seen as a transaction between speaker and hearer, as an interpersonal activity whose form is determined by its social purpose’ (as cited in Hawthorn, 1992:189). They contrast the concept of *text* by stating that it is also ‘linguistic communication, but it is seen simply as a message coded in its auditory or visual medium’ (ibid.). Van Dijk offers another definition of the term *discourse* and states that ‘it is a complex unit of linguistic form, meaning and action that might best be captured under the notion of a communicative event or communicative act’ (1988b:8). However, the author does not immediately specify whether it is a written or spoken occurrence, but mentions similarly to other scholars that it is a ‘communicative event’.

However, the concept of *discourse* is interpreted accordingly also in the contemporary world. More recently linguists have offered slightly different theories about the concept of *discourse* and its interpretation. For example, Bhatia states that *discourse* is the ‘language use in institutional, professional or more general social contexts’ (2004: 3). He explains that it can be in a spoken or a written form (ibid.). In addition, Thornborrow and Wareing define *discourse* as ‘any piece of connected language, written or spoken, which contains more than one sentence’ (1998:240). Crystal provides a similar definition to the one offered by Thornborrow and Wareing and claims that *discourse* is ‘a continuous stretch of (especially spoken) language larger than a sentence’ (Crystal, 2003:148).

Mills states that the term *discourse* is not frequently defined in many theoretical texts and at the same time it has more meanings than any other term (2004:1). Also, the term is used numerous disciplines, for example, linguistics, sociology, critical theory, social psychology and other fields (ibid.).

To sum up, the concept of *discourse* is commonly referred to as linguistic communication. Some scholars point out the disparity and differentiate between *text* and *discourse*; they claim that discourse usually occurs in spoken, while text in written form. However, more recently researchers emphasize the topicality of discourse nowadays and state

that *discourse* is language usually longer than a sentence and it may be both spoken and written.

1.2 Newspaper discourse

Cotter states that ‘the discourse of news media encapsulates two key components: the news story, or spoken or written text; and the process involved in producing the texts’ (2001:416). He adds that the terms news and media can be used interchangeably, because ‘what is considered news comprises a great portion of what is transmitted through the media’ (ibid.:417). Cotter also mentions that news can appear in three main forms – ‘print, broadcast and web’ (ibid.).

O’Keeffe offers another definition on the concept of media discourse. According to the author, media discourse concerns the ‘interactions that take place through a broadcast platform, whether spoken or written, in which the discourse is oriented to a non-present reader, listener or viewer’ (2012:441). O’Keeffe also points out that media is ‘a public, manufactured, on-record form of interaction’ (ibid.). This statement implies it is widely accessible by a large number of people. It also means that it is not spontaneous most of the time, and it is very important to research the information which reaches the readers, viewers or listeners (ibid.).

Besides, the term news can be defined in various ways. For instance, Reah describes news as ‘information about recent events that are of interest to a sufficiently large group, or that may affect the lives of a sufficiently large group’ (ibid.:4). Pape and Featherstone provide another definition and state that news is ‘something new that has just happened or is about to happen; something that is immediate, exciting, unusual, unexpected, amazing, vital, important and interesting’ (2005:15). It means that news include information which is interesting, new and even surprising for the public. Both of the definitions emphasize that news is something recent and important; however, Pape and Featherstone (2005) add many other properties of news in their definition which indicate that news can cover various topics in order to be ‘exciting, unusual or unexpected’.

In addition, as news articles can include information about different topics, they can be categorized into two main types. Pape and Featherstone distinguish between hard and soft news. The authors explain that hard news ‘deal with topical events or issues that have an immediate or catastrophic or life-changing effect on the individuals concerned’ (2005:22). Most of the time hard news is ‘bad news and deals with serious matters that require equal weight to be attached to both the who and the what’ (ibid.). Besides, Pape and Featherstone state that soft news can also be important or topical, but it ‘has more of a human interest

focus' and soft news is infrequently as 'life-changing' as hard news (ibid.). In addition, Busá also divides news into hard and soft news (2014:36). Her definition of hard news is similar to the one offered by Pape and Featherstone (2005); however, Busá adds that hard news are usually about 'crimes, wars, disasters, it can also simply deal with politics or economics' and these kinds of news articles are oftentimes put on front pages of a newspaper (ibid.:37). Additionally, Busá makes further comment on soft news and mentions that they normally are about 'arts, entertainment, sports, lifestyle and celebrities' (ibid.). Consequently, it is possible to state that hard news usually deal with serious or topical events, and most of the time they can be bad or life-changing. On the other hand, soft news differ from hard news; they are not so serious and normally include entertaining information which is not as important as hard news.

It is also necessary to define the term newspaper itself. Collins COBUILD Advanced English dictionary states that newspaper is 'a publication consisting of a number of large sheets of folded paper, on which news, advertisements and other information is printed' (2012). In addition, Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English provides a similar definition which clarifies that newspaper is 'a set of large folded sheets of printed paper containing news, articles, pictures, advertisements, which is sold daily or weekly' (LDCE, 2008). Both definitions from the dictionaries stress that newspapers traditionally are printed on paper sheets which can be folded and feature not only news articles, but also advertisements and other components. However, the first dictionary did not mention any information about the frequency of publication.

Reah adds certain details on the topic of the content of a newspaper. The author states that 'the term newspaper suggests that the content of a newspaper will be primarily devoted to the news of the day, and some analysis and comment on this news' (2002:2). However, Reah also mentions that newspapers consist of other components as well, such as advertising and entertainment, and oftentimes most of the content is dedicated to components which are not news (ibid.).

Consequently, several linguists (Reah, 2002; Busá, 2014) mention that newspapers consist not only of the most important news of the day or week, but they also include other information, such as articles of entertaining nature and advertisements.

Most of the newspapers can be divided in certain categories. Tunstall (1996) classifies them as the broadsheet newspapers (e.g. Telegraph, The Independent, The Times, The Guardian); the middle-range tabloids (e.g. The Express, The Daily Mail); and the tabloids (e.g. The Sun, The Mirror, The Star) (as cited in Reah, 2002:2). However, certain newspapers do not fall into these categories, such as local newspapers and newspapers of particular

political groups (ibid.). In addition, Bednarek (2007), Bednarek and Caple (2012) as well as Cortina-Borja and Chappas distinguish only between broadsheet and tabloid newspapers (2006:292).

To sum up, news or media discourse usually occurs in printed, online or broadcast form. For the most part, news are recent, important, unusual, unexpected and interesting. Newspaper is a clear representation of the media discourse which commonly can be seen in printed or online version. When defining the term newspaper, several authors stress that it contains news articles as well as other components, such as opinions, entertainment and advertisements. Also, newspapers can be divided into three main types: broadsheet, middle-range tabloids and tabloids; however, other authors distinguish only between broadsheet and tabloid newspapers. In addition, it is possible to categorize news articles in two main groups – soft and hard news. Hard news are usually considered to be important and ‘life-changing’, while soft news deal with other information which oftentimes is for the purpose of entertainment.

1.3 News reporting genre

The concept of genre encompasses a number of features. Several authors have presented a definition and tried to further explain the characteristics of the concept of genre as well as news reporting genre.

Hodge and Kress define genres as ‘typical forms of texts which link producers, consumers, topic, medium, manner and occasion’ (1988:7). However, the linguists stress that a genre subsists as long as the structure and rules of a particular genre are established and administered by a social group (ibid.).

Swales (1990) defines genre as a ‘recognizable communicative event characterized by a set of communicative purposes identified and mutually understood by the members of the professional or academic community’ (as cited in Bhatia 2014:13). The first part of the definition by Swales, which mentions that a genre is described by ‘a set of communicative purposes’, means that a genre is also characterized by content, form, intended audience; however, the ‘communicative purposes’ create the genre itself and give it an internal structure (Swales, 1990:47). Every small change in the communicative purpose can change the genre into a different one. Also, the knowledge of the professionals in the community gives the genre a conventionalized internal structure (ibid.). Swales (1990) further explains that ‘most often it is highly structured and conventionalizes with constraints on allowable contributions in terms of their intent, positioning, form and functional value’ (as cited in Bhatia 2014:13).

This means that authors must take into account certain guidelines of a particular genre and cannot disregard them completely (ibid.:13-14).

In addition, Hyland provides a similar, but slightly simplified definition. He states that ‘genre is a term for grouping texts together, representing how writers typically use language to respond to recurring situations’ (2004:4). Hyland points out that people can easily recognize similar features in the frequently used texts and they are ‘able to draw on their repeated experiences with such texts to read, understand and perhaps write them relatively easy’ (ibid.).

One of the more simple definitions of *genre* (among the previously mentioned definitions) is stated in *The Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar* (2014). The dictionary entry of the concept of *genre* explains that it is ‘the type of text that a piece of writing or spoken discourse belongs to from the point of view of its purpose, setting, and conventions of language use’ (2014:178). This definition of *genre* also includes certain features of a genre mentioned by other scholars, for instance, both *The Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar* (2014) and Hyland (2004) agree that *genres* can be categorized and that each genre requires a certain use of language.

As this research analyses newspaper articles, it is necessary to explore the news reporting genre. Bhatia introduces reporting genre by saying that ‘reporting is perhaps one of the most popular and overly used “generic values” in all contexts of professional discourse across disciplines and domains today’ (2004:81). Bhatia points out that newspaper genres ‘have their own preferences in style, stance and substance’ (ibid.:188). The author explains that some articles are objective, some are interpretive, some are socially responsible, while other articles are sensational (ibid.). Despite being so different in their nature, most of the news articles still retain their ‘structure, interpretation and communication of intentions’ (ibid.).

In addition, news report on different topics, such as information technology, medicine, agriculture, finance, science, business and economics, can be seen every day (ibid.:82). Although different types of news reports belong to the same genre, there are several interesting inequalities, such as the use of special language, as well as their special rhetorical structuring (ibid.:82).

The present paper investigates the use of subordinate clauses; therefore, it is necessary to look at what different scholars and analysts have concluded about the style which appears in newspaper articles.

Van Dijk lists several syntactical features of news articles. He states that ‘sentence syntax in news discourse may be fairly complex’ (1988a:77). News articles usually do not

contain sentences which consist of a simple clause and ‘most sentences are complex, with several embedded clauses and nominalizations and, therefore, express several propositions’ (van Dijk, 1988a:77). He also provides statistical data from his research and claims that ‘in both First World and Third World newspaper, average sentence length is about 25 words, and complexity approximately 2.5 (that is 2.5 embedded clauses to each main clause)’(ibid.:79). Van Dijk adds that occasionally news articles contain uncommon syntactical structures, for instance, inverted declarative sentence, that is fronting (1988b.:11). In addition, ‘sentence syntax expresses the semantic roles of participants in an event by word order, relational functions (subject, object), or the use of active or passive forms’ (ibid.).

Busá mentions that an important feature of a news article is concision and explains that it is necessary because ‘news reporting has contributed to a style that packs as much information as possible into a text that is as short as possible’ (2014:96). She also mentions that syntax constructs the meaning of a news article (ibid.:104). In addition, ‘ordering of the elements in a clause determines the interpretation/assignment of the syntactic-semantic role played by the participants in the process represented in the clause’ (ibid.).

Moreover, Busá highlights another important aspect of the structure of sentences in a news article. The author explains that ‘verbs denote an action, process or state, and thus indicate the participants’ degree and type of involvement in that event or situation’ (ibid.). Taking that into account, Busá distinguishes between two types of participants – the agent and the affected (in the common verbal structure which includes transitive verbs with two arguments) (ibid.). Busá explains that the agent ‘actively brings about the event represented in the predicate, and so is consciously and deliberately involved in the realization of the process’, while the affected is ‘someone or something that undergoes the action or process expressed by the verb’ (ibid.). The author illustrates the above mentioned with several examples: ‘The Parliament issued the law (Agent – Process – Affected)’; ‘The children are quiet (Actor – Process) – in this example the affected is lacking’ (ibid.:104-105). This division of participants is related to the topic of the syntax of newspaper articles, because news can be presented in various ways by showing relations of verbs and participants in a different manner which also affects and shifts the focus of attention of a news story (ibid.:105). These theories are not the focus of the research; however, they are still important features of sentence structure in a news article.

To summarize, the concept of genre has been defined by many scholars. According to Swales, it is a communicative event; however, Hyland and Hodge and Kress (1988) agree that it is a form of a text. Also, news reporting genre has several features which distinguish it from other genres, such as its style, attitude and significance. Considering style, news articles

commonly have a complex sentence structure with embedded clauses, nominalizations and other elements. In addition, news stories can be demonstrated in several manners, because the relationship between verbs and participants can change the focus of attention.

As the present paper investigates newspapers, the newspaper *The Irish Times* in particular, it is possible to say that newspapers are a part of both *genre* and *discourse*. However, this research considers newspapers as representatives of *discourse*; therefore the next subchapter is devoted to *newspaper discourse*.

2 USE OF SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

This chapter overviews the theoretical literature on sentences, clauses, sentence types, clause relationships, types of subordinate clauses, their functions and syntactic features as well as style of news articles.

The first subchapter examines sentences and clauses as such. This chapter includes theories by Quirk et al. (1985), Greenbaum (1996) as well as Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad and Finegan. (1999).

The second subchapter deals with clause relationships, positions of subordinate clauses as well as subordinating conjunctions. This chapter includes theories by such scholars as Quirk et al. (1985), Greenbaum (1996), Biber et al. (1999) as well as Greenbaum and Nelson (2002).

The following subchapter examines theories finiteness of subordinate clauses by Quirk et al. (1985), Greenbaum (1996) and Huddleston and Pullum (2005). The types of subordinate clauses discussed in the subchapter are finite, non-finite and verbless clause forms.

The fourth subchapter explores the functions of subordinate clauses by Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (1985).

The next subchapter analyses Huddleston and Pullum's (2005) as well as Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik's (1985) theories on the types of subordinate clauses according to the functions they perform in a sentence.

The last subchapter of the present chapter considers the style of newspaper articles and their syntactic features. The chapter examines theories by different authors, such as van Dijk (1998a, 1998b) and Busá (2014).

2.1 Sentence and clause structure

A sentence can be defined from several points of views. Greenbaum and Nelson claim that a sentence is 'the largest unit described by grammar' (2002:13). Greenbaum and Nelson (2002) as well as Carter and McCarthy (2006) try to define a sentence from another point of view and explain that a sentence is a list of words which start with a capital letter and ends with a full stop. Also, Greenbaum (1996), Greenbaum and Nelson (2002) support the idea that a sentence is usually composed of one or several full ideas.

Greenbaum claims that a sentence normally is composed of one or more 'grammatically complete clauses' (1996:308). He adds that 'the measure of grammatical completeness is the clause' (ibid.). Clauses are considered to be the 'core units of grammar' (Carter and McCarthy, 2006:486). Greenbaum explains that clauses comprise several

elements in accordance with the general rules clause construction – ‘subject, verb and complements of the verb’ (ibid.). The author provides several examples of grammatically complete clauses. The first one is a grammatically complete clause: ‘The conquest of Italy was certainly not a process of enslavement’; while the second example consists of two complete clauses which are co-ordinated by *and*: ‘Some people were actually given Roman citizenship, and their chief men secured high office at Rome’ (ibid.). The third example includes a situation where one subject is shared by two predicates and the second subject is omitted: ‘The Romans themselves saw in this practice a major factor in their rise to world power and traced it back to the legendary origins of their city’ (ibid.).

Carter and McCarthy (2006), Greenbaum (1996) as well as Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad and Finegan (1999) state that clauses form sentences and a sentence must contain one main clause (2006:269). Carter and McCarthy also mention that normally a clause ‘consists of two parts: a subject and a predicate’ (ibid.). A noun phrase or its equivalent usually performs the role of a subject (i.e. ‘the doer or agent of an action, state or event’), while a verb phrase and other components are the predicate (ibid.).

Biber et al. agree with Carter and McCarthy (2006) on the major clause elements and state that ‘the core of the clause can be divided into two main parts: the subject and what is traditionally called the predicate’ (Biber et al., 1999:122). Biber et al. give a similar explanation about the subject and the predicate to the one offered by Carter and McCarthy (2006). Biber et al. point out that a predicate consists of a verb phrase and several components, such as objects, predicatives and obligatory adverbials (ibid.).

According to the number of clauses in a sentence, different types of sentences can be distinguished. Greenbaum (1996), Quirk et al. (1985) and Biber et al. (1999) differentiate between simple, compound and complex sentences. According to Quirk et al., simple sentences include one full clause ‘in which each of its elements (subject, object, adverbial, etc.) is realized by a subclausal unit – a phrase’ (1985:987). Greenbaum adds that the clause of a simple sentence can consist of several phrases (e.g. ‘A scattering of glass fragments beneath the streetlamp opposite it confirmed her worst suspicions.’) (1996:315). Biber et al. (1999) provide a similar definition of a simple sentence to the one by Quirk et al. (1985) and explain that it is a single full clause (1999:202).

Quirk et al. state that compound sentences ‘consist of two or more coordinated main clauses and they are classic instances of a paratactic relationship, that is they have equivalent function’ (1985:987). All of the clauses in a sentence are equal components of a sentence and can be linked by coordinators. Biber et al. (1999) and Greenbaum (1996) discuss the same features of a compound sentence and provides an example in which both of the clauses are

coordinated with *and* ‘Somewhat to her surprise, the doorbell was working and she could hear the sharp peal on the other side of the door’ (Greenbaum, 1996:315).

The third type is complex sentences and Quirk et al. state that ‘a complex sentence is like a simple sentence in that it consists of only one main clause, but unlike a simple sentence it has one or more subordinate clauses functioning as an element of a sentence’ (1985:987). In other words, a complex sentence consists of an independent (main) clause and one or more dependent sentences. Biber et al. (1999) and Greenbaum (1996) define complex sentences in a similar manner; thus Greenbaum adds an example e.g. ‘She looked towards the door, as though Connie might materialize there any second’ (1996:315).

To summarize, sentence is considered to be the largest unit of grammar. It usually starts with a capital letter and ends with a full stop. Also, a grammatically full sentence consists of one or more clauses which include one or several full ideas. Typically a clause consists of a subject and a predicate. There are three main types of sentences which are categorized depending on the number of clauses and other elements in a sentence. The mentioned sentence types are simple, compound and complex sentences. Simple sentence is a single full clause which can consist of several phrases. A compound sentence involves two or more coordinated clauses which frequently are joined by a coordinator, such as *and*. In addition, complex sentences are sentences which consist of a main clause and one or more subordinate clauses.

2.2 Clause relationships

As discussed in the previous subchapter, there are three types of sentences which are based on the quantity of clauses and other components of a sentence. Two of the sentence types, namely compound and complex sentences, can have two kinds of relationship between the clauses of a sentence: coordination and subordination. The following paragraphs examine both of the relationship types, provides examples and mentions coordinating and subordinating conjunctions.

Greenbaum states that ‘two clauses may be coordinated to form a sentence’ (1996:311). As mentioned before, if two main clauses are coordinated in a sentence, it is called a compound sentence (e.g. ‘The cause of ice ages is still a controversial subject, and debates continue about the precise climatic effects of individual cycles’) (ibid). Greenbaum also mentions that the most frequently used coordinating words are *and*, *or* and *but* (ibid.:325-326). Biber et al. (1999) provides a more detailed example in Figure 2.1.

Coordinated clauses

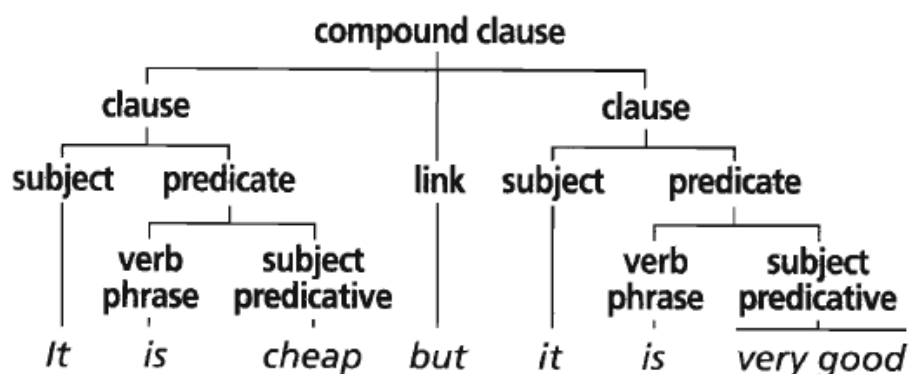


Figure 2.1 Coordinated clause components by Biber et al. (1999:135)

Figure 2.1 indicates both of the independent clauses of the coordinated sentence, shows the components of each clause and points out the coordinating word which in this case is *but*.

The other type of clause relationships is subordination. As subordinate clauses are the focus of the present research, it is necessary to investigate them in greater detail. Greenbaum mentions that 'there are two types of signals that a clause is subordinate: the identity of the initial item in the clause and the nature of the verb phrase or its absence' (1996:327). According to Greenbaum, subordinate clauses may be components of other clauses (ibid.: 314). Greenbaum and Nelson add that 'subordinate clauses are often introduced by a subordinator (or subordinating conjunction), particularly in the clauses are finite' (2002:26). In addition, as mentioned in the previous chapter, subordinate clauses are usually a component of a complex sentence.

Biber et al. provide an example which illustrates a complex sentence. This example can be seen in Figure 2.2.

Main clause with embedded adverbial clause

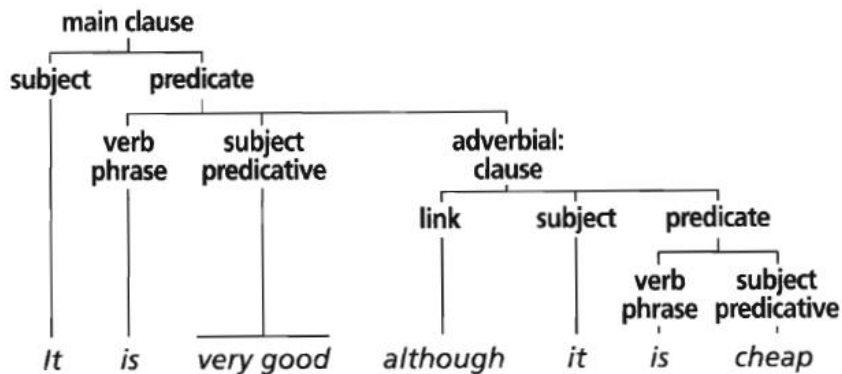


Figure 2.2 Components of a complex sentence by Biber et al. (1999:135)

Figure 2.2 demonstrates a complex sentence which includes a main clause and a subordinate clause. Also, it is possible to see all components of the main clause, the subordinator, which in this case is *although* and the components of the subordinate or embedded clause.

Quirk et al. consider subordination to be in an ‘asymmetrical relation: the sentence and its subordinate clauses are in a hypotactic relationship, that is they form a hierarchy in which the subordinate clause is a constituent of the sentence as a whole’ (1985:987). In addition, subordinate clauses can have one or more relationships with the other clauses in a sentence. A simpler complex sentence can consist of a subordinate clause and its superordinate clause, where the subordinate clause is its constituent, and at the same time the superordinate clause is the main clause of the sentence (ibid.:988). However, as mentioned before, clauses can two relationships with other clauses simultaneously. Quirk et al. clarify that ‘a clause may be subordinate to one clause and superordinate to another’ (ibid.). Figure 2.3 illustrates an example where clauses have more than one relationship with the other clauses.

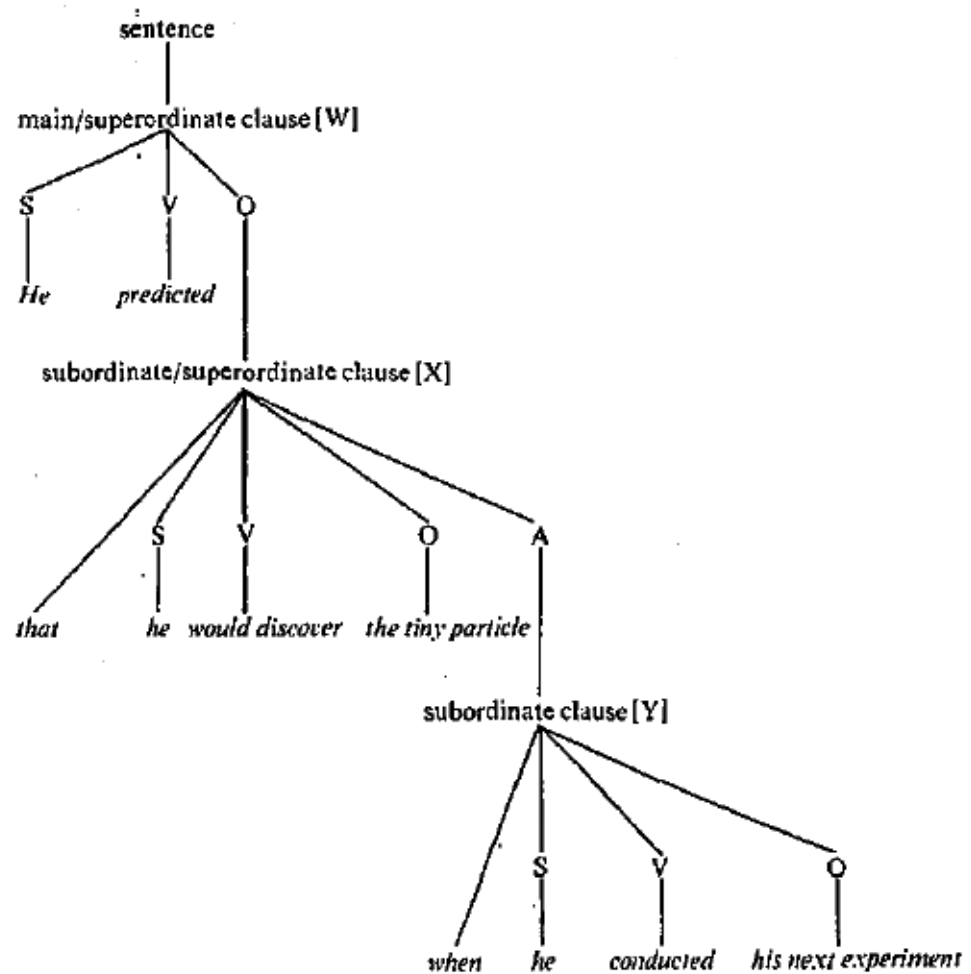


Figure 2.3 Superordinate and subordinate clauses (Quirk et al., 1985:989)

Figure 2.3 shows an example which consists of three clauses. After examining the relationship of the clauses, it is possible to see that two of the clauses are superordinate and subordinate clauses at the same time. The second clause is subordinate to the first clause (which in this case is the superordinate or main clause), and it is superordinate to the last clause. Besides, the last clause is only a subordinate clause to the previous clause and it does not have any other relationships in this example.

In addition, Quirk et al. state five formal indicators of subordination (ibid.:997). The first indicator is that the 'clause is initiated by a subordinating conjunction' (ibid.). Subordinating conjunctions are discussed and mentioned in the next paragraphs of this subchapter. The second indicator is 'the clause is initiate by a *wh*-element' (ibid.). The third sign is that the 'initial elements in the clause are inverted' (ibid.). The third indicator of subordination is 'the presence of certain verb forms in finite clauses is determined by the type of subordinate clause' (ibid.). The last indicator is that 'the verb element of the clause is either

non-finite or absent' (ibid.). Finite and non-finite subordinate clauses are also discussed in the following subchapters.

As Nelson and Greenbaum (2002) mention that subordinate clauses are usually introduced by a subordinator, it is necessary to explore them. Quirk et al. indicate that subordinators mostly introduce finite clauses (1985:998). He distinguishes between simple, complex and correlative subordinators (ibid.). Table 2.1 includes examples of all of the types of subordinators.

Table 2.1 Types of subordinators by Quirk et al. (1985)

Simple subordinators	after, although, as, because, before, directly, immediately, if, lest, like, once, since, that, though, till, unless, while, whilst, wherever, whereas and whereupon			
Complex subordinators	Ending with <i>that</i>	With an optional <i>that</i>	Ending with <i>as</i>	Others
	but that, in that, in order that, insofar that, in the event that, save that, such that	except that, for all that, now that, so that	according as, as far as, as long as, as soon as, forasmuch as, inasmuch as, insofar as, insomuch as	as if, as though, in case
Correlative subordinators	as...so, as...as, so...as, such...as, so...that, such...that, less...than, more...than, no sooner... than, barely...when, hardly...when, scarcely...when, the...the, whether...or, if...or, if...then, once...then			

Besides, subordinate clauses can be positioned in one of the three places in a sentence: initially, medially or at the end of their superordinate clause (Quirk et al., 1985:1037). Which means that 'initial position and end position are here taken to be very beginning and the very end of the superordinate clause, except that a subordinate clause cannot of course precede the conjunction (if present) of the superordinate clause' (ibid.). Quirk et al. also provide examples for all of the three positions of subordinate clauses. The example for the initial position is 'When you're ready, we'll go to my parents' place' (ibid.). The medial position of a subordinate clause in the same sentence is shown in the next example – 'We'll go, when

you're ready, to my parents' place' (ibid.). The last example demonstrates the case where a subordinate clause is positioned at the end of a sentence 'We'll go to my parents' place when you're ready' (ibid.).

To sum up, clauses can have two kinds of relationships; they can either be coordinated or subordinated. Coordinate clauses normally are two full independent clauses which can be joined by a coordinating word. In addition, subordinate clauses can be detected in complex sentences. They are not considered to be independent clauses but rather dependent clauses. Also, subordinate clauses can have to relationships with the other clauses in a sentence at the same time; they can be subordinate and superordinate. Scholars point out five main indicators of subordination: subordinating conjunctions, *wh*-elements, inversion of the initial elements, the presence of certain verb forms as well as the non-finiteness or absence of a verb form. Subordinate clauses are usually introduced by a subordinator or subordinating conjunctions. All subordinators can be divided into three main categories: simple, complex and correlative subordinators. Considering the placement of subordinate clauses in a sentence, they can be positioned initially, medially or at the end of their superordinate clause.

2.3 Finite, non-finite and verbless subordinate clauses

Subordinate clauses can occur in three forms: finite, non-finite and verbless clause form. Greenbaum (1996) provides examples for all three forms of subordinate clauses. The first one is 'finite clause, whose verb is a finite verb' (e.g. '*When we were walking over the bridge, Mary Jane stopped to take a shot of a woman on the other side of the road who was dragging a child along by the hand*') (1996:328). Quirk et al. mention a similar definition of a finite clause to the one by offered Greenbaum; however, the authors specify it with the following specific examples: 'as takes, took, can work, has worked, is writing, was written' (Quirk et al., 1985:992).

The second category is 'non-finite clause, whose verb is a non-finite verb' (e.g. '*To test the belt tension, press the belt down at a point midway on the longest run between pulleys, using firm thumb pressure*') (Greenbaum, 1996:328). Huddleston and Pullum explain that 'clauses headed by a gerund-participle or a past participle are always non-finite' as well as clauses with a 'plain form verb' (2005:204). Quirk et al. determine with examples what a non-finite verb is, for instance 'to work, having worked, taken' (1985:992)

According to Greenbaum, verbless clause is the third category which 'does not have a verb' (e.g. '*In accordance with the principles of direct play the ball should be thrown forward where possible*') (1996:328). Quirk et al. mention that verbless clauses can also be analysed into clause elements despite not having 'a verb element' (1985:992). Each of the forms of

subordinate clauses mentioned above are formatted in italics in the examples provided by Greenbaum (1996:328). The examples mentioned above illustrate where the verb is finite, non-finite or non-existent.

To summarize, subordinate clauses can appear in three forms, namely finite, non-finite and verbless form. Finite subordinate clauses contain a finite verb; non-finite clauses include a non-finite verb, while verbless subordinate clauses do not contain a verb at all.

2.4 Syntactic functions of subordinate clauses

Syntactic functions of subordinate clauses are their relationships with the sentence as a whole and within a complex sentence. Quirk et al. state that subordinate clauses ‘may function as subject, object, complement or adverbial in a superordinate clause’ (1985:1047). To illustrate the mentioned functions more clearly, Quirk et al. provide the following examples: (The subordinate clauses in the examples mentioned are italicized in order to see the function of a particular subordinate clause.)

1. *That we need a larger computer* has become obvious. (Subject)
2. He doesn’t know *whether to send a gift*. (Direct object)
3. You can tell *whoever is waiting* that I’ll be back in ten minutes. (Indirect object)
4. One likely result of the postponement *is that the cost of constructing the college will be very much higher*. (Subject complement)
5. I know her *to be reliable*. (Object complement)
6. *When you see them*, give them my best wishes. (Adverbial) (Quirk et al., 1985:1047).

Quirk et al. also mention that subordinate clauses can work within these three elements:

7. Few of the immigrants retained the customs *that they had brought with them*. (Post modifier in noun phrase)
8. It depends on *what we decide*. (Prepositional complement)
9. We are happy *to see you*. (Adjectival complementation) (ibid.).

In short, subordinate clauses can function as objects, subjects, complements or adverbials within a complex sentence; however, as seen in the examples above, they can perform other functions as well.

2.5 Types of subordinate clauses

According to the functions subordinate clauses perform in a sentence, different scholars have several distinct approaches to categorization of finite subordinate clauses. Huddleston and Pullum distinguish between three types of subordinate clauses: relative, comparative and content (2005:174). The linguists provide the following examples for each of the type (the finite subordinate clause in each of the sentences is italicized):

1. They weren't among the people *who had been invited*. (Relative)
2. He gave me *more copies than I wanted*. (Comparative)
3. I don't think *that these people had been invited*. (Content) (ibid.).

As it is possible to see in the E1 (Example) of a relative clause above, the subordinate clause starts with the relative pronoun *who*. The pronoun relates back to the word *people*. E2 of a comparative clause, as the name suggests, expresses a comparative relationship. This comparison is achieved with the help of the correlative subordinator *more...than*. In addition, Huddleston and Pullum suggest that content clauses can be regarded 'as the default kind of finite subordinate clause, from which relative and comparative clauses differ in certain ways' (2005:175). In E3 mentioned above, the content clause starts with the subordinator *that*; however, the rest of the sentence is not significantly different from the main clause. Generally, Huddleston and Pullum summarize that content clauses function 'as complements within the larger construction' (ibid.).

Quirk et al. classify four types of subordinate clauses depending on their possible functions in a sentence: nominal, adverbial, relative and comparative subordinate clauses (1985:1047). The linguists clarify that nominal clauses have similar functions to noun phrases. Each nominal clause can function in one or all of the following functions: subject, object, complement, appositive and prepositional complement. (ibid.). Quirk et al. also provide an example of a nominal clause in a sentence: 'I'm not sure *that I can remember the exact details*' (ibid.). In addition, nominal clauses can also function as adjective complements without a preposition and indirect objects (ibid.).

Adverbial clauses commonly perform as adjuncts or disjuncts; they are similar to adverb phrases which provide more explicitness. Quirk et al. provide the following examples where adverbial clauses appear as prepositional phrases:

1. We left *after the speeches ended*.
2. We left *after the end of the speeches* (ibid.).

In addition, relative subordinate clauses usually ‘function as restrictive or non-restrictive modifiers of noun phrases and are therefore functionally parallel to attributive adjectives’ (e.g. ‘a man who is lonely – a lonely man’); however, they can be placed as post modifying prepositional phrases (e.g. ‘tourists who came from Italy – tourists from Italy’) (Quirk et al., 1985:1048).

The last category distinguished by Quirk et al. is comparative clauses. They ‘resemble adjectives and adverbs in their modifying functions’, for instance, ‘He’s not *as* clever a man *as I thought*’ (ibid.). This type of subordinate clauses, as the name already suggests, imply a comparative relationship.

To summarize, scholars categorize subordinate clauses in different ways according to the functions they perform in a sentence. Huddleston and Pullum (2005) distinguish only three types: relative, comparative and content subordinate clauses. Besides, Quirk et al. (1985) classify four categories of subordinate clauses, namely nominal, adverbial, relative and comparative clauses.

The theoretical part of the paper has overlooked several classifications of subordinate clauses; however, the empirical part is based on the typology provided by Quirk et al. (1985).

3 THE EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS OF THE USE OF SUBORDINATE CLAUSES IN THE NEWSPAPER *THE IRISH TIMES*

This chapter consists of two parts. The first part describes the methods used in the process of analysis as well as the texts analysed which are taken from the newspaper *The Irish Times*. Besides, the second part of the research discusses the results obtained during the process of analysis. Furthermore, it aims at answering the research questions stated at the beginning of the analysis: (1) What are the most common positions of subordinate clauses in a sentence? (2) What types of subordinate clauses (according to their syntactic functions) are used in the articles of the newspaper *The Irish Times*?

3.1 Methodology

The present research uses discourse analysis as a primary research method, which is ‘the study of the ways sentences and utterances are put together to make texts and interactions and how those texts and interactions fit into our social life’ (Jones, 2012:2).

Although discourse analysis focuses mainly on qualitative research, this research includes both a qualitative and quantitative perspective. The qualitative approach concentrates on the meaning in the text. In order to carry out a qualitative research, it is needed to develop a data collection instrument, which is ‘sensitive to underlying meaning when gathering and interpreting data’ (Merriam, 2009:2). In addition, quantitative approach involves the usage of highly structured procedures and measuring instruments in order to reveal knowledge about the characteristics of interest. (Lawrence, D. and Lawrence, L., 1996:33). The combination of both perspectives is expected to support the reliability of data.

The discourse analysis being qualitative in nature is interpretive; in this case it deals with the interpretation of the use of subordinate clauses in the newspaper *The Irish Times*. It is of great importance to ensure the reliability and validity of the obtained data, since the qualitative perspective is often considered to be subjective. In addition, this research uses different sources of data, such as previous researches, scientific journals and scientific literature, to ensure the validity of the findings. This method is called triangulation which can be described as ‘the use of several different research techniques in the same study to confirm and verify data gathered in different ways’ (Mc Murray, Wayne Pace and Scott 2004:263).

Reliability of the collected results can be provided by the consistency of the data collection, analysis and interpretation procedures (Paltridge, 2006:216). Carrying out the present research, theories by several authors (mentioned further in the text) are used as the basis for the following stages of analysis:

1. identifying subordinate clauses in the selected corpus;
2. determining their finiteness, position, subordinating conjunction and their type of subordinate clauses according to the function it performs in a sentence;
3. doing discourse analysis and interpreting the obtained data;
4. drawing relevant conclusions.

As mentioned before, theories by several authors are employed in the process of analysis and data collection. The position of subordinate clauses is analysed by reviewing the theory by Quirk et al. (1985) on the possible positions of subordinate clauses. The category of finiteness is estimated taking into account theories by Huddleston and Pullum (2005), Greenbaum (1996) as well as Quirk et al. (1985). The subordinating conjunction of each clause is detected with the help of the typology of subordinate conjunctions by Quirk et al. (1985). In addition, the type of a subordinate clause is determined taking into account the theory on the types of subordinate clauses according to the function they perform in a sentence by Quirk et al. (1985). It is also important to state that only those subordinate clauses which are introduced by one of the subordinating conjunctions mentioned by Quirk et al. (1985) are analysed in the empirical part. Reduced and other variants of subordinate clauses are not taken into account.

3.2 Texts analysed

As the object of the research is the newspaper *The Irish Times*, it is necessary to briefly describe the newspaper itself. It was first published in 1859; however, it has evolved over the time and nowadays it can be read both in a printed version and online. (Online 1). In 1994, *The Irish Times* became the first newspaper to establish a website in British Isles and one of the first 30 in the world. In 1999, they started to publish news articles online (ibid.). The newspaper includes news articles on various topics, such as politics, health, sport, business, life and style, culture, world, education, crime, environment, science and others (ibid.). The online version of the newspaper offers also several other components, which are not included in the printed version, such as videos, podcasts, crossword club, galleries of images as well as archive of newspaper articles (ibid.).

For the empirical part of the research, 30 articles from the newspaper *The Irish Times* were selected from which the corpus was compiled. The articles were taken from the newspaper's *The Irish Times* website: irishtimes.com (see the References). The article selection for the analysis was random for the most part; however, only articles with 300 or more words were taken which were published in April, 2017.

3.3 Results and discussion

The empirical analysis of the use of subordinate clauses in the newspaper *The Irish Times* consisted of two parts: quantitative and qualitative analysis. First, quantitative analysis was done in order to obtain quantitative data on the use of subordinate clauses in the compiled corpus.

As mentioned before, the corpus for the analysis consists of 30 articles from the newspaper *The Irish Times*. In total, 612 sentences were counted in the corpus from which 178 included one or more subordinate clauses. It means that 29.1% of all sentences were complex sentences with at least one subordinating clause. The amplitude of the proportion of the sentences in an article and the sentences which contain subordinate clauses is from 11.1% to 70%. The number of sentences and the number of sentences with subordinate clauses in each article from the newspaper *The Irish Times* can be seen in Appendix 1.

As seen in the table in Appendix 1, there is no strong correlation between the length of a newspaper article and its sentence complexity. Longer articles (A), for example A9, which contains 28 sentences from which 13 or 46.4% contain subordinate clauses, can have more complex sentence structures which contain more sentences with subordinate clauses. However, other longer articles, for example A28, (which contains 56 sentences out of which only 7 or 12.5% are complex sentences with at least one subordinate clause) can contain simpler sentences and syntax as such. On the other hand, the corpus of newspaper articles also contains shorter articles which have more complex as well as simple sentences. For example, A10 consists of 10 sentences of which 7 or 70% are sentences with at least one subordinate clause. This article has the highest proportional percentage of all sentences and sentences with subordinate clauses which also exemplifies that each article is different in its syntax complexity. Besides, A30 contains 18 sentences out of which only 2 or 11.1% are complex sentences with subordinate clauses. This article shows the lowest proportion of simple and complex sentences in the selected corpus of articles from the newspaper *The Irish Times*. This stage of the analysis looked at the number of sentences in each article individually; however, the next stages of the present paper researched them all together as a corpus.

In short, each of the newspaper articles, from 10 sentences to 56 sentences in length, has its own complexity of sentence structure. Longer articles can contain many or only a few complex sentences with subordinate clauses; and the same applies to shorter articles. This quantitative analysis shows no correlation between the length of a newspaper article and its sentence complexity.

After detecting complex sentences among other types of sentences, the next step of the analysis was done. A sample analysis of one article can be found in Appendix 2. This phase

investigated the property of finiteness of the detected subordinate clauses in the corpus. Quirk et al. (1985), Greenbaum (1996) as well as Huddleston and Pullum (2005) consider that subordinate clauses can be finite, nonfinite or verbless. These theories were researched during this stage of the analysis. The results of this analysis revealed that the corpus contains finite and nonfinite subordinate clauses; however, no instances of verbless subordinate clauses were detected. The largest number of subordinate clauses (109 instances or 61.2% of all subordinate clauses) were finite. Besides, 69 instances or 38.8% of all subordinate clauses were nonfinite subordinate clauses in the corpus of newspaper articles. Figure 3.1 illustrates the proportion of finite and nonfinite subordinate clauses in the articles of the newspaper *The Irish Times*.

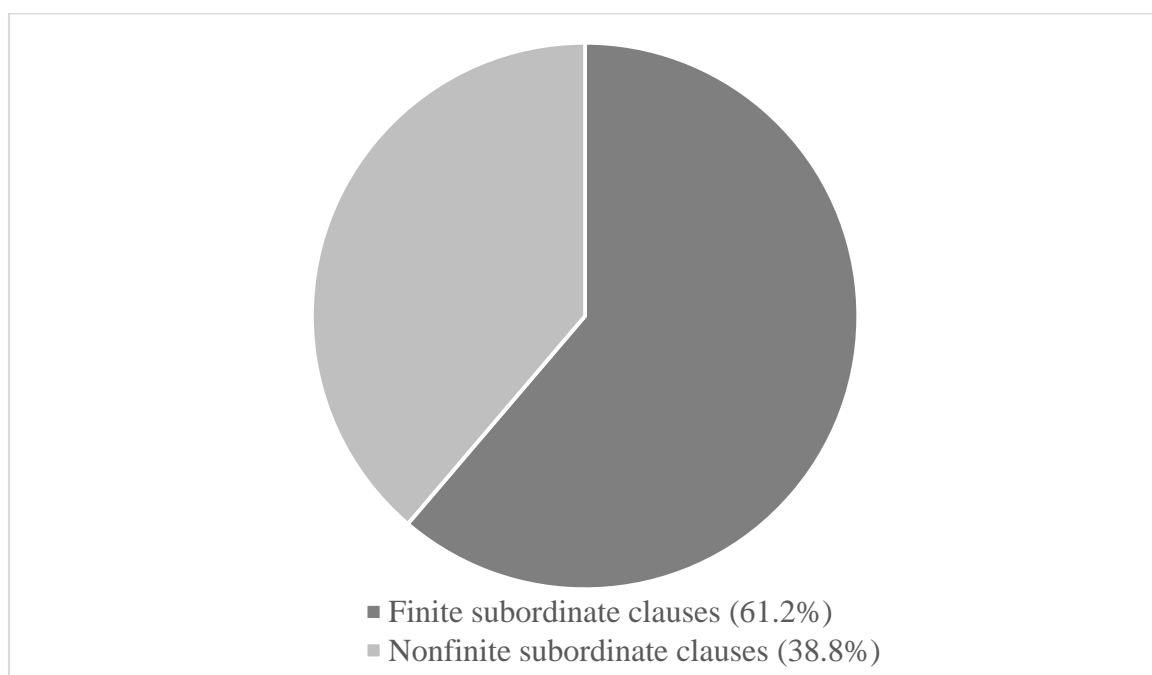


Figure 3.1 Proportion between finite and nonfinite subordinate clauses

The next step in the process of analysis was to determine the position in which finite and nonfinite subordinate clauses can appear in a sentence more frequently. This step already included a qualitative perspective on the analysis. According to Quirk et al. (1985), subordinate clause in a sentence can be positioned initially, medially or at the end of their superordinate clause. The results of the analysis show that finite and nonfinite subordinate clauses are positioned in all three positions in the corpus of sentences from the newspaper articles of *The Irish Times*. However, the number of instances found in each position differs. Finite subordinate clauses appear in all three positions; however, the largest number of finite subordinate clauses are positioned medially and at the end of its superordinate clause. In the corpus of newspaper articles, 6 (5.5%) finite subordinate clauses (of all 109 finite subordinate

clauses) were detected positioned initially, 55 (50.5%) – medially and 48 (44%) at the end of the sentence. Figure 3.2 illustrates the data mentioned above.

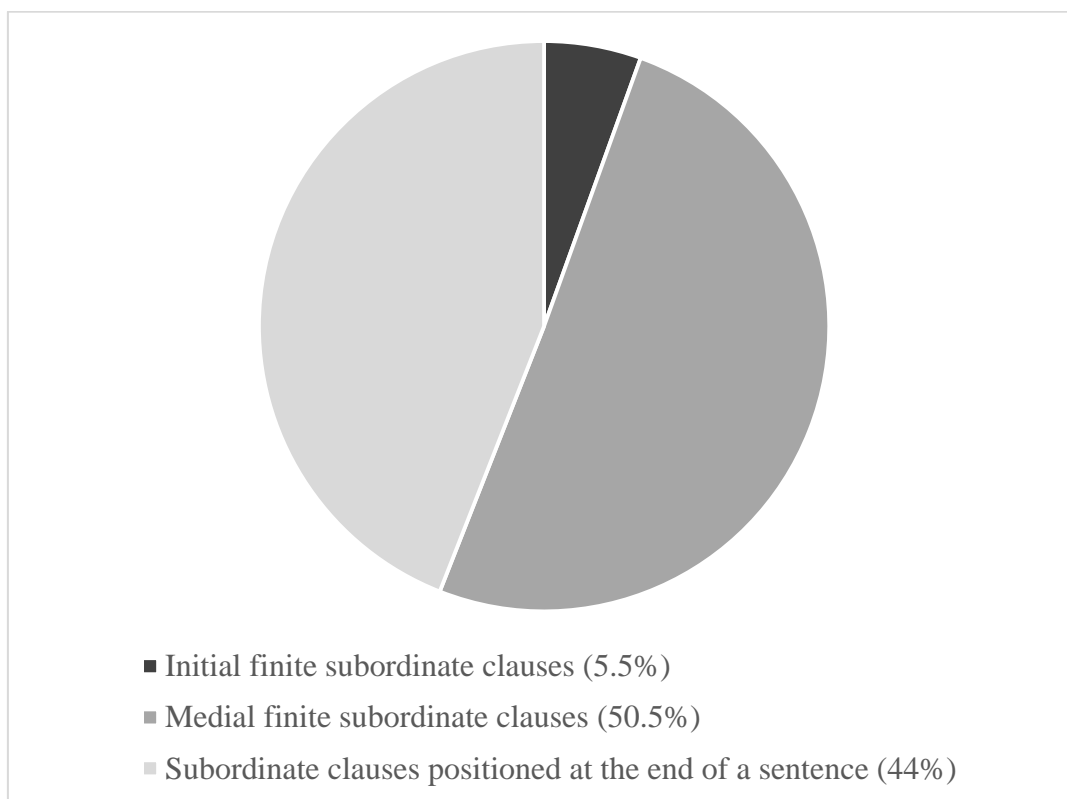


Figure 3.2 The proportion of positioning of finite subordinate clauses

The Examples of initially positioned finite subordinate clauses can be seen in S (sentence) 1-2. The initial finite subordinate clause in each of the sentences is underlined. e.g. (1) As I have demonstrated in my recent article, the Irish were in fact the first targets of deportation policy in the United States (A2).

(2) As our economy recovers and the attraction of other careers increases, there is an acute and increasing shortage of teachers in some subject areas, particularly Irish, modern languages, home economics and physics (A19).

The number of medially placed finite subordinate clauses is more significant than in other potential placements. Instances of medially positioned finite subordinate clauses are illustrated in S 1-5.

e.g. (1) They told the couple that the wife, who was then blind relative, medial, finite, should go back to Ireland (A2).

(2) Work began on that development, which will also house offices, in December last year (A13).

(3) The €1,000 pay rise for teachers and other public service personnel, which was brought forward by several months to the beginning of April, represents merely a step

in the right direction, the president of the Teachers' Union of Ireland (TUI) has said (A19).

(4) The facility, which supplies other Medtronic businesses in Europe, reported sales of €44.5 million, compared to €26.4 in the previous seven months (A23).

(5) Mr Wong was also charged with failing to produce a valid passport or equivalent document to establish his identity when requested to do so by Det Garda David Moynihan at the same address, contrary to section 12 of the Immigration Act (A25).

(6) Investment banks and securities firms underwriting a \$750 million (€706 million) Tullow Oil share sale are on track to avoid being left holding large amounts of unwanted stock as potential new investors actively snap up rights to participate in the deal, according to traders and analysts (A29).

Besides, finite subordinate clauses positioned at the end of its superordinate clause were also encountered frequently as discussed before. The following examples S1-4 illustrate these instances.

e.g. (1) At the English market in Cork city, the sandwich stall is also selling a sandwich created around the cheese, while the Toonsbridge cafe in Macroom is using it as the centrepiece of a salad (A3). (2) AIB recently agreed to pay €28 a square foot to Green Real Estate Investment Trust for a block in Central Park in Sandyford, where the bank intends to house about 500 support staff (A13). (3) The reality is that Clare won the league last year and never really found their form in the Championship afterwards, so that is a danger that does exist (A14). (4) That led to a restructuring to “right size” the business which had employed 435 people at that stage (A23).

As mentioned before, nonfinite subordinate clauses occurred slightly less frequently than finite subordinate clauses. The least number of nonfinite subordinate clauses were positioned at the beginning of a sentence – only 7 (10.1%) instances. Similar number of nonfinite subordinate clauses were found both medially (30 or 43.5%) and at the end of a sentence (32 or 46.4%). Figure 3.3 graphically illustrates this data.

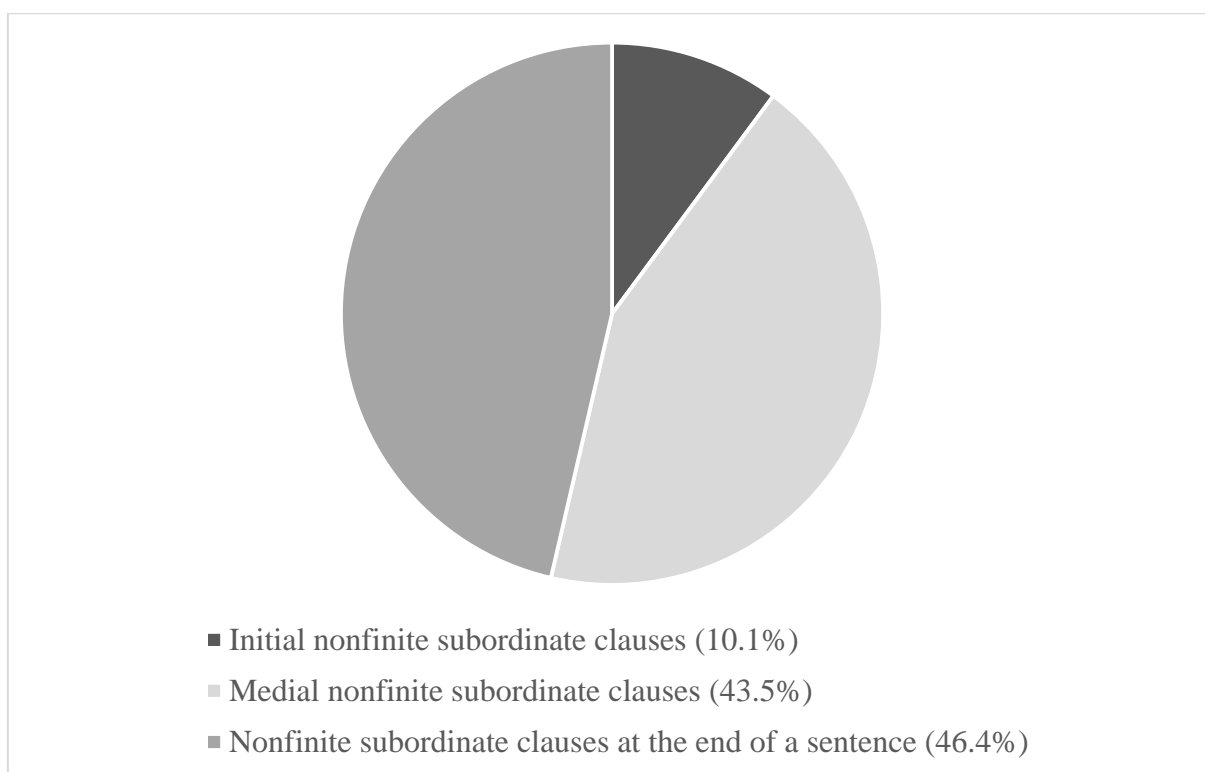


Figure 3.3 The proportion of nonfinite subordinate clauses in each position

The following examples of sentences S1-2 exemplify the use of nonfinite subordinate clauses in the initial position of a sentence.

e.g. (1) When the garage worker who accessed the cash and brought it to the gang, he met them around half way between the Top Oil garage and Loughman’s Garage, both on the Kilkenny Road (A20).

(2) When the hostage’s colleague gained access to the safe and took the money from it, he delivered the cash to the raiders at the agreed location (A20).

As mentioned before, the number of nonfinite clauses in medial and end position in a sentence is quite similar. Examples of initial nonfinite subordinate clauses can be seen in S 1-3, while nonfinite subordinate clauses positioned at the end appear in S 4-7. In addition, S 8 portray an example where one nonfinite subordinate clause is in the medial position, but the other nonfinite subordinate clause is positioned at the end.

e.g. (1) In a letter to the organisation’s chairman John Fitzpatrick, Sir Anthony said the American’s funeral on Tuesday in Pittsburgh – where the Irish businessman worked for more than 25 years as an executive at food giant Heinz– confirmed Mr Rooney’s “unusual fame, not just in his home town but in all of America” (A5).

(2) “But you know, going back to the last time we put it back to back, it’s the 60s, so I don’t think anyone is under any illusions here, we’re not a county that does back to back very well” (A14)

(3) During a fresh appeal for information about the death James Cahillane, a father of two who lived alone near Killorglin, Supt Flor McCarthy said it was believed the hammer was brought to the house by an intruder (A16)

(4) Winter storms and instability by rabbits burrowing under the dry rocks are being blamed – rather than filming activity or the extra visitor numbers drawn to the monastic site because of the filming of the Star Wars episodes in 2014 and 2015 (A8).

(5) Taylor’s addition to the historic night sees her become the fourth Olympic gold medal winner on the card, joining fellow London 2012 winners Joshua and Luke Campbell, while Klitschko claimed gold in the Atlanta games in 1996 (A18)

(6) Gardaí are searching for a gang which abducted a garage worker four days ago for ransom (A20).

(7) Money was demanded by the two raiders as they threatened the staff and forced them into a back room on the premises (A20).

(8) “But I certainly got the sense last year, after they won the match, I thought they looked calculated, that they seemed like a bunch that weren’t happy to just win one (A14).

In all of the examples above, it is possible to see that the subordinate clauses are non finite. That means that verbs are either infinitives, *-ing* participles or past participles.

Summing finite and nonfinite subordinate clauses together, 13 (7.2%) subordinate clauses were found in initial position, 85 (47.8%) in medial, while 80 (45%) at the end of a sentence. (See Figure 3.4.)

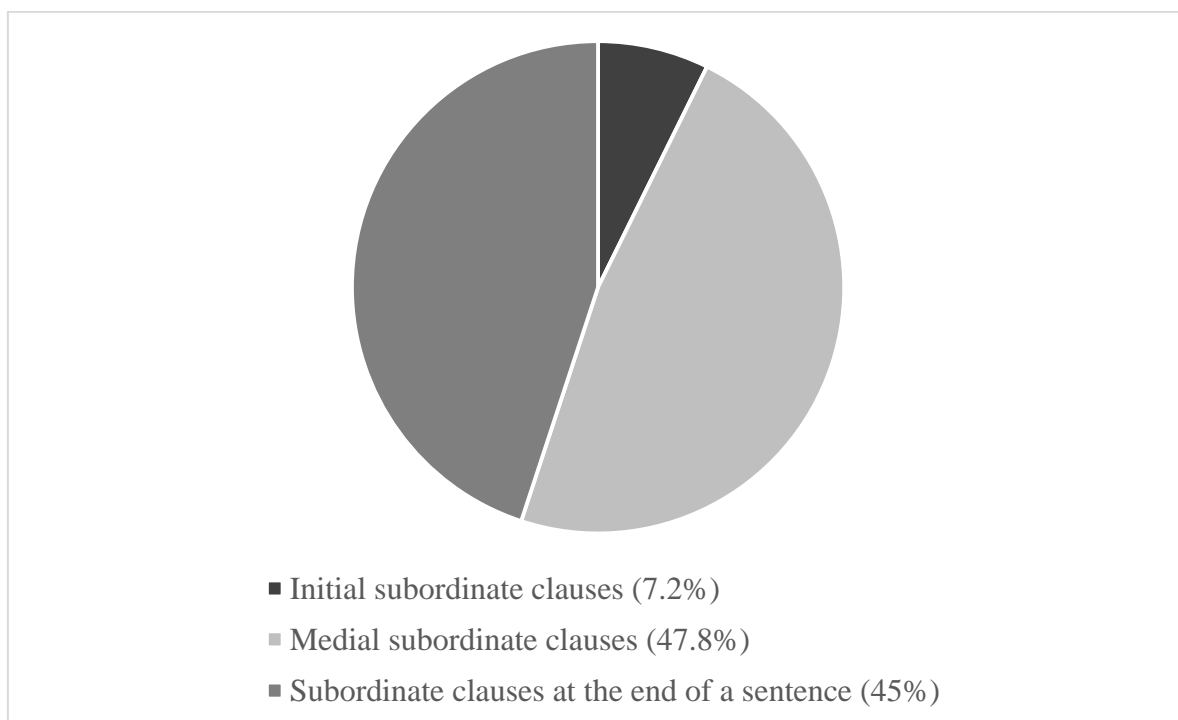


Figure 3.4 The proportion of all subordinate clauses in each position

One of the last stages of the present research was to determine types of the subordinate clauses used in the newspaper articles according to the function they perform in a given sentence. The basis for this analysis is the typology of subordinate clauses by Quirk et al. (1985). As the theory by the mentioned scholars suggests, finite subordinate clauses can be divided into four types: nominal, adverbial, relative and comparative. The corpus of articles from the newspaper *The Irish Times* included three of the four types of finite subordinate clauses, namely nominal, adverbial and relative. As mentioned earlier, 109 complex sentences with subordinate clauses were found in the corpus. From all of the finite subordinate clauses, 27 (24.8%) were nominal, 38 (34.9%) adverbial, but 44 (40.3%) – relative. However, no instances of comparative finite subordinate clauses were found. Figure 3.5 displays this proportion of types of finite subordinate clauses.

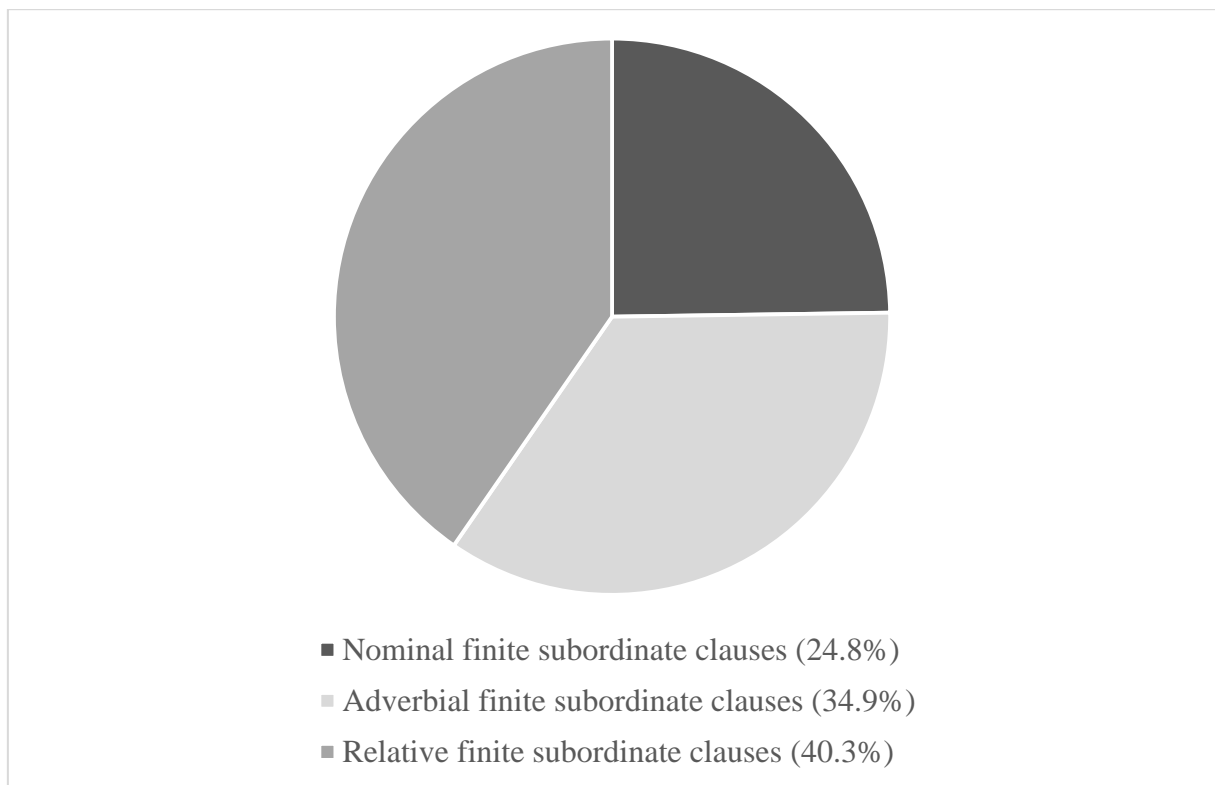


Figure 3.5 Types of finite subordinate clauses used in the corpus

Nominal finite subordinate clauses occurred mostly at the end of sentences; however, a few instances of other positions could also be found. Examples of this type of clauses can be seen in S 1-7.

e.g. (1) In April, the officials sent them to New York, where they took a ship to Cork (A2).

- (2) We are growing a community of cafes that personify Cork’s food and hospitality personality (A3).
- (3) The cafe at the Stephen Pearce pottery in Shanagarry has Milleens bruschetta with roasted pear and caramelised walnuts on its menu this week, and it will also have pride of place on cheeseboards at Nash 19 in Cork city (where it will be in good company alongside Gubbeen and Ardsallagh) (A3).
- (4) Marks & Spencer shares slumped 4.7p to 353.7p amid news that the retail giant is planning to close six stores following a review of its store estate nom (A9).
- (5) Office rents are now running at around €50 to €60 per square foot in Dublin’s city centre, prompting interest in properties in the city’s suburbs, where landlords are seeking half those sums (A13).
- (6) That was of course 1965, the year Tipp last won back-to-back All-Irelands – and indeed the last time they put a league title on top of one (A14).

In S 1-5 the finite nominal subordinate clause is positioned at the end of the sentence, while in S 6 it is positioned initially. Also, it is important to point out the most frequently encountered subordinators which introduce finite nominal subordinate clauses in the corpus. Some of them are *that, whom, where* as well as others.

Adverbial finite subordinate clauses in most cases were introduced by such subordinating conjunctions as *after, when, as, while* and *because*. S 1-7 include some of the most typical examples of adverbial finite subordinate clauses. S1 contains an adverbial subordinate clause positioned initially which is introduced by the subordinating conjunction *as*. In S 2-4, 6-7 the adverbial subordinate clauses are positioned at the end on the sentence, while in S 5 the finite adverbial subordinate clause is placed in the middle of the complex sentence.

- e.g. (1) As I have demonstrated in my recent article, the Irish were in fact the first targets of deportation policy in the United States (A2).
- (2) The women roamed helplessly until a local officer of Cork accidentally found them (A2).
- (3) On Thursday, a statement from Dublin City Council said it does not collect any statistics on vandalism or theft “because they are not a feature of the scheme in Dublin” (A7).
- (4) “If we want to see the scheme expanded into other communities and other areas then we will need to address the issues of theft and vandalism because we couldn’t

commit public monies without being confident we were getting a return on that investment” (A7).

(5) In his action Rev Ulogwara says he had sought assurances from the Archbishop about his future after the decision in relation to the parish was taken, but claims he has not been given any (A10).

(6) The church made the decision because the parish is unable to finance ongoing ministry (A10).

(7) He also said that the parties in Northern Ireland should focus on forming an Executive in Stormont before they campaign in the Westminster election (A21).

The largest number of finite subordinate clauses in the corpus were relative. S 1-8 contain examples of these clauses. Several of the mentioned examples feature a finite relative clause which is positioned in the middle of the sentence, as in S 1, 3, 5, 7 and 8. However, S 2 and 4 include examples of subordinate clauses located at the end. Also, as it is possible to see in the examples, some of the most frequently used conjunctions to introduce the clauses are *who* and *which*.

e.g. (1) The announcement, which follows the inspection of a major rockfall last week, has cast doubt over the opening date for the visitors’ season (A8).

(2) The recent fall occurred on a roadway to the work area near the lighthouse, which is away from the main visitor path (A8).

(3) Banking stocks, which are regarded as bellwethers for the economy, led the CAC 40 higher, with BNP Paribas and Societe Generale up 4 and 2.8 per cent respectively (A9).

(4) The action has been brought by Rev Obinna Ulogwara against the Most Reverend Dr Michael Jackson who is the Archbishop of Dublin and Bishop of Glendalough (A10).

(5) During a fresh appeal for information about the death James Cahillane, a father of two who lived alone near Killorglin, Supt Flor McCarthy said it was believed the hammer was brought to the house by an intruder (A16).

(6) “Every vote for the Conservatives will make it harder for opposition politicians who want to stop me from getting the job done (A17).

(7) The fund, which will target a 5 per cent annual dividend REL, had raised about €15 million so far, Mr Bruder told Bloomberg (A22).

(8) The facility, which supplies other Medtronic businesses in Europe, reported sales of €44.5 million, compared to €26.4 in the previous seven months (A23).

As mentioned before in the chapter, none of the finite subordinate clauses classified under the category of comparative clauses and none of the comparative subordinating conjunctions were found.

In addition to the previously discussed results of the whole analysis, a few interesting examples of complex sentences with subordinate clauses need to be mentioned. For example, S 1 includes two subordinate clauses. The first underlined subordinate clause is nonfinite, while the second is finite.

e.g. (1) Tatfondbank is the biggest Russian banking collapse since another lender called Vneshprombank, which also had a Dublin funding operation imploded in January last year and defaulted on its \$225 million of bonds (A6).

Another unusual instance can be seen in the following S 1. This example includes a complex sentence which consists of a main clause and two subordinate clauses, where one of the subordinate clauses is inserted in to another subordinate clause, making the first subordinate clause a superordinate clause.

e.g. (1) The Belfast experience is in sharp contrast to Dublin, where the scheme nom, which does not use identical technology to Belfast, does not suffer from the same levels of theft and vandalism (A7.)

The third unusual example of a complex sentence with subordinate clauses is mentioned in S 1. This example includes a relative finite subordinate clause, which is the first underlined subordinate clause, while the second underlined clause is a nonfinite clause which is positioned at the end of the sentence.

e.g. (1) Wills Brothers, which is based in Co Mayo, declined to respond to a series of detailed questions sent by The Irish Times about the project, which began when they moved into the town in June 2016 to begin preparatory pipe-laying and drainage works (A11).

Additionally, several things were noticed after conducting the analysis of the newspaper *The Irish Times*. According to the categories of newspapers proposed by Tunstall (1996), it is possible to state that *The Irish Times* is a broadsheet newspaper. As it was discussed in the theoretical part, news articles have certain features and they were noticed during the analysis. For example, all of the selected texts dealt with either hard or soft news. In most of the cases, the selected articles dealt with hard news, for instance, political or economic issues, crime and other important topics. However, a few articles were about such

topics as food and film industry. Also, for the most part sentences in the selected texts are fairly complex as it was mentioned by Van Dijk (1988a). Certain articles include more complex sentences, while others have more simple sentence structures.

To summarize the discussed results of the research, the quantitative analysis revealed several conclusions. Longer articles can contain many or only a few complex sentences with subordinate clauses; and the same situation can be observed in shorter articles. This quantitative analysis showed no correlation between the length of a newspaper article and its sentence complexity.

The next analysed property of subordinate clauses was their finiteness or nonfiniteness. It turned out that both finite and nonfinite subordinate clauses can be detected in the corpus; however, no instances of verbless subordinate clauses could be found. The analysis of the corpus suggested that 109 of all 178 subordinate clauses were finite, while 69 were nonfinite. Furthermore, finite and nonfinite subordinate clauses were analysed considering their positioning within a complex sentence with a subordinate clause. The results revealed that out of all 109 instances of finite subordinate clauses, 6 were positioned initially, 55 medially, but 48 – at the end of its superordinate sentence. The same analysis was done concerning nonfinite subordinate clauses, which revealed that 7 nonfinite subordinate clauses were positioned at the end of a sentence, 30 clauses in the middle and 32 at the end of a complex sentence. Summing up the instances of finite and nonfinite subordinate clauses and answering the first research question proposed at the beginning of the analysis, 13 subordinate clauses were found in an initial position, 85 in the middle, while 80 subordinate clauses at the end of the sentence.

The next phase of the analysis tried to answer the second research question and was concerned with the types of subordinating clauses which were detected according to the function they perform in a sentence. Only those subordinate clauses were analysed which were introduced by one of the subordinating conjunctions listed by Quirk et al. (1985). The results revealed that from all of the finite subordinate clauses, 27 were nominal, 38 adverbial, but 44 – relative subordinate finite clauses. The three types of subordinate clauses which were found in the selected corpus also appeared in all three positions in a sentence. However, the analysis revealed that no instances of comparative finite subordinate clauses were found in the selected text.

In short, the answer for the first research question stated at the beginning of the research is that the most common position of a subordinate clause in a sentence is in the middle (85 instances found) or at the end of a superordinate sentence (80 instances found). In addition, the second research question was concerned with the types of subordinate clauses

which can be found in the newspaper *The Irish Times*. To answer the second research question, in most cases the subordinate clauses were relative; however, a considerable number of nominal and adverbial finite subordinate clauses was detected as well.

CONCLUSIONS

The goal of the present paper was to analyse the use of subordinate clauses in the newspaper *The Irish Times*. In order to reach the aim, two research questions were stated: (1) What are the most common positions of subordinate clauses in a sentence? ; (2) What types of subordinate clauses (according to their syntactic functions) are used in the articles of the newspaper *The Irish Times*?

Literature review overviewed different theoretical sources in order to determine the particular usage, types and functions of subordinate clauses as well as relationships between them. It turned out that sentences can be simple, complex and compound. Subsequently, subordinate clauses belong to complex sentences. In addition, subordinate clauses can be positioned in three different places in a sentence, they can be categorized according to their finiteness or according to the function they fulfil in a sentence. Besides, subordinate clauses are normally introduced by a subordinating conjunction.

The empirical part of the research was done from two perspectives: quantitative and qualitative. The quantitative research dealt with detecting sentences with subordinate clauses among other sentences as well calculating their incidence concerning their positions in a sentence and other necessary calculations. Also, the qualitative part of the research was concerned with determining finiteness or nonfiniteness and type of each subordinate clause in the selected corpus.

The first major finding to emerge from this study was that in the selected newspaper articles subordinate clauses were either positioned medially or at the end of its superordinate clause; only a few instances of an initial subordinate clause were detected. The findings of this study also suggest that in the selected corpus the largest number of finite subordinate clauses were relative; however, adverbial finite clauses also accounted a significant number of instances. Finite nominal subordinate clauses were detected in less examples and the corpus did not contain any instances of finite comparative subordinate clauses.

Additionally, two important limitations need to be considered. This research was focused only on the positions and types of adjectives; however, the functions of subordinate clauses as well as each of the types of subordinate clauses could be investigated to a greater extent. Second, this research only analysed a corpus which consisted from 30 newspaper articles from the newspaper *The Irish Times*. The articles differed in length and some of them contained only a few instances of the use of subordinate clauses. Therefore, a more thorough research, which involves more newspaper articles and other aspects of subordinate clauses as the focus of the analysis, could be done in order to get further data. In addition, it would be

interesting to compare the use of subordinate clauses in the newspaper *The Irish Times* with other newspapers.

Further research regarding the use of subordinate clauses in the newspaper *The Irish Times* as well as other newspapers would be of great help in exploring the syntax and its complexity as well as the nature of newspaper discourse.

THESES

1. News or media discourse can be described as the interaction that take place through a spoken or written broadcast platform.
2. Sentences can be either simple, complex or compound. Two of the sentence types, namely compound and complex sentences, can have two kinds of relationship between the clauses of a sentence: coordination and subordination.
3. Subordinate clauses are normally introduced with a subordinating conjunction. Scholars distinguish between three types of subordinating conjunctions: simple, complex and correlative.
4. According to the functions subordinate clauses, it is possible to distinguish between four types of subordinate clauses: nominal, adverbial, relative and correlative.
5. In the articles of the newspaper *The Irish Times*, the use of finite subordinate clauses dominates.
6. Subordinate clauses were either positioned medially or at the end of its superordinate clause; only a few instances of an initial subordinate clause were detected in the selected newspaper articles.
7. The largest number of finite subordinate clauses were relative; however, adverbial finite clauses also accounted a significant number of instances. Finite nominal subordinate clauses were detected in a smaller number of examples and the corpus did not contain any instances of finite comparative subordinate clauses.

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APPENDIX 1

Sentences and clauses in the selected texts

Table 1. Number of sentences and sentences with subordinate clauses in the selected corpus

Article	Number of sentences	Number of sentences with subordinate clauses	Percentage of sentences with subordinate clauses of all sentences
A1	12	3	25%
A2	35	11	31.4%
A3	17	5	29.4%
A4	33	8	24.2%
A5	10	7	70%
A6	13	5	38.5%
A7	18	4	22.2%
A8	14	6	42.9%
A9	28	13	46.4%
A10	24	4	16.7%
A11	15	9	60%
A12	15	3	20%
A13	20	8	40%
A14	25	12	48%
A15	25	3	12%
A16	23	4	17.4%
A17	19	5	26.3%
A18	17	8	47.1%
A19	15	4	26.7%
A20	14	8	57.1%
A21	19	8	42.1%
A22	12	6	50%
A23	31	7	22.6%
A24	11	4	36.4%
A25	10	4	40%
A26	27	4	14.8%

A27	19	3	15.8%
A28	56	7	12.5%
A29	17	7	41.2%
A30	18	2	11.1%
Average:			29.1%

APPENDIX 2

Sample Text Analysis (Article 3)

Milleens, one of the original Irish farmhouse cheeses, is being celebrated on menus across Cork city and county this week in a tribute to its creator, Veronica Steele. Steele, who died in January (medial position, finite, relative), is regarded as a pioneer in the field of Irish cheesemaking, and the washed rind cheese she began making on the Beara peninsula in 1976 is now made by her son Quinlan, who took over production in 2003 (medial position, finite, relative).

A decade after she started making her unique cheese, after a series of experiments with Cheddar, Emmenthal, Port Salut and gorgonzola, Steele wrote: “Milleens is no longer lonely as a cloud but forms a nucleus for the whole new industry in both farmhouse and, dare I say it, factory. A generation of new cheeses has developed in its wake. A dream is being realised.”

Her dream was that “Ireland would have a genuine regional cheese industry to be proud of” and now it does, thanks in no small measure to her foresight and hard work. This week’s Milleens promotion across 18 cafes, restaurants and market stalls is part of the Cork Character Café Series, an initiative led by Ruth Healy, a Fáilte Ireland food champion and owner of Urru Culinary Store in Bandon. It aims to promote Cork food producers through building consumer awareness.

“Cork excels at food production and casual eating. We are growing a community of cafes that personify Cork’s food and hospitality personality (end position, finite, nominal). We tell the Cork food story collectively as well as individually on a daily basis. Our aim is to create more visitor awareness of and ease of access to distinctive Cork regional, casual food experiences,” Healy says.

From today until next Sunday, April 30th, the participating cafes will share their stories and fond memories of Veronica Steele and Milleens cheese, and showcase the cheese in their menus.

Healy’s cafe and delicatessen is offering an open sandwich with Milleens, spiced nuts, wild fruit cheese with piccalilli and spring greens. At the English market in Cork city, the sandwich stall is also selling a sandwich created around the cheese, while the Toonsbridge cafe in Macroom is using it as the centrepiece of a salad (finite, end position, adverbial). Kalbos Café in Skibbereen will be putting a different Milleens dish on the menu every day of the promotion, and at the Stuffed Olive in Bantry it will pop up in cheese and apple scones; Milleens, beetroot and pea tart, and in a smoked salmon and Milleens sandwich.

The cafe at the Stephen Pearce pottery in Shanagarry has Milleens bruschetta with roasted pear and caramelised walnuts on its menu this week, and it will also have pride of place on cheeseboards at Nash 19 in Cork city (where it will be in good company alongside Gubbeen and Ardsallagh) (nominal, medial, finite), Diva Boutique Café in Ballinspittle and Mannings Emporium in Bantry.

Dokumentārā lapa

Bakalaura darbs „Use of Subordinate Clauses in the Newspaper *The Irish Times*” (Pakārtojuma palīgteikumu lietojums laikrakstā *The Irish Times*) izstrādāts LU Humanitāro zinātņu fakultātē.

Ar savu parakstu apliecinu, ka pētījums veikts patstāvīgi, izmantoti tikai tajā norādītie informācijas avoti un iesniegtā darba elektroniskā kopija atbilst izdrukai.

Autors: Anete Trekere

23. 05. 2017.

Rekomendēju/nerekomendēju darbu aizstāvēšanai

Vadītāja: asoc. prof. Monta Farneste

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